RE-INVENTING EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP FOR SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY TRANSFORMATION: LEARNING FROM THE EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP MANAGEMENT AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME OF THE UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE

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ABSTRACT

This study explores educational leadership development and social change strategies pioneered by one programme, the Educational Leadership Management and Development (ELMD) programme of the University of Fort Hare. The programme seeks to model a way of doing social and educational transformation through educational leadership development. Conceptually, the model was meant to draw together a number of education stakeholders operating at various levels of the schooling system to undergo the same programme of leadership development. The programme participants, who included district education officials, schools principals, members of school management teams, educators and members of School Governing Bodies, were to enrol as teams. They would work on learning tasks that were both academic and practical in nature, with an emphasis on experiential learning that leads to the creation of district and community networks of partners, development teams or forums and communities of practice, as well as the production and implementation of district and school development plans.

Informed by this conceptual position, the study was structured by two underlying questions. First, whether the ELMD was re-inventing educational leadership beyond the traditional focus on principalship towards one that is inclusive of other education stakeholders. Second, how leadership development as a vehicle for social and educational change can be carried out. The research process was guided by a multi-paradigm perspective which drew heavily on the interpretive and critical science orientations. This led to the crafting of research methods that looked for data that would assist in an understanding of what was happening in the programme, as well as what power dynamics were at play and with what consequences for innovation.

The evidence emanating from the study suggests a number of possibilities for consideration by future leadership development programme designers. First, the ELMD programme delivery design shows what can be done to draw

participants from various levels of the schooling system, district, school and community and teach them educational leadership together in a mode that mobilizes them for change. Second, how social distance separating different levels of the education hierarchy and status consciousness may disappear gradually as people are brought together to work on tasks of mutual concern. Third, after a year of engagement with ELMD ideas and approach, the participants in the programme appeared to have started a journey of self-transformation towards becoming qualitatively different people who saw themselves as teams capable of tackling education and social problems in their schools and communities. These participants had begun to forge working networks, but the extent to which these could be characterized as knowledge ecosystems and communities of practice remains a question to explore. Fourth, that the current higher education accreditation policies and practices do not accommodate innovative learning approaches of the kind that the ELMD is developing. In this regard, the ELMD experienced difficulties in coming up with an assessment policy and practices which meet the academic as well as the practical developmental concerns of the programme. Fifth, programme instrumentalities and mandates that are put in place do not, in themselves, bring about change. The actual change comes about through the actions of human leadership capable of navigating between structural enablers and constraints.

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Some four years ago, I was privileged to come to work closely with one of the most outstanding yet most modest scholars and creative thinkers I have ever met. This was Mr. Nhlanganiso Dladla, who was Dean of the Faculty of Management, Development and Commerce under which the School of Education of the University of Fort Hare fell. He and I used to discuss education and development regularly, and we also participated in a number of education development initiatives in the Eastern Cape. During the course of these interactions, we noticed a number of development projects, some of which were very promising but which somehow never seemed to result in sustainable impact. Associated with this problem was the fact that the initiatives were glaringly unintegrated, a fact that led to apparent duplication of efforts and/or pursuit of initiatives in narrow compartmentalized bits. To our minds, a critical missing link was educational leadership. We then started designing a project that would see leadership shared across different levels of the schooling system. An interesting point to note was that each of us would discuss then go away to write sections of the proposal separately, yet when we came together the ideas gelled in remarkable ways. Meeting to discuss our respective contributions was always very enriching, as Nhlanganiso's insights were always a source of intellectual stimulation and inspiration. In this regard, I am indebted to Nhlanganiso's intellectual prowess.

So inspired was I that, as the ELMD project was being planned for implementation on a pilot basis, I declared my interests in studying this new venture deeply in a systematic way as a project for a PhD thesis.

Over the last three years I have been working on this study, and have been humbled by the contributions of a number of the people I have worked with in crafting this innovation. These include the writers of modules, University of Fort Hare Faculty, ELMD team members, and not least the programme coordinator, Mr. Takawira Gwarinda, and Professor Misheck Matshazi, who

were always open with me whenever I discussed ELMD issues related to my thesis. Special mention must go to the first cohort of ELMD participants consisting of education officials, school principals, educators and members of the School Governing Bodies of the participating schools.

None of my work, however, would have stood the test of time, were it not for the critical yet constructive mentorship of my supervisor, Professor Hennie van der Mescht. The professor came across as an experienced academic who helped me grow. His style of supervision built a confidence in me that I think will help me through any tough assignment for the rest of my life.

Last but not least, I would like to dedicate this thesis to my three children, Mlondile, the youngest, Eshwama, the middle one, and Sifundisise, the eldest. They put up with my many hours of work when I locked myself in my study, when I could have spent quality family time with them.

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ACRONYMS

ACE	Advanced Certificate in Education
B Ed (Hons)	Bachelor of Education (Honours)
CEPD	Centre for Education Policy, Development, Evaluation and Management
CHE	Council on Higher Education
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
DDSP	District Development Support Programme
DOE	Department of Education
DFID	Department for International Development
DST	District Support Team
ECDoE	Eastern Cape Department of Education
EDO	Education Development Officer
ELMD	Educational Leadership Management and Development
EMD	Education Management Development
EMDIS	Education Management Development Information System
EMIS	Education Management Information System
ETDP-SETA	Education Training and Development Practices–Sector Education and Training Authority
HEQC	Higher Education Quality Committee
HOD	Head of Department
KE	Knowledge Ecology
KM	Knowledge Management
M Ed	Master of Education
NQF	National Qualification Framework
OBE	Outcomes Based Education
PAR	Participatory Action Research
PGCE	Post-Graduate Certificate in Education
PBI	Practice-Based Inquiry
POSDCoRB	Planning, Organizing, Staffing, Directing, Coordinating, Reporting and Budgeting
SAQA	South African Qualification Authority
SASA	South African Schools Act, 1996
SD	Standard Deviation
SGB	School Governing Body
SGB	Standards Generating Body
SMT	School Management Team
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
USAID	United States Agency for International Development

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CHAPTER 1

1. Introduction

This chapter introduces the study. It starts by setting the context, then moves on to outline the focus of the study and my personal motivation in undertaking it. Next, I identify the research questions and the goals of the study. The research methodology is then outlined, covering such critical issues as research design, my position in the research process and the site of the study. I end by giving a brief overview of the other chapters.

1.1 The Context of the Research

Following the overthrow of apartheid in South Africa, a number of efforts have been made, aimed at transforming society through education. New goals of access, equity, redress, quality, efficiency and democracy have been articulated at national level to reform all aspects of the education system (Centre for Education Policy Development, Evaluation and Management [CEPD] 2000:4). Within this context, the past decade has seen a growing globalized focus on educational change. These have been variously referred to as "restructuring", "school reform", "school effectiveness", "school improvement", "transformation of the schooling system", and others. Dimmock (2002) has argued that all of these can be subsumed under a generic term that describes the many varied change situations at systemic and school levels, namely, "restructuring".

Educational change as restructuring has been based on the belief that for the most part the changes in the schooling system occur at levels beyond the classroom and the day-to-day experiences of learners. According to this line of thinking, changing the schooling system has to do mainly with realigning relationships at system and stakeholder levels. In the South African context, it has been argued that restructuring in the schooling system takes place against the background of an education system that was traumatized by years of apartheid rule where "…relationships between communities and schools,

parents and teachers, pupil and principals, principals and officials have been polarized" (McLennan 1997:47). It is for this reason that restructuring has tended to focus on a stakeholder model where there is an emphasis on relationship building among various stakeholders, with a focus on such approaches as governance of the system rather than control; facilitation of processes; participation and communication; collaboration; and negotiation rather than rule compliance, among others.

The perspective on change described here lays emphasis on initiatives that recognize interdependencies between key constituencies and role-players in the sector and beyond. These have been encapsulated in increasingly fashionable concepts such as *whole school*, *whole community* and – more recently – *whole district* development concerns (Patel 2001). The idea of wholeness connotes notions of system and interdependence much like the biological concept of an ecosystem. The study interrogates these concepts and examines *how* they can be achieved.

1.2 Focus of the Study

Within this context, the study focuses on a new leadership development programme that

> seeks to promote integrated whole school and whole district development through the development and nurturing of leadership and management skills, as well as the cultivation of a change-activist consciousness in education organizations and stakeholder communities (Dladla and Moyo 2002:2).

The ultimate goal of the programme is to impact on learning and teaching, as well as improve learner outcomes in schools.

The field of educational leadership is crucial in a number of respects. First, it is generally assumed that ideas of *whole school* and *whole district* transformation are achieved through the catalyst of leadership. Yet there is little understanding of what kind of leadership achieves this and how it

actually happens. In evaluating the Imbewu Education Management Development (EMD) training in the Eastern Cape, Scholar (2001) argues that while principals felt empowered, they were not able to translate the rhetoric into meaningful statements about actual skills they had learned. While EMD training put emphasis on hands-on leadership and management training of principals, there was hardly any attempt to develop other stakeholder educational leaders. Scholar's point also raises another issue related to question of how theoretical knowledge and leadership skills are translated into practice.

The second main reason that warrants a focus on educational leadership is that it has been identified as one of the areas of professional development need in the South African schooling system (Department of Education 1996; Prew 2003; Roberts 2001). In 1996, the National Department of Education in South Africa commissioned a ministerial task team to make proposals for developing, refining and institutionalizing a new approach to education management that arises from the post-apartheid provisions for education and governance. This, among other things, meant a move away from the technical administrative functions of education managers of *planning*, *organizing*, *guiding* and *controlling*, towards ***governance*** and ***leadership*** (Department of Education 1996:15). The semantic debates between management, leadership and governance are explored in Chapter 2. For now, the important point is that the Task Team's work was in the field of educational leadership and that this field was one of the major areas of change focus of the new post-apartheid government.

The third reason for the focus on educational leadership relates to the national concern about the need for leadership development. National Government has placed a premium on leadership as demonstrated by the state's funding of the parastatal organization, the Education Training and Development Practices–Sector Education Training Authority (ETDP-SETA). The ETDP-SETA has identified educational leadership as one of the key skills areas for which

learnerships are to be developed in order to promote organizational transformation.

The fourth reason that shows the importance of leadership in South Africa is that the South African Qualification Authority (SAQA) has, in 2002, established and registered a Standards Generating Body (SGB) for Education Management and Leadership. The SGB's mandate was to develop standards for the qualifications of educators of the schooling sector, which comprise school management teams, principals and education officials.[1] The inclusive nature of educational leadership as part of the terms of reference of the newly established SGB is also a perspective I focus on in this study.

Following on the above, while the importance of educational leadership is clear, the same cannot be said of what it actually means. Leadership, as Leigh (1994:12) has argued, is a sophisticated concept with many different definitions. In an attempt to advance the notion further, Lambert *et al.* (2002:42-57) propose a new conception of the term. They contend that the problem with most definitions of leadership is that they do not distinguish between *leader* and *leadership*. For Lambert and colleagues, leadership is a concept that transcends individuals, roles and behaviours. By ascribing leadership roles and functions to leaders, leadership actions are reduced to individuals, whereas anyone can play a leadership role, depending on circumstances. Within this conceptualization, they argue that anyone in the educational community – teachers, administrators, parents, students – can engage in leadership *actions.* At the heart of their definition is the notion that adult participants in an educational community can work together to construct meanings and knowledge that can be translated into actions that can be used to transform education organizations and communities. This "new perspectives" definition is called *constructivist leadership*, where *participantship* rather than followership is the buzzword. In Chapter 2, I explore this controversy in

[1] Communication attached to letter of appointment of Professor Hennie van der Mescht as an SGB member.

greater detail. Closely allied to the constructivist leadership of Lambert *et al*., are other perspectives on *shared* and *collaborative* or *distributed* leadership (Harris 2003).

Related to the ideas of inclusive leadership is an emerging literature on *educating for leadership justice* from a number of leadership perspectives and disciplines. Writing in this frame of reasoning, Cochran-Smith (1999:147) argues that

> …educational leadership – in all its dramatically different forms – is inescapably value-oriented and political in nature. In this sense… educational leadership and educational leaders (whether teachers, administrators, consultants, community groups, teacher educators…parents, researchers, policy makers or others) as knowers, as activists and as agents in their individual and collective efforts to work for social change.

From Cochran-Smith's statement, it can be seen that educational leadership is broadly conceived to encompass stakeholders beyond the principal and school-based practitioners. Viewing educational leadership in this way lays the foundation for sharing, collaborating and distributing the work of leadership. However, such collaboration is guided by values. Some commentators (Miron 1996, cited in Brown 2004:81) have characterized leadership as "the enactment of values." This means that the work of leadership cannot be understood outside of the value orientation of those doing the work of leadership. The emphasis of the emerging literature (Marshall 2004; Brown 2004; Furman and Gruenewald 2004; Shields 2004)[2] in this respect is on challenging the field of educational administration to produce leaders who values show not only a committed to social justice but also who work towards achieving it. Furman and Gruenewald's (2004) review of definitions of social justice is framed in terms of a critique of what is seen as unjust social inequalities. In the South African situation, the post-apartheid educational policy goals of redress, equity, access and quality can be

[2] These writers were all contributors to the Special Issue of the Educational Administration Quarterly focusing on *Leadership for Social Justice.*

seen as recognition of the need to correct the injustices of the past. It can be argued that it is difficult to achieve these goals without appropriately orientated leadership.

There is therefore a need to develop leadership preparation programmes deliberately designed to address social inequality. According to the social justice perspective, leadership development programmes must not simply be intended to offer paper qualifications. They must produce leaders who are change activists. This is in line with the ELMD thinking that the primary aim of the programme is development rather than qualification. This issue is discussed in Chapters 5 and 6.

From the new perspectives of educational leadership and the emphasis on social change and transformation, there is a sense in which this field is being re-invented. Although my focus is on the development of collaborative and distributed leadership for school and community transformation, the educational leadership for social justice is a normative framework for undertaking the study. I explore these ideas in detail in Chapter 2 and 3. For now, it may be useful to trace the origins of this study.

1.3 Personal Motivation for the Study

It has been argued that the choice of what to study and, therefore, what sources to consult is a subjective act based on individual motivation. My choice of the field of educational leadership as well as associated issues of social change reflect my belief, as an educationist, in the power of education to make a contribution to change from an unequal and unjust society to one that is equitable and just. I have often grappled with the question of whether change comes from within individuals or from outside. Individually initiated change assumes an active being who believes that he or she is in control of his or her life. In apartheid South Africa, it cannot be said the majority of disempowered and disenfranchised people felt in control. They needed leadership to help them perceive that things can be different and will improve

– a stance that will then induce collective action. Or is collective action spontaneous? My problem with spontaneity is that it is difficult to explain: indeed, it is almost imperceptible.

Another major factor in my interest in educational leadership for change has been the influence of my academic background and practical experience as an educator and education official at provincial level. In my working life, I have observed that some of the best leaders in education had not received any formal training in leadership and that some well-trained leaders, in terms of paper qualifications, are some of the worst leaders around. Indeed, even outside of education, some of the greatest leaders to have led social movements that brought about change were not necessarily trained in leadership. This raises an age-old question as to whether leaders are made or born. My academic training has helped me to analyze and come to some understanding of this problem. Related to this point, and within the sphere of academic and social life, is my long time fascination by what Christians (2000) calls the "dualisms" of the enlightenment, chief among which are subject/object, agency/structure and theory/practice.

With regard to subject/object, I have read works by classical Marxists who dichotomized the subject and object of change. One perspective in the perceived dichotomy between subject and object is that the oppressed are seen as objects of change in the sense that "experts" saw the oppressed as deficient and disempowered and in need of emancipation. Seen in this way, the "liberators" are the subjects and those being "liberated" are objects. However, as I explored these ideas more deeply, I shifted my position away from what was essentially a deficit model towards seeing the disempowered as both subjects and objects of their own emancipation. Viewed this way, the issue becomes one of building a critical mass of actors or subjects who take action to change their circumstances. In other words, the issue of capacity building becomes central in this respect. The concern to build leadership capacity within an organization and community is a thread that runs through this study.

The second dichotomy is related to that of agency and structure. In my early years as an undergraduate I was motivated by the work of the great sociologist Max Weber (Noble 2000; Beilharz 1991) who put forward an idea of a voluntaristic individual capable of taking meaningful social action to change his/her circumstances. In other words, for Weber, the emphasis was on internal processes of the acting individual in relation to external environment. The "external" here refers to society or a structural context such as the social relationships, policies, rules and regulations that govern the lives of individual agents. The gist of the debate in terms of my interest in social change had to do with the vexing question of social determinism versus individualization. Later sociologists within the Weberian tradition took the argument further and attempted to reconcile the agency/structure debate, for example, Anthony Giddens (Ross 1991), when he put forward his argument that society makes the individual and in turn, the individual makes society. This study, as can be seen in Chapters 5 and 6, has given me further light in terms of this debate, in two respects. One is that change agency can be traced both to individual and collective leadership action. The other is that there are aspects of structure that can be seen as enabling change to take place and other aspects as constraining change. The challenge then is what kind of leadership knowledge and skills as well as what leadership capacity are capable of navigating their way around structural enablers and constraints to achieve desired results.

Related to the issue of what people know and do is my third academic preoccupation, which concerned the theory/practice duality. In this connection, one of my favourite writers was Maurice Cornforth (1976) in the series *Dialectical Materialism: Theory of Knowledge.* In Volume 3 of the series, Cornforth argues that knowledge or theory comes from practice. For Cornforth, we gain knowledge by working out ideas arising out of problems of practice and we test our knowledge step-by-step and thus establish knowledge by reference to the fulfillment or non-fulfillment of our

expectations of practice. Cornforth goes on to outline three phases of the knowledge development cycle.

> (1) Social practice, the development of production and of social relationships, setting problems for theoretical solution.
> (2) The elaboration of theories arising from those problems, based on the available experience, and the logical working out of those theories.
> (3) The application of those theories in social practice, testing, verifying and correcting them in the process of putting them to use (Cornforth 1976: 155).

Cornforth's three-phase knowledge development process raised a nagging question regarding knowledge from books that does not arise out of the reader's practical experience – the question of whether this is in fact knowledge at all. This question is implied in my outline of acknowledgements where I and my colleague Nhlanganiso were concerned with why it seemed training interventions did not make a difference in our eyes. The answer perhaps lies in combining theory with practice. Some writers (Osterman and Kottkamp 1994; Kolb and Fry 1975) have referred to combining theory with practice as *experiential learning.* I have drawn on these concepts both as co-designer of the ELMD and in studying the programme. Underlying Part 2 (Chapter 3) of the literature review is the theory/practice debate as well as approaches to training, especially of leaders, that are based on experiential learning. The practical expressions or lack of these ideas in practice within the South African context, are found in the empirical evidence gathered from the study of the ELMD, the results of which are presented in Chapter 5 and discussed in Chapter 6.

The sum total of my motivation, therefore, revolves around issues related to individuals within a given society gaining knowledge, not for its own sake, but in order to change their circumstances. In the post-South African former homeland (site of the study) situation, this means circumstances of deprivation and social inequality and change means striving towards social justice by working to eliminate those inequalities. The catalyst for that change is leadership but the question is *What kind of leadership should be produced for*

what can be seen as a historic mission of a people to achieve social justice as defined by the post-apartheid educational goals of transformation?

1.4 Identifying the Research Questions

Given the apparent shift in leadership paradigms from one characterized by hierarchical and bureaucratic leadership, during the apartheid years, towards one which emphasizes democratic, participatory and social justice oriented leadership in post-apartheid South Africa, and given the fact that leadership development has traditionally taken place within and for hierarchically and bureaucratically oriented organizations (see Chapter 2), the first research question is: **how is leadership developed for non-hierarchically oriented and change oriented or learning organizations**? Related to this question is another: **how do *whole schools* and *whole communities* change through educational leadership development?** These key questions are set against the conceptions of educational leadership as they are presented in literature.

To answer these questions I carried out this study with three goals in mind.

1.4 The Goals of the Research

- To investigate how educational leadership is conceived and practised in literature.
- To learn from one leadership development programme how education, through leadership, can be seen as a vehicle for school and community transformation.
- To examine ways in which knowledge of leadership ideas, skills and values are translated into leadership actions.

To achieve these goals I designed a research project on the basis of my assumptions about reality as well as about knowledge and its production. I clarify these in the section on methodology.

1.5 The Methodology

Harvey (1990:1) views methodology as the interface between methodic practice, substantive theory and epistemological underpinnings. One implication of this is that, in order to develop a methodology that is consistent with the research goals and questions or indeed in order to formulate them, it is useful to clarify the researcher's position with regard to the ontological and epistemological issues that underpin the research process. Van Rensburg (2001), Guba and Lincoln (2000), Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) and Connole (1993) give a summary of alternative research paradigms, covering positivism, interpretivism and critical science, that provided a working philosophical framework for this study. In Chapter 4, I assess each paradigm in terms of its underlying assumptions and beliefs about *The Purpose of Research, Nature of Reality (ontology), Nature of Knowledge (epistemology), Relationship between Knower and the Known* and *Role of Values in Research.*

In working through the above conceptualizations, I came to the conclusion that for each of the assumptions and beliefs, there is a great deal of complementarity between the interpretive and critical science paradigms. With regard to the purpose of research, for instance, researchers in both perspectives concern themselves with understanding social phenomena. However, critical science goes further to promote equity and the emancipation of people. As Kemmis notes, one of the fundamental starting points for educational research, which is informed by critical theory, is that research is *for* rather than *about* education (Kemmis *Ibid*:155). According to this point of view, the aim of critical educational research is to transform educational theory and practice. Thus, whereas positivist researchers may view educational reform and transformation as technical and those of the interpretive persuasion see it as practical, critical theory researchers contend that educational reform and transformation are part of an integrated participatory and collaborative research process designed to empower those *in* education to bring about change (Kemmis 1993:156). In other words,

research informed by this orientation is undertaken to advance social justice or to fight injustice in the form of state sponsored inequality, exclusion and discrimination as was the case in apartheid South African society. I return to the notion of social justice as it relates to leadership below.

On the nature of reality, the ontological positions of the interpretivists and critical scientists assume reality to be multiple, constructed, holistic and divergent. For critical theorists, in constructing reality, such issues as equity and hegemony within the social and economic spheres of life are always embedded. According to this classification, whereas both interpretivists and critical scientists view knowledge as socially constructed and context bound, they differ on the purpose of that knowledge. The former is silent on the issue while the latter argues that the purpose of research is not merely to construct knowledge but to use it to change the social and material conditions of life as indicated above. For the purposes of this study, a multiparadigm approach, drawing on insights from interpretivist, critical theory, postmodern and feminist perspectives was used. However, inquiry was primarily situated in the cross-cutting issues between the critical science and interpretive paradigms. The justification for this, as pointed out by Capper (1993), is that each paradigm has limitations and the other paradigms can ameliorate some of these. It also serves as a way of valuing multiple ways of viewing a phenomenon from differing epistemologies.

1.5.1 The Research Design

With the above philosophical positions in mind - the core research questions which focus on the *how*, and the research goals which seek to *explain* how educational leadership is conceptualized as well as how different conceptualizations lead to particular leadership development practices - I set about the design of the study (see Chapter 4). Drawing on the work of Yin (2003) and Gillham (2000), I concluded that the study lent itself to a case study, designed with due consideration of Denscombe's (2002) ground rules for good research. These rules are based on generally agreed assumptions by

the research community about what constitutes good research on matters covering the *purpose, relevance, resources, originality, accuracy, accountability, generalisability, objectivity, ethics and proof.* All of these are discussed in the methodology chapter.

In settling for a case study, I was not only influenced by the nature of the research questions. I was also in pursuit of one of the goals of the research, which was to *learn* how the practice of a leadership preparation programme can be a vehicle for social change. My intention was to learn from the single case, the ELMD. Stake (2000:436) argues that a case study must be designed to "optimize understanding of the case rather than generalization beyond."

However, in undertaking the case study approach, I was aware of lack of agreement on a number of methodological issues that arise out of differences in views about the purpose and nature of case study. Gromm, Hammersley and Foster (2000: 5 - 6) have argued that these include questions of whether the results are generalizable or usable by others. As my aim was to learn, I hope the findings will be used by future leadership development programme designers and implementers. The other issue has to do with causality or narration of events. Part of my aim was the latter, so that future intakes of the ELMD could learn from what went on in year one of the programme. The third issue concerns authenticity and authority. It has been argued that a case study can capture the unique character of a case being studied, where the concern is not typicality but rather, to represent it authentically in its own terms. In studying the ELMD as a case, I have endeavoured to understand and interpret what happened during year one in terms of the consistency and authenticity of what the programme set out to do, as a way of representing it as accurately as possible. The idea of accuracy, as seen above, is one of the ground rules for good research.

1.5.2 My Position in the Research Process

The ground rules for doing good research were particularly helpful to me in resolving the ambivalent position in which I found myself in this study. Right from the outset, I was conscious of my dual role in the research process as *researcher* and *leadership developer*, responsible not only for the co-conceptualization of the ELMD but also facilitator of one course (research methods) as well as participating in think-tank and brainstorming sessions designed to craft a new and social change oriented educational leadership development programme.

As researcher, I declared my interest, even before the programme was launched, in participating in the ELMD as a project for my doctoral research. This declaration ensured that all the insider information I used in the research was not by deception but was known to assist my research agenda as well as the advancement of the new programme. My awareness of my ethical position (see Chapter 4) also enabled me to directly examine contemporary events as they occurred. This is another feature that I think promoted the accuracy of my interpretation of what I was studying. Finally, as I had access to a variety of evidence, it made my case study rich. As Yin (2003) has pointed out, one of the strengths of a case study is its ability to deal with many sources of evidence "documents, artifacts, interviews, and observations – beyond what might be available in a conventional historical study" (p. 8). This research utilized a variety of data sources, a point that helped me understand the ELMD from a number of angles. In Chapter 4, I characterize this phenomenon as crystallization.

As a leadership developer who was also a researcher, I was able to exercise reflexivity and inquire into my practice. In Chapter 4, I discuss the idea of reflexive methodology in greater detail. For the moment, it is important to emphasize the idea of reflective practice as a form of praxis, where inquiry leads into generation of new knowledge, which in turn is used to improve practice. I experienced this during the course of my researcher/developer

participation in the ELMD. In the process of my participation, I routinely probed into ELMD conceptual and roll-out plan issues, which helped highlight and, in some cases, clarify issues. This stance helped address the potential ethical dilemma arising out of my position because both the programme and myself stood to benefit from my dual role. My full ethical statement is in Chapter 4.

1.5.3 Site of the Study

The research was a case study of one leadership development programme located in the Eastern Province of South Africa. The programme drew participants from four pilot districts, three of which were in poor former homelands where there were a number of challenges that had been the focus of many development initiatives over the last decade.

1.6 Outline of the Study

The study consists of seven chapters, including this one. Chapter 2 is the first part of literature review. This is followed by Chapter 3, which gives part two of the literature review. The first part focuses on evolving conceptions of educational leadership and the second on leadership development.

Chapter 4 outlines the methodology and research approach. It gives the grounds and justification for carrying out the research the way I did.

Chapter 5 presents findings of the research. As the data were collected used a variety of data collection methods, a map for reading the result is also provided.

Chapter 6 reflects on the data and draws salient issues and meanings from them.

The last chapter, Chapter 7, gives a summary of the whole study, conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER 2:

Review of Literature Part 1:

Educational Leadership & Leadership Development

2. Introduction

A literature search on the phenomenon of educational leadership reveals a field on which a great deal has been written. The literature also shows that leadership is a concept that is receiving increasing attention in both theory and practice as evidenced by universities, colleges, non-governmental organizations as well as government education departments investing huge resources in leadership development programmes. Yet, "…we [still] know little about the realities and possibilities for leaders, leading and leadership in educational settings" (Gunter 2001:1). Looked at it in another way, there is need to investigate if, and how, educational leadership contributes to the central mission of schooling, better teaching and leaning. My central question is: what perspectives guide the design and practice of leadership development programmes and what are the underlying assumptions? Further, there are two sets of compounding issues to this problem. One is the semantic ambiguity around the terms *leadership*, *management* and *administration.* The other is related to the fact that leadership concepts, are seen to originate from the corporate world, leading to questions concerning their applicability to education (Bush and West-Burnham 1994). In discussing these issues, I will show that the evolution of the theory and practice of leadership is associated with changes in organizational theory.

The literature review is divided into two parts. The main purpose of this chapter, which is Part I of the review, is twofold. First, it is to situate the theory and practice of leadership within an analytical framework and context. Second, to understand leadership through an exploration of the evolution of the way it has been conceived and practiced in modern history to the present

day. From this, extract key issues of relevance to leadership development and educational transformation. The chapter is divided into four sections, the first, covering the analytical framework and context; the second, the evolution of theory and practice; the third, new conceptions of educational leadership and, the fourth, emerging issues and their implications for leadership development.

2.1 The Context

Following the overthrow of apartheid in South Africa, a number of efforts have been made aimed at transforming society through education. New goals consistent with the new democratic order have been articulated at national level to transform all aspects of the education system. Within this context, the last decade has seen a growing focus on reform initiatives encompassing a number of objectives which comprise *administrative restructuring*, *equity and redress*, *democratic governance* and *curriculum reform* (Fleisch 2002:1). Mobilization of resources, human and material, designed to achieve these goals has been justified around the discourse of transformation, delivered mainly through projects funded by international aid agencies. This trend has given rise to the tendency to conceive and practice educational reform in terms of globalized approaches, prompting some practitioners (Ndlovu 2000) to viewed this development with skepticism, warning that the approaches become fashionable global discourses on education change to which the locals have to adapt or perish. Castles (2000:1), however, adds a rider that the discourse of transformation should be seen as an antithesis of the phenomenon of globalization. He argues that social transformation is both an integral part of globalization and process that undermines it. To follow this argument, it is important to outline briefly the phenomena of globalization and then transformation.

2.1.1 Globalization

Globalization is a much talked about modern day phenomenon that has manifested itself in virtually every facet of life around the world. Held *et al.* (1999 cited in Castles 2000:7) view globalization as "…the widening,

deepening and speeding up of world interconnectedness in all aspects of contemporary social life, from the cultural to the criminal, the financial to the spiritual." The idea of *interconnectedness* is key to the understanding of the phenomenon. Hallak (1998:5-6) has argued that this interconnectedness has manifested itself in three main consequences on social organization:

1. *The geo-political dimension*: This set of consequences has been observed in flows of trade, investment and labour crossing the globe, resulting in fluidity of boundaries and borders losing strength. In field of education, policies seem to "depend heavily on world economic situation global tendencies and market needs." The prevalence of corporate ethos in education, as will be seen below, is one example of this tendency. As will also be seen, of particular relevance in this study are global flows of ideas and terms such as *school effectiveness*, *school improvement*, with associated concepts of *whole district* and *whole school* transformation, which have constituted the discourse of educational restructuring across the world, including South Africa's Eastern Cape through donor-funded western aid agencies.
2. *The cultural dimension*: Two contradictory processes have been identified as characterizing this dimension – "standardization" and "diversification". The former is seen to produce similarities in the living conditions of society, for example, clothes, eating habits, lifestyles, languages and other cultural habits. Education as a vehicle for cultural transmission is no exception. Global curricular frameworks such as Outcomes Based Education (OBE) provide such an example. On the other hand, diversification, Hallak argued, is a manifestation of resistance against standardization to preserve identities and rights of the less powerful. In this way globalization tends to encourage the emergence of isolated societies that take refuge in traditional or local, regional, ethnic or religious groups. This, in turn, preserves multiple facets of society and thus promotes access to the diverse features of the world heritage. The

point here is that although cultural globalization may appear overwhelming, its impact is never total.

3. *Segmentation of countries and societies*: Three types of players are identified in this respect: "those who globalize", control capital, resources, knowledge and information, while "those who are globalized" are basically consumers of products produced by the globalizers. Developing countries such as South Africa fall into this second category, as can be seen by a proliferation of global concepts and strategies for educational change originating from the western world that are "consumed" locally. Then there are those who are said to be "outside of globalization". Perhaps many of these are found in the so-called historically disadvantaged deep rural areas of South Africa. They are seen to have little or no access to global information and knowledge "…with little absorptive capacity as consumers and no relevance to production" (p. 7). They do have their own knowledge systems, however, which are, as yet, largely untapped.

Although globalization can be seen as the central driving force behind major economic, cultural, social and political changes affecting the world's people today, it has also been seen as *transformative.* As Castles (2000:9) has argued, by integrating virtually all countries into larger global systems, globalization brings about social transformations at all levels, including education.

2.1.2 Education Transformation

In post-apartheid South Africa, education transformation goals discussed in a number of works (CEPD 2000, 2001, 2002; Fleisch 2002) all show that there have been numerous efforts aimed at restructuring virtually all aspects of the education system. With regard to management and leadership, which is the focus of this study, one of the early works, which appeared two years after the attainment of democracy, was the Department of Education's Task Team on Education Management Development (EMD). The Task Team argued that

"education management development is the key to transformation in education" (DoE 1996:8). This view is aptly captured by the title theme of the Task Team Report "Changing Management in order to Manage Change in Education". More recently, and from the point of view of policy imperatives, the National Department of Education Implementation Plan for Tirisano: January 2000 – December 2004 lays out two strategic objectives on leadership and management. These are:

- To ensure that all schools have the leadership and management with the vision and sense of purpose to promote and enhance learning and teaching.
- To facilitate the establishment of a leadership development and management training programme for school management teams. (DoE Tirisano Plan)

The problem is that these mandates assume that there is a shared understanding of what is meant by leadership and management. Another problem is that the plan focuses on leadership and management at school level and does not outline clear goals and targets for situating it within the context in which the school is operating, for example at district level. Global transformation approaches, as will be discussed below, lay emphasis on a holistic outlook and contextual factors. In terms of the conceptualizing the transformation agenda in the education sector, there is a need to understand the organizational frameworks in which these agendas are framed.

2.1.2.1 Organizational Transformation

The plethora of education policies that are aimed at transformation have tended to focus on systemic or organizational level change and to overlook the role played by human agency. However, the Task Team Report depicted the human agency at the centre of any transformation project when they state that

> The task of transformation is greater than reconstructing the systems and structures which sustain any society. It requires a fundamental shift in attitudes, the way people relate to each other and their

> environment, and in the way resources are deployed to achieve society's goals (Department of Education 1996:11).

Over the years, however, this realization has tended to fade as the post-apartheid state has continued to "pump" a barrage of policies into the system. Two key ideas can be extracted from this quotation. One is that transformation must move beyond restructuring systems and structures. The other is that it requires a change in people's worldviews and the way they behave. It is about people taking action to make a difference in their lives. In other words, the reform policy initiatives introduced by the post-apartheid government constitutes only one side of the equation. The other side concerns what happens to transformation policy mandates when they "hit" people in education organizations within the education system.

To explore this idea further, Sergiovanni's (2000) line of thinking is useful. Sergiovanni puts forward the concepts of *lifeworld* and *systemsworld*. He argues that the lifeworld of a school consists of culture, meaning and significance while the systemsworld comprises instrumentalities, management systems, mandates, etc. For Sergiovanni, it will not be possible to transform schools, nor, I add, an education organization such as the district, if the "…lifeworlds…are ignored" (*Ibid.* p. vii). According to Sergiovanni, school transformation is about paying attention to how parents, teachers and students define and experience meaning. However, while the lifeworld is seen to be at the centre of the transformation project, it is equally important not to ignore the systemsworld. Sergiovanni (2000:1) stresses the need for achieving mutuality between the lifeworld and the systemsworld as there is a dialectical relationship between them. Following this view, I have depicted this idea in Figure 1, below.

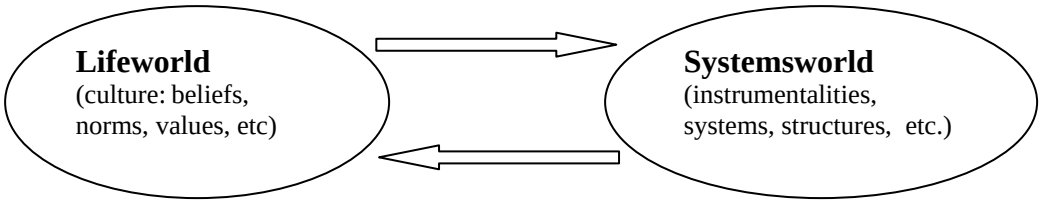


Figure1: Model of Education Organization Transformation

As indicated above, available evidence in the South African context (CEPD 2000, CEPD 2001, CEPD 2002, Moyo 2003) shows that much progress, in terms of transformation policy initiatives, has been achieved with regard to the systemsworld and very little on the lifeworld side of the equation. Paying due attention to the lifeworld, as Sergiovanni (2000) has argued, is about "getting the culture right", an idea that links leadership with culture creation. As Hargreaves argues, "Culture carries the community's historically generated and collectively shared solutions…. It forms a framework for occupational learning" (Hargreaves 1994 quoted in Crowther, Hann and McMaster 2001:3-4). Crowther *et al*. go on to illustrate the notion of leadership as culture building, an idea seen as exemplified by Catholic education. Crowther *et al.* argue that the Christian message transmitted through Catholic education represents a "spirit of leadership", an attribute that was seen to enhance effectiveness and learner performance.

In similar vein, Fullan (2002) argues that enduring or sustainable change and capacity to change come from leadership that sees the bigger picture, moves beyond performance standards and, through people, engages in reculturing the organization. He writes that:

> Reculturing is name of the game. Much change is structural and superficial. Transforming culture – changing what people in the organization value and how they work together to accomplish it – leads to deep lasting change…. There is no step-by-step shortcut to transformation; it involves the hard, day-to-day work of reculturing (Fullan 2002:3).

Within the South African context, this idea is "in sync" with the Eastern Cape Department of Education's Imbewu 1 Model for school development and

transformation. Transformation, according to Imbewu, begins from within. It must of necessity begin by changing individuals.

> …we begin the school transformation process by looking at each individual, and by searching for ways to enable them to grow a collective spirit that would reshape the culture, invigorate the atmosphere and redefine relations at the school (Eastern Cape Department of Education, Imbewu Project 2000:3).

Given this thrust, and if educational leadership is to take its place as the key driver of transformation, the process must reside in and be spearheaded by people. How this works out in practice is the interest of this study, in terms of discourses, concepts and practices in real life situations. Empirical data to address this question will come from examples derived from an examination the ELMD experience.

2.1.3 Holistic Approaches to Transformation

Education transformation projects, such as the USAID funded District Development Support Programme (DDSP) known as the Isithole Project, and the DFID funded Imbewu School Improvement Project, have over the last five years positioned themselves as among major partners of the Eastern Cape Department of Education working with it towards the achievement of education transformation goals. The two projects have defined their approach as *holistic* in nature, believing that enduring transformation can only be realized through improvement at school and district levels, and indeed, all levels of the education system. The importance of holistic approaches to educational transformation, especially school innovation has been demonstrated by research elsewhere. Crowther *et al*. (2001:5) have argued that holistic factors such as "…shared beliefs, clear vision, effective processes of professional learning, external support systems, restructured work environment…and an emphasis on pedagogical principles" are some of the key factors contributing to successful innovations. Project documents of the two projects give detailed conceptualizations of holistic approaches using notions of *Whole District* and *Whole School* transformation.

2.1.3.1 Whole District Transformation

The DDSP in South Africa has crafted its reform support programme around the idea of whole district transformation. The DDSP put forward a strong argument for helping the education district develop into a nexus for school improvement, arguing that

> …the subsystem (the district) is the strategic point of liaison between the central government and provincial departments of education and the school…. [It is] the way [the district] is comprised, its functions and roles, its management and its vision and the way it operates, its limitations and possibilities that is pivotal to successful school improvement (Chinsamy 1999:2).

The Isithole model's conceptual framework seeks to harmonize district and school development through the creation of District Support Teams (DSTs) with a shared vision, responsible for supporting the schools in the areas of *Management and Governance, Curriculum & Support Services* and *Specialized Education Services.* The DST would work with the schools in collaboration with School Support Teams (SSTs) to service the work of the School Governing Bodies (SGBs), School Management Teams (SMTs) and Educator's curriculum. In this way, the transformation was seen as being delivered through whole district and whole school structures and systems.

Whole district transformation, according to this conceptualization is characterized by four key elements. First, is that it is *systemic* in the sense that "…transformation in one area requires concomitant changes in related areas" (Chinsamy *Ibid* p 4). It must also be coherent in that all aspects of the system work together in such a way as to optimize resources at the district level. Second, it is *demand-driven*, that is, stakeholders throughout the district have to want the transformation to take place. Third, it is *relevant and locally owned.* The demand for transformation will be based on a shared vision that articulates an informed understanding of where the whole district is currently and where it is headed. Fourth, whole district transformation must be *learning-driven and information based*. This relates to the ethic of continuous

research and learning on the part of all practitioners and how best to facilitate it.

2.1.3.2 District Office Model for the Eastern Cape

Operating in similar vein the ECDoE has adopted a district model inspired by a holistic perspective on transformation. The ECDoE model of district transformation depicts structures and systems that are not only holistic in outlook but which also show the central mission of education as "Optimum Learner Performance". These range from stakeholder community involvement in vision crafting, through professional development structure supporting and processes embodying in-service training in the curriculum, aimed at achieving effective teaching and learning, to EMD geared at developing self-managing schools.

The model speaks to the goal at hand, which is to transform

> …almost every aspect of South African schools…[requiring] a paradigm shift…of District Office; from a centralized, authoritarian, bureaucratic, monitoring and controlling approach to a decentralized, collaborative, developmental, school focused team approach (P.E. District Office Task Team 2001:8).

The new paradigm education district model is divided into two main arms of delivery, the Corporate Services and Education Support Services. An interesting arm is that of Corporate Services. It would be informative to investigate how this conceptualization is influenced by business ethos as well as how its actual operation is guided by this ethos. Nevertheless, the stated goal is to achieve a well functioning "ideal school" (P.E. District Office Task Team (2001) which the district is there to serve.

2.1.3.3 Whole School Transformation

The Imbewu 1 Project lays great emphasis on elaborating the notion of whole school development. The ideas of "wholeness" and "wholesome" are at the core of their model of school transformation. The argument goes that "wholeness" and "wholesome" conjure "…notions of fullness,

comprehensiveness, collaboration and community. It calls attention to the nature of the school as an organic entity where all its parts play a complementary role in seeking the survival of the whole" (Eastern Cape Department of Education, Imbewu Project, undated:11). Within this conceptualization, the school is seen as a *learning community* (more about this idea in Section 2) where learning and development of all stakeholders are nurtured.

How educational leadership creates whole district and whole school transformation in the South African context, and by implication, what leadership development programmes are appropriate for this agenda, is the focus of this study, and it is against this discursive context that the main investigation kicks off. The argument is that the leadership development strategies and practices are shaped by two factors: first, the context in which they are framed and, second, the prevailing conceptions of educational leadership. An appreciation of these points is crucial to the achievement of stated education transformation goals. **The underlying question, in this regard, concerns the need to explore the nature of educational leadership that underpins successful educational transformation in the foregoing context, hence a focus on leadership development strategies and practices.**

Having outlined the conceptual framework and context, I will now turn to evolution leadership discourses and associated concepts, and assess how they have manifested themselves as well as their relevance for the South African transformation agenda. The assessment is structured in two perspectives as discussed below.

2.2 Understanding Educational Leadership: An Overview of Leadership Perspectives

The temptation to start a review of leadership by giving a definition is compelling. However, the more I read around the topic the more I am inclined to shy away from starting with a definition. I agree with

poststructuralist discourse analysts who view definitions as derived from the context in which they are formulated and the history of whoever is giving the definition. There is, therefore, a sense in which the meaning derived from any definition should not be seen as a *once and for all* label. The meanings of words, as Capper (1993:25) argues, are "shifting, receding, fractured, incomplete, dispersed and deferred." Arguing in a similar vein, Gunter (2001:45-48) views any definition as a way of positioning oneself within a field of study and declaring one's purposes about leading and leadership. Two ideas can be derived from Capper and Gunter's perspectives. One is that definitions are not absolute. They are representations of a version of reality at one point in time and thus it is possible to investigate and reveal the contexts in which they are produced and the associated interests. Second, the meaning of words cannot be separated from linguistic power, which Weedon (1987 quoted in Capper 1993: 25) refers to as *discursive fields* or "competing ways of giving meaning to the world and of organizing social institutions and processes". These ways consist in determining what counts as true, important or relevant, what gets spoken and what remains unsaid. According to Weedon, herein lies the authority of language to influence what is viewed as "natural" or "normal" in language.

Looked at through these lenses, what is useful is to move beyond definitions and not only examine the evolution of how a concept is characterized over time but also the associated interests that go with particular conceptions. This should help in gaining an understanding and critique of current practices in leadership development efforts. In this section, I will therefore embark on this journey of understanding by tracing the developments in the conceptions of leadership.

I now trace the genealogy of educational leadership from its "ancestry" of classical management through to the emergence of new conceptions of the phenomenon. I argue that the evolution of the concept and practice of educational leadership can be categorized into two broad camps, the

traditional bureaucratic-managerial perspective and the emerging **learning organizations perspective**. The former has its roots in the work of Weber (Beilharz 1991) which, emphasized hierarchy and positional authority of an individual leader. The latter as Wheeler (2000) notes, is influenced by significant changes in organizational theories, from hierarchical bureaucratic approaches to notions of a "virtual workplace" characterized by operational structures that are flat, with "interdependent networks of people, teams" (Wheeler 2000:3). Figure 2.1 below gives a conceptual picture of this evolution.

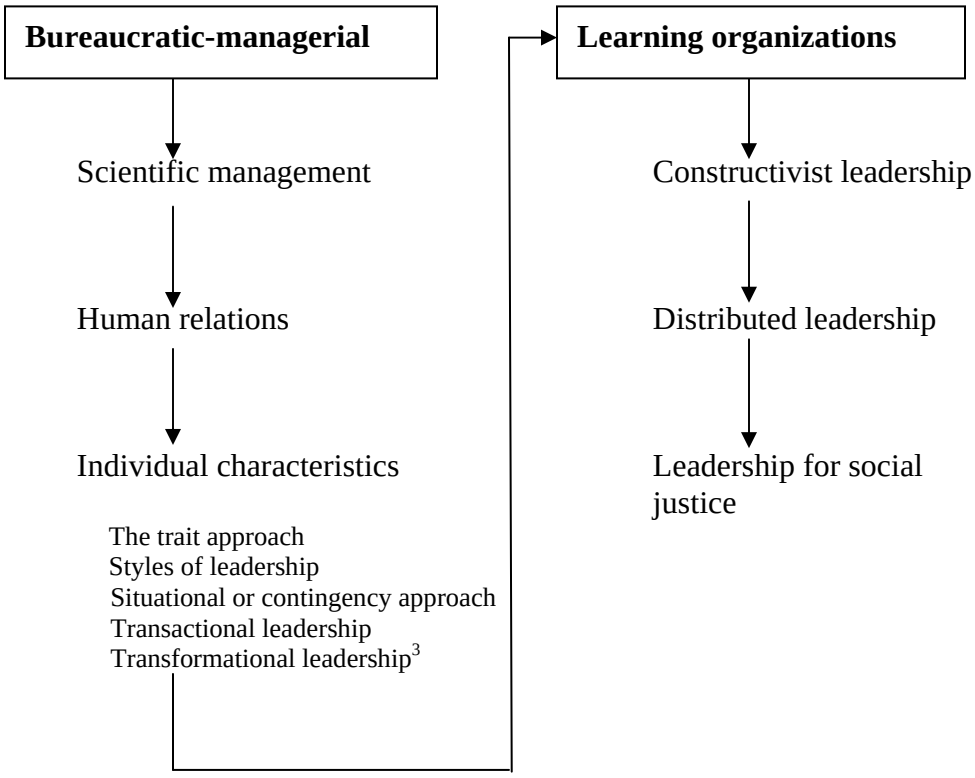


Figure 2.1: Perspectives on leadership

In Figure 2.1, it can be seen that under the bureaucratic-managerial perspectives there are three strands, the *scientific management*, *human relations* and one which I call the *individual characteristics* focus, which

[3] Although it can be argued that transformational leadership can be seen as post-bureaucratic in purpose, I believe that it still conceptualises leadership within a more formal framework in which the role of the individual leader is central.

incorporates “the trait approach”, “styles of leadership”, “situational or contingency approach”’, “transactional leadership” and “transformational leadership”. Each perspective is outlined in greater detail below.

2.2.1 The Bureaucratic-Managerial Perspective

There are three strands characteristic of the bureaucratic managerial paradigm to educational leadership, which are closely associated with the development of organizational theory. Some writers have described these as the traditional approach (Sergiovanni 2001; Hoy and Miskel 1996; Lambert *et al.* 1995). The traditional view lasted from about 1911 to about the late 1940’s (Hoy and Miskel 1996; Watkins 1998). This approach encompasses classical scientific management theory and the human relations approach.

2.2.1.1 Classical Management

The bureaucratic-managerial paradigm of leadership has its roots in early organization theorists such as Fredrick Taylor’s ideas on scientific management. It was in the early twentieth century when Taylor’s managerial theory held sway. There are four main elements to this approach. One is the idea of **efficiency** based on Taylor’s belief that workers could be programmed to be efficient machines of production. In time and motion studies (Barnes 1949 cited in Hoy and Miskel 1996:9), Taylor and his followers sought to demonstrate workers’ physical limits and fastest method for performing a given task so that they could achieve high productivity.

The second dimension of the scientific management approach focuses on **management functions**, which Fayol saw as encompassing *planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting* and *budgeting* or POSDCoRB (Sergiovanni 2001:4–7; Hoy and Miskel 1996:10). For Fayol, a manager’s job is to ensure that business operations are well planned, organized and coordinated so that workers do their work according to the rules of the organization.

The third element is that of **division of labour**, which was seen as an essential and necessary aspect of management. According to this view, the more a task could be broken down into its components, the more specialized and therefore, more effective the worker would be in performing the task. Once broken down, tasks could then be grouped into jobs that could further be categorized into departments within the organization.

The organization itself, according to theorists in this school of thought, was to be so structured that there was a clear hierarchical **span of control**, a fourth aspect of the theory. The idea of span of control refers to a number of workers supervised by a manager with power and authority flowing from the top to the bottom within the organization (Hoy and Miskel 1996:10). Taylor's ideas were influenced by his primary concern to advance the technology of the workplace.

2.2.1.2 Human Relations

The scientific management approach with its preoccupation with control, productivity and efficiency lost sight of the human element in an organization. This gap was addressed by theorists whose writings have come to be known as the human relations approach. The human relations approach focused on the human side of administration. Through a series of experiments described as the Hawthorne studies, researchers in this tradition sought to investigate how human factors in a business organization were related to productivity. They examined such issues as tiredness, length of working day, worker attitudes, working equipment and time of the day. In short, the Hawthorne studies systematically questioned many of the basic assumptions of scientific management in which the human aspect of an organization did not feature strongly. Hoy and Miskel (1996:15) summarize the conclusions of the studies:

- Economic incentive is not the only motivator. In fact, non-economic social sanctions limit the effectiveness of economic incentives.

- Workers respond to management as members of an informal group, not as individuals.
- Specialization does not necessarily create the most efficient organization of the work group.
- Workers use informal groups to protect themselves against arbitrary management decisions.
- Informal social organizations interact with management.
- A narrow span of control is not a prerequisite to effective supervision.
- Informal leaders are often as important as formal supervisors.
- Individuals are active human beings, not passive cogs in a machine.

While the human relations approach was seen as important in terms of recognizing the primacy of the human agency in organizational structures, it was criticized by some theorists (Clark *et al.* 1994 quoted in Hoy and Miskel 1996: 15; Braverman 1974) as ultimately a management tool designed to manipulate subordinates towards the achievement of organizational goals. The preparation of managers that is influenced by these perspectives, therefore sought to help them design approaches that encouraged the involvement of employees in forms of participatory management.

2.2.2 Individual Characteristics and Roles

The second group of theories falling within the traditional approach is that which focuses on individual characteristics and roles of individual leaders. These cover the trait, situational, transactional and transformational approaches. Although the last two, transactional and transformational are fairly recent, I have categorized them as traditional because they share similar features with scientific management and human relations in the sense that they emphasize "organizational activity associated with positional authority…and narrowed the application of leadership analyzes to a concentration on individuals and their leadership styles" (Crowther, Hann and McMaster 2001:3). These theories dominated the scene from about the early 1950's up to the present day. Below I highlight some key ideas from each theory.

2.2.2.1 The Trait Approach

Sometimes described as the "great man approach" to leadership, (Teulings 1980 quoted in Watkins 1998:13) the trait theory focused on individual qualities and characteristics such as charisma or personal charm, physical make-up, age, personality characteristics or traits, introversion/extroversion, appearance and fluency of speech. These traits were correlated with the individual behaviour of a leader. Although the research produced some weak positive correlation, the finding, nevertheless, suggested that some traits were important for the development of "great" leaders. As Watkins (1998:13) has argued, the notion of some idealized "great man" has created myths often used by business magnets to justify their own position. The key question for leaders and those who develop leaders, as Gunter (2001:69) puts it, "Do I have the right qualities to be a leader?"

Fullan (2002:5), however, has warned of the dangers of focusing on individual characteristics such as charisma. He argues that "charismatic leaders are actually a liability for sustained improvement." The argument goes that leaders who build enduring greatness are not high-profile, flashy performers but rather individuals who blend extreme personal humility with intense professional will. Sustained improvement depends on succession of leaders and this is more likely to happen if there are many leaders at many levels, a point I will turn to in greater detail in later in this chapter.

2.2.2.2 Style of Leadership

Closely related to the issue of personal characteristics of a leader is the view that leaders exhibit different styles of leadership, ranging from autocratic or authoritarian on the one hand to democratic or participative on the other. These styles, according to Coleman (1994:56–58) have sometimes been differentiated as "task" or "results" orientated and those who tend to be "people" or "relationship" orientated. In practice, however, it is acknowledged that these styles are not fixed and that they are determined by a

range of factors. The implication for the development of leadership would include such questions as pointed out by Gunter

- Do I know my preferred leadership style?
- Do I know how to obtain a balance between a concern for tasks and people?
- Have I had the correct in-service training on the behaviours required to achieve the right style (Gunter 2001:69).

As can be seen, one of the central preoccupations in this approach is with finding the *right* style for leadership. This stance, like the trait approach, conjures up notions of an ideal leader, a goal difficult to achieve given some research evidence, which has shown that leadership is a complex phenomenon that cannot be understood in isolation from the institutional factors in which it is located.

2.2.2.3 Situational or Contingency Approach

The validity of the trait approach received early criticism from researchers such as Stogdill (1974 cited in Gunter 2001:69), whose research revealed that leadership is a relation that exists between persons in a social situation and that persons who are leaders in one situation may not necessarily be leaders in other situations (Watkins 1998: 12). In a work that attempted to synthesize the trait and styles approach to leadership, Fiedler developed what has come to be known as the Contingency Model of Leadership. According Fiedler's model "…the leader's contribution to group performance depends on both his leadership *style* in terms of either *task orientation* or *person orientation*, and the favorableness of the *situation* for the leader" (Watkins 1998:16) [my emphasis]. In other words, leadership behaviour is contingent on the situation.

To draw again from Gunter's questions, a leader guided by the Contingency Model poses the following questions:

- Have I reflected on the context that affects which leadership style is appropriate?

- Do I know how my subordinates will respond to my particular styles? (Gunter 2001:69).

Looked at from this angle, the task of training leaders leads to a further question pointed out by Perrow (1979 quoted in Watkins 1998:19), namely, do we train "leaders to fit the jobs or [design] jobs to fit the leaders?" From this it follows, as Per row goes on to argue, that if "leadership techniques must change with every change in group personnel, task, timing, experience, and so on, then either leaders or jobs must constantly change."

2.2.2.4 Transactional vs Transformational Leadership

Sergiovanni (1987 cited in Watkins 1998:32) has argued that traditional approaches to leadership are *transactional* in the sense that there is an exchange between leader and worker to achieve established goals. This exchange is achieved through negotiation, and motivation and resources within an organization that do not seek to challenge but to satisfy (Lambert *et al.* 1995:8; Gunter 2001:69). Burns (1978) contrasted this view with that of *transformational* leadership, which is taken to be about building a unified common interest. As Sergiovanni puts it, transformational leadership is about

> …how the power of leadership can help people become more successful, to accomplish the things they think are important, to experience a greater sense of efficacy. [It]...is less concerned with what people doing and more are concerned with what they are accomplishing (quoted in Watkins 1998:32).

From the above discussion, it can be argued that proponents of both transactional and transformational leadership argue that leadership is based on exchange between leaders and followers. They differ, however, on the nature of that exchange. The former can be said to have leanings to the results orientated style while the latter to the people orientated style. As Burns (1978 cited in Gunter 2001:69) has argued, engagement between leaders and followers is a struggle that is controlled through transactional leadership while transformational leadership is about building a unified common interest in which the primary motivation is to elevate members' self-centred attitudes,

values and beliefs to higher altruistic attitudes values and beliefs. According to this perspective, transformational leadership is:

- *Inspiration*: motivating the subordinate through charisma.
- *Individualism*: focusing on the individual needs of subordinates.
- *Intellectual stimulation*: influencing thinking and imagination of subordinates.
- *Idealized*: the communication and building of an emotional commitment to the vision (Grown 1996 cited in Gunter 2001: 69–70).

In line with this conceptualization, questions that are typically associated with transformational leadership, according to Gunter, will comprise the following:

- Do I have a vision and mission?
- Can I empower my followers to live the vision?
- How can I ensue my leadership has positive effects on production outcomes? (Gunter 2001:69).

From these key questions it follows that leadership preparation which is informed by this perspective will seek to build skills in building vision and mission for the organization and ensure that followers are guided by these. It will also train leaders in skills of relationship building.

2.3 Leadership Paradigms in South Africa

In the South African context, the evolving thinking about leadership has followed the global trends sketched above. This is summarized in McLennan (1997:50) who put forward three approaches, each associated with a particular paradigm. From Paradigm 1 comes the (Christian) Scientific Education Management approach, Paradigm 2 leads to Education Management and Paradigm 3 to Education Governance and Management. Table 2.1 below summarizes the leadership and management focus under each paradigm.

Table 2.1: Leadership Paradigms in South Africa

Scientific Education Management (Control)	Education Management (Leadership)	Governance and Management (Facilitation)
Professionalism	Decentralization	Relationship building
Hierarchy and regulation	Devolution of power	Recognition of diversity
Rule compliance	Performance	Participation and communication
Planning	Strategic planning	Responsiveness
Organizing	Mission driven	Balance and reconciliation
Guiding	School effectiveness	Collaboration
Control	Human resource management	Change management
Works study	Total Quality Management	Support
Personnel classification	Customer focus	Negotiation

Looking at the above table, it can be argued that in the current South African educational and political dispensation, and in line with global trends, we are moving away from paradigm one towards paradigms two and three, where matters to do with the notion of *leadership* rather than just *management* are becoming issues of central focus.

2.4 Management or Leadership?

So far, I have referred to management and leadership as if they were synonymous, yet at the same time implying that they are different. This apparent confusion reflects not only the historical journey the concept has travelled but also the inconclusive debate in the literature about the distinction (Leigh 1994; Smith *et al*. 2001). Perhaps what is useful is to follow a particular understanding and remain consistent to it for a particular argument. One approach is found in Sterling and Davidoff, who see management and leadership as two sides of the same coin; one cannot do without the other. They list words associated with each:

Leadership	Management
guides	co-ordinates
motivates	organizes
initiates	maintains
anticipates	stabilizes
builds vision	realizes

creates	structures
moves forward	establishes parameters
inspires	handles
breaks boundaries	sets boundaries (p. 13)

From the two lists, it can be concluded that using the term leadership or management depends on the task at hand and what functions one wishes to emphasize, guiding or coordinating, motivating or organizing, etc. Secondly, it can be seen that the two concepts are not mutually exclusive as, in practice, management requires good leadership and vice versa. The important point however, is the recognition that "few people have both outstanding managerial and leadership skills… [and] teachers in non-managerial positions may display leadership qualities and skills" (Squelch and Lemmer 1994:10). The problem, however, is that whether an educational leader such as the school principal is referred to as a "manager" or a "leader" has implications for how he/she perceives his/her roles, as well as what strategies are used train or develop leaders. I return to this issue later.

Sterling and Davidoff (2000) have picked up the problem of dichotomizing the concepts of *management* and *leadership* in the South Africa. For these authors, there has been a tendency in South African schools to put emphasis on *management* at the neglect of *leadership* (more about this in section 4). If the transformation agenda outlined above is to be achieved, there is a need to focus on the leadership aspects as well. Sterling and Davidoff (pp. 3–6) refer to a "crisis of leadership", which they describe in terms of "lack of planning, an absence of vision, unfair resource allocation and feelings of uncertainty [that] indicate a lack of meaningful leadership within the schools" (p. 5). Sterling and Davidoff argue that by focusing on individual managers the potential benefits for collective action are lost. Leadership potential, for Sterling and Davidoff, is in all of us: what we need is to "to take the responsibility for removing the blocks that prevent you from being a leader you already are" (p. 1).

However, despite acknowledging the overwhelming manner in which the leadership challenges manifest themselves and despite recognizing that all have innate leadership abilities, the two writers, like other authors in this perspective, do not develop the idea of shared leadership. Instead, they return to viewing leadership as a phenomenon that is reduced to an individual position.

Sterling and Davidoff, and other writers who fall within the bureaucratic-managerial perspective, suffer the same handicaps leveled against the perspective, that of failure to conceptualize different, innovative and non-bureaucratic forms of organization. Transformation in South Africa calls for conceptualizing and building such innovative forms of organization as the type depicted by the learning organizations perspective. This means that, given this context, leadership development practices and strategies must be informed less by the need to equip practitioners with skills consistent with the bureaucratic-managerial perspective and more with those that promote the learning organizations perspective. It is this perspective that I now outline below.

2.5 Towards a New Conception of Educational Leadership

2.5.1 Shifting Organizational Paradigms

As pointed out above, the evolution of leadership concepts and practice have been associated with changing organizational theory and social contexts. Wheeler (2000) has argued that organizational theory, in response to changing circumstances, underwent two major shifts in the second half of the 20th century. The first was a move away from the bureaucratic system towards teams and the other towards the creation of virtual workplaces, as mentioned above. Wheeler contends that recent literature tends to tend to conceptualize management and leadership not in terms of a formal bureaucratic organization but as communities:

> The new model of organizational structure and alignment…is a community of interest. Effective organizations focus on their strengths and tap into the resources of individuals, organizations and communities beyond their walls. "Inside" and "outside" the organization are defined by reference to core values and purpose, not by traditional boundaries (p. 7).

This way of looking at organizations agrees with what Webster and Mosoetsa (2002:66) call a post-bureaucratic organization. Webster and Mosoetsa have argued that during the 1990s there was a paradigm shift in organization theory, from bureaucratic to post-bureaucratic forms. The principles the two paradigms are summarized in the table below:

Bureaucratic principles	**Post-bureaucratic principles**
Stability	Disorganization/chaos
Rationality	Virtual workplace
Planning	Boundarylessness
Control	Values
Command	Spontaneity
Centralization	Empowerment
Hierarchy	Participation
Positional power	Decentralization
Separation of conception from execution	Networking
Formal	Reflection and action
Large	Informal/Flexibility
	Downsized/De-layered
	Emphasis on *leadership*

Source: Adapted from Thompson and McHugh 1995:167 as cited in Webster and Mosoetsa (2002)

The first point to make about the above table is that the transformation agenda in South Africa, as has been argued, entails a move from bureaucratic forms of organization to post-bureaucratic forms. This means that leadership preparation strategies and activities should therefore be based on post-bureaucratic principles. The second point is that the post-bureaucratic characteristics appear to be "in sync" with notions of *communities of interest* as argued by Wheeler. The third point is that whereas the bureaucratic principles depict some measure of certainty, where there is a "correct" way

defined by the hierarchy, the post-bureaucratic principles show a great deal of uncertainty and a "fix as-you-go" ethic. This is a constructivist perspective which fits in well with the ideas of Lambert, Walker, Zimmerman, Cooper, Lambert, Gardner, and Szabo (2002) on constructivist leadership (discussed below). Fourth, the post-bureaucratic stance fits in well with Peter Senge's, learning organization perspective that is part of the discourse on educational transformation in South Africa.

2.5.2 Learning Organization Perspective on Educational Leadership

The idea of learning organization, as indicated above, is associated with the work of Peter Senge, who argued that modern organizations can be distinguished from traditional, authoritarian and controlling organizations in a number of ways. Senge (1990) saw modern life as complex and characterized by a high level of interdependency, a phenomenon that is seen in terms of the entire global business community learning to learn together and becoming a learning community. Learning communities or learning organizations is based on the view that all of us are, deep down, learners, as Senge has argued, it is:

> …no longer sufficient to have one person learning for the organization…it is just not any longer possible to "figure it out" from the top, and have everyone else follow the orders of the grand "strategist". The organizations that will truly excel in the future will be the organizations that discover how to tap people's commitment and capacity to learn at *all* levels in an organization (Senge quoted in the Jossey-Bass Reader 2000:14).

One implication for these views is that principles of command, control, centralization, etc., in the bureaucratic paradigm, are antithetical to learning and building a learning organization, as centralization and hierarchy undermine learning in the constructivist sense of the word. Senge (1994:49) defines learning organization as "the continuous testing of experience, and the transformation of that experience into knowledge – accessible to the whole organization, and relevant to its core purpose." In the sphere of education,

Sergiovanni (2001:89) argues that in view of these changes, there is a "need to develop a new definition of what leadership is and how it works", an idea which forms part of the theme of this study.

Back to the concept of learning organization, Senge puts forward five "disciplines" of the learning organization. As summarized below:

- *Systems thinking*: a conceptual framework which endeavours to uncover invisible fabrics of interrelated actions, a form of lacework which often take time to fully play out their effects on each other to produce a whole pattern of change.
- *Personal mastery*: is about each individual in an organization or community clarifying the things that really matter to them and concentrating their energies on those. It consists of deepening personal vision – the learning organization's spiritual foundation. This aspect can be likened to:
- *Mental models*: represent deeply ingrained assumptions, generalizations, pictures or images that influence how we understand the world and take action. It involves learning to unearth one's internal pictures of the world and open one's thinking to the influence of others.
- *Building shared vision*: refers to a set of principles and guiding practices. It consists of goals, values and missions that become deeply shared throughout the organization. The essence of building shared vision is unearthing shared pictures of the future.
- *Team learning*: has to do with the capacity of members of a team suspending assumptions and entering into a genuine thinking together. Through a dialogical process, team learning consists of the free flow of meaning through a group, allowing the group to discover insights not attainable individually. Teams are seen as fundamental learning units in a modern organization.

The relevance of these ideas to the South African context can already be seen in the work produced in the early years of the attainment of democracy which saw the Department of Education's Task Team on Education Management Development's observation that South African schools are "…organizations devoted to learning [yet] they are generally not learning organizations" (DoE 1996:31). The Task Team was arguing for educational transformation that would see schools becoming learning organizations. More recently, Moloi (2002:99), inspired by Senge's five disciplines, has argued for the need for African schools to become learning organizations along the lines depicted by Senge, and further argues for a leadership that is consistent with learning organizations. The problem, however, is that she dwells on the traditional notion of transformational leadership. However, as Lambert (2002:39) argues, while there has been evidence that transformational leaders help develop and maintain a collaborative, professional school culture, the way transformational leadership has been conceptualized "situates responsibility for growth of others in the designated leader. It becomes paternal although well meaning, with such concepts as help, assist, and foster." Following this idea, I argue below that the learning organization perspective moves beyond notions of leadership associated with positional power and authority towards structures and systems consistent with learning organizational principles and forms.

At this point, it should be useful to highlight some key features of the learning organizations perspective and their implications for the concept and practice of educational leadership. Using Senge's conceptual lenses, one of the central features of a learning organization is the interconnectedness of things, events and actions, to the extent that what happens in one part of the organization, community or even the world often has consequences in other parts of the system. This idea agrees with what has been discussed under globalization and holistic approaches to educational transformation. Slater (1994) has described this interconnectedness as boundarylessness, arguing that

> The boundaryless…organization removes barriers between functions, between levels and between locations. It reaches out to staff and suppliers with the single purpose of joining intellects and efforts in a common purpose (Slater 1994 cited in Trofino 2000:6).

Applied to education, the idea of boundarylessness suggests that ideas and knowledge must flow freely within and between education organizations such as schools, communities, districts, provinces and national levels as what happens in one part of the system can be related to other parts.

Returning to Senge's five disciplines, Senge argues that *systems thinking* is the "fifth" discipline that integrates all the other disciplines, fusing them into a coherent body of theory and practice. Closely tied in with the concept of systems thinking in an educational setting, Moon (2000:4) espouses the idea of *communities of practice*, which is seen to refer to the environment in which an individual works and includes the "people you work with, your work place and the processes you are engaged in". Moon argues that within a community of practice one is involved at a number of different levels, ranging from societal goals, institutional goals and behaviour, to curriculum setting and common activity. In this study, I utilize *systems thinking* in two ways: one to view education organizations as constituted in learning communities of practice and secondly, as a conceptual tool for understanding the emerging conceptions of leadership discussed below.

The second feature of a learning organization, that of *personal mastery*, speaks to notions of the vision and mission of each individual in an organization giving energy and focus to people's actions, including leadership actions. This agrees with the new approach to leadership, which seeks to tap the potential of every person for carrying out leadership actions.

Another of Senge's learning organization features is the idea that moves beyond individual visions towards *building shared vision* within the organization. According to Senge, when a vision is shared as opposed to one that is imposed by the leader, as the case is with many of the approaches

within the bureaucratic-managerial perspective, there is a good chance that people will excel and learn, not because they are told to, but because they want to.

The fourth element from this perspective, the idea of *mental models*, brings into focus and recognizes the potential insights that can be drawn from each person's worldview. Once again, this position is consistent with the thinking that no one person, leader or manager can claim to have the monopoly of solutions to organizational problems.

Lastly, it follows from all the above disciplines, that organizations do well to engage in *team learning* in order to share personal mastery, mental models visions and missions, all in acknowledgement and taking advantage of systems thinking.

As can be seen from the forgoing discussion, leadership theorizing in this perspective moves away from the bureaucratic-managerial perspective by viewing leadership not in terms of positional power and not as reduced to individual characteristics. Some (such as Bennis cited in Lambert *et al.* 2002:37) have gone as far as calling for an abandonment of the "archaic baggage that has situated leadership in top-down hierarchical models". Following this line of reasoning, I outline here below three emerging conceptions of leadership, the constructivist, collaborative and distributed leadership and leadership for social justice.

2.5.3 Constructivist Leadership

In defining what she calls a new conception of leadership Lambert (1995:28–51) anchors the discussion in Peter Senge's perspective of learning organizations as well as in a constructivist theory of learning. From Senge she quotes that the development of collective meaning is an essential characteristic of a learning organization. Lambert goes on to argue that the new conception of leadership is based on constructivist learning, and that adults learn through the processes of meaning making and construction of

knowledge, participation and reflection. Based on this perception, she views leadership in terms of constructivist processes within an organization and coins the term, *constructivist leadership* to mean

> the reciprocal processes that enable participants in an educational community to construct meanings that lead toward a common purpose about schooling (p. 29).

In the second edition of their book *The Constructivist Leader,* Lambert (2002:45) defines *reciprocal process* as "…mutual learning processes such as listening, questioning, reflecting, and facilitating – those relational endeavours that weave a fine fabric of meaning." According to Lambert, reciprocal processes are those that

- Evoke potential in a trusting environment
- Inquire into practice, thereby reconstructing old assumptions and myths
- Focus on the construction of meaning
- Frame actions that embody new behaviours and purposeful intentions

By using evidence from stories compiled from case studies Lambert (1998:4-9; 2002: 45-48) unpacks the idea of *reciprocal process that enable,* with concrete illustrations as shown in the four sets of leadership actions. These are:

1. *Surface, clarify and define community values, beliefs, assumptions, perceptions and experiences*: This process was used as a means to discover what they valued about the students' learning, in other words, what students should know and be able to do. Lambert argues that when people get an opportunity to surface and consider what they already believe, think and know (that is, their personal schemas), shared beliefs about the purpose of education are created and evolved. As can be seen, this approach directly addresses elements of an organization's lifeworld and culture, which, as argued above, should be a critical area of focus for any transformation agenda.

2. *Inquire into practice*: This involves practices aimed at generation of data or information designed to inform action. In Lambert's case study, school staff generated data about student academic performance and participation and then formed collaborative action research teams to help them understand whether all students were learning equitably. The Imbewu School Improvement Project in the Eastern Cape takes the strategy of inquiring into practice through what they call Practice-Based Inquiry (PBI), an experiential learning approach that is central to the Imbewu Professional Development Programme (Eastern Cape Department of Education, Imbewu Project, Undated:9-10).
3. *Construct meaning and knowledge*: In Lambert's case study, the data generated through PBI were made sense of through conversations and large and small groups, and this led to a clarification of problems to be solved. **Are these reciprocal processes observed in the ELMD schools and communities?**
4. *Frame action and develop action plans:* These included strategies that consisted of continuous feedback from inside and outside the school and provisions for shared responsibilities. Lambert viewed this as the most critical aspect, where broad-based responsibility for leadership can work – an example of active leadership from many teachers in the school. In this study, I wish to investigate **how this takes place in the ELMD Schools and districts**.

Apart from the need to find out about the applicability of ideas on constructivist leadership to the South African context, the field of educational leadership is enriched by concepts emanating from the learning organizations perspective in a number of respects. One concerns the centrality of values, beliefs, perceptions and experiences in guiding and focusing actions of members a learning community. Leadership is value-driven. As Miron (1996, quoted in Szabo, Hoaland, Lambert, Lopez, Starness, Stern, Storms, and Vieth 2001) puts it: "leadership is the enactment of values." These are the

bases for the actions of people within an organization. As Begley (1999:4-5) has suggested, there is need to "understand and be able to give reason to the actions of superordinates, peers, subordinates and students." This perspective also stresses the moral purpose of leadership. I return to this point in connection with the notion of leadership for social justice. Another point to make in connection with values, beliefs, perceptions and experiences of each individual is that these are in the domain of a culture of the organization. These attributes of culture are akin to what Sergiovanni calls the "lifeworld" of an organization. The relevance of this is that transforming the culture of education organizations is, as it has been shown, in agreement with the educational transformation agenda described above.

2.5.4 Distributed Leadership

Another emerging concept of leadership, which shares features with Lambert *et al*.'s constructivist leadership, is referred to as *distributed leadership.* Harris (2002:2) argues that distributed leadership is "characterized as a form of collective leadership, in which teachers develop expertise by working collaboratively". Rather than relying on an individual, managing hierarchical systems and structures, this view of leadership sees guidance and direction coming from multiple sources, following the "contours of expertise in an organization made cohesive through a common culture". It equates with maximizing human capacity within the organization. The problem with this notion is that it may appear to suggest that no-one is ultimately responsible for the overall performance of the organization. Harris argues that this does not need to be so. "Instead the job of those in formal leadership positions is primarily to hold the pieces of the organization together in a productive relationship" (p. 2). It is about empowering others to lead. Some (e.g. Sergiovanni 2001) have referred to distributed leadership as the notion of a *community of leaders.*

How the concept of distributed leadership actually works in a hierarchical context such as that which obtains in South Africa needs to be investigated.

The research implications for new conceptions of leadership have been aptly captured by Harris, when he argues that we need more empirical evidence

> about the ways in which distributed leadership currently operates in schools. We need to know more about how it is developed and promoted. In particular we need to know if, and how, it contributes to better teaching and learning process in schools (Harris 2002:5).

The problem that Harris poses is of central interest to this study. I agree with the line of thinking that what is important is to find out and understand how constructivist and distributed leadership are developed and how they promote the central mission of schooling. In the next chapter, I will argue that this type of leadership is difficult to develop through traditional approaches influenced by bureaucratic-managerial principles. In the learning organization or post-bureaucratic organizational framework, it is perhaps more appropriate to talk of developing *leadership capacity* within an organization or community rather than training individual leaders. However, before outlining Lambert's ideas on leadership capacity, it is important to reflect on the purpose of building this capacity.

2.5.5 Leadership for Social Justice

I have indicated above that educational leadership has a purpose, to lead in the transformation of South African society through education, and that transformation starts with each individual leader at the level of values, beliefs and culture. In this section, I draw on emerging literature that has argued for an explicit focus on values for social justice. Writing within the context of Western society, Marshall (2004:4–8) argues that leadership training programmes face a chronic and new challenge of unpreparedness to address issues related to social justice. Furman and Gruenewald (2004:52–56) agree that the notion of "social justice", while it has no fixed or predictable meaning, can be seen as characterized by three defining features:

1. ***Critical-humanist perspective***: This set of meanings has three main aspects. One is that it views social structures as human social

constructions that are inherently value-laden. Second, this perspective critiques existing social constructions for inequities that result from unequal power relationships. The third aspect of the critical-humanist way of viewing social justice is that it calls for social change to overcome these inequities. Writing within this perspective, Grogan (2002 cited in Furman and Gruenewald 2004: 53) call for social justice leaders to "interrupt the continued maintenance of the status quo." This applies to the South African post-apartheid context where educational policy goals on access, equity, redress and quality seek to change the status quo.

2. ***Focus on achievement and economic well-being***: This is another set of meanings for social justice. The emphasis of this line of thinking is the improvement of the education and life chances of the poor. Again, in South Africa, the numerous school improvement projects aimed at improving learner outcomes is an important social justice step that the post-apartheid government took. However, if these projects are being run without educational leaders who have a moral commitment to social justice, the likelihood of achieving desired goals can be questioned.

3. ***Narratives of the Western Enlightenment tradition***: This set of meanings highlights the danger of pursuing notions of social justice that are embedded in Western thought systems. These include (a) viewing change as linear, where human social and economic life progress towards greater prosperity, and (b) a concern to fix the social contract so that individuals experience greater equity within the existing educational and economic system. One problem is that change is not necessarily linear. In Chapter 6, I characterize change as a continuum and not necessarily moving in one direction. The other problem is that attempting to fix injustice at a local, micro level, such as school, community and district without addressing global and wider societal and economic factors may merely bring about symbolic change at the local level (see Chapter 6). These narratives are examples of global discourses which I have outlined above, and to which I return in Chapter 6, as constituting structural constraints to change.

The implication of all this for leadership and leadership development is that there is need to craft leadership development which equips the trainees with the moral mission to deliver social justice and with the capacity to overcome constraints they may come across in the process. The other implication, in line with ideas about constructivist and distributed collaborative leadership, is that the social justice mission of leadership is a collective endeavour that requires the development of a critical mass of stakeholder leaders. Before considering ideas on building leadership capacity, I should mention that this study does not directly measure preparation of leadership for social justice. I have used the notion as a normative framework for producing collaborative and distributed leadership.

2.6 Focus on Leadership Capacity

Drawing on information from her research, Lambert (1998:3-4) conceptualized Leadership Capacity as being defined by two critical conditions. One concerns the existence, in a school, of a "significant number of skilful teachers-leaders who understand the shared vision of the school and the full scope of the work underway, and who are able to carry them out". The other condition is that "staff would need to be committed to the central work of self-renewing schools. This work involves reflection, inquiry, conversations and focussed action". Viewed through Lambert's lenses, leadership capacity is a situation where a school, community or district has a critical mass of people who are skilful in the work of leadership. There are two further defining dimensions: the one is the idea of *broad-based participation* and the other, of *skilful participation.*

- ***Broad-based participation*** means involving many people – administrators, parents, students, community members, district personnel, university faculty – in the work of leadership…
- ***Skilful participation*** refers to participants' comprehensive understanding of and demonstrated proficiency in the dispositions, knowledge, and skills of leadership (Lambert 1998:12).

Further, Lambert argues, the concept of leadership capacity is based on a number of assumptions about leading and learning.

- Leadership is not trait theory: Leadership and leader are not the same;
- Leadership is about learning that leads to constructive change;
- Everyone has the potential and right to work as a leader. Leading is skilled …work that every member of the school community can learn;
- Leading is shared a endeavour; and
- Leadership requires the redistribution of power and authority (Lambert 1998:8-9).

From these assumptions and conceptual position, Lambert presents a Leadership Capacity Matrix constructed from her research. The matrix consists of four quadrants, as shown in Figure 2.2 below:

Figure 2.2: Leadership Capacity Matrix (Lambert 1998:13)

In Figure 2.2, quadrants 1, 2, 3 and 4 show conditions describing levels of leadership capacity in schools. In real life, however, things do not often fit into neat categories as depicted. Rather, the quadrants should be seen as continuum that are not necessarily static or stable. What is important is to recognize that, in terms of the model of transformation described above, the more that leadership processes in a school approximate *high participation* and *high skillfulness* (quadrant 4), the greater the chances of transforming schools into learning organizations. Schools in quadrant 4 are described as having

high leadership capacity. The other extreme, Quadrant 1, is closely aligned to bureaucratic principles and, therefore, stifles learning, as followers would be forced by virtue of the leader's positional power and authority to keep referring problems up the hierarchy in order to avoid breaching an established chain of command. This clearly does not sit well with the discourse of empowerment, constructivist and distributed leadership. Such a school is seen as having the least leadership capacity. The other quadrants, 2 and 3, show various levels of leadership, which still need to reach quadrant 4 conditions.

Following the model of leadership in the Figure 2.2 matrix, I argue that leadership preparation programmes aimed at addressing the transformation agenda outlined above must develop skills, values and outlook consistent with characteristics in quadrant 4. What leadership development strategies can achieve quadrant 4 is the central focus of this study. In Chapter 3, I review literature relating to leadership preparation strategies. But first, I would like to a crystallize my understanding of ideas and perspectives from sections 1, 2 and 3 by highlighting issues that have implications for leadership development strategies and for transformation.

2.7 Implications for Leadership Development Strategies: Emerging Issues

In this section, I discuss five sets of issues arising out of the three sections presented above. Under each set, I pose questions and/or ideas that have implications for leadership development programmes. The issues relate to the context of transformation and associated global discourses in which educational leadership conceptions and practices are located. Within this context, an approach to transformation that gives primacy to the human agency provides another set of issues. To the extent that the transformation agenda is the underlying framework in which the theory and practice of educational leadership in South Africa today are to be understood, this has implications for leadership development programmes. However, as has been shown, educational leadership concepts have origins in non-educational

settings and this legacy is still very evident in present day theorizing and policy-making. This constitutes the set of issues around the business ethos in education and transformation. The concern about corporate models in education is taken further to highlight their potential to make people lose sight of the core mission of school education and thus position educational leadership as requiring generic skills not necessarily peculiar to education. This realization gives rise to the need to interrogate notions of instructional leadership as constituting another set of issues. The final set of issues, arising from the way transformation is conceptualized and the perceived importance of leadership, calls for a conception of leadership that is broader than school headship or principalship. Lastly, it is observed that most of the concepts and ideas are part of circulating global conventional wisdoms whose applicability to the South African situation remains largely uninvestigated. Each of these issues is discussed in turn below with a view to mapping out implications for leadership development programmes aimed at bringing about transformation.

2.7.1 Culture at the Heart of Transformation

The first set of issues arising out of this chapter is that the schools, and I add, education organizations such as the district office, are "lifeworld intensive" (Sergiovanni 2000:166). In other words, these organizations cannot be understood without due consideration of the culture which constitutes them. Culture, as Sergiovanni (*Ibid*:1) has noted, is "…the glue that holds a particular school together. With shared visions, values, and beliefs at its heart, culture serves as compass setting, steering people in common direction…. It provides the framework for deciding what does or does not make sense." The centrality of culture is demonstrated not only in the writings of Sergiovanni, Fullan and others. Through exploring the evolution of leadership concepts and practices, it is seen that, historically, there has been a gradual move away from technicist approaches of scientific management through human relations to people oriented participatory approaches, which focus on organizational culture and the subjective experiences of practitioners. The focus on culture is

also reflected in the discourses of school improvement projects such as Isithole and Imbewu. Following this discovery, I have argued that the leadership perspective that best deals with this recognition is that of learning organizations. My position, in this respect, is therefore that **leadership development programmes aimed at promoting transformation must, of necessity, develop skills that will enable reculturing within an organization.**

2.7.2 Business Ethos in Education and Transformation

The second set of issues concerns the theory and practice of educational leadership in South Africa, like those of other parts of the world. Educational leadership theorizing and practice have been heavily influenced by concepts which emanate from global business discourses. In South Africa, the South African Schools Act, 1996 (SASA) provides an example. The Act, enacted some two years after the attainment of democracy in South Africa, sought to "establish a new and uniform legislative regime which sets "uniform" norms and standards for the education of learners at schools and the organization, governance and funding of schools throughout the Republic of South Africa" (Beckmann, Foster and Smith 1997:7). With regard to the governance and management of schools, the Act draws a distinction between the two concepts. Governance, according to the Act, implies "overall control and authority of the school and its policies and direction, whereas, management implies day to day supervision and administration of activities within the institution" (Beckmann, Foster and Smith 1997:19). The Act provides for the establishment of School Governing Bodies (SGBs) in each school to perform governance duties. On the side of management, the SASA designates the principal as an "educator" responsible for the "professional management" of the school. Whereas the SASA goes into some detail in outlining the functions of the SGBs, Beckmann, Foster and Smith have observed that it "does not elaborate on tasks and duties which must be performed by the

principal" (1997:19-20). Even poor communities are expected to raise funds, almost from nothing, as long as this conforms to sound business practice.

From the legislative framework outlined above, four issues arise. One concerns the lack of explicit reference to *leadership*, implying that it is subsumed under or is an aspect of *management*. This is a debatable point which remains elusive, as has been seen above. The second point relates to the fact that the principal is a manager, but one whose tasks are not spelt out, and by inference, whose expected competencies remain unclear. This has implications for leadership development.

Second, and related to the previous point, is that the business discourses that have characterized educational leadership have tended to underplay or even lose sight of the core mission of school education, teaching and learning. In this vein, McInerney (2001:9) has expressed a concern that traditional approaches are preoccupied with a "discourse of managerialism" in which "business values and management practices rather than inclusive, educative and participatory forms of decision-making" predominate. This managerialist perspective, with its emphasis on customer-oriented ethos and concern for cost effectiveness, is a development that has led educational leaders to re-define their roles in terms of corporate responsibilities and business values rather than commitment to social justice. McInerney quotes from one school principal that you have people going as far as arguing for a "generic manager", such that schools can call on skills of such people in the market place. In the principal's words: "Principals shouldn't even be teachers…. We should pluck them out of breweries and supermarkets because they are good business managers".

The notion of a generic manager raises the fundamental question about the applicability of corporate concepts and ethos to education, as already evident in the SASA. In the South African context, the influence of business concepts in education can be seen in Section 21 of the South African Schools Act

(SASA). In that section, *management* rather than *leadership* is emphasized. This approach carries the danger of viewing an education organization, the school or district, as a firm or business concern. Notwithstanding the empowering potential of schools attaining Section 21 status, the ideas come across as a discourse of managerialism, which, as I have argued above, is antithetical to the defined transformation agenda. **The main question, in this respect, is whether leadership development programmes, wittingly or unwittingly prepare practitioners for managerial business values and skills.** This question notwithstanding, however, there are arguments for and against the use of business models in education. These have been explored by West-Burnham (1994:18-29). As there is no space for this in this paper, the reader is referred to that exploration. With regard to this study, my interest is the effect that the corporate ethos that permeates the theory and practice of educational leadership has on the transformation agenda. One apparent "casualty" is instructional leadership.

2.7.3 Instructional Leadership for Transformation

The third set of issues addressed in this study concerns the fact that if educational leadership is about leading *education*, then the central mission of school education and the way in which the transformation agenda addresses or fails to address it must be a matter of focus. Whereas it is generally acknowledged that all initiatives and innovations in education must ultimately impact on the core mission of schooling, that is, teaching and learning, and that transformation in education ultimately takes place in the classroom, recent trends have shown that this core mission is playing second fiddle to business efficiency concerns. This despite the stated goals in the Department's Task Team that "management in education is not an end in itself…its central goal is the promotion of effective teaching and learning" (DoE 1996:8). Indeed, this same goal is clearly stated in the current Departmental policy framework in the form of the Tirisano Plan (2000–2004),

which, in calling for the development of leadership and management and school management teams, was to ensure that

> All schools would have a clear system for monitoring performance and achievement, including the undertaking by management, in particular the principal, of regular:
> - Classroom visits;
> - Review of learner performance by grade and by subject/ learning area;
> - Review of educator performance; and
> - Staff meetings to discuss and review educator and learner performance (Implementation Plan for Tirisano: January 2000 to December 2004:2).

The central mission of schooling and the aims in the above documents all point to the need to re-focus educational leadership on instructional leadership.

The concept of instructional leadership is one that has been heavily debated in educational circles. Brown and Sheppard (1998) have put forward two classifications of instructional leadership, one called the "narrow" and the other the "broad" view of instructional leadership. It is argued that the "narrow" definition focuses on instructional leadership as an entity from administration. According to this view, instructional leadership is "those actions directly related to teaching and learning—observable behaviours such as classroom supervision" (Brown and Sheppard 1998:2). By contrast, the "broad" view sees instructional leadership as entailing all leadership activities that impact on student learning, as it is argued that all routine managerial behaviours contribute as much to improved teaching and learning.

Whichever view of instructional leadership one adopts, the point is that educational leadership must somehow immerse itself in the "core technology" of teaching and learning (Lashway 2002:2). This means that in education we cannot have a generic manager. We must have instructional leadership. Further, it is argued that such leadership in modern day schools which are

building learning organizations must be shared or distributed as "no one person should be expected to provide direct oversight for all school dimensions and activities" (*Ibid*. p. 3). The idea of school management teams would appear to fit in with the notion. The question, which could constitute a separate study, is how far South African schools have moved in this direction. **To what extent are leadership development programmes aligned to the transformation thrust that incorporates instructional leadership?**

2.7.4 Educational Leadership More than Principalship

The fourth set of issues arises from the business ethos concern as well as the tendency to equate educational leadership with principalship. From the SASA, if management is taken to be an aspect leadership, then educational leadership in education has been associated with principalship. Sergiovanni (2001:4-7) makes a distinction between the traditional conception of principalship and the modern one. With regard to the former, Sergiovanni argues that the principal is seen as responsible for POSDCoRB, that is, planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting. As can be seen, these concepts are closely allied to scientific management principles, which separate conception from execution, a situation that is problematic in modern day educational contexts.

Given the discourses of *Whole District* and *Whole School* approaches to transformation and modern conceptions of constructivist leadership, community of leaders and distributed leadership, I argue that educational leadership encompasses other players in the educational field. These include district and other school-based officials who are in their positions precisely because their mandate is to promote the goals of school learning as seen in the Government's own Tirisano Plan (2000 to 2004). However, the role of the other players in instructional leadership remains unclear. This could be the subject of another study. Concerning the broader view of educational leadership, I argue that the tendency to view educational leadership as principalship is influenced by the traditional approaches to leadership. I argue

that this conceptualization is too narrow to fit in with the emerging perspectives of learning organizations. The implication for leadership development consistent with the transformation agenda, therefore, ought to move beyond focusing on individual leaders or principals to developing leadership capacity and a community of leaders.

2.7.5 Applicability of Western Concepts to South Africa

The final set of issues concerns the applicability of western leadership concepts and constructs to the South African Eastern Cape context. It has been seen how the approaches to educational reform have their origins in western contexts and, further, that through the process of globalization with associated discursive fields they have become conventional wisdom. I am arguing that the power of global discourses is not absolute. These discourses compete with local embedded knowledge, which may even be alternative to the dominant ones (see pages 74 -79). People in local situations, including Eastern Cape districts and schools, mediate Western concepts within their socio-historical situatedness.

Put in another way, participants in the transformation process have their own subjectivities and identities. An individual's identity has been characterized as "conscious and unconscious thoughts and emotions…knowledge of…self …ways of understanding… [and] relation to the world" (Weedon 1987 quoted in Capper 1993:21). There is, therefore, a need to emphasize subjective experience and intuition in all aspects of transformation efforts. This is in agreement with the notions of lifeworld and reculturation. Other ways in which power manifests itself is through resistance. It has been argued that power perpetuates itself through resistance. As Burrell (1998 quoted in Capper 1993:24) has said, resistance enables power to "grow stronger knowing where next efforts must be directed." The point here is that in the whole transformation drive it should be expected that there would be "conflict, dissensus, contradiction, resistance to power", and that in any

research of this nature it is important to watch to see “how this resistance is interpreted in the process of restructuring” (Capper 1993:24).

2.8 Conclusion

This chapter has explored two main traditions of leadership, the bureaucratic-managerial and the learning organizations perspectives. I have argued that given the envisaged educational transformation agenda, as reflected in the evolution of global discourses on the one hand, and local South African government reform efforts as well as official documents of two school improvement projects on the other, there is need to examine what kind of leadership development strategies promote the stated transformation goals as well as how they promote their achievement. I have further argued that educational leadership development takes place within the discursive context of transformation targeted at South African education organizations, in particular district offices and schools, from bureaucratic to post-bureaucratic learning organizations. I have added that the conception of leadership that speaks to building learning organizations is found in the ideas of constructivist and distributed leadership. Having established this position, I have gone on to highlight issues emerging out of the review, in particular, raising questions that either contradict the envisioned reform thrust or those that need a more detailed investigation that falls outside the scope of this study. Those issues that fall within this study are taken up in the subsequent chapters and field research.

CHAPTER 3:
Review of Literature Part 2:
Leadership Development: A Knowledge Ecology Framework

3.1 Introduction

In Part One of the literature review, in Chapter 2, I discussed various conceptions of educational leadership and gave pointers to their implications for leadership development approaches. In this chapter, I first concretize the argument by exploring the links between learning, knowledge and leading, in an effort to build a case for a particular approach to leadership development. I argue that if the underlying agenda in leadership development in South Africa is aimed at social transformation – one that builds learning organizations as sketched in the previous chapter – then there is a need to move beyond traditional approaches to leadership development and evolve new innovative programmes and strategies consistent with emerging notions of collaborative, non-hierarchical leadership in post-bureaucratic learning organizations (see Chapter 2, p 28). Further, I argue that leadership development that is informed by this perspective is based not only on a particular conception of leadership but, centrally, on a particular view of leadership knowledge and how to create, package and share that knowledge for sustainable change. I put forward the notion of a "knowledge ecology" framework for leadership preparation. In the rest of the chapter, I use this framework to pose questions about traditional leadership development programmes. I end by looking for evidence of a knowledge ecology approach by focusing on one real-life leadership development programme at the University of Fort Hare.

3.2 Leadership Development: Shifting Perspectives

A great deal has been written about leadership development or preparation. There is, however, little agreement on what the substance of such programmes

is or should be. Part of the controversy lies in the conception of leadership, as well as perspectives on knowledge and learning and the pedagogy that is appropriate. In this section, I briefly revisit shifting conceptions of leadership and link these with perspectives on learning and their implications for leadership development. This takes my argument to an exploration of notions of knowledge and the kinds of knowledge and pedagogy that can be taken to promote leadership development.

3.2.1 University or College based Leadership Development Programmes

Most education leadership programmes around the world have traditionally been offered in institutions of higher learning such as colleges of education and universities. Szabo and Lambert (2002:204–238) have noted that traditional leadership development programmes focus on transmission of knowledge and skills about management, finance, law, curriculum, teaching, assessment, governance, personnel management and so forth. However, both the leadership development practices and judgment as to whether leadership performance is satisfactory or not depends on what is understood by educational leadership and, thus, what is expected of educational leaders. Related to this point is the fact that if leadership development is about learning and leading, then it is important to examine how we might conceptualize this link. Walker (2002) has given a summary that links theory of learning and conception of leadership. I have further summarized this in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Approach to Learning and Conception of Leadership (Adapted from Walker, D. 2002:10 –33)

Approach to learning	Conception of leadership	Examples of theorists
Traditional: • Students learn a prescribed body of knowledge through memorization • Knowledge viewed as true and unchanging • Teacher source of knowledge and students recipients • Knowledge exists outside of the learner • Emphasis on obedience and authority	• Notions of leadership influenced by scientific management theory (see Chapter 2). • Emphasis on efficiency and control	Moore Schenk Taylor Robbit Fayol Gulick Urwick
Behavioural: • Learning takes place when knowledge is broken down into smaller pieces and learners are rewarded for successful performance • Student performance can be measured and predicted	• Role of leader to shape human behaviour to meet organizational aims • Leadership is viewed as transactional	Burns Halpin Barnard Simon Bundel
Group/tracking: • Students assumed to be differing in ability, necessitating homogeneous grouping to enable same learning "treatment" to be given to be given similar students	• Leadership is situational or contingent on the situation or context.	Fiedler Bogardus Hersey & Blanchard Vroom-Yetton & Jago Glickman Glatthorn Pigors
School effectiveness: • Students learn when curricular goals are clearly defined and when teaching and assessment methods are aligned with the curriculum. • A combination of teaching behaviours or school factors can predict learning.	• Principal carries out key instructional functions. • Business literature emphasizes traits of effective leaders who achieve organizational goals.	Edmonds Murphy Hallinger Little Bird Smith & Andrews Leithwood Burns Bennis Nanus Peters Waterman Deal Meier

Approach to learning	Conception of leadership	Examples of theorists
Communities of learners: • Learning is enhanced when students learn cooperatively and share knowledge. • Process of learning as important as content. • Role of teacher changes from presenter to that of facilitator • The idea of an educational environment or "ecology" in which teaching and learning take place is considered important. • Teachers and principals are part of a learning community that aims at affecting positively student learning.	• Leadership is a shared process among educators. • Conception of leadership has roots in human relations, systems theory and ecological thought.	Liberman Little Sarason Barth Vygotsky Sergiovanni J. Gardener Follett Getzels & Guba Garmston Bowers Flinders Glickman Seashore Lois Kellerman
Constructivist learning: • Students construct meaning from personal values, beliefs and experiences. • Students construct personal schemas and reflect on their experiences. • Learning is social in nature.	• Leadership is a reciprocal process among adults.	Greene Senge Zohar Wheatley Foster Kegan Barnett Carlsen Garmston & Lipton Walker Lambert Siddle Walker Delpit Miller

From Table 3.1, it can be seen that there have been shifting conceptions of leadership that correspond to approaches to learning and, by implication, to leadership development. Of particular importance and relevance to my argument is the apparent convergence of ideas between the last four boxes of the table, that is, "communities of learners" and "constructivist learning" with their corresponding conceptions of leadership in the adjacent boxes. The convergence lies in the notion that learning takes place within a social context and involves active participation – an idea that fits in with conceptions of leadership as collaborative and constituted in reciprocal processes that enable

action for change. A question remains, however, concerning the kind of knowledge and framework that enables collaborative leadership action for change.

3.2.2 Leadership Training, Learning and Practice

The idea that leadership learning is social in character and that educational leadership development programmes transmit certain kinds of knowledge and skills about leading and managing begs the question of how these translate into leadership practice. While skills in these areas are important, such an approach to leadership preparation assumes that knowledge and skills can be pre-packaged and transmitted to learners for latter retrieval. Wenger (1998:249) has argued that such an approach is "extractive" in nature as it *extracts* elements of practice and redeploys them as course materials that are "uprooted from the specificities and meaningfulness of practice." In similar vein, Keller and Keller see a problem about this perspective and warn that

> knowledge as organized for a particular task can never be sufficiently detailed, sufficiently precise, to anticipate exactly the conditions or results of actions. Action is never totally controlled by an actor but influenced by the vagaries of the physical and social world. Thus in any given instance, knowledge is continually being refined, enriched, or completely revised by experience whereas external action accommodates unanticipated physical contingencies or previously unrecalled specifics of the activity (Keller and Keller 1993:127).

Assessing the role of educational leadership and management in South Africa Prew (2003) has also raised similar reservations about leadership and management preparation approaches in South Africa. He begins his argument by highlighting the fact that there is a huge need for leadership and management training in the country as none of the 28000 principals and 100 000 members of school management teams have been trained specifically for the task. Prew, however, goes on to acknowledge that there are many courses for school managers but these are:

> …short, not credit bearing, not accredited, delinked from career path, not articulated and they usually ignore the first level of management,

> the Head of Department. In addition, the courses and training normally ignore the district officials…. [Furthermore] such courses are rarely practical and rooted in the realities of the candidate's school situation, are often too academic and are of little help in leading to real change in the majority of schools (Prew 2003:70).

There are a number of points to pick up from the above ideas on traditional leadership and management preparation practices. First, Prew's observations that it would be difficult to realize the transformation agenda, outlined in the previous chapter, if the huge need for leadership and management training is not met. Second, such training must not only focus on all school level leaders, but also must include district officials. This view agrees with my argument in Chapter 2 that educational leadership, contrary to the preoccupation in most literature on the subject, is greater than principalship. Finally, that much training does not show a link between theory and practice.

Looking at Wenger, Keller and Keller's and Prew's contributions together, it can be concluded there is a challenge that continues to face those who design and deliver leadership development programmes. On the one hand there is the view that no amount of training can be sufficiently detailed to cater for unique and complex situations. This especially applies to leadership development. Often educational leaders are faced with situations that may not be resolved by recourse to textbook knowledge. On the other hand, despite this fact, Prew calls for more training but one that is sensitive to linking theory with practice. A snap survey of leadership development programmes in a sample of South African universities seems to show that a lot more work needs to be done in this regard. The results of the survey are shown in Table 3.2, overleaf.

Table 3.2: Programmes and Courses in Educational Leadership in a Sample of South African Universities

Name of Programme/Course in Educational Leadership	Modules/Course Descriptions	Source of Information
Educational management	• Principles of Effective Management • Management of the School in Context • Educational Leadership • Managing School Finances • South African Law in Education	RAU Faculty of Education and Nursing: Year Book 2004 (pages 176 – 177)
Educational management	• Educational leadership • Educational Change • Organizational Development • Educational Management and Development • Educational Policy • Financial Management	University of Port Elizabeth. Calendar 2003: Faculty of Education (page 194)
Educational Management, Administration and Policy	• Management and Policy Practicum • Education Management • School Administration • Education Policy and Governance	University of the Western Cape. Faculty of Education. Year Book 2002. (pages 36 – 37)
Education Management	• Policy Studies and the Education System • Human Resource Management in Education • Organizational Development in Education • Education Law • Managing the School as an Organization	UNISA Faculty of Education. 1999. (page 31)
Educational Leadership	• Education Management and leadership • Leadership and management of learning in education • Leadership and management of human resources in education • Accountability and financial management in education • Comparative school management and practicum • Education and law	University of Pretoria. Faculty of Education. 2004 *Regulations & Syllabi* (page 48)
a) Leadership & Development of Self	***Course Description (a):*** "The differences between leadership and management; different styles of leadership; transformational leadership;	University of Natal. School of Education Training and Development Incorporating Centre

Name of Programme/Course in Educational Leadership	Modules/Course Descriptions	Source of Information
b) Leadership and Mentorship in Educational Qualification	leadership and power; invitational leadership; an introduction to action research; categories of schools; gender and leadership; assessing oneself as a leader." ***Course Description (b):*** "Leadership styles (reflections); leadership roles, types and issues (reading and case studies); visionary and values-driven leadership; mentorship, delegation and teamwork; mentorship programmes."	for Adult Education. 2002. (page 66)
Leading a Self-reliant School	• Leadership attributes of a good leader • Leadership styles • Leadership vs. management • Leadership vs. power, including sources of power • Gender as a power issue • The leader as a change agent • The leader as a professional • Presentation skills	University of Cape Town. Faculty of Humanities. Student Handbook. 2003. (Page 87)
Management in Education	• Leadership and strategic management • Management of the curriculum • Management of the finance and external relations • Management of human resources in education	Vista University Calendar. 2001. (page 42)
Educational Leadership and Management	***Course Description:*** "The course is designed to introduce students to basic management principles and models and their applicability to primary and secondary education in Southern Africa. Aimed at the educator who occupies (or is professionally ready to occupy) a promotion post at a school, the course will provide a framework within which educationally proven leadership and management may be executed. Emphasis on leadership processes will ensure an equitable weighting of theory and practice…	Rhodes University Academic Information. Department of education. (Website)[4]

[4] See http://www.ru.ac.za/academic/calendar2004/eduction.html. (accessed 12 December 2004)

On the face of it, the leadership development programmes and courses in Table 3.2 show a pattern not dissimilar to that of Szabo and Lambert above and summarized in Table 3.1. I hasten to be cautionary in this conclusion, however, as I have taken only a quick look at the university calendars, interviewing neither programme or course leaders nor students of the courses concerned. It may be that what appears on paper is done differently in practice. That qualification notwithstanding, I would argue that the fact that Table 3.2 shows what Szabo and Lambert describe as traditional, the approach in these universities can be characterized as such. Second, a non-traditional programme such as the ELMD at Fort Hare (as presented below in this chapter, pages 93 - 99 and in Chapter 5) one can tell from a listing of modules that it moves away from the traditional and does not resemble the offerings shown in Table 3.2. There is, thus, a need to learn from the experiences of the ELMD.

3.3 Leadership Development: A Case for a Knowledge Ecology Perspective?

In the above outline of leadership development approaches one central issue looms. It concerns the relationship between knowledge and practice. To understand this relationship, it is necessary to explore the conceptions of knowledge, knowing and how these processes relate to practice. A framework which, I believe, assists in exploring the relationship between the creation and utilization of knowledge is called “knowledge Ecology”.

3.3.1 Meaning of Knowledge Ecology

Shrivastava (2000) has proposed a “knowledge ecology” perspective as a useful framework for developing an understanding of the relationship between knowledge and practice. Knowledge ecology (KE) is an emerging field that is gaining increasing popularity in the business world organizational development discourse. Its relevance in education lies in the fact that it emphasizes the centrality of the *people* element in all social transformation efforts. One of the pioneers of the idea, George Por, defines KE as

> …a field of theory and practice that focuses on discovering better social, organizational, behavioural, and technical conditions for knowledge creation and utilization. It is an interdisciplinary discipline that draws on the best of current thought and action, including knowledge management; communities of practice;…organizational learning and hypertext organization. [It] operates on the principle that the best models…that create, sustain, and foster organizational learning and development are natural "learning organizations", like a rainforest or human brain. KE's primary area of study and domain of action are the design and support of self-organizing knowledge "ecosystems," in which information, ideas and insights, and inspiration cross-fertilize and feed one another, free from the constraints of geography and schedule (Por 2000:3).

From the above quotation, a number of ideas can be highlighted. One concerns a focus on the creation and utilization of knowledge. However, in order to unpack this idea it is necessary first to explain the concept of knowledge, a task I shall turn to in a section below. For now, I should like to look at the second idea, that of a natural ecosystem. This idea is crafted out of a metaphor of biological organisms. It is based on the notion that social organisms, like biological organizations, need to be self-sustaining if they are to survive. The survival of ecosystems depends on a number of factors, but perhaps one of the most critical is that various parts of the system must play their part in supporting the survival of the system. However, unlike biological ecosystems, social systems have two additional and critical factors, *leadership* and collective *wisdom*. Wisdom, as explained below, can be understood as the highest form of knowledge (see Figure 3.2). To relate KE specifically to education, the KE framework is about studying and enhancing the ways in which the parts and wholes of knowledge-generating systems relate to one another. When applied to the schooling system, an example can be given of an Education District Knowledge Ecology consisting, among other things, of such parts as the Provincial Department, the Education District, school-communities and clusters. Figure 3.1 below gives a diagrammatical representation of this.

The thinking behind Figure 3.1 is that transformation will take place when there is collaboration and knowledge sharing among all stakeholders, members of the school, district officials, provincial officials and communities around the school, among others. All have something to offer towards the development of an Education District Knowledge Ecology organization

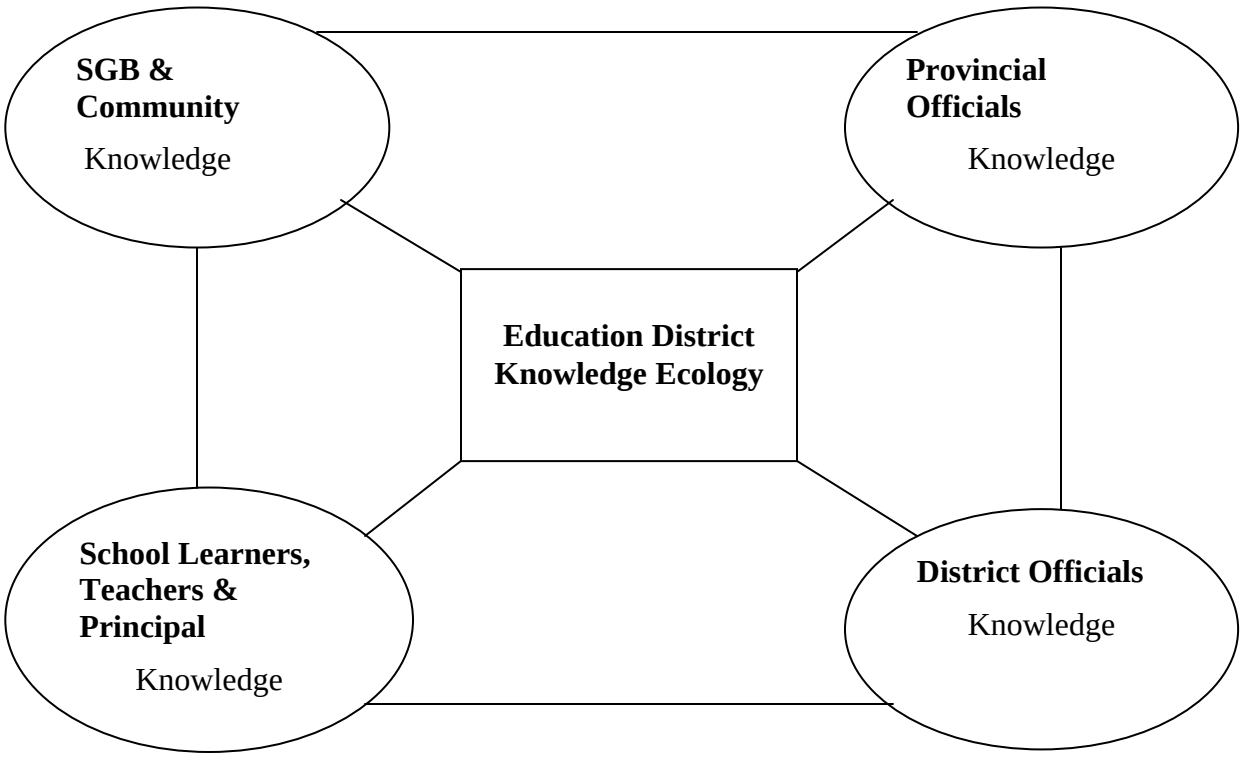


Figure 3.1: A Model of Education District Knowledge Ecology Framework

Given the scenario depicted in Figure 3.1, it cannot be expected that all the various parts of the ecosystem will automatically see themselves as an ecosystem. There is need for deliberate intervention to energize the system. It also needs to be systematically developed and nurtured. **In this respect, the development and nurturing of an education district knowledge ecosystem becomes both a key leadership competence as well as a strategic imperative in transformation.** However, to gain a fuller appreciation of this assertion, it is now important to examine, in some detail, what I understand by knowledge.

3.3.2 Understanding Knowledge

In the above outline of KE, I have elaborated on the "ecology" part of the concept of KE and deferred an explanation of the other key and critical word, *knowledge* to this section. Like many concepts in the social sciences, there are different meanings attached to knowledge. For the purposes of this chapter, I will focus on the meaning which illustrates my argument concerning leadership development that is informed by a knowledge ecology framework. Horvath (2003:1) has argued that putative conceptions about the "true" nature of knowledge are mostly beside the point, what is important in order "to work with knowledge a simple working definition is required." My definition is in two parts. First, it focuses on three related terms of *data*, *information,* and *knowledge*. Second, it attempts to clarify further the concept by exploring various classifications of knowledge.

3.3.2.1 Data, Information and Knowledge

One way of developing a deeper understanding of what knowledge is, is by distinguishing between data, information and knowledge. Many writers in the field of knowledge theorization (Halles 2001; Ahmend, Kok and Loh 2002; Quintas and Ray 2002; Awad and Ghaziri 2004), to mention a few, agree that the three terms are not synonymous. Awad and Ghaziri have given a summary that shows differences and relationships among these terms. I show these overleaf in Table 3.3

Table 3.3: Progression from Data to Information to Knowledge (Adapted from Awad and Ghaziri 2004:40-41)

Aspect	Description
Data	Unprocessed or raw material for the so called "number crunching" or data processing. For example, a list of names or raw statements about a social problem.
Information	Processed data, organized data in a format that adds meaning. For example, names arranged by some category such as age, gender, etc., or statements about a social problem arranged in themes.
Knowledge	An *understanding* of information which is based on a person's perception, skills, training, common sense and experience. Knowledge is links that a person makes. It is actionable information.

It can be seen, in Table 3.3, that knowledge can be viewed in terms of a hierarchy that starts from data. I would argue, however, that all the three levels of the hierarchy are needed not only in any leadership development or training programme but also in our daily lives. We often process data into information and then into knowledge when we begin to understand the context in which we are operating. As Halles (2001:1) expressed it: **Knowledge = information in context + understanding**. Put in another way, "…people add value to information and, in so doing, create knowledge" (Horvath 2003:1).

Given this conceptualization, and notwithstanding debates around these distinctions, it is important to pose the question regarding **the extent to which traditional leadership development programmes concentrate on transmitting data and information in the form of textbook based curricular materials without learners understanding the context.** While these are important, my concern, judging from course descriptions I have reviewed, is that little or no attention is devoted to the level of knowledge transmission in a manner that is consistent with sustaining a knowledge ecosystem as described above. Another point that fuels my concern is the fact that much of the traditional leadership curriculum is based on book knowledge, which, as I will argue below constitutes a relatively small part of actionable knowledge that can be used in addressing everyday problems in

education. To understand the justification of this point I now need to unpack further the concept of knowledge into different types.

3.3.3 Types of Knowledge

In an effort to understand what it is, knowledge theorists classify knowledge into many categories (Awad and Ghaziri 2004:42-50). For the purposes of this chapter, I will focus on two types that best illustrate or make the point about the need for a knowledge ecology framework in leadership development. The two types are *tacit* and *explicit* knowledge**.** Ahmend, Kok and Loh (2002:10) make the following distinction:

- *Tacit knowledge* is very difficult to describe or express. It is knowledge that is usually transferred by demonstration, rather than by description, and encompasses such things as skills.
- *Explicit knowledge* is easily written down or codified. It is relatively easy to articulate and communicate, and is easier to transfer between individuals and organizations. Explicit knowledge resides in formulae, textbooks or technical documents.

Below I explain each type in greater detail.

3.3.3.1 Tacit Knowledge

As can be seen from the above definitions, *tacit* knowledge is that which sits in people's heads. It is often an understanding that we do not even know we have – a concept akin to the notion of "unconscious competence". Halles (2001:1) argues that it is embedded knowledge, which incorporates historical understanding implicit in processes, products, services, structures, methods and techniques of doing things. It also includes, Halles argues, traditional values and beliefs. If this is the case, it can be said that all members of a society, including those who enroll for leadership development programmes, have embedded tacit knowledge of the society in which they live, and, by definition, tacit knowledge of leadership and how to lead. A further indication of the importance of tacit knowledge is given by Quintas and Ray (2002:10)

who have argued that much knowledge upon which organizations rely is tacit, that is, it resides "within the heads and motor neuron systems of employees and has not been codified or made explicit". Awad and Ghaziri (2004:6) put the proportion of what they call "uncaptured" tacit knowledge up to 95% and only 5% to an explicit knowledge base. If this is true, as Horvath (2003:2) argues, "much of what the [organization] 'knows' remains unknown or inaccessible to those who need it". Yet, Horvath goes on, tacit knowledge tends to mirror the way work *actually* gets done within an organization and not necessarily what is mandated in procedures and processes (also see Chapter 2, pages 21 -22). As such, tacit knowledge is created at the leading edge of organizational learning, reflecting what people learn in their everyday practice. For this reason, leveraging tacit knowledge is the key to organizational learning and transformation. This has several implications for leadership development programmes, as will be seen below. **An educational leadership development programme in a knowledge ecology framework will therefore consider skills in leveraging tacit knowledge as one of the key areas of leadership competence**. This process of learning is presented diagrammatically in Figure 3.2 below. However, as already mentioned, although tacit knowledge forms the greater part of what we know, it is only one part of human knowledge. Most people are familiar with the more visible type of knowledge.

3.3.3.2 Explicit Knowledge

Explicit knowledge, Halles (2001:1) explains, is knowledge that has been structured and documented, to be found in books, reports, good-practice guidelines, etc. One point that distinguishes this type of knowledge from tacit knowledge is that although such knowledge is systematically documented, it does not necessarily reflect how things are actually done. In other words, it is not synonymous with "know-how". Linking this idea to the conceptions of leadership and leadership development programmes, it can be argued that explicit knowledge of leadership as written in books globally, including South

Africa, emanates mainly from Western writers. These books contain what has become conventional wisdom about leadership and leadership development strategies. The question is: **to what extent are leadership training programmes informed by these perspectives relevant to the unique leadership challenges in South Africa and the Eastern Cape?** Asked in another way, **to what extent do they take into account the tacit knowledge of its recipients?** I consider these questions in the section on implications below. But before that, it may be useful to summarize how tacit and explicit knowledge interact to create a qualitatively new form: wisdom.

3.3.3.3 Linking Tacit and Explicit Knowledge to Produce Wisdom

Following the above argument, little is known about how book or explicit leadership knowledge is actually critical to leadership performance. My suspicion, however, is that while explicit leadership knowledge can broaden the repertoire of skills of leadership trainees, it cannot provide answers to the solution of everyday problems as they arise. I illustrate this point further in a section below. For now, back to summarizing the idea of linking explicit and tacit knowledge. I have represented the relationship diagrammatically in Figure 3.2, below.

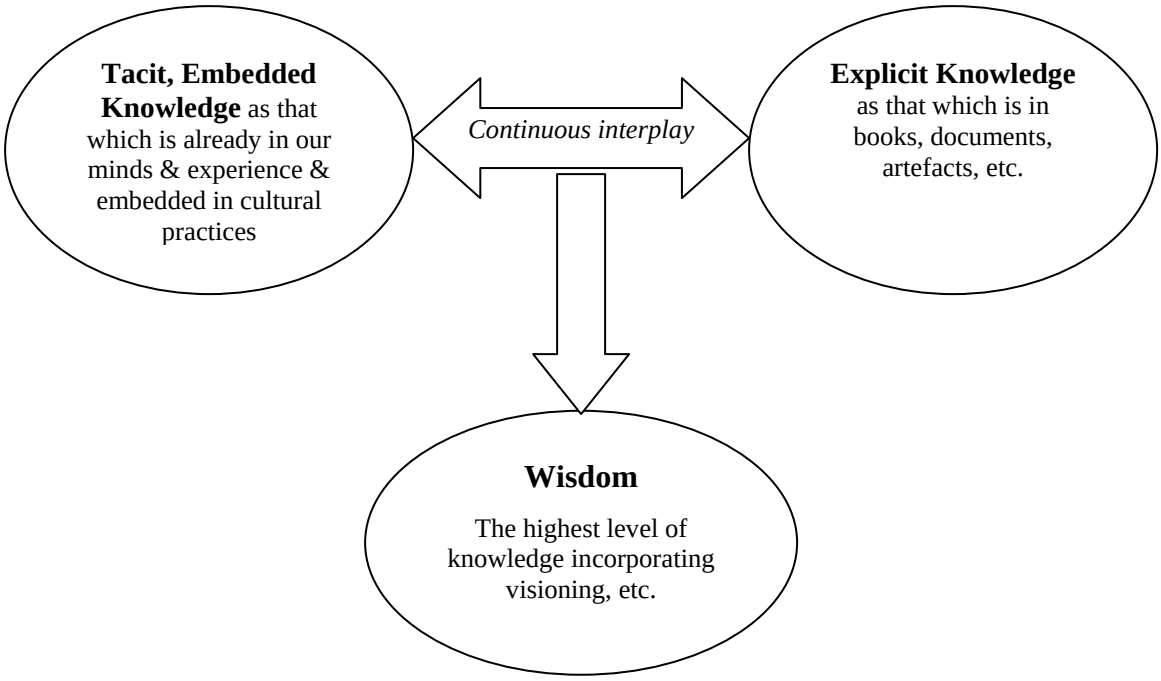


Figure 3.2: Tacit and Explicit Knowledge

Looking at Figure 3.2, although for analytical purposes it is possible to separate the three types, in reality this conceptualization should be seen as depicting a continuous and dynamic interplay between tacit and explicit knowledge, amounting to a profile and a repertoire of a person's knowledge, skills, values and beliefs that guide everyday practice and which lead to accumulated wisdom for envisioning the future. **Failure to recognize this reality in the design and delivery of leadership development programmes may lead to the delivery of programmes that offer paper qualifications but which do little to offer recipients relevant leadership knowledge and wisdom to drive the transformation agenda.**

How then might a university-based programme develop leadership that promotes effective integration between tacit and explicit knowledge? I would argue, through knowledge sharing or knowledge management strategies. The evidence for this claim is the substance of the data chapters, Chapters 5 and 6.

3.4 Knowledge Ecology and Knowledge Sharing: Implications for Leadership Development

If the concept of knowledge ecology is an organizational characteristic, as explained above, then there are implications for what kind of leadership is appropriate for the sustainable transformation and survival of the ecosystem. One major implication, as seen above, is that leadership development programmes should not focus on transmission of explicit book knowledge alone. They should rather focus on **a sustainable knowledge sharing strategy that builds upon and takes advantage of tacit knowledge and make it engage with and dialogue with explicit knowledge towards the creation of new ways of doing things**. This poses a challenge in the design of leadership development programmes. I pursue this idea below in the section where I outline a leadership development programme of which I have made a case study. For now, it is important first to outline how a knowledge sharing strategy might work in leadership development.

3.4.1 Knowledge Sharing: a Leadership Development Strategy

Strategies for knowledge sharing referred to by some writers as *knowledge management* (KM), is another concept that is gaining increasing popularity in the business world and which is applicable to educational leadership and management. It enables one to develop a framework within which to structure sustainable collaboration between parts of the ecosystem. Associated with KM are a range of terms such as "the learning organization", "intellectual capital", "and intellectual asset management", "communities of interest", etc., all of which, I would argue, speak to the idea of a self-organizing and self-renewing organization or community. Over the last decade, there have been numerous definitions of KM. I have chosen one by Ahmend *et al.*, which goes thus:

> Knowledge management consists of a set of cross-disciplinary organizational processes that seek the ongoing and continuous creation of new knowledge by leveraging the synergy of combining

> information technologies, and creative and innovative capacity of human beings (Ahmend, Kok and Loh 2002:12).

Three points can be highlighted from the quotation. One is that the definition shows that for a knowledge ecosystem to function there has to be deliberate sharing of both tacit and explicit knowledge. The second is that knowledge sharing comprises cross-disciplinary processes that encompass a variety of strategies. Quintas and Ray (2002:9) give an example of how KM takes place in an organization. It encompasses a variety of strategies, which include:

- Targeted on communicating, learning, reviewing, capturing and sharing knowledge;
- Use of stories to communicate experience, targeted on transferring learning;
- After-action reviews, capturing learning from experience;
- Identifying specific and tailored information or contracts;
- People database, providing access to expertise;
- Learning from mistakes, surfacing and capturing learning in a non-blame culture, avoiding costly repetition; and
- Sharing expertise.

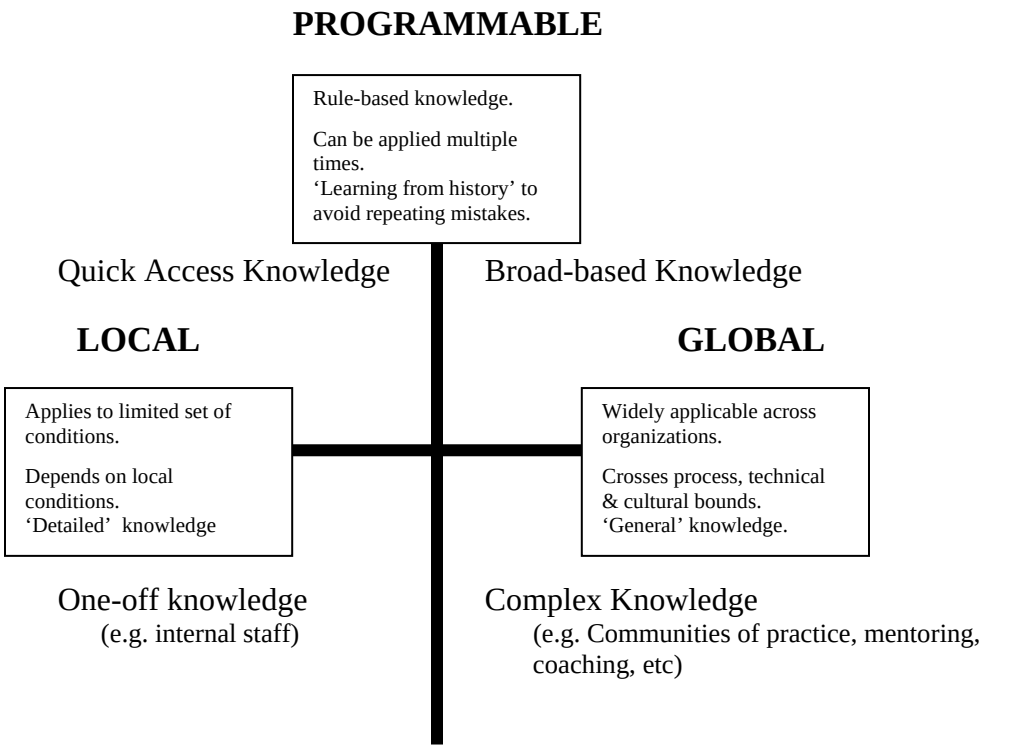
The third point from the knowledge management definition is at the heart of knowledge management or knowledge sharing. It is the idea of leveraging knowledge for the survival of the ecosystem. As pointed out above, the skill of leveraging knowledge is an important leadership competency. Novins and Armstrong (2003), writing about a business organization, have characterized leveraging knowledge as the art of "choosing [the right] spots for knowledge management", which means the ability to identify opportunities for leveraging, or taking advantage of particular aspects and contexts of knowledge generation, communication and utilization. Relating this point to education, it can be said that for a leadership development programme to implement a knowledge sharing strategy successfully, it must give participants opportunities to practice and develop skills for leveraging knowledge within

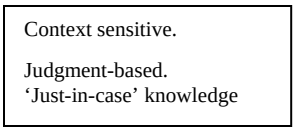
their education district ecosystem. For Novins and Armstrong, knowledge leveraging takes place along four dimensions.

3.4.2 Dimensions of Leveraging Knowledge and their Implications for Leadership Development

Novins and Armstrong (2003:47) state that "in considering the question what knowledge to share, the answer need not be expressed as 'knowledge about x' or 'knowledge about y'". The point they are making is that asking about knowledge in this way leads one to thinking about knowledge in terms of domains or content. Novins and Armstrong argue that this is not a useful way of thinking about knowledge sharing. Instead, there is need to think in terms of the second question, that is, the relative ***applicability*** and ***transferability*** of knowledge. Any given piece of knowledge that may be important for decision-making, according to Novins and Armstrong, falls somewhere along four dimensions, consisting of a horizontal continuum of applicability and a vertical continuum of transferability, as depicted in Figure 3.3.

Figure 3.3: Applicability and Transferability of Knowledge (Adapted from Novins and Armstrong)





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A number of points can be raised from Figure 3.3. To facilitate the reading of the figure, it will be useful to unpack each continuum in turn.

3.4.2.1 Local–Global Knowledge Applicability Continuum

At the one extreme of the continuum, a thing that is known might be purely local, that is, it applies only to its immediate set of conditions and is dependent on local physical and/or geographic conditions. It goes without saying that people who live in a particular locality will have detailed knowledge about how, for example, mountains, rivers, climatic conditions impact on their everyday activities, including education. For example, in a particular community, it may not be possible for learners and educators to start school on time as mandated by the District Education Office because of physical barriers such as I have mentioned. Here people will apply mainly tacit knowledge and relatively little or no explicit knowledge, as they are not likely to have access to documents, books, etc., that contain the kind of knowledge that will help them deal with the situation.

At the other extreme, the knowledge might be global in nature, applying across organizations, cultural bounds and localities. This type of knowledge is mainly explicit, found in books, documents, etc. It is not unreasonable to assume that books and documents will contain theories and concepts about education and educational leadership that are applicable almost universally. For example, the fact that leadership is associated with values beliefs, vision and other cultural factors applies in all contexts. However, the local values, beliefs and other cultural elements are usually not captured in global books. **Herein lies a challenge for any leadership development programme: how to structure it in such a way that the local knowledge dialogues and engages the global to create new knowledge that is applicable locally**.

3.4.2.2 Programmable–Unique Knowledge Transferability Continuum

Another issue to consider concerning knowledge is how transferable it is across situations. Novins and Armstrong argue that some pieces of knowledge are highly transferable. They give an example of rule-based knowledge or that which is learned from history. In education, for example, poor communication within a department or school may lead to unrest or even to a riot. Experience from the past may be documented showing that whenever there is poor communication some unrest follows. Good communication can therefore be stressed in documented leadership development programmes. Another example concerns rules of financial management. There are a number that are applicable across situations and can be reflected in leadership and management curricula across the world.

At the other end of the continuum, transferability is low when knowledge is context sensitive and judgment-based. While such knowledge can be documented, it is hard to capture in such a way that it can be accessed "just in time" to address a problem. Much leadership knowledge from books, especially by western authors, does not cater for unique context-specific problems or situations that require leadership judgment on the spot. In leadership work there can be no shortage of such contexts. Leaders, therefore, have to rely on their embedded and tacit knowledge to deal with the given situation. **The challenge here is how embedded and tacit knowledge can be made to engage with the explicit to produce new leadership knowledge that will guide the transformation agenda.**

The fact that any form of knowledge, particularly leadership knowledge, may be more or less applicable depending on where it is on the local–global continuum, or transferable, depending on where it is on the unique–programmable continuum, raises fundamental questions regarding an appropriate learning programme for leadership preparation.

3.5 Leadership Development and Social Learning Theory

In Table 3.1 above, it was seen how the approach to learning and leadership has been shifting over the years, from traditional behavioural approaches to communities of learners and constructivist learning. The last two are consistent with the knowledge ecology approach, as I will argue below. I will draw heavily on Etienne Wenger's theory of social learning as well as the concept of community of practice.

3.5.1 Social Theory of Learning

I have argued above, following Lambert *et al*. (2002), that leadership is about learning. Apart from the summary in Table 3.1, I have not yet unpacked what approach to learning is consistent with the development of constructivist and collaborative leadership. Wenger's theory will help me do so. In outlining his theory, Wenger (1998:3–17) starts by examining what matters about learning, the nature of knowledge, knowing and knowers. He argues in terms of the following assumptions:

- that humans are social beings;
- that knowledge is a matter of competence with respect to valued enterprises;
- that knowing is a matter of participating in the pursuit of such enterprises; and that learning is intended to produce our ability to experience the world in a meaningful way.

The point arising from these assumptions is that a theory of social learning must, therefore, integrate various components necessary to characterize social participation as a process of learning. Following Wenger, I have characterized a social learning theory for leadership development in Figure 3.4, overleaf.

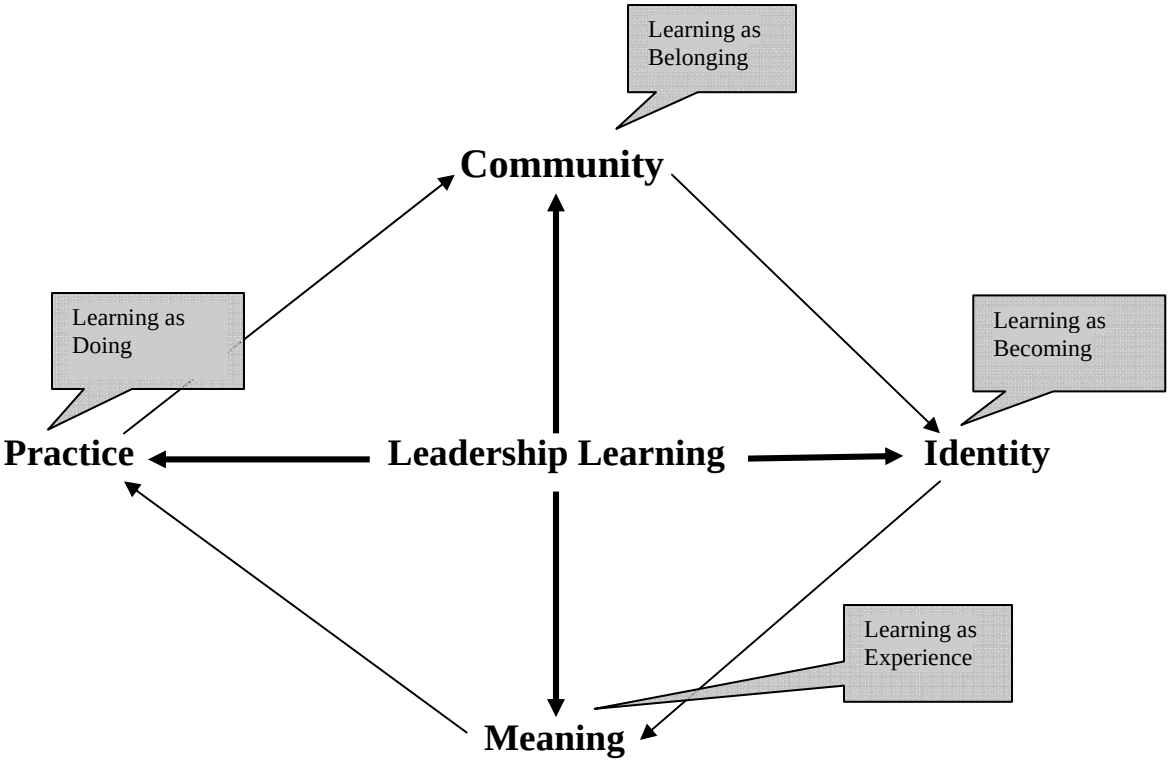


Figure 3.4: Social theory of Leadership Development (Adapted from Wenger 2002:5)

From Figure 3.4, four key components of a social theory of learning are outlined as:

1. ***Meaning***: a way of talking about our (changing) ability – individually and collectively – to experience our life and the world as meaningful.
2. ***Practice***: a way of talking about the shared historical and social resources, frameworks and perspectives that can sustain mutual engagement in action.
3. ***Community***: a way of talking about the social configurations in which our enterprises are defined as worth pursuing and our participation is recognizable as competence.
4. ***Identity***: a way of talking about how learning changes who we are and creates personal histories of becoming in the context of our communities.

In the foregoing summary, it can be seen that in all the four components of the theory, learning takes place in an ecosystem of community where identities and meaning are formed through practice. Viewed through the lenses of this

theory, it is difficult conceive of learning outside of these components. Relating Wenger's ideas to education and aligning them to the central argument of this chapter, I return to the notion of an education district knowledge ecology organization (see Figure 3.1).

In order to promote social learning, in the sense described above, an education district which strives to become a knowledge ecology organization would put less emphasis on functional departments and adopt a number of cross-functional structural arrangements that encourage sharing of knowledge rather than compartmentalization. In other words, a knowledge ecology education district would have different departments within that district cooperate around a common goal, such as improving the pass rate at matriculation level. The departments would then share knowledge and resources towards the achievement of that goal. The sharing could take place through a variety of structures. A number have been suggested (McDermott 1999; Hewitt 2003; Mitchell 2003). However, I would like to focus on two which I think are most relevant in education and which also illustrate my argument that anchors transformation in knowledge sharing strategies. I would argue that the two potentially most powerful vehicles for sharing tacit and explicit knowledge are *teams* and *communities of practice*. I explore these terms in turn below.

3.5.1.1 Learning and Sharing Knowledge in Teams

The word "team" is often used without much care in defining what it means. McDermott (1999:2) has defined a team as "a group of people with a common goal, interdependent work, and joint accountability for results." Moyo (2003) has warned that the notion of "team" as a social science concept needs to be problematized, as studies in other countries and in South Africa have raised issues around how School Management Teams (SMTs) work, for example, as well as the processes that lead to their formation and sustenance.

Notwithstanding these cautionary remarks about teams and teamwork, modern non-hierarchically oriented organizations place a great deal of emphasis on

teamwork. McDermott (1999) has argued that teams can be great vehicles for learning and sharing knowledge in the sense that:

- Team members can build on each other's ideas and deepen their thinking and insights.
- Teams can provide a safe environment in which people can collectively reflect on their experiences and the implications of those experiences for the organization.
- Within the context of a knowledge ecology education district, teams can be built that consist of a people from different departments and professions such that they share the knowledge needed to achieve identified goals.
- By working together in close proximity over an extended period, teams develop a rhythm, rapport, common identity and trust that vastly improve their ability to build on each other's ideas towards the solution of problems.

Despite a number of advantages, applicability and fitness to new post-bureaucratic organizational principles, teams are not without problems. McDermott (1999:3) has raised a number of limitations that teams can have. They include:

- ***Teams can become new "silos"***: it has been reported that people in team-based organizations often complain that they have trouble getting information from other teams. The very thing that makes teams work well can easily lead to two related learning disabilities; isolation and team myopia.
- ***Teams can get isolated***: Concentration on team goals can lead to team isolation in the sense that even when team members fully intend to share knowledge with other teams, team goals often pull so strongly on people's time, that they simply cannot find the time to do so.
- ***Isolation can lead to team myopia***: It is argued that when teams are isolated or lose touch with other teams they get into the habit of rejecting

ideas from outside and lose the ability to generate new ideas and, thus become myopic.

Given the potentially debilitating limitations of working with teams, McDermott (2003) has argued for a "double-knit" organization, where teams are combined with *communities of practice*. Instead of sharing learning through teams, organizational structures are created that weave teams together with communities of practice. I return to this idea later. For now, it is important to explain briefly what is understood by communities of practice.

3.5.1.2 Learning and Sharing Knowledge in Communities of Practice

In Wenger's theory of social learning, it was seen that knowledge cannot be separated from the communities who create it, use it, and transform it. According to this perspective, the source and location of all knowledge is *community*. As Wenger, McDermott and Snyder (2002) explain,

> Community creates the social fabric of learning. A strong community fosters interactions and relationships based on mutual respect and trust. It encourages willingness to share ideas, expose one's ignorance, ask difficult questions, and listen carefully.… Community is an important element because learning is a matter of belonging as well as an intellectual process, involving the heart as well as the head (Wenger *et al.* cited in Mitchell 2003:19).

According to this argument, a community is more than the sum of its parts. Having others who share the general views of each member yet at the same time bring their own individual perspectives to any problem, creates a social learning system that goes beyond the sum of its parts. As seen in Wenger's theory of social learning, all the learning together, sharing of knowledge, happens within the context of a social practice. For Wenger, *social practice* is the other key term in the concept of communities of practice. Social practice

> …denotes a set of socially defined ways of doing things in a specific domain: a set of common approaches and shared standards that create a basis for action, communication, problem solving, performance and accountability. These communal resources include a variety of

> knowledge types: cases and stories, theories, rules, frameworks, models, principles, tools, experts, articles, lessons learned, best practices and heuristics. They include both tacit and explicit aspects of the community's knowledge (Wenger *et al.* cited in Mitchell 2003:25).

For Wenger, therefore, social practice is what defines communities, hence "communities of practice". In earlier writing, Wenger (1998:43–50) outlines this line of thinking in more detail. He puts forward a number of defining features of community of practice. In this section, I simply outline them. I will examine them in greater detail in the next chapter, in conjunction with the experiences of participants of a leadership development programme which I introduce in Section 4 below.

- *Practice as meaning*: The idea that social production of meaning is the relevant level of analysis for talking about practice.
- *Practice as community*: This refers to the fact that social practice is the source of coherence of a community.
- *Practice as learning*: Practice must be understood as a learning process and that a community of practice is an emergent structure where newcomers can join the community and thus further its practice.
- *Knowing in practice*: Explains what it means to know in practice, the idea that there is no dichotomy between theory and practice. Instead, the relation between theory and practice is always complex and continually interactive.

For Wenger, communities of practice are places where people develop, negotiate and share knowledge. In short, a community of practice refers to a group of people who share a common concern, set of problems or passion about a topic and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting on an ongoing basis.

In the next chapter, I will draw on these ideas about communities of practice and look for evidence, within the framework of an educational leadership development programme in the Eastern Cape, of how they form in educational

organizational contexts as well as educational stakeholder communities in South Africa. As a relatively new concept, communities of practice have been presented with very few problems. The next chapter will also examine both their inherent strengths and problems.

3.5.1.3 Teams and Communities of Practice: Summary Characteristics

In the previous two subsections above, it can be seen that teams and communities of practice are key social structures for learning and knowledge sharing. In this sense, they are building blocks as well as the basis for sustainability for a knowledge ecology organization. Before looking at their implications for leadership development, it may be useful to summarize the defining characteristics of the two.

Table 3.4: Summary of Characteristics of Communities of Practice and Teams (Adapted from Hewitt, A. 2003 and McDermott, R. 1999)

	Purpose	**Membership**	**Glue**	**Duration**	**Structure**
Community of Practice	Exchange Knowledge	Self select	Passion, identification with group	As long as the interest lasts	Informal
Team	Accomplish task	Assigned or selected	Milestones or mandated goals	Task completed	Mainly formal

As can be seen from Table 3.4, a community of practice exists solely for the exchange of knowledge. The membership is voluntary, based on a shared passion that a group has about a topic and such a community will last as long as the interest lasts. Whereas teams are tightly integrated units driven by deliverables, defined by tasks and bound together by members' collective commitment to results, communities of practice are loosely knit groups driven by the value they provide to members. They are defined by opportunities to learn and share and bound by a sense of collective identity. Following, McDermott (1999), that neither teams nor communities of practice on their own are sufficient structures for developing and maintaining a knowledge

ecosystem, a blending of the two structures can prove useful as communities of practice weave teams together, and teams strengthen communities of practice. What role, then, does leadership play in all this?

3.5.2 Implications for a Knowledge Ecology Leadership Development Perspective

From the above description of teams and communities of practice, it is necessary to pick up a few points that are of relevance to the leadership development approach I have outlined. First, leadership development within this framework will need to give learner leaders opportunities to build and work in teams as well as communities of practice. In this way, they develop practices which help them become team and community players. Second, as part of the major thrust of the programme, a knowledge ecology leadership development approach would put emphasis on an understanding of the knowledge ecosystem in which the educational leadership works. Third, in such a programme, there would be need to map the education district ecosystem with a view to identifying, strengths and opportunities for addressing challenges that impede the achievement of stated goals. Fourth, over and above other skills, the learner leaders would have to learn skills for nurturing the ecosystem.

3.5.3 Critique of the Knowledge Ecology Perspective

Any perspective has its strong aspects and its challenges as well. What I have presented so far emphasizes the strengths of this approach. The approach, however, can be challenged on a number of points. First, that in all the networking, the role of the individual leadership action is underplayed. My discussion in Chapters 1 and 6 concerning the duality of subject and object, as well as between individual agency and structure, highlight the complexity of social life. Both the individual agent and the structure of the ecosystem are interdependent. Second, the ecosystem framework assumes consensus about values and goals that all members of the knowledge ecology system work towards achieving. This is problematic, as the meanings that some people

attach to various situations, as Wenger's argument shows (page 199), may be reifications of the dominant discourses. In other words, within an ecosystem there are power dynamics whose consequences must be recognized and exposed. Related to the issue of power, is a third criticism, concerning the question of whether the ecological collaboration at micro or local level of school community can make any difference in altering national and global political, hegemonic power balances. An example of this question is that often local school communities are asked to collaborate and be subjects and objects of their own development. But in the South African situation with a long history of dispossession, it is difficult to see how much impact this strategy can bring to the very poor school communities without conscious redistribution of resources at macro level in favour of the poor, and without altering wider societal power relations. The third, social justice perspective (see page 48), based on grand narratives originating in the Western enlightenment tradition, offers another way of looking at the issue.

On the whole, however, the ecosystem approach is a powerful perspective for taking collective action.

In this section I have sketched, in theory, some key concerns of a leadership development approach that is informed by a knowledge ecology framework. What remains is to explore what evidence there is of such an approach to leadership development. To do this I focus in the next section on a case study of a new leadership development programme.

3.6 Educational Leadership, Management and Development (ELMD) Programme: An Example of a Knowledge Ecology Approach?

3.6.1 Background and Purpose

In July 2003, the University of Fort Hare's then School of Education launched a new leadership preparation programme, called Educational Leadership, Management and Development (ELMD). The idea of this programme started in 2000 during a discussion between Nhlanganiso Dladla and George Moyo,

both academic practitioners at the University of Fort Hare. The idea arose out of three basic concerns. One was the shared belief and desire to see tangible and observable changes taking place in schools and communities, as a result of various projects (Imbewu, Isithole, Ikwezi, mention just three examples) aimed at bringing about transformation. The second related motivation was to address the apparent lack of coordination and synergy among various efforts within the Eastern Cape Department of Education, pointing to a possible gap in leadership. Following this was the third question focusing on why there was this apparent gap in leadership despite many university based educational leadership and management programmes that have, over the years, produced a number of graduates serving in the schools system. Dladla and Moyo then sought to develop a leadership preparation programme that not only seeks to answer these questions but also to promote integrated whole school and whole district development through the development and nurturing of leadership and management knowledge, as well as the cultivation of a change-activist consciousness in education organizations and stakeholder communities. The main purpose is, therefore

> to harness and organize local and global human and material resources for development through educational leadership, with the ultimate goal of impacting learner outcomes through improving teaching and learning in schools, as well as the support provided to schools by communities, regional and district authorities (Dladla and Moyo 2002:4, Appendix 1).

As can be seen, from the above quotation, the thinking behind the programme speaks to an ecosystem with various parts working together for the development and survival of the system. The idea is that these elements of the ELMD programme can develop in such a manner that they are both self-reinforcing and supportive to each other. The partnerships between communities and education organizations ensure that there is a cross-fertilization of ideas between these sectors, leading to relevant actions for change. At the same time, this leads to the development of learning communities within and outside education organizations. The expectation is

that this leads to the creation of qualitatively new human and material resources that can be mobilized and used for further action aimed at change.

3.6.2 Objectives of the ELMD

Specific objectives of the programme have been stated as:

- Mobilize broad based stakeholder participation in education and community renewal and development;
- Develop education leaders and change advocates at local level of school – including community – and district;
- Encourage the development and consolidation of a self-sustaining capability for ongoing renewal and development of education districts, embracing the notion of holistic education development and a commensurate support infrastructure (doers, systems and procedures that seamlessly connect policy development to implementation; curriculum to management, governance and citizenship-building – in other words, a knowledge ecology);
- Establish synchronous experimentation and co-learning across a couple of manageable sites;
- Facilitate the institutionalizing and sharing of knowledge capital accruing from the participatory education development initiative of the kind suggested in this proposal, as well as other hitherto non-accredited initiatives, for example, Imbewu, Ikwezi and Isithole; and others.
- Disseminate lessons learned through the project and influence other education development initiatives in the region with replicable insights.

In order to achieve these purposes and objectives, the ELMD curriculum is designed along a social learning approach within a knowledge ecology framework.

3.6.3 The ELMD Curriculum

3.6.3.1 Design principles

The programme was designed to differ from traditional leadership development programmes in two fundamental respects:

1. The admission of participants is team-based; each team to comprise at least one member of a district education office, two or more principals/school heads from schools that the district officers work with, teachers on school management teams, as well as members of School Governing Bodies (SGBs). With regard to district officials, it should be noted that there will be a number of functionaries at the district level office, charged with a range of specific roles, ranging from overall leadership of a district, to education planning and provisioning, financial and information management, and curriculum development and support. The ELMD is meant to facilitate knowledge sharing within and between these role players.
2. The curriculum is structured in such a way that the teaching and capacity-development approach is based on experiential learning, where concepts and theories are built on everyday work responsibilities and real-life development challenges of those on the programme. The learning tasks are meant to be a practice-based inquiry or Developmental Research mode (Moyo and Kgobe 2003), geared towards raising critical awareness of own context and acting upon it in a continuous action-reflection cycle. One important consequence of this approach is that, while the programme is intended to draw from relevant knowledge precedents, tested approaches and experiences, it also seeks to add new angles of how the holistic education leadership and development challenge can be approached. In other words, it attempts to move beyond the traditional approaches described in Tables 3.1 and 3.2 above. The conceptual framework on knowledge applicability and transferability gives a framework within which to assess this idea.

3.6.3.2 Learning Areas

The programme consists of eight learning areas designed to produce two outcome areas, as shown in the figure below.

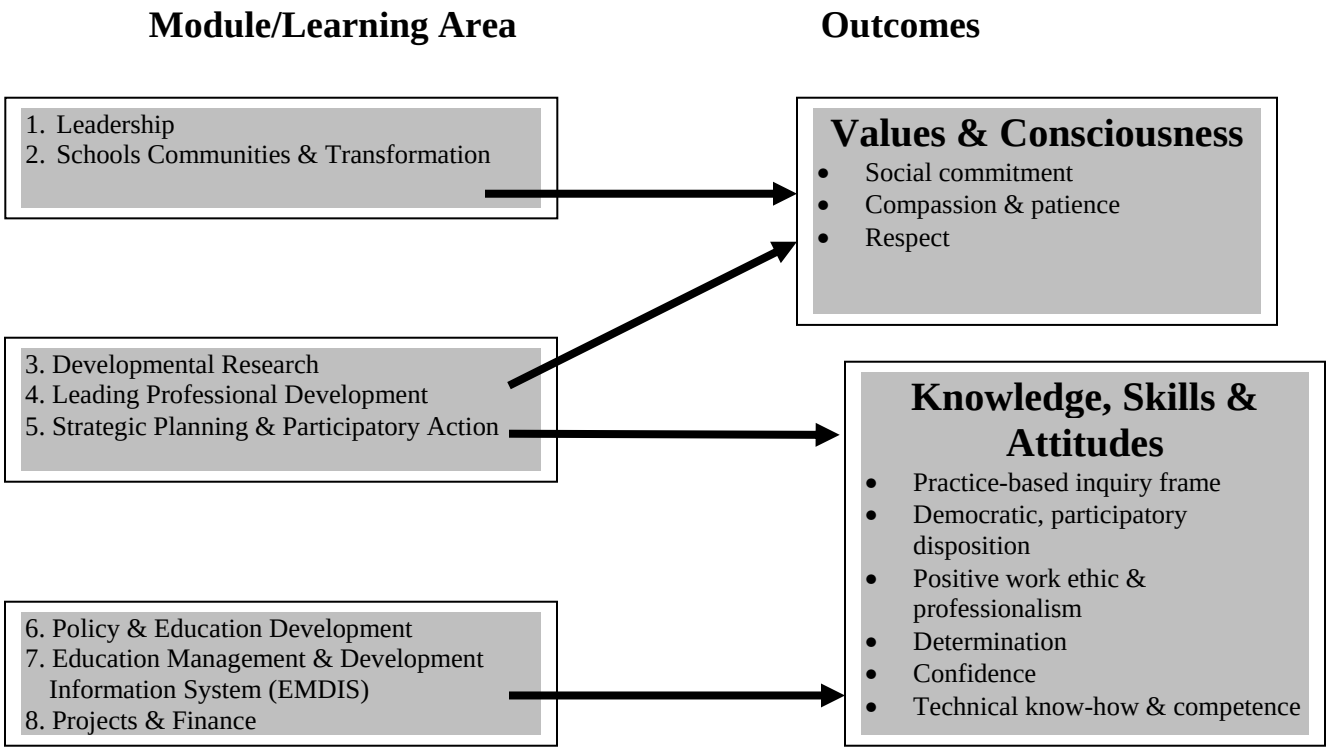


Figure 3.5: ELMD Learning Areas and Expected Outcomes

The eight learning areas shown in Figure 3.5, for Cohort 1, are clustered into three sets. The first two introductory modules are designed to oriented participants into ELMD philosophy and values, as well as build a new consciousness. The rest of the areas are clustered in order to achieve knowledge outcomes shown in Figure 3.5. How this configuration plays itself out in practice as well as elaboration of what each learning area seeks to achieve will be discussed in the next chapter.

3.6.3.2.1 Learning Area Themes

The learning areas have been further organized around themes in order to give participants practical opportunities to address real-life issues and challenges as

well as build teams and community. The themes constitute a **key activity** around which learning through inquiry, knowledge sharing, as well as leveraging knowledge to change their circumstances is envisaged to take place. The learning area themes are shown in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5 Learning Area Themes

Theme and Key Activity	Content of Key Activity	Module/Learning Area	Outcomes
1.**Profiling**	• Team building • Identity profiling • Leadership issues • Community mapping	• Developmental Research • Leadership • Schools, Communities and Transformation	**Values and Consciousness** • *Umuntu ngumuntu ngabantu*[5] • Identity • Social commitment • Compassion and patience • Respect
2.**Social Mobilization**	• Analyze data from community mapping • Deepen community profile • Vision crafting • Establish, strengthen district, school and community forums	• Developmental Research • Schools, Communities and Transformation • Leadership • Policy and Education Development	**Knowledge, Skills & Attitudes** • Practice-based inquiry • Democratic participation, disposition • Positive work ethic • Determination • Confidence • Technical know-how and competence
3.**District and School Planning**	• Write development plans • Understand role of policy in planning • Understand role of finance in planning • Develop professional development plans	• Leadership • Participatory Action for Strategic Planning • Finance and Projects • Education Management, Development Information System (EMDIS)	**Knowledge, Skills & Attitudes** • Practice-based inquiry • Democratic participation, disposition • Positive work ethic • Determination • Confidence

[5] A person is a person because of other people.

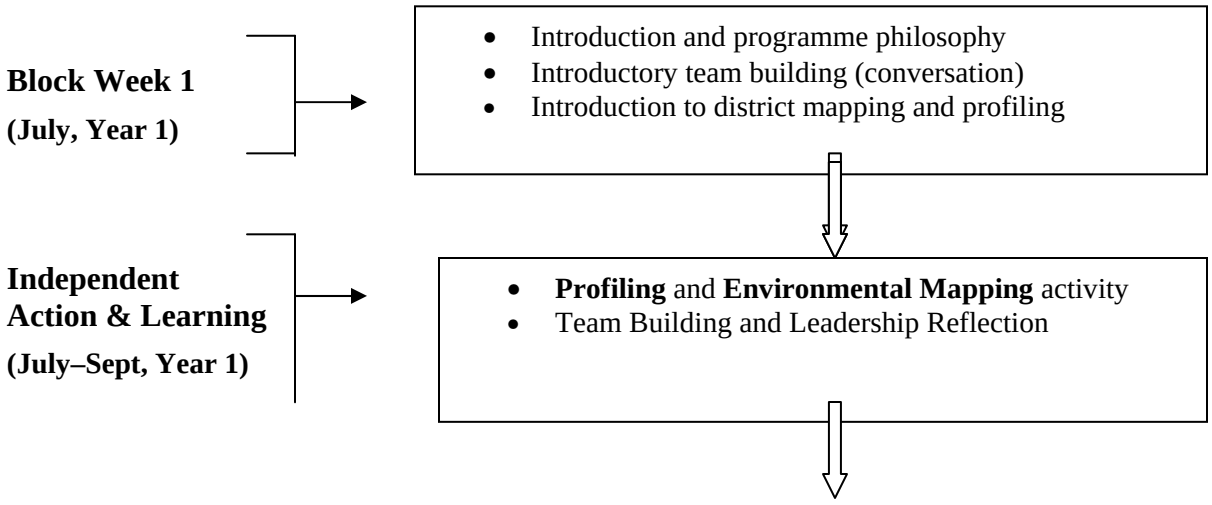
4.**Constructing and Implementing Plans**	Participants finalize and implement plans
Reflections and outcomes of plans	
Affirmation	

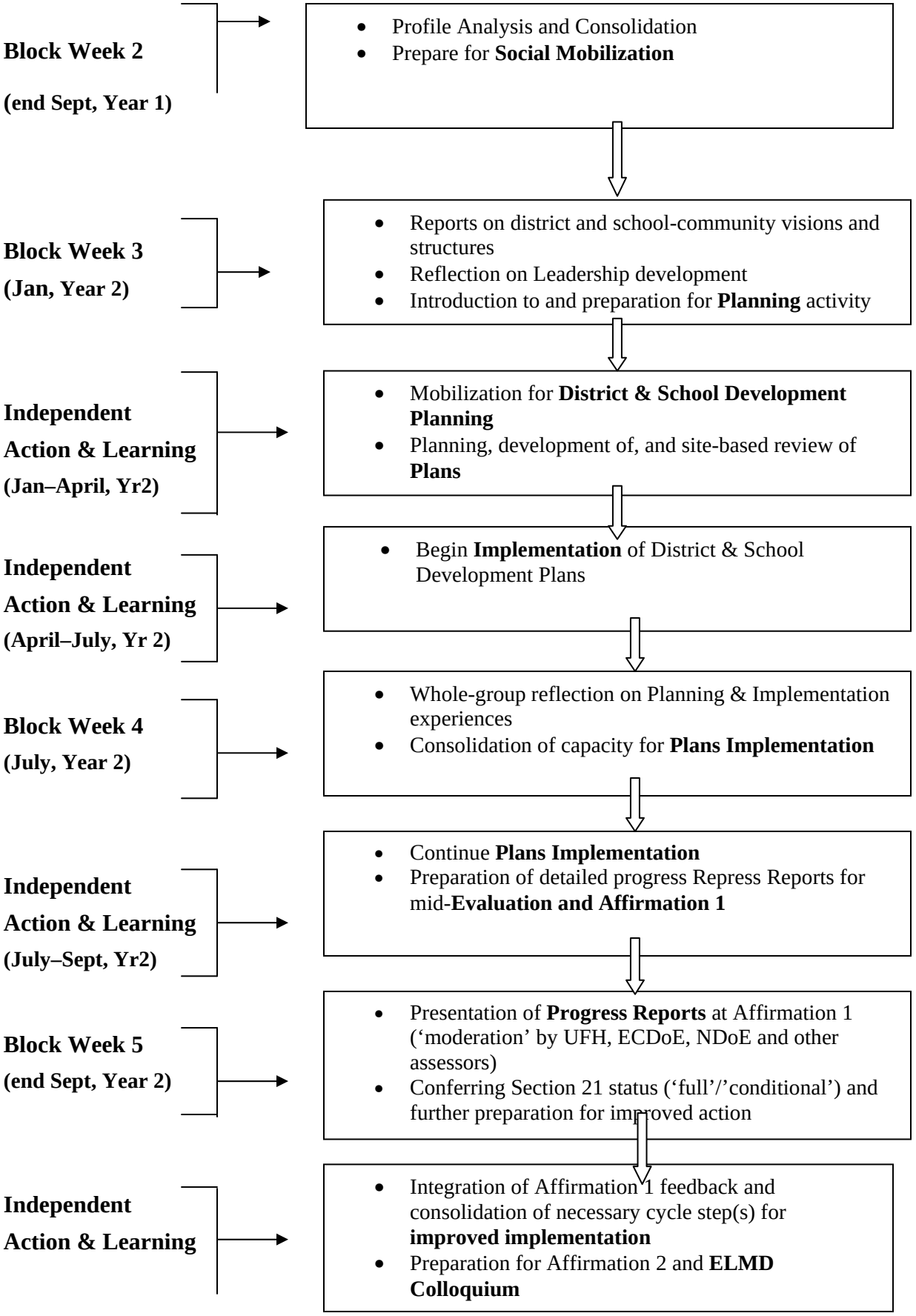
In Table 3.5, it can be seen that there are four key themes. For each key theme there was a set activities covered in modules and with corresponding outcomes. For the benefit of participants three theme modules which comprised, "Profiling"; "Social Mobilisation" and "District and School Planning" were developed. They were meant to structure the set of activities under each theme and draw together strands from each related learning area. These have been included in this study as Appendix 2. Once again, how this has worked out for the first cohort enrolled on the programme will be examined in the next chapter.

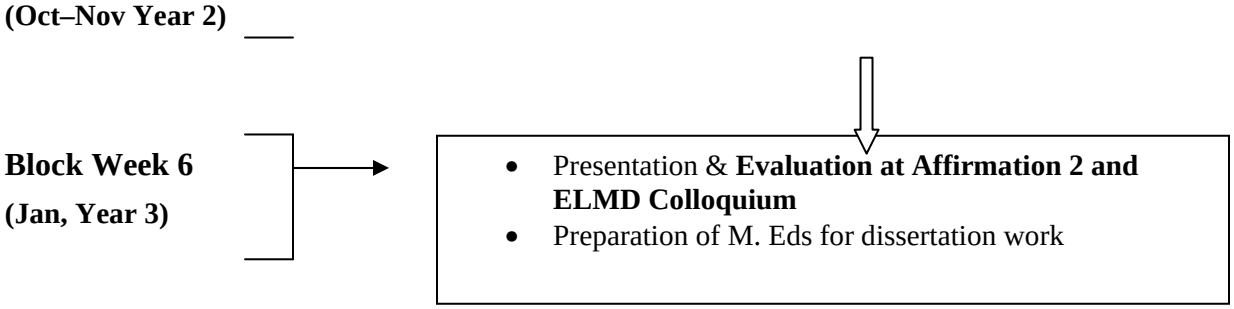
3.6.4 Structure of the Learning & Development Programme

The participants' learning is supported by a variety of strategies that combine week-long block sessions, individual work, as well as regular face-to-face meetings, as shown in Figure 3.6:

Figure 3.6: Structure of the ELMD Learning and Development Programme




Block Week 2
(end Sept, Year 1)
Profile Analysis and Consolidation
Prepare for Social Mobilization
Block Week 3
(Jan, Year 2)
Reports on district and school-community visions and structures
Reflection on Leadership development
Introduction to and preparation for Planning activity
Independent Action & Learning
(Jan–April, Yr2)
Mobilization for District & School Development Planning
Planning, development of, and site-based review of Plans
Independent Action & Learning
(April–July, Yr 2)
Begin Implementation of District & School Development Plans
Block Week 4
(July, Year 2)
Whole-group reflection on Planning & Implementation experiences
Consolidation of capacity for Plans Implementation
Independent Action & Learning
(July–Sept, Yr2)
Continue Plans Implementation
Preparation of detailed progress Repress Reports for mid-Evaluation and Affirmation 1
Block Week 5
(end Sept, Year 2)
Presentation of Progress Reports at Affirmation 1 ('moderation' by UFH, ECDoE, NDoE and other assessors)
Conferring Section 21 status ('full'/'conditional') and further preparation for improved action
Independent Action & Learning
Integration of Affirmation 1 feedback and consolidation of necessary cycle step(s) for improved implementation
Preparation for Affirmation 2 and ELMD Colloquium



The learning and development programme shown in Figure 3.6 summarizes the approach. Upon acceptance and enrolment, participants attend a week-long **Block Session** in which writers of modules and other invited people present a combination of lectures and workshops. During block sessions, participants are introduced to key activity tasks and independent as well as collaborative action learning. Every fortnight, in between block sessions, there are **face-to-face** sessions where participants meet as district based teams to share action-learning experiences facilitated by tutors who are called *abakwezeli,* which means people who "keep the fire burning".

3.6.5 Target Group

The programme is primarily aimed at developing:

1. people in positions of leadership and influence within districts, and
2. people who can be developed to step up to positions of leadership[6].

Participants have thus been drawn from:

- District, Circuit and Zonal Education Officials
- School Principals
- Members of the School-based Management Teams, both educators and administrative staff

[6] "Leaders" is used here to refer to stakeholders operating at a number of levels and sites: district, circuit and school levels, for example, district officers, school principals, teachers-as-leaders, and parents as educational leaders. The ELMD does not purport to lobby formally for participants to be recognized with promotion up the education hierarchy, even though participation in the programme should empower and position participants to be more eligible should opportunities for advancement arise.

- Members of School Governing Bodies and School Development Committees/Associations

The leadership of the team is expected to be a shared task that will be influenced by assignments, intended to capacitate all participants to develop their capabilities and model the desired leadership roles they will be required to play within their locales.

The teams may also include representatives of NGOs working in education development at the levels of school and district, whole district development, and the kind of leadership training advocated through the ELMD but not yet sufficiently developed within many NGOs.

In future, it is envisaged that the ELMD will also endeavour to involve education officials at levels of the system higher than the district and region, i.e., provincial and national, in order to inform and fine-tune a programme design commensurate with the structural tenor of the system – from school to headquarters – as well as ensure appropriate support for the programme by senior managers of the education system.

3.7 Conclusion

If the underlying question in this chapter were whether leadership training makes a difference in leadership performance, my response would be to raise an issue. This question begs other two related questions. The first concerns the conception of leadership in the first place and thus the kind of leadership performance that is expected. Second, a corollary question relates to the kind of organization and social contexts by which performance is judged. With these issues in mind, I have argued, building on points raised in Chapter 2, that shifting perspectives on leadership show a growing trend towards distributed/collaborative/constructivist leadership. Associated with this trend is the tendency to view organizations as non-hierarchical, developing towards becoming learning organizations, and, more recently "knowledge ecologies". In the Eastern Cape, an educational transformation agenda defined within this

framework would be to build knowledge ecology education districts where the various parts work collaboratively to achieve the goals of the whole education ecosystem as well as its sustainability.

Knowledge, whether tacit or implicit, is seen as increasingly assuming the role of critical differentiator between successful and less successful organizations. As one of the key factors in change, knowledge has to be created, shared, managed and utilized for the achievement of identified goals. There is a growing body of literature in the business world, which I think has relevance in education, concerning knowledge sharing and management strategies that focus on teams and communities of practice as vehicles for leveraging knowledge for change.

My concern is that, by and large, educational leadership development, especially in South Africa, continues to offer traditional programmes that do not seem give due recognition to shifting organizational and social perspectives in the sense described above. I have therefore argued for an educational leadership development that moves beyond the traditional domain towards a knowledge ecology framework. In arguing for a departure from the traditional approach to leadership development I am not, however, advocating a wholesale abandonment of training, teaching and coaching. I am rather arguing for alternative ways of leadership preparation that incorporate what is consistent with a transformation agenda and the production of distributed and constructivist leadership. Such an approach to leadership development would put emphasis on a curriculum built and delivered around everyday experiences in order to address real-life leadership challenges. How this works out in practice is the subject of the next chapter, which will present and examine evidence from experiences of the new leadership development programme introduced in this chapter.

CHAPTER 4:

Methodology and Approach to Research

4. Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology of this research study. I start by tracing the philosophical foundations of social research methodology, leading to an exploration of paradigms that inform the design of the study. This is followed by a discussion developed around areas of commonality between two paradigms, the interpretive and critical science. I flag ideas of reflexivity, representation and principles of good research. Finally, drawing on insights from ideas in the intersection between the two paradigms, I explain the design of the study as well as the structure of the investigation and the research methods used.

4.1 Philosophical Foundations

4.1.1 The Problem of Knowledge

Research has been characterized by Wolf (1993:16–17) as a "way of knowing" that can be contrasted with several other ways, such as *authority*, *tradition* and *experience*. While each of the ways can be discussed, the real issue is that such an exercise could be futile as it begs the basic questions of what knowledge is and how we know what we know. The question of what counts as knowledge and how we acquire it touches on fundamental philosophical issues that can be traced to what Christians (2000) calls the dualisms of the enlightenment. One such bone of contention concerns debates around the dualist characterization of the world "out there" versus the world "in here" (Gergen 2000: 8-31). According to this conception, "in here" refers to the subjectivity of the mind, while "out there" refers to the objective world outside of the mind. This school of thought is commonly called *rationalism*. For rationalists, we cannot know the world directly. It is through our reason that we come to know the world. The world, rationalists argue, does not produce our concepts; rather, our concepts help us organize the world in

various ways. We see the world differently because we approach each particular situation with different mental categories. Operating within this frame, we know what we know through the process of the mind mirroring the world as it is, that is, the objective world. In other words, "ideas and thoughts guide us to the truth" (Yates 2004:135). The problem, however, is that this view is problematic as it is based on the assumption that the mind in fact functions like a mirror. Put in another way, "If all we have is the reflection in our minds, how can we be certain of what is 'out there' producing this image?" (Gergen 2000:10). This line of reasoning is akin to a type of reasoning referred to as *empiricism,* which postulates that it is not ideas but "observable empirical facts that guide us to the truth" (Yates 2004:135). It is against these traditions that contemporary competing paradigms continue to influence our research methodologies and designs.

4.2 Paradigms on which the Study is Anchored

In an on-going attempt to grapple with the problem of knowledge, different paradigms have emerged over time. Denzin and Lincoln (1998) define a paradigm as a basic set of beliefs, a world-view that guides the actions of a researcher. It encompasses three elements. One is *epistemology* which asks the question of how we know the world – a problem related to the world "in here" versus the world "out there" as discussed above. The second element is *ontology,* which raises basic questions about the nature of reality. The third, *methodology*, focuses on how we gain knowledge about the world. In mapping the paradigms that guide this research, it is necessary to allude briefly to the landscape.

In educational research, different writers have categorized paradigms in different ways. Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) divide them into three, the empiricist, interpretive and constructionist. Connole (1993) on the other hand comes up with four: empiricist, interpretive, critical and deconstructive/ poststructural paradigms. Other writers, such as van Rensburg (2001), refer to these not as paradigms but rather as *orientations.* For van Rensburg,

researchers in education are typically guided by positivism, post-positivism, interpretivism and the critical science research orientations. We end up with three or four paradigms, depending on which writers we agree with. Perhaps a useful way of settling on a paradigm or paradigms to guide research is given by Gough (Undated:9), who suggests that we should ask ourselves what the purpose is of the research, as choice of paradigm is partly influenced by the interests of the researcher. Table 4.1 below gives a summary of four paradigms categorized according to ontology, epistemology, methodology and purpose/interest of the researcher.

Table 4.1: Categorization of empiricist/positivist, interpretivist, critical & poststructural paradigms.

	Empiricist/Positivist	**Interpretivist**	**Critical**	**Poststructural**
Ontology	Stable, external reality. Can only be understood by empirical inquiry or scientific method	Internal reality of personal, subjective experience. Multiple realities requiring multiple methods of understanding	Critical, realist and material. Multiple realities which are problematic. Socially constructed reality	There is no reality accessible to us beyond language.
Epistemology	Objective, detached observer. Observation through clear rules not modified by setting and independent of it. Observers control their bias	Empathetic - observer intersubjectivity. Meaning the basis of data and produced through linguistic & cognitive skills of researchers, i.e. Dialogue.	Intersubjective objectivity. Suspicious, political observer constructing versions. Interpretive plus critical self-reflection concerning the grounds of reflection	Meanings are discursive and plural. There is no fixed meaning, meaning shifts according to its context and motivation of speakers/writers & listeners/readers
Methodology	Experimental, Quantitative and qualitative Hypothesis testing, Analytical	Interactional, interpretive, qualitative	Textual analysis, discourse analysis, Participatory research, e.g. Action research, Practice-based Inquiry	Deconstruction Textual analysis, discourse analysis.
Purpose/interest	Predict, explain	Understand, discover meanings and beliefs	Emancipate, empower, transform	Deconstruct, Identify positions for marginalized groups

Source: Adapted from Cantrell (1993); Rensburg (2001); Guba, E.G. and Lincoln, Y. S. (1998); Gough (undated) and Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) and Connole (1993).

In this study, my purposes are three-fold: the first two are to explore and understand the theory and practice of educational leadership. Given the context in which the research is taking place (see Chapter 1); I also have a third purpose, an agenda to make a contribution to the development of educational leaders for educational transformation. Drawing on insights from a number of paradigms as summarized in the above table, the three which best serve my purposes are the interpretive, concerned with understanding the nature of reality under investigation; critical science, to assist with my emancipation agenda; and lastly, the poststructural, which fits in with my interest to deconstruct and construct the reality under investigation. In the interest of space, I will not discuss the poststructural paradigm separately but will draw on insights from this perspective as incorporated in a "reconceptualized critical theory".[7] The important point is not whether there are two, three or four paradigms but how each variant, whatever it is called, serves the purposes of the study. In the sub-sections that follow, I will attempt to sketch the contributions of the interpretive and critical science paradigms, highlighting the relevance of some of the key arguments for the problem of knowledge and its production. I will end with a set of conceptual issues that lie in the intersection of the two paradigms, and use this to frame the research design and methods used in the study. First, the interpretive paradigm.

4.2.1 The Interpretive Paradigm

Picking up from the dualisms of the debate between rationalism and empiricism, the two main traditions influencing educational research, the positivist is based on deductive reasoning, which believes that the world is external and objective and that the researcher should focus on "facts out there" to be discovered through scientific method. By contrast, the rationalist view is based on inductive reasoning, which believes that the world is socially constructed and that the researcher should focus on meanings attached to various situations and actions. The interpretive paradigm falls within this latter.

[7] See discussion on Critical Science Paradigm in 4.3 below.

The interpretive paradigm posits that the world, including education organizations, district offices and schools are socially constructed. Research operating in this framework, therefore, focuses on social interactions and the meanings attached to them. Revealing these meanings enables participants to peer into their own belief systems, attitudes, assumptions and ideologies underlying their practices. The researcher guided by this perspective will use interviews and observations of interactions in an interpretive mode in order to uncover meanings and perceptions of "what is happening" in an education organization.

The question of what is happening in an education organization is more than just the issue of meanings. It also has to do with establishing the practices undertaken by the actors. To this end, this study sought to discover not only leadership knowledge but also leadership actions actually undertaken by those who participated in the study. This research thus further sought to "uncover" what happens in their everyday work situation by deploying an interpretive project. According to the interpretivist perspective, people attach meanings to various everyday activities undertaken within the district or school. This, among other things, means that different meanings may be attached to an activity, such as an official meeting, with intended and unintended consequences. Meaning, according to an interpretivist point of view, is what distinguishes human action from that of objects. It requires that the inquirer must grasp the meanings that constitute that action.

Grasping meaning is, however, a problematic issue that has given rise to debates, within this tradition, between interpretivism and the philosophy of hermeneutics. According to Schwandt (2000) there are four ways of theorizing the "notion of interpretive understanding (*Verstehen),* three that constitute the interpretive tradition and a fourth that marks the distinction of philosophical hermeneutics from that tradition." (*Ibid*. p. 191). These are summarized below.

4.2.1.1 Emphatic Identification

Understanding the meaning of human action, according to this line or argument, requires grasping the subjective consciousness or intent of the actor. In other words, it entails emphatic identification, that is, acquiring an "inside" understanding of the actor's definition of the situation. The question of whether it is possible to achieve an interpretive understanding through the process of grasping an actor's intent and how one actually goes about doing this remains a contentious issue. Nevertheless, I would argue that the quest for emphatic identification constitutes one of the canons of rigour for inquiry within this tradition.

4.2.1.2 The Phenomenological Approach

Another way of theorizing interpretive understanding comes from phenomenological sociologists. One of the central concerns of the phenomenological analysis is understanding how the everyday intersubjective world or what Sergiovanni (2000), within the context an education organization, calls the lifeworld (see Chapter 2) is constituted. Two conceptual tools used in seeking to grasp interpretive understanding are: first, that the meaning of a word is or utterance is dependent on context of use. Consider, for instance, an interview situation where an interviewee gives answers he or she feels the interviewer wants to hear. Without going deeply into the phenomenological methodology, this tells me that in attempting to achieve interpretive understanding I must be aware of the research context and strive to minimize the misinterpretation. As to whether this is an attainable goal remains a big question. The second conceptual position is that an utterance is not just about something, it also constitutes an act of speech or language, which is discussed below. There is more to a phenomenological approach than is sketched here but, in the interest of space and time, I move on to a related approach within the interpretive tradition.

4.2.1.3 The Language Approach

This approach reasons that human action is meaningful by virtue of the system of meanings to which it belongs. Wittgenstein referred to this as the phenomenon of the "language game",[8] which has its own rules or criteria that make the game meaningful. For theorists using this perspective, understanding the institutional culture, values, beliefs, and so on is the goal of *Verstehen*. According to this perspective, there is no meaning outside of language. Meaning is constituted in language. If meaning can only be accessed through language then this raises fundamental implications for both the researcher's language and that of the researched. In the critical theory perspective below, it will be seen that language is one of the major issues researcher ought to grapple with. But for now, it should be useful to summarize the contributions of interpretivism in designing a research methodology.

Schwandt (2000:193-194) summarizes common features of interpretivism in the following points:

- They view human action as meaningful.
- They evince an ethical commitment in the form of respect for and fidelity to the lifeworld.
- They emphasize the contribution of human subjectivity (i.e., intention) to knowledge without thereby sacrificing the objectivity of knowledge.
- The meaning that the interpreter reproduces or reconstructs is considered the original meaning of action.
- In order not to misinterpret, the interpreter must employ some kind of method that allows them to step outside their historical frames of reference.
- They assume an understanding of *understanding*. In other words, they consider understanding to be an intellectual process whereby the subject

[8] Cited in Schwandt 2000:192.

inquirer, gains knowledge about an object (i.e., the meaning of human action).

The above summary shows that my interest in interpreting the world-taken-for-granted has to take into account the above strengths and weaknesses of the approach. It also raises the fundamental issue of how to define what "understanding" actually means (*Ibid*:200). Nevertheless, the foregoing is one variant of the interpretivist approach. The other, which is worth interrogating, is the hermeneutic approach. Some writers, such as Phillips (2000:20), argue that the hermeneutical and interpretive approaches are synonymous, the only difference being that the one term derives from Greek and the other from Latin. However, for the purposes of grasping the nuances I discuss hermeneutical contributions separately.

4.2.1.4 The Hermeneutic Approach

The hermeneutic approach to interpretive understanding takes issue with interpretivism on a number of points. According to Schwandt (2000:195), the hermeneutic position rejects the notion that reaching understanding is a matter of setting aside, escaping managing, or tracking one's own standpoint, prejudgment, biases or prejudices. Hermeneutic philosophers argue that understanding is not an isolated activity of human beings but a basic structure of our experience of life. It can thus not be reduced to anything simpler or more immediate. The second point that hermeneutic theorists argue is that the interpretivists' claim that that the inquirer can step out of his historical frame of reference is unattainable. It is like trying to "step out of our own skins".[9] The third point is that understanding is something that is *produced* in a dialogical situation which involves participative, conversational and is always bound up with language through the logic of questioning. It is, therefore, not something *reproduced* by an interpreter through an analysis of that which he or she seeks to understand. The third point put forward is that understanding is "lived" or existential. The goal of philosophical hermeneutics is to

[9] Gardener (1995) quoted in Schwandt (2000:195)

understand what is involved in understanding. In other words, meanings are not fixed entities that can be discovered independent of the interpreter.

In seeking to understand what is happening in the district and school leadership strategies and practices I will therefore be partly informed by the stance of philosophical hermeneutics along the ways described above because it gives a version of how to frame the interpretive project.

4.3 Critical Science Paradigm

My attempts at interpreting conceptions and actions around educational leadership are primarily anchored within the critical science paradigm. Critical science or what some writers call critical theory is a term, according to Kincheloe and McLaren (2000:279–280), that is often misunderstood as it has been presented by critical theorists in many different versions. The paradigm has origins in a group of theorists connected with the Frankfurt School who, according to Flyvbjerg (2001) considered the notion of power to be central in the analysis and understanding of social action. In exploring two of the main philosophers of power, Habermas and Foucault, Flyvberg (2001:88) argues that power is a fundamental concept in social science in the same way as energy is in physics. For Flyvberg, an analysis of power is one of the factors which makes social science matter and gives it relevance to our lives. In order to make social science matter,

> we must drop the fruitless efforts to emulate natural science's success…we must take up problems that matter to the local, national, and global communities in which we live….we must focus on issues of values and power…[and]…effectively communicate the results of our research to fellow citizens (2001:166).

To return to the two theorists of power, Foucault and Habermas (*Ibid.* p. 107), both agree that one of the most important problems of our time is misuse of power. Hence the need to focus time and effort in the social sciences on studying power in society. In this section, however, I am not going to dwell further on the ideas of Foucault or Habermas, as this would constitute a full

study in its own right, although in Chapter 6 I use Foucault in discussing findings. Here I will rather use the idea of the centrality of analysis of power as the main thread running through critical theory as it is conceptualized today. I will thus focus on dimensions of power which are most relevant to this study and which are within the framework of what Kincheloe and McLaren (2000: 281) refer to as "a reconceptualized critical theory".

In investigating leadership development for social transformation, this study focuses on the issue of power in terms of both that which is embedded in the leadership development strategies and that which the notion of leadership entails. To do this it is useful to discuss briefly three pertinent notions of power, that is, hegemonic, ideological and linguistic/discursive power. These are summarized below.

4.3.1 Hegemonic power

As has been seen in Chapter 2, leadership is about, among other things, vision crafting, direction and getting people to do things towards achieving identified goals. It is, in this sense, an exercise of power. The key question is how this power is exercised. Theorists of power have long recognized that the topic of power is ambiguous and works in complex ways. One of the dominant theorists in this tradition, Antonio Gramsci, viewed power in terms of the idea of hegemony. There have been many interpretations of the concept hegemony, based on the commentator's "political conviction" (Salamini 1981:135). However, in these different concepts what I am picking out is that hegemony is the pervasive way in which those in dominant positions in society achieve consent. Power, according to Gramsci is not always exercised by force but through cultural institutions such as the media, the schools, etc. Within this line of thinking, it is argued that education leaders informed by the idea of hegemony must be transformative intellectuals who know how to "analyse critically modern forms of discourse which disguise power relationships and who can bring to a specific site the ability to inform and educate" (Giroux 1988) However, in a reconceptualized notion of hegemony

(Kincheloe and McLaren 2000:283), it is recognized that hegemony is never completely established as it is always contested by various groups with different experiences and agendas.

In district and school context in the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa, it is interesting to discover what agendas and meanings by various practitioners and stakeholders can be identified around the globalized concepts of *whole district* and *whole school*. Further, is hegemonic power manifested in the leadership development strategies and in the practice of leadership at district and school levels? If so how?

4.3.2 Ideological power

Ideology is a system of ideas that is used by those in power to win consent. It involves cultural forms, meanings, and representations that produce consent to the status quo. According to a reconceptualized theory of ideological hegemony, the way that these "sociocultural productions coercively manipulate citizens to adopt oppressive meanings" must be recognized and exposed (Kincheloe and McLaren 2000:283). However, as is the case with hegemony, it is equally important not to view ideology as a monolithic and unidirectional phenomenon, as "subordinate" sections of the community engage and experience these forms of domination differentially in various contexts and locales. **How globalized discourses of school and district transformation are experienced by various stakeholders involved in the ELMD** is the interest of this study as it may show **how transformation takes place amid struggles between "official" and "unofficial" world-views.**

4.3.3 Linguistic and discursive power

Critical theorists guided by this perspective argue that language is not a neutral conduit of description, it is "an unstable social practice whose meaning shifts, depending upon the context in which it is used" (*Ibid,* p. 284). Linguistic descriptions, according to this point of view, are not simply about the world but serve to construct it. This social construction is, however,

closely linked to the phenomenon of power in terms of the practices which regulate what can and cannot be said. A critical researcher following this line of reasoning views discursive practices, that is, spoken language and written text, as forms of social construction which validate the authority of particular styles of writing, which books or training materials are read and what modes of representations are acceptable.

Using these ideas, this study interrogates the discourses used in the leadership development strategies and the extent to which they serve to construct a particular type of educational leader.

From the three forms of power discussed above, it is clear that for a researcher operating in this framework one of the fundamental starting points for educational research is that research is *for* rather than *about* education (Kemmis 1993:155). According to this point of view, the aim of critical educational research is to transform educational theory and practice, in the case of this study, to make a contribution in the development of educational leadership, free from insidious forms of power and domination which may work to undermine transformation goals.

4.4 A Multiparadigmatic Approach

From the foregoing, it should be clear that this study is anchored on a multiparadigm approach. Apart from my research interests, which directed me towards adopting this approach, there are a number of other reasons why a multiparadigmatic approach is important. First, Capper (1993) has pointed out that each paradigm has limitations and other paradigms can ameliorate some of these. Second, Southworth (1998) has argued for inclusiveness in research in education that allows for the interplay of different research approaches as appropriate. For Southworth,

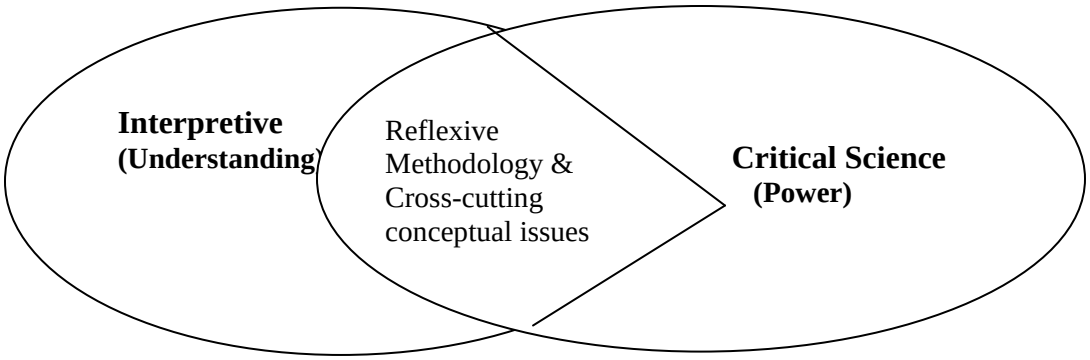
> The so-called paradigm wars in social science have led to numerous casualties, not least of which is continuation of polarized thinking. Either/or thinking has no place in our post-modern world (Southworth, cited in Middlewood, Coleman and Lumby 1999:169).

The third motivation for a multiparadigm approach is in line with Richardson's (2000) prism analogy which values multiple ways of viewing a social phenomenon from differing epistemologies, leading to the *crystallization* of our understanding of the phenomenon. Lastly, the different paradigms are not necessarily discrete entities in their own right; there is a great deal of overlap and complementarity between them, especially the interpretive and critical science paradigms. The areas of overlap can be identified on ontological, epistemological and methodological issues. Examples of aspects on which there is overlap are given below:

Issue	**Area of overlap between Interpretive & Critical paradigms**
Ontology	Both view realities as multiple and problematic
Epistemology	Both subscribe to the notion of observer intersubjectivity
Methodology	Both use dialectical and qualitative methodology

The areas of overlap are discussed in greater detail below. For now suffice it to point out that within these areas it is possible to identify a whole range of theoretical frameworks which draw on each of the paradigms. They include postmodern, feminist, and constructivist, which I do not discuss directly due to limitations of time and space, but which have given me insights into the conceptualization depicted in Figure 4.1. The figure gives a diagrammatical representation of the relationship between the interpretive and critical science paradigms and theoretical frameworks.

Figure 4.1: Relationship between Interpretive and Critical Science Paradigms & Theoretical Frameworks.



The intersection between the interpretive and critical science paradigms is an area of overlap between the two world-views. I characterize the intersection as consisting of reflexive methodology and other conceptual issues that cut across paradigms.

4.5 Reflexive Methodology & Cross-cutting Conceptual Issues

4.5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this section is to highlight and further elaborate what I see as essential elements, for this study, of overlap between the interpretive and critical science paradigms. As shown in Figure 4.1 these areas consist of reflexive methodology and other conceptual issues that run through the intellectual streams of the two paradigms. First, an exploration of reflexive methodology.

4.5.2 Reflexive Methodology

Investigation into qualitative data, as implied in the above exploration of paradigms, is by nature a reflective/reflexive approach. Alvesson and Skoldberg (2000) view reflexivity as an approach that pays due attention to

> the interpretive, political and rhetorical nature of…research. This in turn calls for an awareness among researchers of broad range of insights: into interpretive acts, into the political, ideological and ethical issues of social sciences, and into their own construction of the 'data'

> or empirical material about which they have something to say…. Reflection means interpreting one's own interpretations, looking at one's own perspectives from other perspectives and turning a self-critical eye onto one's own authority as interpreter and author (2000:i).

The political and ideological nature of research looms high in the critical science perspective while the ideas around the researcher's own construction of data and interpretation are strong within the interpretive camp. Alvesson and Skoldberg further categorize reflective research into four elements which relate to what they call "data-oriented methods" (*Ibid*:12–51), covering a number of qualitative research orientations (e.g. grounded theory, ethno-methodology and inductive ethnography) which are not the focus of this study. Relevant to this research is their focus on three other themes of reflexive methodology (*Ibid*:7–9) to which they have devoted whole chapters. The dimensions to guide a researcher's reflexivity are summarized below:

1. Clarification of the primacy of interpretation
   - Research is seen as a fundamentally interpretive activity, as all research work includes and is driven by interpretation.
   - The interpreter, in the social sciences, interacts with and contemplates other interpreters (the people studied).
   - Method, theory and other elements of the researcher's pre-understanding determine interpretations and representations[10] of the object of study.
2. Awareness of the political-ideological character of research
   - As political and ethical considerations are embedded in social research the researcher can hardly avoid either supporting (reproducing) or challenging existing social conditions.
   - Different social interests are supported or challenged depending on questions that are asked (and not asked), and how reality is represented and interpreted.

[10] The conceptual issue of representation is discussed in greater detail below.

- The theoretical assumptions on which interpretations and representations are based are not neutral they serve either to construct or deconstruct political and ideological conditions in which the research is carried out.

3. Reflection in relation to the problem of representation and authority
   - What the researcher may attempt to represent in the form of language (talk and text) may lack reference to any external reality or outside of itself.
   - In this way, the researcher's claim to authority and the language's claim to reproduce or "mirror" some extrinsic reality are equally undermined.

It can be seen that the reflexive dimensions above call on the researcher to undertake a critical interpretive project as well as be self-critical and linguistically reflective (Alvesson and Skoldberg 2000:238–292).

To relate Alvesson and Skoldberg's ideas on reflexive methodology to the current study, it can be seen that the idea of reflexivity is an issue that the Imbewu Professional Development Approach has put emphasis on. Its expression as an Imbewu approach is succinctly put in Practice-Based Inquiry (PBI) which is discussed below. However, to complete this section first, a discussion of other cross-cutting conceptual issues follows.

4.6 Other Cross-Cutting Conceptual Issues in Research Methods

The foregoing exploration of reflexive methodology shows that research is a contested terrain. Whatever method is used has to be justified in terms of the aims of the research and as well as on epistemological and conceptual grounds. Picking the argument from ideas on reflexive methodology, this sub-section briefly reviews some intellectual streams that a reflexive researcher can draw insights from. The aim is to provide a frame of reference and concrete ideas which form the rationale for the design of the study and the methods used in this research.

Three categories of conceptual issues pertinent to this study are discussed below. One, as implied in the above subsection, concerns the way a researcher represents knowledge, facts and information and the way that representation is arrived at. The other relates to what counts as good research and what its design should look like given all the competing perspectives.

4.6.1 Representation in Research

The notion of representation, according to Glaserfel (1997:94), comes from two German words *Vorstellung* and *Darstellung.* In their English translation the two words together have been used synonymous with the word "representation', which implies a "reproduction", "copy" or "other structure which is in some way isomorphic with an original." For Glaserfel the conflation of the two concepts is problematic, however, as in their German usage they do not mean exactly the same thing. One of the words, *Vorstellung*, has been translated as "presentation" in the sense of "performance" such as that done by presenters at a theatre or by a magician. Glaserfel argues that used in this way, *Vortstellung* connotes autonomous construction, an element which should not be lost when we use the word representation. Linking this concept to knowing and learning, Glaserfel explains that the human mind has the capability to re-present things to itself that have been or are not yet actual experiences. He argues that the word should always be used with a hyphen because when we reflect on some experience the mind can "step out of direct experience to re-present a chunk of it." (*Ibid.* p. 90). We can also re-present the experience to someone else. When we relate this notion to research, it can be argued that as we read, produce data and report on them we are in fact engaged in the process of re-presentation. As Gergen and Gergen (2000) put it, research is a relational process:

> Any form of recording or describing is simultaneously a form of representation. At the same time, however, representation is inevitably "for an audience." To write, for example, is to invite an audience into a particular form of relationship. At a minimum, the act of writing

> serves to position both self and reader, to give each an identity and role within a relationship. (p.1039)

This point of view has a number of implications for the way we do research and the use to which we put research information. First, whether we agree with the view that the mind functions as a mirror reality of the world "out there" or whether we refute this, some form of representation of reality takes place in our minds. Second, whatever paradigm guides the research process, whether we use statistical, pictorial, textual, verbal or any other form of data, we are representing reality. In other words, a statistical table or figure generated in positivistic research, a reporting of meanings from interpretivist research, or a description of power relations from a critical science perspective are all forms of representation. As a corollary, information or data can be presented in a variety of forms depending on the researcher's purpose and values. Third, whether we represent that reality accurately or not, "reality in itself" is perhaps unknowable because the reality may either be a construction of our minds which gets represented thereby or because we can only come to grips with that reality through representation, which is only a version of it. Fourth, the moment we represent a phenomenon, we are in fact positioning ourselves either as having knowledge of it or building knowledge or ignorant. As a researcher, for example, I represent (not *present* because the data are experienced by the researcher first and then *re*-presented to an audience) my findings from a position of knowing. I therefore, in a sense, define what counts as knowledge, although when I reflect on this point, the idea gets undermined. The problem about this stance is that those from whom data are generated have their own representations of reality which may or may not be reflected in the representations of the researcher. Fifth, it follows from the previous point that in carrying out the study, I am in fact engaged in a process of *data production* rather than data collection. From this perspective, it is difficult to envisage that, there is data "out there" waiting to be collected, rather research through interview, observation, reporting, etc., is a process of constructing a version of reality, in other words, data production.

In carrying out this study, therefore, the above five summary points concerning the issue of representation were a major influence. The point is that the complexity of social reality is such that it cannot be grasped through one form of representation as there are many facets to it. This idea is borne out in the design of the study.

4.7 The Research Design

In designing the research I was guided first by ideas drawn from the multiparadigm approach, from which my understanding crystallized around the interpretive/critical science intersection as shown in Figure 4.1. Within this set of ideas from reflexive methodology and cross-cutting conceptual issues, form a framework on which to the actual research process is structured and appropriate methods based. Second, I was guided by canons of rigour for doing good research.

4.7.1 Ground Rules for Good Research

Denscombe has argued that despite the diversity of perspectives in research paradigms, "it is possible to detect certain shared assumptions which form *ground rules for good research* that are accepted by the vast majority of experts in the field" (Denscombe 2002:2). Denscombe then goes on to present a ten point guide to ground rules, comprising the following:

1. **Purpose:** The research should have clearly stated aims and research questions. The point is that lack of detail in the statement of purpose can lead to sloppy research (*Ibid*. p 32). For the purpose, goals and core research questions of this study see Chapter 1.
2. **Relevance:** The research needs to be "on time" and "in time". It also needs to address the researcher's particular interests as well as organization's practical needs, for example, problems that need to be tackled. This study is relevant on all these grounds. First, my personal motivation (outlined in Chapter 1) raised a number of questions some of which this study answers. It was also carried out during the first year of

the ELMD programme, which sought to realize one of Fort Hare's developmental goals. Findings from the study (see Chapter 6) should help the University and other readers learn how educational leaders from different levels of the schooling system can be produced under one programme.

3. **Resources:** As I needed to submit the report of the study at the end of 2004, I had to limit my focus to one year, the first ELMD cohort. With limited financial resources, I also used the opportunity of my involvement with programme development to collect much of the data while I was doing my duties (see Chapter 1).
4. **Originality:** My endeavour was to learn and thus contribute something new in this field. However, the notion of contributing something new "needs to be treated with caution. Rather than make extravagant claims, it is better to focus more modestly on establishing that the research has originality in the sense that it is 'constructively different' from what has gone on before" (*Ibid*., p. 94). Denscombe (2002:86–87) argues that the task of contributing something new is generally beyond the scope of any one piece of research and any individual research. As a consequence, "the criteria for originality normally applied are much more limited…. The research community tends to ask…in what respects the current research is *different* from previous research. This might be a new angle on the topic, a new twist to the methods or a new conclusion based on the findings." From this perspective originality tends to concern difference rather than contribution to knowledge.
5. **Accuracy:** Although heavily contested, the researcher needs to grapple with issues of validity, reliability, truth and reality. This for me meant the need to ensure that reasonable steps were taken to avoid the use of naïve, simplistic or erroneous indicators of the underlying truth. "Social researchers need to be conscious of the limitations they face in trying to establish claims to accuracy, particularly when using qualitative data" (Denscombe 2002:116). This, among other things, means striving to ask

the right questions relating to the identified problem (see Chapter 1) and where appropriate, ensuring that the measures used actually measure what they seek to measure and that they are reliable. In the structured interview, for example (see below), I first piloted the instruments and obtained reliability coefficients of 0.9324 for the Leadership Knowledge and Dispositions and 0.9365 for the Leadership Capacity questionnaires (see Appendix 5). According to this measure, a perfectly reliable instrument has an alpha coefficient of "1" and 0.93 is very close to that figure. This suggests that I can be reasonably confident that the questionnaires I used gave a reliable measure of what I was looking for.

6. **Accountability:** This concerns ensuring that data are collected in a justifiable, credible way. The research procedures and checks on the authenticity of the research can be made. The researcher makes detailed records covering the whole process of the research. It must be remembered, however, that although the researcher has the task of choosing which things to leave out, a fact which open the possibility for presenting selective account of what took place, the principle here is that "there is no place in good research for an account that deliberately misrepresents what happened" (*Ibid*., p. 130). My data in this study are therefore stored in a safe place even after the research has been completed so that other researchers should be able to access the data to re-analyze them, if need be.
7. **Generalizability:** Sufficient information is given about the characteristics of sample or cases used in the research for which judgements can be made about the extent to which findings can be expected to apply more widely (transferability). In this connection, I have documented, in as much detail as possible, the characteristics of the first cohort of the ELMD participants.
8. **Objectivity:** Has to do with being open-minded and self-reflective (see reflexive methodology). This, among other things, means that the research has been designed, conducted and reported in a genuine spirit of

exploration, and that it acknowledges, as far as possible, the ways in which any vested interests, social values and aspects of the researcher's self-identity have had a bearing on the nature of the research (*Ibid*. p. 157).

9. **Ethics:** Rights and interests of those affected by the research have been considered, and where it has been reasonable to do so, informed consent has been obtained (see section on values and ethics page 123). Where appropriate, measures have been taken to maintain confidentiality. My dual position in this study as researcher and programme developer had ethical implications which I have explained in Chapter 1 and in my ethical statement below. My ethical position is also reflected in the interview instruments in Appendix 3 and 4.
10. **Proof:** There is a need to be cautious about claims based on findings (see originality). As has been explained above, I started this research with research questions and then went on to look for data or evidence to answer those questions. I have also explained that the evidence was guided by the canons of good research being discussed here. In Chapters 5 and 6, I present my argument in terms of proof of whether the research questions have been answered or not.

With these ground rules as a guide, my research was designed in a manner that is as consistent as possible with the key principles emanating from them.

4.7.2 Case Study

Having clarified my epistemology and research questions, as well as my understanding of rules for conducting good research, I designed a case study research programme, drawing on the work on Yin and Gillham. In designing the case study I drew on the work of Yin, who has given a rationale for choosing a case study. Yin (2003: 5) has distinguished among five research strategies, along three criteria, which are, *form of research question, requires control of behaviours/events?* and *focuses on contemporary events.* Within these criteria Yin argues that the conditions that satisfy the use of case study design are those whose form of the research question is "how, why" and that

which focuses on contemporary events. Thus, my particular study which was concerned to explain what was happening in a particular field of practice, that is, leadership development for school and community transformation, lent itself to a case study design. Gillham (2000) defines case study in terms of its focus, the case.

4.7.2.1 The Case

A key descriptor of a case study is the term *case*. In an attempt to define the meaning of a *case* in case study research, Gillham (2000:1–2) puts forward four characteristics of a case. It can be seen as:

- a unit of human activity embedded in the real world;
- which can only be studied or understood in context;
- which exists in the here and now; and
- which merges in with its context so that precise boundaries are difficult to draw.

Gillham goes on to argue that a case can be an individual or group. In this study, the case is all of the above. It is the first cohort of participants, course content and delivery process of a new leadership development programme called the Education Leadership, Management and Development (ELMD) programme. The programme, which was a pilot offered by the University of Fort Hare drew participants from four districts in the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa. See Chapter 3 for a programme outline. Characteristics of the participants as well as the programme delivery, content, process achievements and challenges are discussed in Chapter 5.

4.7.2.2 Structure of the Investigation and Methods of Data Collection

In line with my multiparadigm approach, within this design, I used a variety of research methods, comprising both quantitative and qualitative techniques, depending on the type of data that I was looking for. It will be recalled that the core research questions in this study were, first: **How is leadership**

developed for non-hierarchically oriented and change oriented or learning organizations? And second, **how do *whole schools* and *whole communities* change through educational leadership development?** These over-arching questions were focused into four goals (see Chapter 1). To produce data to answer these questions and in order to achieve my research goals, I used three main groups of techniques: practice-based observation (see below); interview and document review. These are summarized in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Summary Structure of the Investigation & Methods Used

Aspect Investigated	Component of aspect	Methods used & Source of Data
Research Goals (see Chapter 1) Comprising over-arching questions	Conceptual and philosophical bases of ELMD	• Reviewed global and local literature on educational leadership • Reviewed Course materials • Participated in ELMD design • Attended ELMD "think-tank", brainstorming and planning sessions • ***Interviewed*** a randomly selected sample of participants at the start of the programme and after they had completed one year of ELMD.
	Practical Applications of constructive collaborative leadership and transformation at the individual, team and school community levels.	• Attended Block sessions and some face-to-face sessions in which I core-facilitated the delivery of the research module, ***observed*** (see Practice-Based Inquiry Observation below) behaviour of participants over time, including their reporting of their experiences. • Analyzed ***documents,*** including programme reports, participants' journals entries and portfolios during affirmation exercise (see Chapter 6) • ***Interviewed*** participants of selected schools and districts in which there were ELMD participants.

From Table 4.2, it can be seen that there were three main methods of producing data in this study, review of project documents, observation and interview. Before I elaborate on each of the methods, there is a need to outline what kind of data I was looking for.

From the nature of the research questions, which seek to answer ***how*** the data I was looking for was mainly qualitative, representing the process of

developing educational leadership using the ELMD model. These data comprised written texts from programme documents (including published course modules and other materials) and my own research journal reflecting on various ELMD staff colleagues and interview responses. **For this reason the research is both a literature study and empirical in nature.** To collect these data I used three main methods elaborated in turn below.

a) ***Practice-Based Observation***

In this study, I have used observation, not in the traditional sense. Based on the nature of the research questions and the type of data I was looking for, I was led not only to agree with Agrosino and Mays de Perez' (2003) critique of the positivistic experimental and hypothesis-testing position in observation, where an observer tries to maintain a "detached" and "objective" stance, but also to orientate my observation such that I become part of the world (ELMD) I was studying. To do this I also drew on insights from the Imbewu concept of Practice-Based Inquiry (PBI) and thus coined the term *Practice-based Observation.*

According to the Imbewu Project, PBI is an open-ended inquiry by educational practitioners into their practice. As a researcher who was also co-programme designer and co-facilitator, I was at the same time an ELMD practitioner. In PBI, according to Imbewu, practitioners go through six main cyclical phases:

> PBI is an experiential process, a cycle of inquiry where practitioners:
> - **IDENTIFY** an issue or element of the vision they want to achieve, something they want to improve. Collect information about that element in order to understand it more clearly.
> - Generate as many ideas for action (strategies) as possible and make an action **PLAN** with the action strategy that seems most useful in their context at this time.
> - **ACT** by carrying out the plan and systematically collecting information about what happened.
> - **REFLECT** together about what happened.

- **EVALUATE** what happened, draw conclusions (how far was the action successful and why did this happen).
- **PLAN** the next action that is needed to achieve the vision.

(Imbewu Project: *Facilitators Handbook: An Introduction to Practice-Based Inquiry*: 10).

It has been further argued that PBI is an approach where practitioners, among other things:

- collaborate to discuss issues in their daily practice in order to make changes designed to improve their practice
- actively construct their knowledge through a process of inquiry
- collaborate to solve problems and richer understandings of professional concepts, skills and values
- bring about change and improvement at the level of each educator's daily practice – that is, the classroom, the office, the school.
- use critical and specific outcomes across traditional subject boundaries

It will be recalled that the roll out plan for the ELMD (see Chapter 3) is one that emulates the PBI principles as well as a cycle of reflection and action modeled along PBI lines. It can also be seen that PBI is closely allied to Participatory Action Research (PAR). PAR has been defined as collective "self-reflective enquiry undertaken by participants in a social situations in order to improve the rationality and justice of their own social…practices" (Kemmis and McTaggart)[11]. It is applied research in which the community or organization under study participate actively with professional researchers from the initial design to the final presentation of results (Lazes *et al.* 1991; Easterby *et al*. 1994).

For the purposes of this study, my observation was both participatory and reflexive in nature. What I have called Practice-Based Inquiry Observation

[11] Quoted in Hughes, I & Seymour-Rolls, K (2000) (24 August 2002). "Participatory Action Research: Getting the Job Done". *Action Research E-Reports, 4.* at: http://casino.cchs.usyd.edu.au/arow/arer/004.htm.(Accessed 30 August 2002)

falls within a post-modern orientation that emphasizes the importance of understanding the researcher's "situation" in terms of his or her gender, class ethnicity, etc., rather than standards emulated from the natural sciences, especially positivist notions of a detached and objective observer (Agrosino and Mays de Perez 2003). This point notwithstanding, however, I documented my data as and when it was occurring, in a systematic way. This practice is in line with the requirements of good research. In this regard, I also endeavoured to produce a convincing narrative that should serve as *de facto* validation of the data. The only proviso is that of a margin of error arising out of possible limitations of my own observation capacities.

As a technique of collecting data, my Practice-Based Observation meant that each time I participated in an ELMD activity (meeting, seminar, block session, etc.) I was observing the behaviour of participants and other practitioners in the programme and taking notes, which I used to write and interpret what had been happening in the programme during the period of investigation.

b) ***Interview***

Another key method I used in this study was the interview. Although the interview is one of the oldest and most widely used research techniques, it still carries a great deal of controversy as there is no agreed best way to do it. In my choice of what I did I was guided by the principles of doing good research outlined above. Debates around the meaning of interview can be picked up the moment one tries to define what it is. Even some of the most recent attempts can still be "shot down" on a number of fronts. Yates (2004:156), for example, gives a literal definition of the interview as "to develop a shared perspective and understanding (a view) between (inter) two or more people."

The idea of a shared perspective and understanding is at the heart of the issue here. Fontana and Frey (2003:62) put forward another view which highlights an increasing realization in social research that interviews are "not neutral

tools of data gathering but active interactions between two (or more) people leading to negotiated, contextually based results." The point here is that both interviewer and interviewee are part of interactions that are jointly constructed. This raises the question of the extent to which we can lift interview results out of contexts in which they were gathered and claim them as objective data with no strings attached.

Awareness of the above problematics about interviews is not to assume absolute relativism as this would not be the solution. It is intended to sharpen my reflexivity and appreciation of the fact that conditions for carrying out a social science inquiry are less than perfect. That said, there is a need to move on and carry out the research as best as possible, but to make modest claims about findings (see rules for good research). With these caveats, in this study I drew on the work of Fontana and Frey and did the types of interviews summarized in Table 4.3. They include structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews, comprising, *brainstorming*, *creative interviewing* and *polyphonic* interviewing.

Table 4.3: Interview Techniques and How used in Study

Type of Interview	Form and situation in which it was carried out
***Structured and semi-structured interviewing*:** The structured was a pre-coded questionnaire and the semi-structured was the questionnaire which was not pre-coded but which had a pre-established set of questions.	The structured was given to a sample of ELMD participants when they enrolled on the programme to assess their knowledge of the type of leadership adopted in this study as well as the capacity that existed in their organizations for that kind of leadership.
***Brainstorming*:** This is a form of group interview (Fontana and Frey p. 91) which can be formal or informal; the role of interviewer is non directive.	This approach was used mainly in ELMD planning sessions and think-tank seminars. Although I was neither the chair nor the traditional interviewer asking questions, my presence in these sessions allowed me to gather data I was looking for.
***Creative Interviewing*:** It is argued that unstructured interviews necessarily take place in everyday worlds of members of society, interviewers and interviewing must necessarily be creative. This means that they must forget "how-to-rules" (Fontana and Frey P 80) and adapt themselves to ever-changing situations they face. Viewed in this way interviews	This was used in block sessions, some face-to-face sessions and during the affirmation exercise. These interviews were not based on structured or pre-defined questions. They were based on questions that were influenced by the over-arching questions of the study which arose during the course of my interactions with the ELMD participants as I observed their behaviour and listened to

Type of Interview	Form and situation in which it was carried out
are a collection of oral reports from members of society. They become "life-histories" which take place in multiple sessions and over many days.	anecdotes.
***Polyphonic Interviewing*:** One of the issues of contestation in interviewing concerns the extent to which the voices of interviewees are recorded with minimal influence from the researcher (Fontana and Frey p. 81). In polyphonic interviewing multiple perspectives of the various interviewees are reported and differences and problems encountered are discussed rather than glossed over. A key strategy in this form of interviewing is to leverage those interactional moments (during interview session) that leave a mark on people's lives. Such a focus on the existential moments can hopefully produce rich and meaningful data.	This approach cut across other types of interview as each time I asked questions and listened to answers I was mindful of the problem of representing their views without, as far as possible, "contaminating" them, such that the reader and other researchers can construct that portion of the ELMD life history from another angle. I did this interviewing during block sessions, some face-to-face sessions and during the affirmation exercise.

c) ***Reviewing Programme Documents***

One of the other key data sources, which provided a variety of views of what was happening in the ELMD, was the programme documents. Hodder (2003:155) has referred to documents as "mute evidence – that is…written texts and artefacts." The importance of written texts lies in the fact that information provided may differ from and may not be available in spoken form. Texts can also be a rich source of historical insight. However, the problem with documents is that once words are transformed into a written text, the gap between the "author" and the "reader" widens, giving rise to the possibility of multiple interpretations. This point emphasizes the need not to rely on one method. This means that despite this weakness, review of relevant documents, when complimented by other approaches outlined above, is a worthwhile research strategy. In this study I, therefore, reviewed a number of ELMD documents which comprised:

- The ELMD final Project Proposal, Version 6
- Various products of brainstorming and think-tank sessions (including ELMD principles, roll out plans, draft ELMD policies, etc.)

- Programme Coordinator's periodic reports
- ELMD course materials, including modules
- Participants, portfolios and journal entries.

These were reviewed during the course of the year as the programme unfolded with the exception of Portfolios and journal entries which were reviewed during the affirmation exercise.

All these methods were necessitated by the fact that the data building exercise in this research had to deal with various sources as well as a variety of data forms that fell under conceptual and practical components of the investigation.

4.7.3 Dealing with Multiple Sources of Data

In using multiple sources of data, the intention is not to triangulate, in the positivistic sense of the word. In social research there are multiple realities. It has been argued that theorists operating within the positivistic tradition have sought to establish "valid" data through a research technique called triangulation. Janesick (2000: 391) has given four basic types of triangulation:

- *Data triangulation*: the use of variety of sources in a study.
- *Investigator triangulation:* the use of several different researchers or evaluators.
- *Theory triangulation*: the use of multiple perspectives to interpret a single set of data.
- *Methodological triangulation:* the use of multiple methods to study a single problem.

It can be seen from the above types that in triangulation the researcher deploys different methods that seek to "validate" findings. However, Richardson (2000:934–935) views this approach as problematic as it is based on a questionable assumption that in social phenomena there is a "fixed point of reference" that can be triangulated. Richardson argues that in postmodern

mixed-genre texts we do not triangulate, we *crystallize*. The social world, according to Richardson, is like a prism that reflects and refracts, "creating ever-changing images and pictures of reality" (*Ibid.* 873–874). This understanding deconstructs the traditional idea of validity, as there can be no single or triangulated truth.

Thus, data from various angles (practice-based observation, interviewing and document review) were crystallized into understandings reflected in Chapters 5 and 6 of this report.

4.7.4 Values, Politics and Ethical Considerations

I argued above that from an interpretivist/critical science perspective, which is the orientation of this study, value neutrality in any social research is not possible as values are part and parcel of the research process. Ultimately, values guide decisions about what can be considered right or wrong in research. This study was guided by my value orientation based on the multiparadigm approach but leaning on the critical science perspective. In conducting interviews, observation and document analysis, I was guided by my conscience, principles of mutual respect, non-manipulation, and respect of persons in terms of issues of confidentiality and the protection of the integrity of the profession. As this research had a strong practice-based component, I needed to be particularly sensitive to the fact that I was not coming in as an expert, (despite my personal involvement in the programme as outlined in Chapter 1) but rather a co-learner, ready to hear the research participants' voice and respect their "truths" about the ELMD.

4.8 Conclusion

Research is about knowledge and its production. Debates about what counts as knowledge and how it is produced have informed the design of this study. I have argued that whatever method I use and, therefore, what version of reality I represent is inevitably entangled in age-old and ongoing ontological and epistemological controversies. My own position is that in carrying out

research I should exercise reflexivity and produce ideas that can be used to reflect critically on the conceptions and applications of educational leadership and social transformation. Following this position, I constructed a set of research methods that are aimed at developing an understanding and practice of the multi-faceted and constantly changing reality under investigation.

CHAPTER 5:
Presentation of Data

5.1 Introduction

This chapter revisits the core research questions of the study and presents data collected during one year of leadership preparation under the ELMD approach. The data are about characteristics and experiences of the first cohort of the new ELMD programme, covering a full year of engagement with them, from July 14, 2003, when the programme was launched, to July 2004. However, due to a decision to carry out formal formative assessment in October 2004, a major chunk of the data also emanates from that assessment process up to about the middle of the month. The data cover various aspects of the ELMD programme. In line with my multi-paradigm approach, and Richardson's (2000) prism analogy (see Chapter 4, page 131), I have sought to understand the ELMD from various angles, a point which has led me to represent some data in the form of descriptive statistics and the bulk of it as narrative description of course content, process and experiences of participants. The chapter explores answers to two core research questions and associated sub-questions as detailed in Chapter 1. The first question is, ***How is leadership developed for the creation of non-hierarchically oriented learning organizations***? The second is, ***How do whole schools and whole districts change through educational leadership*****?**

I have divided the chapter into two parts. The first presents data from the inception of the programme up to October 2004. It starts by reporting on demographic characteristics of Cohort 1 of ELMD participants. The discussion then moves on to examine the programme content and process that the first cohort of leadership "trainees" have gone through. From these, the focus moves to the outcomes of the ELMD by presenting data from what is called the affirmation exercise (see below) during one week in October. It

delves into the identification and assessment of leadership competencies that participants have acquired as well as personal and social development that they have experienced. The conclusion draws together various strands of the chapter.

5.2 Map for finding answers to research questions

This study consists of a multiple sources of data as well as two kinds of data, that is, literature survey and empirical. The former are in the literature review chapters and programme documents in the appendices. The latter are found in consolidated datasets 1 to 3. I have included a map, in Table 5.1, as a guide to data that address the research questions.

Table 5.1: Map for finding Answers to Research Questions

Aspects of Research Questions and Research Goals	Answers found in
• Theoretical conceptions of educational leadership • Theoretical ideas on leadership capacity	Literature Review Part 1 in Chapter 2. Baseline data on Perceptions of ELMD participants from two questionnaires: (a) Leadership Knowledge and Dispositions (b) Leadership Capacity
• Theoretical ideas on leadership preparation • Theoretical ideas on leadership learning	Literature Review Part 2 in Chapter 3
• Characteristics of ELMD Cohort 1: a) Demographic characteristics of ELMD Cohort 1. → b) Participants' perceptions on leadership conceptions (leadership knowledge and dispositions) → c) Perceptions on leadership capacity in own organizations →	Programme Coordinator's Progress Report of 15 October 2003. Baseline interview data in Data Set 1(a) Appendix 6 Baseline interview data in Data Set 1(b) Appendix 6
• Data on team and community profiling • Data on social mobilization • Data on plan preparation and plan implementation	Block session district group reports in Data Sets 2 (a) to (c) and Affirmation Data Set 3, Appendix 6
• Data on development of an ELMD leader • Data on development of an ELMD researcher • Data on development of an ELMD	Affirmation Exercise Data in Data Set 3

Aspects of Research Questions and Research Goals	Answers found in
Change agent & advocate • Data on development of an ELMD reflective practitioner • Data on development of an ELMD team participant	Affirmation Exercise Data in Data Set 3
• Data on transformations through ELMD interventions	Affirmation Exercise school visits in Data Set 4

The map in Table 5.1 shows that some answers to the question regarding the way leadership is taught and learned start to emerge in Chapters 3 through to 5. I have argued that asking how leadership is prepared begs the question of what is understood by educational leadership in the first place, and I have addressed these issues in Chapter 2. What is explored in Chapters 2 and 3, however, are theoretical answers to the first core research question. The practical expressions of the theoretical ideas, or lack thereof, constitute the thrust of data presentation in this chapter. The data presented here also address the other core research question concerning how transformations take place through leadership training. With this map in mind, what remains is to go through the findings from the first year of ELMD implementation, starting with the characteristics of the first cohort.

5.3 Characteristics of Cohort 1 of ELMD

It will be recalled, from Chapter 3 and in line with ELMD philosophy, that the design of the programme required that participants be drawn from four different kinds of education stakeholders. These were to include district officials, school principals, lead teachers and members of the SGBs. This ELMD approach is in agreement with notions of developing a community of leaders, and shared as well as distributed leadership that can help create knowledge ecosystems. The section below shows what the first cohort of ELMD looked like in this regard.

5.3.1 Distribution of ELMD Participants by District and by Position

Table 5.2 presents a distribution of ELMD participants by district and position. It can be seen, from the table, that four Eastern Cape districts participated in the first year of ELMD. The largest representation was from Libode-Mega, with almost a third of the participants. This was followed by King William's Town with 26. Then came Fort Beaufort and Grahamstown, with 23 each.

Table 5.2: Number of ELMD Participants by District & by Position

District	Position					Total
	EDOs	Principals	Educators	HODs	SGBs [12]	
Fort Beaufort	5	5	4	5	4	23
Grahamstown	1	5	3	3	11	23
King William's Town	4	5	6	4	7	26
Libode-Mega	6	6	3	5	12	32
Totals	**14**	**21**	**13**	**22**	**32**	**104**

Source: See Progress Report by the Programme Coordinator of 15 October 2003 (figures updated 9 November 2004)[13]

The table also disaggregates participants by position, in order to show the level of participation by stakeholder. It is interesting to note that the largest single group is that of SGB members, followed by HODs. The principals are in strong third place. The smallest number is that of educators. This means that there was a strong school representation of people in leadership positions.

There was a concern about Grahamstown, which was poorly represented in terms of district officials. There could be a number of implications for this. One is that, if the aim is to build an education district based on collaborative leadership, then perhaps there is need for greater representation of district

[12] SGB members are not educators, but members of the community, usually parents.
[13] Figures were updated on 9 November 2004 with the assistance of the ELMD Programme Administrative Assistant. Figures, however, still did not agree with those of the other two tables, which at the time of writing this report no one in the ELMD office could explain.

personnel. On the other hand, this weak district representation presents the ELMD with an opportunity to address this leadership challenge, for as stated in its founding document the ELMD is meant to:

> …model an innovative, integrated nurturing and development of the leadership and managerial capabilities of education stakeholders in order to improve the governance and management of schools, as well as support provided to schools by parent communities and education district offices. The aim is to empower education officers, principals and heads of schools, members of school management teams, as well as parent/community representatives on School Governing or Parent Teacher Bodies to work as education leaders and change advocates at the local level of school, community and district…. We aim to adopt an innovative approach that will see participants enrolling into the programme as teams, working through a conscientization and enskilling programme that will be based on experiential learning: learning tasks will be action-research oriented; concepts and theories will be built on everyday work responsibilities and real-life development challenges (ELMD Version 6 Proposal: February 2002, p. 1).

In order to realize this ideal, the next cohorts of the ELMD could learn a lesson from the cohort 1 pattern of participation and design a curriculum built around this and other real-life challenges.

5.3.2 Distribution of ELMD Participants by District and by Qualification for which Registered

The foregoing discussion and section 5.2 above have raised the issue of motivation for enrolling in an ELMD. Perhaps a look at the distribution of ELMD participants according to the qualification for which they registered could give some pointers in this direction.

Table 5.3: Number of ELMD Participants by District & by Qualification

District	Qualification for which Registered					
	M.Ed.	B.Ed. (Hons)	ACE	PGDE	Non-Accredited Certificate	**Total**
Fort Beaufort	12	2	3	2	4	23
Grahamstown	7	1	3	4	11	26
King William's Town	10	4	6	6	2	28
Libode-Mega	12	3	4	3	12	34
TOTALS	**41**	**10**	**16**	**15**	**29**	**111**

Source: See Progress Report by the Programme Coordinator of 15 October 2003 (figures updated 9 November 2004)

Table 5.3 shows that over three quarters of the participants are registered for an accredited qualification, with the majority being down for an M.Ed. Those registered for a non-accredited qualification are SGB members who do not qualify for a university-accredited qualification. This configuration of participants presented a number of challenges. Before outlining these, it may be useful to extract some current thinking on the new generic NQF policy as it affects the four ELMD accredited qualification levels shown in table 5.3.

1. ACE
   This level 6 qualification is primarily occupational, vocational, or industry oriented. The knowledge emphasizes general principles and application or technology transfer (Department of Education 2004:13).
2. PGDE
   The primary purpose of the qualification is to enable a professional to undertake advanced reflection, development and upgrading, by providing the learner with systematic survey of current thinking, practice and research methods in an area of specialization. This qualification demands a high level of theoretical engagement and intellectual independence (Department of Education 2004:18).
3. B.Ed. (Hons)
   This qualification demands a high level of theoretical engagement and intellectual independence…. Bachelor Honours Degree programmes should include conducting and reporting research under supervision (Department of Education 2004:17).
4. M.Ed
   The primary purposes of a Master's Degree are to educate and train researchers who can contribute to the development of knowledge at an

> advanced level…. A Master's Degree must have a significant research component (Department of Education 2004:19).

From the above quotes from the new policy for Qualifications Framework discussion document intended for implementation in January 2006, it can be seen that apart from the ACE which has a practical application orientation akin to the ELMD development thrust, the rest of the accredited qualification for which participants are registered are academic and research oriented. The purposes that are specific to the field of educational leadership and management are found in Standards Generating Body (SGB) for Educational Leadership and Management draft document. These are summarized in Table 5.4, below.

Table 5.4 Draft Standards Generating Body Qualification Purposes in Educational Leadership and Management [14]

Qualification	Purpose
ACE (School Management and Leadership)	…to develop in these educators the fundamental knowledge, skills, and values/attitudes/attributes so that they can lead and manage schools effectively and contribute to improving the delivery of education across the school system.
PGDE (School Management and Leadership)	…to enhance the knowledge, understanding and skills of managers and leaders in school through the application of theory and research to improve educational practice.
M.Ed. (School Management and Leadership)	…accredits candidate's advanced professional and academic knowledge and its application in education leadership and management and ability to conduct practice-based independent research.

It must be mentioned that the SGB drafted these standards for the purposes of regulating professional qualifications. The main purpose was to develop qualifications with a professional rather than purely academic thrust. However, as can be seen from Table 5.4, the Educational Management and Leadership qualifications still broadly are in line with those of CHE. Although developed for professional purposes, the standards (except for the ACE) still seem to emphasize the academic side of things. Although all

[14] From Draft papers from one SGB member, Professor Hennie van der Mescht of Rhodes University.

expect candidates to apply knowledge in practical situations, none is as explicitly developmental as the ELMD. Nevertheless these draft qualifications signal a recognition of the need to develop alternative courses which link learning with real-life challenges and experiences in the sense that the ELMD is trying to pursue. However, this gives rise to a number of challenges for the programme.

The first challenge, which has already been experienced during the first year, relates to the development of modules and learning tasks that speak to different levels. As will be seen under the description of modules, some writers differentiated the activities according to different levels. A related challenge to this concerns team-building efforts as expressed in the ELMD concept and philosophy. In Chapter 3, it was argued that teams are formed on the basis of a task in hand. If teams are to be formed across various stakeholders, then differentiation of tasks would appear to restrict team formation within certain categories of stakeholders who are assigned to a specific task as dictated by qualification purposes, and, thereby, exclude others by virtue of level suitability. This is a dynamic to be watched within the development of the ELMD. The third point is a practical challenge of having as many as forty M.Ed. students in one programme within one group. This fact places a huge burden on faculty of supervising research projects. As an accrediting institution, CHE would like to see evidence that Fort Hare has the capacity to supervise that many post-graduate research students. These challenges do not have easy answers at the end of the first year of ELMD implementation. However, ELMD programme personnel can derive some delight from viewing a distribution of learners that is close to achieving gender parity.

5.3.3 Distribution of ELMD Participants by Gender

Although the ELMD project proposal does not specify that gender balance must be reflected in the number of participants who enroll, Table 5.5 shows an encouraging feature. It has often been observed that women are under-

represented in positions of leadership. The reverse appears to be the case with regard to Cohort 1 of ELMD.

Table 5.5: Number of ELMD Cohort 1 by Gender

District	Male	Female	Total
Fort Beaufort	12	11	23
Grahamstown	14	12	26
King William's Town	16	12	28
Libode-Mega	13	21	34
Totals	**55**	**56**	**111**

Source: See Progress Report by the Programme Coordinator of 15 October 2003 (figures updated 9 November 2004)

Judging from the figures in Table 5.5, the ELMD has achieved gender balance. Of the 111 participants, just over half (56) are women as opposed to 55 men. If Gronn's (1999:122) contention that "organizations are increasingly sympathetic towards those qualities traditionally considered to be feminine", then the ELMD participants can build on these to strengthen the thrust towards collective leadership.

The question of developing communities of leaders and distributed leadership will be examined below. For now, it is necessary to look at the characteristics of Cohort 1 in terms of their perceptions of participatory leadership.

5.3.4 Measuring ELMD Participants' Perceptions of Participatory Leadership

At the start of the ELMD programme, in July 2003, I gave a random sample of newly enrolled participants a set of two self-reporting questionnaires. One focused on Leadership Knowledge and Dispositions and the other on Leadership Capacity in their places of work. Both instruments were adapted from Lambert's study in the United States. The adaptation comprised minor changes to make the instruments relevant to a South African context. The first instrument sought to measure participatory leadership in terms of variables shown in Lambert's quadrant 4 (see Chapter 2, Figure 2.2, page 51). The

second instrument on Leadership Capacity sought to measure the capacity that exists in their workplace to do participatory leadership work as shown in quadrant 4. Both instruments are included, as Appendices 3 and 4. Below I present the results from the two questionnaires, starting with the one on Knowledge and Dispositions for Participatory Leadership.

5.3.4.1 Composite Indicators of Knowledge and Dispositions of Participatory Leadership

The data from the instrument were analyzed and summarized as frequency tables in Data Set 1 (a) in Appendix 6. These data are further summarized in Table 5.6. To explain how Table 5.6 was compiled, a study of the questionnaire should suffice. It can be seen that each mode of the ratings denotes the extent of leadership knowledge and dispositions from the lowest *not observed*, rating "1" to the highest *can teach others*, rating "5". From the ratings, descriptive statistics, percentages, means and modes were produced through a Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) programme. To present the results, I decided to use one type of average, the mode (or most popular rating or most frequently occurring value). It can be seen from Table 5.6, that most variables have a mode of "4", suggesting that these dispositions represent those who completed the instruments who already had a high disposition for collaborative leadership. However, a striking feature relates to two items under "student achievement" with a low value of "2". This suggests that this is an area to look at closely for future studies. What is also of note is the fact that the variation among the sample is low. Most items have less than one standard deviation. This fact, plus a high reliability coefficient of 0.9324 (see Appendix 5) means that statistically speaking, we can be fairly confident of the responses.

What these responses mean in terms of this study may be debated around two issues. One concerns the increasing literature on educational leadership (see Chapter 2), which stresses distributed, participatory as opposed to one-person leadership in education. Second, these ideas may have somehow filtered

through to the Eastern Cape schools concerned in various ways, including the school improvement projects that have been in existence since the post-apartheid government came to power. Whatever the reason, the ELMD started on a favourable footing in terms of promoting collaborative leadership. However, given the small sample size and the fact that this was not a probability sample, it is difficult to generalize the results to the rest of cohort 1.

Table 5.6: Mode and Standard Deviations of Leadership Dispositions and Knowledge

Variable	Mode	SD
1. Broad-based participation in the work of leadership		
a) Assists in the establishment of representative governance & work	3	.99
b) Organizes to maximize interactions…..	4	1
c) Shares authority and resources broadly	3.	.76
c) Engages others in opportunities to lead	4	1
2. Skillful Participation in the Work of Leadership		
a) Develops shared purpose of learning	4	.63
b) Facilities group processes	4	.86
c) Communicates (especially listening and questioning)	4	.91
d) Reflects on practice	4	.87
e) Inquires into the questions and issues confronting your school community	3	.73
Variable	**Mode**	**SD**
f) Collaborates in planning	4	.60
g) Manages conflict among adults	4	.81
h) Problem solves with colleagues and students	4	.62
i) Manages change and transitions	3	.63
3. Inquiry-based Use of Information to Inform Shared Decisions and Practice		
a) Engages with others in a learning cycle.	4	.72
b) Develops plans and schedules for the creation of shared time.	3	.66
c) Identifies, discovers and interprets information and school data/evidence.	4	.73
d) Designs and implements a communication system.	3	.81
e) Participates with others in shared governance processes that integrate…	4	.96
4. Roles and Responsibilities that Reflect Broad Involvement and Collaboration Leadership		
a) Own role includes attention to the classroom, the school, the community and the profession.	4	1
b) Observes and is sensitive to indicators that participants are performing outside traditional roles. Gives feedback to participants.	3	.81
c) Develops strategies for strengthening the new relationships that will emerge from broadened roles.	4	1
d) Develops mutual expectations and strategies for ensuring that participants share responsibility for implementation of school community agreements.	3	.81
5. Reflective Practice/Innovation as the Norm		
a) Ensures that the cycle of inquiry and time schedules involve a continuous ….	4	1.2
b) Demonstrates and encourages individual & group initiative.	3	.70
c) Practices and supports innovation without expectations for early success.	3	.83

d)	Encourages practices and participates in collaborative innovation.	3	1
e)	Engages with other innovators in developing own criteria for monitoring…	4	.82
6.	**Student Achievement**		
a)	Works with members of the school community.	4	1
b)	Designs, teaches, coaches and assesses curriculum.	3	1
c)	Provides systematic feedback to children and families.	4	1
d)	Receives feedback about family learning expectations.	2	1
e)	Redesigns roles and structures to enable.	2	1
f)	Ensures that learning circle within the school includes evidence.	4	1

Nevertheless, given the apparent positive picture in the statistics above, and, in order to glean more meaning from the data in Table 5.6, a further summary of each of the variables into composite variables was necessary. To do this, I used the SPSS programme to compute new composite variables. The total possible score for these variables, their names and labels are shown in Data Set 1 (c) in Appendix 7. However in order to report on the summary state of affairs as derived from the composite variables it is necessary to develop a key which describes the extent of leadership dispositions according to whether is "excellent", "good", "fair" and "poor". The key is presented in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7: Summary Ratings for Leadership Dispositions

Variable	Summary Rating	Description
BBASED	Excellent:	Greater than 20 or equal to but not greater than 25
	Good:	Greater than 15 or equal to 20
	Fair:	Greater than 10 or equal to 15.
	Poor:	Less than 10
SKILFUL	Excellent:	Greater than 44 or equal to but not greater than 55
	Good:	Greater than 33 or equal to 44
	Fair:	Greater than 22 or equal to 33
	Poor:	Less than 22
INQUIRY	Excellent:	Greater than 20 or equal to but not greater than 25
	Good:	Greater than 15 or equal to 20
	Fair:	Greater than 10 or equal to 15.
	Poor:	Less than 10
ROLES	Excellent	Greater than 16 or equal to but not greater than 20
	Good	Greater than 12 or equal to 16
	Fair	Greater than 8 or equal to 12
	Poor	Less than 8
REFLECTV	Excellent:	Greater than 20 or equal to but not greater than 25
	Good:	Greater than 15 or equal to 20
	Fair:	Greater than 10 or equal to 15.
	Poor:	Less than 10
STUDENT	Excellent:	Greater than 24 or equal to but not greater than 30
	Good:	Greater than 18 or equal 24
	Fair:	Greater than 12 or equal to 18

Poor:	Less than 12

With the tool in Table 5.7, it is possible to judge for each of the variables how well the group rated their leadership dispositions on each of the aspects represented by the six composite variables. Table 5.7(a) shows mean scores and standard deviations on each of the six variables.

Table 5.7(a): Mean Scores & Standard Deviations for Leadership Dispositions

Variable	Mean Score	SD	Summary Rating
BBASED	14	3	Fair
SKILFUL	41	4	Good
INQUIRY	17	3	Good
ROLES	12	2	Good
REFLECTV	16	3	Good
STUDENT	21	5	Good

Using data from Table 5.7 and the mean score in Table 5.7(a) it can be seen that, the overall situation is that the participants who completed the instrument had "good" leadership dispositions, on the whole. However, when we look at Broad-based participation in the work of leadership, the summary score works out to "fair". Furthermore, the SDs for each of the variables show a great deal of variation. This is surprising, as the SDs of each of the variables, disaggregated to measure each item as shown in Table, 5.7, are small. Nevertheless, this is one way of trying to "get at" participants' knowledge of leadership dispositions. If collaborative and constructivist leadership are to be developed, this is one of the tools participants can use collectively at their places of work to measure and quantify leadership knowledge and dispositions and use the information to make adjustments in their work of leadership. The ELMD and other leadership preparation programmes teams can also learn from the fact that this instrument has worked.

I now present data on the second questionnaire, measuring Leadership Capacity.

5.3.5 Composite Indicators of Leadership Capacity of Participatory Leadership of a Sample ELMD Schools and Districts

The instrument on Leadership Capacity has five sets of variables, falling under the following headings: Broad-based skillful participation in the work of leadership; Use of information from research to inform decisions and practices; Leadership roles and responsibilities that reflect broad collaboration; Reflective practice/innovation as the norm; and High student achievement (See Appendix 4). The statistics, which are a summary of results, are in Data Set 1 (b) in Appendix 6. From those statistics, Table 5.8 presents the mode and standard deviations of perception on leadership capacity in organizations, mostly schools, from which ELMD participants who completed the questionnaire work.

Table 5.8: Mode and Standard Deviations of Leadership Capacity

Variable	Mode	SD
1. Broad-based skilful participation in the work of leadership		
a) Have established representative governance groups, eg, SGBs, SMTs, etc.	4	.5
b) Often work in large and small groups on a number of tasks	3	1
c) Each member gets an opportunity to model and demonstrate leadership skills	3	1
d) Organize and provide opportunities for maximum interaction among adults & children	3	.78
e) Share authority and resources	4	.83
f) Express our leadership by attending to learning of entire school community	4	1
g) Talk to each other and debate opportunities to lead	3	1
2. Use of Information from Research to Inform Decisions and Practices		
a) Use learning cycle that involves reflection, dialogue, inquiry…..	3	1
b) Make time available for this learning to occur …..	3	1
c) Connect or relate learning cycles to highest priorities…	3	.91
d) Identify, discover and interpret information and data …..	4	1
e) Have designed a comprehensive information system …..	3	1
3. Roles and Responsibility that Reflect Broad Involvement and Collaboration		
a) Have designed our roles to include attention to classroom, schools and community….4		1
b) Are sensitive to indications that we are performing outside of traditional roles	3	1
c) Have developed new ways in which we can work together to nature relationships….	4	89
d) Have developed a plan for shared responsibilities…..	3	1
4. Reflective Practice/Innovations as the Norm		
a) Make sure that the learning cycle and time schedules include…ongoing reflection.	3	1
b) Demonstrate and encourage individual and group initiative by providing access.	4	1

c)	Have joined with networks of other schools and programmes inside and outside district.	4	1
d)	Practise and support innovation without unrealistic expectations of early success.	3	.86
e)	Encourage and participate in collaborative innovations.	3	1
f)	Develop our own criteria for monitoring, assessment and accountability.	4	.72
5.	**High Student Achievement**		
a)	Work with members of the school community.	3	1
b)	Design, teach, coach and assess curriculum, instruction.	4	.96
c)	Provide systematic feedback from families about student achievement	4	1
d)	Receive feedback from families about student performance and school programmes	2	.97
e)	Have designed roles and structures to develop and sustain.	3	1

Once again, results in Table 5.8 for leadership capacity show a positive picture. Like the leadership disposition statistics, it is necessary to subject it to summary statistics. The strategy used to interpret tables 5.7 and 5.7(a) for leadership dispositions above also applies to Tables 5.9 and 5.9(a). It is, therefore, not necessary to repeat it here, but rather to proceed and present the mean scores for leadership capacity.

Table 5.9: Summary Ratings for Leadership Capacity

Variable	Summary Rating	Description
CBASED	Excellent:	Greater than 28 or equal to but not greater than 35
	Good:	Greater than 21 or equal to 28
	Fair:	Greater than 14 or equal to 21
	Poor:	Less than 14
CINFO	Excellent:	Greater than 20 or equal to but not greater than 25
	Good:	Greater than 15 or equal to 20
	Fair:	Greater than 10 or equal to 20
	Poor:	Less than 10
CROLES	Excellent	Greater than 16 or equal to but not greater than 20
	Good	Greater than 12 or equal to 16
	Fair	Greater than 8 or equal to 12
	Poor	Less than 8
CREFLECT	Excellent:	Greater than 24 or equal to but not greater than 30
	Good:	Greater than 18 or equal 24
	Fair:	Greater than 12 or equal to 18
	Poor:	Less than 12
CSTUDENT	Excellent:	Greater than 20 or equal to but not greater than 25
	Good:	Greater than 15 or equal to 20
	Fair:	Greater than 10 or equal to 20
	Poor:	Less than 10

Table 5.9 gives the indicators for summarizing leadership capacity in ELMD organizations rated by participants. The summaries are given in Table 5.9(a).

Table 5.9(a): Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for Leadership Capacity

Variable	Mean Score	SD	Summary Rating
CBASED	24	5	Good
CINFO	15	5	Fair
CROLES	13	3	Good
CREFLECT	18	6	Fair
CSTUDENT	15	4	Fair

While knowledge and dispositions of participatory leadership have been presented as primarily "good", less optimism is displayed for leadership capacity by the same participants. It can be seen, in Table 5.9(a), that of the five composite variables, only two score "good", the rest score "fair". Another striking feature of Table 5.9(a) is that the SDs are quite big as compared to that in any of the tables above of the same data. The large variation in table 5.9(a) may suggest lack of agreement on the assessment of leadership capacity.

This doubtful state of affairs on leadership capacity, however, may be interpreted in terms of a number of points. One is that the knowledge of collaborative leadership is not necessarily translated into practice, as judged by the measure of lack of capacity. In order to combine theory and practice, it may be necessary to emphasize experiential learning approaches to leadership development, of the kind the ELMD is trying to develop. The other is that the ELMD then had the space to help create that capacity. The third is that if there is no capacity for doing participatory leadership work, then leadership for social justice, which is implicit in the post-apartheid educational policy

goals for transformation, is not likely to be achieved. This fact may undermine the transformation agenda. Fourth is that if the sustainability of the transformation agenda depends on the creation of a knowledge ecosystem (see Chapter 3) then without collaborative leadership capacity notions of whole school, whole community and whole district are difficult to achieve. Finally, lack of capacity may be indicative of the fact that the educational organizational form in the schools and districts concerned is still hierarchical.

Once again, a word of caution: despite the reliability of the questionnaire, the sample was a purposive and not a probability sample and thus it is difficult to generalize. The second point is that these data were collected at the start of the programme and were compiled from questionnaire responses. This gives a partial view of the knowledge and capacity to undertake collaborative leadership. A fuller picture should emerge from the empirical evidence arising out of the experiences of the ELMD participants (including programme designers and facilitators) as they went through the programme delivery during the first year of its existence.

5.4 ELMD Content, Process and Experiences

What content and process, then, did the programme designers think can help in the development of desired leadership capacity in ELMD schools, communities and districts? This section should shed some light on answering this question. It also addresses the core question of *how* collaborative leadership can be prepared. The rest of this chapter, therefore, highlights some points of learning from the one year of ELMD experience.

5.4.1 ELMD Learning and Development Themes and Modules

It will be recalled that the indicators that have been summarized from the two questionnaires, Leadership Knowledge and Dispositions and Leadership Capacity mini-survey, suggest not only a particular conceptualization of leadership, but also possible content for a leadership development programme designed to produce such leaders and the desired capacity. Although the

ELMD did not follow the Lambert model, its content overlaps in a number of ways as will be seen below.

The content of the ELMD was structured into three main themes. In line with the philosophy of the programme, these themes constitute key activities around which content was developed. As a result of this approach, three Activity Books had been developed. These are: *Profiling*, *Social Mobilization* and *District and School Development Planning*. The workbooks that address each of the organizing key activity themes are in Appendix 2. I will now deal with key components of each theme below.

5.4.1.1 Profiling

This theme is covered in the first workbook or *umthamo* (as it is called in the ELMD) entitled *Priming Ourselves for Leadership and Development*. This *umthamo* was designed to guide participants through doing a key activity drawn from three key modules, Developmental Research, Leadership and Communities and Social Transformation. The key activity for this introductory *umthamo*, profiling, was defined as "looking at something from a particular perspective in an effort to understand how it works."[15] This key activity focused on two main tasks (a) Team Profiling and (b) District and Community Profiling.

In line with the shared and collaborative perspective on leadership, one of the first concerted efforts of the ELMD was to help participants build teams from within themselves. The first encounter, with ELMD participants during the first Block Session was structured as a major team building exercise for a whole week. An examination of the first week-long block session (see programme for the week in Appendix 8) shows that a large amount of time was devoted to introductions and team-building exercises. Each day, for example, started with a team building exercise. Throughout the week,

[15] See page 3, School of Education In-service Programmes, *Priming Ourselves for Leadership and Development: Introductory Umthamo*. University of Fort Hare.

participants were asked to sit in their "district teams", which meant that the district officials, principals, educators and SGBs all sat together as a district team and were given tasks within that grouping.

An interesting exercise, which they were asked to do on the first day as they sat to work together for the first time as a group consisting of different levels in the education hierarchy, was to introduce themselves. Introductions involved:

- each person in the group saying who they are,
- what their clan name is,
- their history,
- what their purpose in life is,
- their strengths,
- their weaknesses, and
- why they joined the programme.

The introductions were significant in the sense that, it was evident that, as people introduced themselves some ice was being broken and barriers were beginning to be shaken.

The introductory *umthamo* outlined how the team building exercises were going to be part of structured and unstructured activities as they work through the *imithamo*. The structured sessions included the Block Sessions and face-to-face meetings. Following these first block sessions were four face-to-face sessions, leading to a second block session, in which they, as a district team, reported on achievements and challenges to the entire ELMD cohort. District teams were assisted by facilitators called *abakwezeli* (which means, "Keep the fire burning") to work through and prepare for this report back.

The other major task during the same period was the community profiling exercise. This was to be done through a participatory research activity called *community mapping* (Moyo and Kgobe 2003). The primary aim was two-

fold: to help participants build a profile of the community in which they live and work. This was done in order to help them understand and discover what services were available and how they could work together with other stakeholders to promote the education of their children. The other aim was that through a process of community mapping, in which community members went through a similar exercise as team building, community members would "discover" or re-define who they are. The community mapping exercise basically involves calling members of the community together and holding conversations about the community. Below is an agenda that ELMD participants used:

- Introductions by each member of the community present;
- Exploring the past, in which members discuss the history of the community;
- Understanding the present, which includes (a) an analysis of the current reality within the community, (b) community strengths, and (c) community challenges;
- Community priorities; and
- Community vision.

The community mapping workshop is a data collection strategy based on the idea that once the community members have unpacked who they are, a number of possibilities can result. One is that they have a better understanding of who the others are, where places of help are, who can assist, and what contributions they as community members can make in the transformation of education and the community. In short, by going through a mapping exercise, they could identify partners and collaborators in education with whom they could network. This networking would then lead, it was hoped, to the creation of a knowledge ecosystem with all its strengths and weaknesses as discussed in Chapter 3. The first year of ELMD implementation, however, had not yet witnessed this creation.

5.4.1.2 Successes and Challenges of Team and Community Profiling

The data in this section relate to evidence that shows the success and challenges of team building and community mapping exercises. The data are compiled from reported experiences in face-to-face and block sessions.

a) ***Team building***

In Chapter 3, it was argued that teams and teamwork have to be consciously built and carefully natured. It was further argued that teams can exist in name without necessarily exhibiting team culture. The ELMD approach was designed to build a culture of teamwork. A number of participants and *abakwezeli* exposed to ELMD philosophy and methodology have attested to the fact that they have seen teams forming and carrying out team tasks.

A presentation for the affirmation exercise prepared by the King William's Town team has claimed that ELMD caused greater participation within communities and helped the group work as a team (see Appendix9)

Other evidence of the impact of team building exercises is summarized in Table 5.10 below. I compiled this from team reports in Block Session 2 (See Data Set 2). They pertain to two face-to-face sessions from Libode-Mega and Grahamstown.

Table 5.10: Experiences of Various Education Stakeholders in Team Building

Stakeholder	Experiences
District Official	Positive: • I saw how a team is formed during the first Block Session. • I was able to mix with people of different rank. We were able to discuss as colleagues. • These activities gave me confidence. Negative: • There was no cross-district collaboration. • There was no contact between teams.
Principal & Educators	Positive: • I witnessed a common feeling of working together.

	• Learned to respect other people as I do not always have the right answers. • Learned to be tolerant. • Valued contribution from SGB members. • Some people started by being touchy but gradually learned to relax. <u>Negative:</u> • Some people tend to disregard ideas from others. • There was lack of punctuality. • Some people are not as committed as others.
SGB Members	<u>Positive:</u> • I was accepted as an SGB member by people of diverse experiences. • I saw the potential for us to be developed. <u>Negative:</u> • Late coming was a problem.

The responses above are a promising indicator of what can be achieved as far as team building is concerned. It also shows some challenges associated with the individual behaviour of team members. At this stage, it may be difficult to say whether these are teams in name or in substance. Data from the affirmation exercise below should assist. This area could also constitute another study.

(b) ***Community Mapping***

Armed with ideas from the first block session and supported by the *abakwezeli* in face-to-face sessions, participants went out to the field to "get their hands dirty", that is, they carried out the community mapping research activity without the traditional literature review, research design and other head work preliminaries associated with academic research. The ELMD thinking, in this respect, was that theory must build on real-life experiences. By undertaking the real-life activity of mapping the community, the participants must have experienced some challenges of formulating research questions and setting about answering them. When teams reported their data in block session two, the data looked as shown below:

Exploring the Past:

- Teenage pregnancy was a disgrace.
- Churches were also used as schools.
- Farmers were managing the schools.
- There was no democracy in schools.
- Learners used to walk long distances.

Understanding Our Present:

- Moral decay.
- High rate of unemployment & poverty.
- HIV/ AIDS problem.
- Child abuse.
- High crime rate.
- Lack of parental involvement.
- Substance abuse.
- Availability of learner support material.

Challenges in Our Community:

- Unemployment.
- Lack of community involvement.
- Literacy.
- Shortage of subject advisors.

Summary from Block Session Presentation of Community Mapping Data (Data Set 2 (b)

As can be seen from the above summary of data presented as part of reporting on community mapping activities, the following challenges can be identified:

- The data are not presented in a usable format. For example, under community challenges, the item *unemployment*, does not say much. There is a need to process this, such that unemployment is represented as a rate or stating the number of unemployed. According to ELMD thinking, data

processing and data summarization are then taught, based on what the participants themselves have produced.

- What might be presented as a challenge of unemployment, however, may in fact be something else, for example, lack of skills, attitude to work, etc. What this suggests is that in research, the participants need to be clear about what questions they would like to answer and how they should facilitate the "extraction" of evidence from the respondents.

Getting research experience was one of the aims of this theme. The other was to actually come up with a community profile showing characteristics of the community that have relevance to the real-life everyday challenges of supporting education in their schools. The King William's Town group came close to this in the written report attached in Appendix 9. They had approached the following stakeholders:

- South African Police Service
- Social Workers
- Municipal councillors
- Nursing sister
- Taxi Associations
- Department of Agriculture

The group approached these stakeholders because they felt that they work or ought to work closely with schools and that they are leaders in their field of operation (p. 6 of King William's Town's Report to Block Session 2, 25 September 2003). It can be argued that if this approach is followed up and sustained, it can lead to the creation of a district knowledge ecosystem such as discussed in Chapter 3.

The above examples of profiling activities by teams show that some steps were being taken leading to the mobilization of stakeholders towards collective leadership. But after profiling, how were they to carry out the actual mobilization in the next key activity?

5.4.2 Social Mobilization

Social mobilization was viewed as getting the team to "get your community moving" (Botha and Avery 2003:2). At this stage of the ELMD programme, "trainee" leaders were being called upon to build upon their team strengths and knowledge of community to get their communities moving for the purpose of building a better life and education for themselves and their children. The social mobilization activity book gives participants various ideas and notions of the phenomenon of mobilization. These include the 1976 Soweto uprising and others.

This particular activity book, like the first one, drew on three modules, which are: *Communities and Social Transformation*, *Developmental Research* and *Policy and Education Development*. Around the key activity of social mobilization, participants were required to carry out individual and team activities in their work places and communities.

The main activities under the theme of social mobilization revolved around holding an *imbizo* (or discussion workshop) in which various stakeholders were to be brought together, analyze the situation in their communities and eventually craft a vision for development. Available reports from teams (see Appendices 9 and 10) show various ways in which this was experienced.

Group Reports from Block Session 4 (Data Set 2 (c)) also shows that the participants had, in the main, been able to mobilize sections of the community by holding *imbizo*s.

The Libode-Mega Team report (Appendix 10) shows a lot of enthusiasm for this activity. The team held a series of *imbizo*s, and at least one school community held a SWOT analysis. The next step was to carry out the actual planning based on the visions.

One face-to-face report from Grahamstown, however, shows some challenges faced by the team in trying to hold an *imbizo*. The report (Appendix 11)

shows that there was poor attendance and the *imbizo* could not be held and was postponed for a future date.

From these available reports, a number of things can be learned. One is that the quality of report writing was weak. Where an *imbizo* was held, it is difficult to capture the richness of exchange of ideas that can take place at such a forum. This is a critical learning point for the pilot study as, without detailed and sound documentation, it is difficult to capture and learn from the process of development of leaders using the ELMD model. From my understanding, in discussion with colleagues, this study is the first to capture in a systematic way what the ELMD is trying to model. For this reason, the potential ethical dilemma of my dual role as researcher and leadership developer is resolved, as the study should benefit the programme as well.

The other point is that the strategy of planning and undertaking an *imbizo* was possibly weak in the Grahamstown team. This raises the point about what kind of leadership knowledge and skills are required to undertake such tasks. This is perhaps a case where what is called for is a combination of local and global as well as tacit embedded knowledge (as discussed in Chapter 3, pages 74 - 78) rather than textbook knowledge. Furthermore, if the ELMD curriculum should be built around real-life leadership challenges, as the ELMD proposal envisages (see Appendix 1), then there is a need to learn from such an abortive attempt how to do just that in practice.

Finally, the timeframe in which the *imbizo*s were to be organized and held was possibly too short, given that most participants have full-time jobs as educators or district officials. What kind of timeframes to use, ELMD programme designers should, I believe, learn from the participants, in the spirit of co-learning and constructivist curriculum building, by creating opportunities for sharing experiences and for broad-based skillful participation in the work of leadership, as conceived in Lambert's quadrant 4.

Despite the apparent opportunities lost, the exercise in social mobilization appears to have laid the necessary awareness for a participatory approach to development planning.

5.4.3 District and School Development Planning

Crafted around the key activity of District and School Development Planning, were four ELMD modules: Participatory Action for Social Transformation and Strategic Planning, Leading Professional Development, Finance and Projects, and Education Management Development Information System (EMDIS). The thrust of these is on developing plans that would lead to plan implementation designed to "support the schools in the move to attaining Section 21 functions" (Botha, Dladla and Avery 2003:6). Section 21 status, as provided for in the South African Schools Act, is about self-management of schools. This calls for competencies in financial management; educational transformational policies such as that of Norms and Standards for Financing, production, processing, and in using the Education Management Information System (EMIS) – understood in the ELMD as EMDIS, with an emphasis on development.

Reports on practical activities around the key activity of District and School Development Planning were still very thin by the end of year one. However, some participants had started working on their development plans as implied in Appendices 10 and 11. How this was unfolding in practice in schools and districts will be seen from the data from the affirmation exercises below.

5.5 ELMD Assessment Policy, Practice and Indicators of Change

While the ELMD was primarily designed as a capacity-building and development oriented programme, the fact that most of those enrolled on the programme (see Table 5.2 above) were registered for an accredited qualification presented a twin-sided challenge for the programme designers. On the one hand, they had to come up with an assessment strategy that meets

the accreditation requirements of the Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) and which is in line with the SAQA framework. On the other hand, such an assessment strategy should be consistent with the developmental thrust and ELMD philosophy. This challenge preoccupied programme designers from its inception up to the time of writing this study, October 2004 and on-going. It must be noted, though, that the issue of assessment is not peculiar to ELMD. Broadfoot and Black (2004) acknowledge that controversies around assessment in education remain unsolved world-wide, prompting them to pose the question as to whether practitioners in this field have not reached a stage where assessment is actually being re-defined.

They argue that there is "a move to rethink more radically the practices and priorities of assessment if it is to respond to human needs rather than frustrate them" (Broadfoot and Black 2004:1). In this connection, Broadfoot and Black raise two critical questions. First, the extent to which prevailing modes of assessment tend to reinforce outmoded notions of curriculum content and student learning at the expense of twenty-first century learning skills and dispositions such as creativity and learning to learn. Second, whether it is now time for the emergence of a new paradigm born of the very different epistemologies and needs of the twenty-first century (*Ibid.* pp. 21–22). The two questions are highly pertinent to the ELMD orientation, not only in re-inventing educational leadership but also in redefining assessment procedures for the preparation of such leadership. What contribution might be made by the ELMD's first draft of Assessment Policy and Procedures, produced in January 2004, some six months after the launch of the programme,[16] will be determined in part by its ability to shift the paradigm in the face of structural constraints discussed in the next chapter. But first, I now briefly outline the ELMD assessment policy and procedures in the draft document and go on to examine how these worked out in practice for the programme.

[16] See Assessment Policy and Procedures Draft1: Educational Leadership, Management and Development Programme. 15 January 2004.

5.5.1 ELMD Assessment Policy and Procedures

The ELMD programme designers have been at pains to design an assessment system that is different from the traditional type. Some basic principles of ELMD assessment demonstrate this:

- The ELMD is primarily a transformational and development project. Assessment strategies support this.
- Assessment reflects the primary importance of participant activity and its outcomes.
- Summative examinations are not appropriate in this project, and written assignments are different in nature from traditional ones, being based on practical activities.
- The awarding of qualifications will, however, be done on the basis of rigorous and structured assessment procedures, in line with SAQA requirements.
- Assessment will be graded on a 5-point rating system (1–5) described below. No marks or percentages will be awarded until the final grading is translated into a final percentage for the purpose awarding qualifications (Assessment Policy and Procedures Draft 1. p. 2 – Appendix 12).

The above principles capture the tension between the traditional academic summative examinations and democratic, activity and outcomes based assessment. They also show the efforts by ELMD programme designers to attempt to shift the paradigm with regard to doing leadership development and social transformation. However, perhaps one of the most innovative ideas built into the assessment procedures is the notion of *affirmation*.

5.5.1.1 The Concept of Affirmation

Affirmation has been defined as a process whereby assessors external to the group *affirm* and celebrate the work done by the *abakwezeli* and participants[17]. In doing this, they confirm the grades given by the group/peers and *abakwezeli*, or in certain cases suggest modifications to bring them in line with grades from other groups or agreed upon criteria. The bringing of grades in line with those of other groups is a form of moderation, but the difference is

[17] ELMD September Affirmation – A Suggested Framework: 16 July 2004.

that affirmation can be seen as "user-friendly" in the sense that it is a negotiated process. The participant is given the opportunity to present and defend his/her work to the affirmers.

The affirmers in the first ELMD affirmation exercise, which was carried out in October 2004, were people from other universities, Africa University in Zimbabwe, Rhodes University in the Eastern Cape, the University of KwaZulu Natal, *abakwezeli* from another group, academics from the Faculty of Education at Fort Hare, District Directors from the Eastern Cape Department of Education and module writers. As can be seen, the spread of stakeholder representation and the sharing with outsiders of the work done by *abakwezeli* and participants is a form of accountability. This is an important part of building confidence in the programme. It is also a monitoring and quality assurance process that could go some way to convince the HEQC.

5.5.1.2 Process of Affirmation

The affirmers were divided into two teams, 1 and 2. Each team was deployed to two districts to carry out the affirmation and followed the process outlined below:

1. Pre-affirmation meeting
2. Visit central venues of District 1
3. Visit selected schools in District 1
4. Mid-affirmation review meeting (both teams)
5. Visit central venue of District 2
6. Visit selected schools in District 2
7. Final review meeting (both teams)

At the pre-affirmation meeting, the two teams discussed the idea of affirmation as well as the process it entails. It was an opportunity to clarify any points that were not clear. Importantly, they went through and agreed on the action process, whose core activities involved, among other things,

listening to team presentations, viewing school cluster displays, interviewing individual participants, and scrutinizing and discussing portfolios and journals. In the portfolio and journals, the affirmers were to look for and affirm evidence of individual participant development as a *leader, change agent and advocate, team participant, reflective practitioner* and *researcher.* These areas of growth and what the affirmation exercise was able to identify and affirm are discussed below.

The process of affirmation assumed that the *abakwezeli* and peers would have assessed all the identified areas. Affirmers would then look through, interview and affirm. As things turned out, in three of the four districts assessment had not been done, so affirmers found themselves assessing as well. This was due to a communication problem with the ELMD, which was not clear to all concerned. It was also evident that the participants, the assessors and affirmers were all on a learning curve. Nevertheless, the exercise went ahead.

5.5.2 Core Competencies to be Assessed and Affirmed

According to the ELMD assessment policy and procedures, (see appendix 12) the programme intended to develop practitioners who are competent in the five areas summarized in Table 5.11 below.

Table 5.11: Core Competencies to be Assessed and Affirmed[18]

Area of Competency	What is to be Assessed
1. Leader	Evidence of development of leadership potential
2. Researcher	Evidence of research skills in portfolio (group and individual) Projects and dissertations for post graduate students
3. Change agent & advocate	Group presentations on vision crafting and forum formation Evidence of change agency and advocacy in portfolio
4. Reflective practitioner	Quality of reflection in journal and on-going work and interaction through the year

[18] Assessment Policy and Procedures Draft 1: 15 January 2005. (p. 5)

5. Team participant	Evidence of quality team participation in an on-going work and interaction throughout the year Evidence of team participation in portfolio

Two learning points need to be mentioned in connection with the description of competencies in Table 5.11. One is that reference to "evidence" of various aspects to be assessed remained unspecified. In other words, what were the actual pieces of actions or behaviours that the assessors and affirmers were to look for in order to, for example, enable them to describe a participant as exhibiting "development of leadership potential"? I would argue that there was need to spell these out ahead of time to prevent each assessor looking for different things. While specifying what to look for may promote a shared definition of learner or participant development in the various desired competencies, however, it carries the danger of reverting assessors to what Broadfoot and Black (*Ibid.* p. 21) refer to as "outmoded notions of curriculum content and student learning at the expense of twenty-first century learning skills and dispositions such as creativity and learning to learn".

The other point to be highlighted concerning the ELMD set of competencies is that in order to align them to the developmental thrust of the programme there is a need to specify the criteria for assessment within the framework of a *rubric* or scoring tool. The crucial point here is that a rubric should be developed not by assessors on their own but jointly with the participants. The co-construction of a rubric can also avoid reverting to outmoded assessment practices. I throw the idea of a rubric up for debate. For now, it is important to examine the tool that was actually used in the assessment and affirmation exercise.

5.5.3 ELMD Assessment and Affirmation Tool

As already indicated above, the ELMD did not develop a rubric. Although the idea had been debated during the course of the year, in the months leading to the affirmation exercise it was never developed. The programme designers came up with a tool (see Appendix 13) that has subjects or modules on the

vertical axis, and on the horizontal axis attempts to score each module on six aspects, that is, *assignment, workbook, individual participation, journal, group presentation* and *portfolio.* The tool neither specified descriptors for each criterion nor attempted to capture learner growth in the various themes (profiling, social mobilization, plan development and plan implementation) that the participants had gone through during the 15 months of ELMD work. These omissions gave rise to different interpretations of what to look for on part of assessors and affirmers, and different expectations of what was required, on the part of participants. Imperfect as it was, the tool was used for the exercise. It is now necessary to look at what it came up with, in terms of enabling assessors and affirmers to say what had been achieved by the participants.

Although the tool inadvertently did not specify the competencies spelt out in the Assessment Policy and Procedures Document, I tried to pick out evidence of what was happening to the participants with regard to acquisition of the competencies. The data are in the form of group reports and individual testimonies. The data that follow were compiled during the week of affirmation, mainly from the two districts Fort Beaufort and Libode-Mega in which I was part of the affirming team and from review meetings of two teams together. They are summarized in Data Set 4.

5.5.4 Data on Development of ELMD Leader

Through the Leadership module, participants reported that they had learned a number of things:

- Through this module I have learned to do away with the "I" syndrome.
- As a leader you are a change agent. Change has to start with each individual. Our values and attitudes have changed.
- Our change is a journey towards self-managing schools.
- I have learned that leaders are not born. Everyone can be a leader. We have got to share leadership. For example if learners come late to school, this problem must be addressed jointly by the principal

and the SGB. This will promote ownership and team spirit. **(Team presentations. Fort Beaufort Group. 11 October 2004 – Data Set 3)**

Two main perspectives are apparent. One concerns the awareness of inclusivity in leadership, the notion that it is not the individual "I" that matters but the collective. Problems must be addressed jointly in a spirit of sharing knowledge and wisdom. This understanding of leadership is consistent with Lambert's idea (see Chapter 2, p. 51) of broad-based participation in the work of leadership, a characteristic that falls within Lambert's quadrant 4 of leadership capacity. The other point to note is that leadership is about deriving change. Change, however, must start within the individual in terms of change in the values and attitudes that govern relationships as manifested in the culture of a given organization or community. It will be recalled that culture, which according to Sergiovanni (see Chapter 2, p 22) is the lifeworld of an organization, is at the centre of transformation. No change can take place if we ignore the lifeworld and concentrate on instrumentalities.

Some hundreds of kilometers away, the Libode-Maga ELMD group exhibited a similar outlook when they gave the following statements abut their engagement with the leadership module:

- We are guided by systems thinking in leadership, which sees every action as part of a system. We avoid blaming others for problems and attempt to look for a solution systematically.
- Systems thinking in leadership promotes ownership of problems and solutions.
- Teachers first consult us whenever they want to change, taking into account parents' needs. **(Team presentations. Libode-Mega. 14 October 2004 – Data Set 3)**

The Libode-Mega group presented the idea of shared leadership in terms of systems thinking, a perspective that fits in with the knowledge ecology approach to leadership. It stresses the creation of knowledge ecosystems, discussed in Chapter 3. The idea is also an endorsement of Peter Senge's (see Chapter 2, pages 40 - 44) systems thinking approach to building changing or learning organizations. From these indications, it can be concluded that these

may be early signs of the development sustainable leadership knowledge ecosystems within the districts and school communities.

5.5.5 Data on Development of ELMD Researcher

Research learning experiences were expressed in terms of engagement with two modules. One was the research module, which guided participants through a participatory research activity, community mapping as discussed above. The other was the module on Communities and Transformation, which required participants to undertake an ethnographic study in their communities. In community mapping, participants were expected to undertake fieldwork that would enable them to collect data they would use to construct a profile of communities they lived or worked in (also see King William's Town Report, Appendix 9). During the Affirmation, participants stated:

> Community profiling was most meaningful to me. Before I did profiling, I did not know the history of the school, now I do. I now understand the community better. Before we engaged the community, they were not interested in school. We were having a problem of late coming of learners. **(Affirmation exercise interviews. Participant 2. 11 October 2004 – Data Set 3)**

This appears to have been a popular activity among the participants. The idea was to build research theories from practical experience of "getting their hands dirty" first, without having done what Gough (undated: 9) calls headwork in research. Headwork would have had them introduced to research in the traditional way, with a grounding in epistemological and methodological issues concerning research design. They plunged into fieldwork guided by a developmental desire to know more about their community in terms of stakeholders that were around and could be of assistance to education. Below are some of the participants' statements:

- We carried out community mapping in which we approached a number of stakeholders, such as Health and Social Development.

- We got a number of stakeholders together and started crafting a vision.
- Our team member went and approached an NGO to assist our school.
- Through developmental research we (a) learned that research is a two way process, researcher and researched gain experience; (b) gained experience in terms of drafting research questions; (c) learned that we need to know the community in which the school is situated. **(Team presentations. Fort Beaufort District. 11 October 2004 – Data Set 3)**

As can be seen from the above statements, the concern of the research activities was developmental with little attention paid to methodological issues. Traditional academic convention would perhaps dismiss what ELMD participants did as rudimentary and questionable on ethical and other grounds (see Chapter 4, rules for good research, pages 120 - 123) but when we consider the relevance of the research for practical action, the value of what the participants did can perhaps be judged differently. The presentation by Libode-Mega group illustrates the point.

> As a result of the research module, the chairperson of the SGB initiated his own research into why the state of toilets in a local pub were dirty. As a result of this research interaction, the manager of the pub did some corrective action. **(Affirmation Team presentations. Libode-Mega District. 14 October 2004 – Data Set 3)**

Later, during individual interviews, I was able to talk to the SGB member concerned and this is what he said:

> I went to the local pub and asked for the manager. I was carrying the research *umthamo*. He agreed to see me and I went upstairs. I explained that I was doing research in the community. I asked him about why toilets were dirty. He blamed the workers. I explained that I was not going to report him to authorities. He agreed to have them cleaned. **(Affirmation Interviews, Participant 4, 14 October 2004 – Data Set 3).**

The significance of this action, as indicated above, lies in the fact that interaction with the module raised an awareness of a problem and an enquiring mind on the part of the SGB member. It can also be said that the

SGB felt empowered to do *research* – an activity traditionally associated with people in the academic world. The third point is that the action, whether it passes or fails the canons of good research, resulted in change on the part of both the interviewer and the interviewee.

Following ELMD philosophy, the SGB member can then be further developed by being taught research theory that builds on practical experience and relevance to real-life situations.

5.5.6 Data on Development of ELMD Change Agent and Advocate

The story of the SGB member above is, in a sense an act in change agentry[19] and advocacy. The concept and practice of change agent and advocate is complex. To be labeled as a change agent and to actually exercise agency may not be as mechanical as expected. The debates around this issue notwithstanding, it is important to examine some actions taken by participants with a view to assessing the extent to which they have been agents of change. I will be tackling the issue of change agentry in more detail in the next chapter. For now, I present reported experiences of the participants. One participant from a Bedford school reported that:

> What benefited me most from the ELMD is the module on Communities and Social Transformation. This module is key as it shows how I must first transform myself and then transform the community. Bedford is a poor area so we have initiated a Social Welfare Forum comprising a number of stakeholders such as police, nurses, etc. We have also approached the municipality for a plot to initiate a garden for the community. **(Affirmation interviews. Participant 2. 11 October 2004 – Data Set 3)**

As can be seen from the above quote, change agency here was not individual; it was a team effort in the sense that the "we" is used. The important thing is

[19] Term borrowed from Fullan, M. G. (1993) *Change Forces : Probing the Depths of Educational Reform.* London. Falmer Press. Fullan uses the term in way that combines the agent of change and exercise of agency.

that some actions to change prevailing disadvantaging situations were being initiated and the initiation is attributed to engagement with an ELMD module.

Another example is one of an individual SGB member who said:

> I went to one nearby school where there as a meeting about finance but there was no chairman, no secretary. One person was directing the meeting. I had to intervene. I was able to see things were wrong**. (SGB Chairperson, Nkqwiliso J.S.S. Affirmation Team Presentations. Libode-Mega District. 14 – Data Set 3)**

Once again, it would appear this action to change was prompted by the knowledge gained through a study of correct financial practices as presented in an ELMD module. An EDO, in another situation was also empowered, as he stated:

> Using a knowledge from the Policy Module I was able to solve a case of one school SGB. The case took three weeks to solve. Also helped with changes in the District Strategic Plan. **(Affirmation interviews. Participant 5. 11 October 2004 – Data Set 3)**

Yet another SGB took action to change an undesirable situation relating to lack of infrastructure in the community:

> The research module showed me how to live. When we carried out research in the village, it was because we had identified the problem of lack of access roads. This problem was so bad that even when people have passed away, in some villages, they are carried by wheelbarrow because no car can go there. Faced with this problem I carried out research about what to do and found that I had to apply to the local municipality through the local councillor. Currently a road is being constructed in the area. **(Affirmation interviews. Participant 5. 11 October 2004 – Data Set 3)**

From these examples, on the face of it, it would appear there was some exercise of agency prompted by the ELMD intervention. Or were these simply fortuitous situations? A deeper analysis of change and change agency in the next chapter should throw some light on this.

5.5.7 Data on Development of ELMD Reflective Practitioner

The idea of the reflective practitioner is another complex issue, as seen in the discussion of reflexive methodology in (Chapter 4, p 115). With regard to the ELMD approach to leadership development, it has been argued that it is based on experiential learning, which involves concrete experience, such as community mapping, observations and reflections, formation of abstract concepts and generalizations, testing implications of concepts in new situations, and back to new concrete experience (Kolby and Fry cited in Boud, Keogh and Walker 1985: 12).

Kemmis (1985:140) warns, however, that reflection is not purely an internal psychological process. It is an action-oriented, historical and political process. This means that as a person reflects, he or she is influenced by history and political factors such as ideology and language. I will return to this point in the next chapter under enabling and constraining factors in the exercise of agency.

For now, to return to affirmation data, the other problem with regard to recognizing and capturing reflection is that most participants were struggling to figure out what to write in their journals (see Mid-Affirmation Review Meeting. 13 October 2004). One journal entry however, shows some reflection on personal growth that the participant was going through:

> We see a difference among us, we are growing even in our minds. We see wrong things and whether there is leadership. What leadership is. I am learning since I entered the programme. **(See Affirmation interviews. Participant 4. 14 October 2004 – Data Set 3)**

The confession that "I am learning since I entered the programme" is telling. It is also consistent with individuals who are likely to build a learning organization in the sense argued by Senge in Chapter 2. Senge, however, goes on to add that for such learning to sustain a learning organization, it should be team learning (Chapter 2, p. 41). How then was the ELMD developing team participants?

5.5.8 Data on Development of ELMD Team Participant

In Chapter 3 (pages 84 - 85) I argued, following Wenger, that social participation in everyday practice is a process of learning that creates meaning, identity and community. One of the key competencies for ELMD is therefore team participation. Evidence for this was obtained mainly through observation. Whenever I had the opportunity to observe ELMD participants at work, it was evident that they had developed team spirit. In fact, they use team effort to cope with the demands of ELMD work. One SGB participant admitted that he was helped by one educator to translate into Xhosa what was in his workbook (Affirmation interviews. Participant 4, 14 October 2004). Generally speaking, as most modules have not yet been translated into Xhosa for the SGB members, it is reported that these members rely on other team members to translate for them. They also reported that they routinely work together as a school-based group or district-wide group, depending on the task in hand. As a school-based group one participant, referring to the finance module, said:

> I must admit that we have not yet had a chance to go through it as a group. What we normally do is to assign each other and take turns to lead the group in discussion of each module. **(Affirmation interviews. Participant 5. 14 October 2004)**

There are times when they come together as a district team to prepare for team presentations during block sessions. The Fort Beaufort group is said to have been meeting on their own initiatives and without *abakwezeli*, for a whole week to prepare for the affirmation exercise.

While it was difficult to pin down any individual contribution to team participation, the general impression is that participants in fact depended on teamwork to get on with ELMD work.

This finding is in agreement with what Tyala (2004) found in another study focusing on team members' perception of their roles in managing Grahamstown schools. In that study Tyala discovered that the concept of

team management was well received in the schools which participated in the research. However, he also noted that some significant obstacles to the acceptance of teamwork existed. These included issues of accountability and the fact that teamwork is time consuming. These tensions are not borne out in the ELMD data. Nevertheless, teams can be seen as useful in the sense that they enable collective action for change (see Chapter 6, page 193).

On the whole, therefore, while there were signs that teamwork was generally accepted by both ELMD participants and in those schools that Tyala studied, the challenge lies in what competences are needed to overcome obstacles. The question of constraints to action for transformation is explored in the next chapter. For now it is important to examine what evidence of transformations existed as a result of ELMD intervention.

5.6 Transformations through ELMD Interventions

The five core competencies outlined above were meant to equip the participants with the means to bring about transformations in their schools, communities and places of work. Apart from group presentations and individual interviews, the affirmation exercise also took affirmers to two selected schools per district. I was in a team that visited two schools in Fort Beaufort and two in Libode-Mega. The purpose of the school visits was to see evidence of what participants reported during day 1 of affirmation at a central venue (see programme of affirmation). In other words, the intention was to see how participants were putting their competencies to practical use to develop their schools and communities.

The school visits consisted first of presentations by each ELMD school-based team and second, an exhibit of what had been achieved and what they were working on. The team I was in was able to see and affirm that indeed much of what had been reported in Day 1, such as school development plans, school policies, etc., were indeed available and in place. In fact, many of these exhibits had been seen in participants' portfolios. What I would like to

capture below are narratives of transformations that have taken place in each of the four schools I visited since they joined ELMD.

1. *Transformations since Joining ELMD: School 1, Fort Beaufort District*

    - **Principal:** During that time things were vested in one leader, the principal. Now we have learned through ELMD that we share leadership.
    - **SGB Chair:** Prior to the ELMD we had school governance which was not empowered. Provisions of the SASA were not implemented. For example the requirement to have school policies was theoretical. We did not know how to draft them. At this school we have established 9 sub-committees of the school SGB, looking after different areas of school functioning. All these sub-committees are monitored and report to the SGB.
    - **Parent 1:** Before ELMD we did not know vision and mission. Now even SGBs from other schools come here for advice.
    - **Parent 2:** I am a co-opted member of the SGB and chairperson of the curriculum sub-committee. In this sub-committee all of us feel that we are part of the school. In our curriculum sub-committee the most important people are the students. **(Affirmation Exercise School Visit. Fort Beaufort, 12 October 2004 – Data Set 3).**

2. *Transformations since Joining ELMD: School 2, Fort Beaufort District*

    - **Principal:** When the new principal came in 1994 parents did not know that they had to participate in school activities.
    - **Parent 1**: The principal's approach was not informed. Now since the ELMD the SGB chair calls us and we discuss school problems and [he] explains that school is for parents as well. We have now identified a new school site which we worked on ourselves without asking for payment for it. Working relationships have changed.
    - **Parent 2:** In the past there was no proper report on school accounts. The manner in which they reported was fast and alienating. We could not understand. Now with the help of ELMD they sit down with us and we discuss.
    - **Educator:** After the ELMD we have established a number of committees and we have come up with a vision for the school.
    - **Local Government Representative:** There is a problem of communities not working together. We want one primary school. But we go to church together, attend funerals together. There is a feud between the two principals. We are one community and we want to be one.

- **Parent 3:** We have a finance committee. ELMD showed us that a parent must be a member of the finance committee. In the past finances were the prerogative of educators.
- **SGB Chair:** The ELMD module shows us how to constitute a finance committee and budgeting guidelines **(Affirmation Exercise School Visit. Fort Beaufort, 12 October 2004 – Data Set 3)**

3. *Transformations since Joining ELMD: School 1, Libode-Mega District*

- **SGB member:** Before ELMD, school monies were kept by an individual. We have now learned to keep money in the bank. We have a finance committee which authorizes the expenditure of money according to whether it is in the plan and is budgeted for. We also organize fund-raising events, such as a concert.
- **Learner member of SGB:** We attend SGB meetings and air our grievances. We communicate with other learners what transpired in the meeting.
- **Ordinary parent:** I have been a member of the SGB before and there were a lot of problems. This school did not appear to be a government school. It was built by the community. We started this long ago. School was only rondavels. Even the building we are in was built by the community. I am happy to say this in the presence of the District Director (who accompanied us during the school visit).
- **Local Headman:** The school had only one rondavel. The principal always calls me to the school. They say I must be part of the school activities. So I now cooperate with the school. They also explained the ELMD programme to me. That raised hope and expectations. It also raised questions about what is a school. ELMD taught me that it is a fountain of knowledge and civilization and Christianity. Your arrival here has confirmed this and my wishes. I also wish that the school could be Section 21.
- **Learner member 2 of SGB:** I want to confirm what the other parent said that our school finances are in good hands **(Affirmation Exercise School Visit. Libode-Mega, 15 October 2004 – Data Set 3)**

4. *Transformations since Joining the ELMD: School 2, Libode-Mega District*

- **Principal:** Before ELMD we did not have a school constitution. Now we have it. We did not have policies, now we do. We also have a school development plan. The community has a keen interest in education but because they are unemployed, they find it difficult to pay fees.
- **Parent:** As parents, we sit and decide on priorities and raise funds. We however experience difficulties. For example, we asked parents

to pay R50 but there are problems. Some pay R5, some 5 cents, etc. Although it is difficult, we are determined. There is a detailed fund-raising register.

- **SGB Committee member:** We do not want anything to do with money not recorded.
- **Learner member of the SGB:** We like the way things are run at this school.
- **Learner member 2 of the SGB:** We are informed how money is managed. **(Affirmation Exercise School Visit. Libode-Mega, 15 October 2004 – Data Set 3)**

From the above data depicting transformations in four schools, it can be seen that they corroborate what was reported during Day 1 of affirmations, and various reports that participants gave during block sessions. Although the ELMD baseline study did not focus on baseline conditions of all the aspects reported during the affirmation exercise, one can be confident that these transformations were indeed taking place for two reasons. One is that since the narratives at school level included ordinary parents who were non-ELMD participants, it can be concluded that what was said was genuine and not simply to please the affirmers. The second reason that gives confidence is that the same consistent message of transformation can be picked up from different schools and districts that are far apart. To sum up, the reports from the four schools in two districts show a number of areas of transformation:

- From hierarchical to shared or distributed leadership.
- School principals working better with SGBs. The SGBs themselves, understanding their roles better.
- Because SGBs are working closely with the schools, they appear to be promoting school community integration.
- Schools were becoming more democratic in the sense that they were working through committees.
- School finances were being managed better, with some transparency, through finance committees.

On the basis of the above points, it can be concluded that the ELMD's development/transformation thrust was showing signs of meeting expectations of the programme. The position is less clear with regard to the academic side of things, as pointed out earlier, with regard to difficulties in designing assessment policies and practices.

5.7 Academic Development of Participants

The affirmation and assessment/affirmation tool was meant to capture individual growth in a number of aspects. Two of these, "assignments" and "workbooks" specifically pertain to the academic side of things. Mid-affirmation and final affirmation review meetings noted the following:

1. ***Assignments:***

- This is a highly problematic area.
- Not all modules specifically specify assignments.
- The review of the current draft materials should ensure that assignments to be done are clearly specified.
- Future ELMD intakes must have this matter resolved.

2. ***Workbooks:***

- Candidates had done a fair amount of work on them. However not all activities were followed.
- Many participants felt that there was work overload.
- It may be that activities are not well coordinated.
- There are too many modules which are not well coordinated.
- There may be need to re-visit the roll out plan.
- There is also need to thread activities around a key activity of each module.
- Some *abakwezeli* may still be operating in the traditional mode and some writers may be lacking in this approach.
- There is need to extend the M.Ed in the workbooks.

- Workbooks should be the engine for practical activities. **(Mid-affirmation Review Meeting. 13 October 2004 – Data Set 3)**

From the above summary, it would appear there were major problems with the area of assignments. From participating in various programme meetings, I know that not all modules had specifically stipulated that there would be a written assignment. The rest of the modules had a number of activities that could be done in activity workbooks. It would appear that the strategy for assessing the academic side of things had not been carefully thought through well into the first year of the programme being rolled out. Some time in July 2004, the university demanded marks for ELMD students and the students had to be given written essay assignments to do in four modules. Furthermore, following the experiences of the affirmation exercise and the concerns expressed by the new Dean of the Faculty of Education, that the academic side of ELMD was weak, central programme staff decided that all the levels were going to write examinations and that all were going to write set essays of varying lengths, according to level [ACE., PGCE, B.Ed (Hons) and M.Ed].

From the workbooks, it would appear that the participants had too many modules "pumped" into their work schedule in a short space of time. For adult learners many of whom had not done systematic academic work for a long time this proved a bit too much to handle, especially for the SGB members as one admitted:

> "My main problem with ELMD modules is English. The research *Umthamo* was translated into Xhosa, I understood very well. I am struggling with the English versions. **(Affirmation interviews. Participant 4. 14 October 2004 – Data Set 3)**

It was felt that those with relatively little academic training should have some of the load spread over time. For those who had registered for postgraduate qualifications, especially the M.Eds., the feeling was that they needed to be given activities that are more academically demanding.

The problem of capturing and reporting on academic development of ELMD participants loomed as a concern during the final affirmation meeting as the summary the meeting below shows.

1. ***Affirmer 1: Observations/Concerns from Grahamstown:***

    - The journals, workbooks and portfolios were very poor. It would appear the participants did not get much support from the *abakwezeli*.
    - However, it was clear that the activities that involved social mobilization were well done. It was evident that these participants have built relationships with stakeholders.
    - My concern was on qualification/accreditation.
    - I am confident that these people have done a lot of work in the *imithamo.* However, in the finance *umthano* there was minimal evidence of what they had done.
    - They appear to be taking it a bit slow in the finance module. Admittedly they have had more time with other modules, since the finance was only given this July.
    - However, after visiting the school, it was evident that they had at least done some work.
    - In this programme there is more action.
    - As an academic I need to see certain things presented in an academic way.
    - There is need to see the minimum amount of work done in each *umthamo*.

2. ***Affirmer 2:***

    - The programme is academic. The problem is quality assurance standards which do not accommodate the ELMD approach.
    - The solution might be to document the ELMD action-research process and open it up for debate to academia (**Final affirmation Review Meeting. 16 October 2004 – Data Set 3)**.

My reading of the above concerns and observations is two-fold. The first concerns the way "academic" is defined and measured. In the conventional system, it is defined and measured according to statutory bodies and their Standard Generating Bodies of different disciplines and areas of specialization. From the conversation at the meeting of 16 October, it can be seen that there are two positions concerning the category "academic". One

appears to relate to the conventional understanding while the later appears to recognize that even outside of the conventionally defined standards, it is possible to recognize academic performance. My own conclusion, as I sat through the participants' oral presentations and interviewed some of them, was that, indeed, the content and manner in which they were coming across could be described as academic. What I mean is that a number of them, in their own mother tongue, Xhosa, were able to *describe*, *analyze* and *evaluate* the subject matter in modules. In academia these are some of the skills that any learning programme seeks to develop. What these participants lack is perhaps conventionally defined academic writing skills in English.

Herein lies my second reading concerning the worry around the academic thrust of the programme. In this regard, I agree with Affirmer 2's contention that part of the problem lies in the fact that the current quality assurance standards do not accommodate oral assessment of academic development in the way the ELMD exercise did. In South Africa, the conventional wisdom concerning what is academic and how it should be recognized and rewarded is encapsulated in the definitions of the SGB as well the Norms and Standards for Educators. I pick up this issue in the next chapter, as it relates to what constitutes competencies for leadership development. My conclusion for the moment is that the ELMD has to ensure that it measures up to what the statutory bodies define as academic. The ELMD can only change the definitions by participating in the debate with the wider academic community as well as the statutory bodies.

5.8 Conclusion

This chapter started by presenting and discussing data on leadership dispositions and capacities consistent with the perspective I adopted of collaborative distributed leadership. While the sample of ELMD participants who completed the questionnaires showed a high degree of disposition to this type of leadership, the same respondents did not show as much confidence in this type of leadership capacity in their organizations. This finding seems to

suggest that there was some space for the ELMD to develop that leadership capacity. In pursuance of the core research question of ***how such leadership is developed***, I explored the content and process of the programme. With these in mind I then moved on to examine what evidence there was, through various moments during the delivery of the programme (meetings, block sessions and affirmation exercise), to answer the question. In exploring the second core research question, ***how,*** through this mode of leadership development, ***were leaders developed to become catalysts for change***, I examined transformations that had taken place since ELMD intervention. With regard to the first question, the data show that there was a high degree of teamwork and networking with other stakeholders, a sign of collaboration and building of a knowledge ecosystem. As far as the second question is concerned, all people interviewed and schools visited indicated that some transformations had taken place since ELMD intervention. In order to crystallize my understanding of the results as presented in the data in this chapter, I will re-visit the findings in terms of the two strands of issues that faced the ELMD in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6:

Discussion of Findings

6.1 Introduction

In the last chapter, I presented data that give some ideas on how to do leadership preparation and development work as a parallel and mutually reinforcing endeavour. In this chapter, I highlight crosscutting issues associated with this initiative with a view to drawing key learning and debating points as well as questions for further research. The discussion is divided into two strands. The first strand deals with programme design issues and the second focuses on issues of what promotes and constrains change and the role that educational leadership can play.

6.2 Programme Design Issues

From the outset, ELMD set out to do something different that would contribute to knowledge on how to do development through educational leadership preparation. As the proposal states:

> … the ELMD will yield new developing-world theoretical perspectives that will add to the cumulative global wealth of knowledge around effective approaches to doing education development and mobilization at local levels. One of our key intentions is to share our evolving experience with sister SADC countries as we pilot the initiative (ELMD Version 6 Proposal: February 2002, p 1 in Appendix 1).

Two points can be highlighted from this motivation of the ELMD. One is that it seeks to shift the paradigm in leadership development from one that has traditionally relied on Western models, as discussed in Chapter 2, to one that interrogates those models and hopefully develops third world alternatives. The second is that the whole pilot programme is a learning exercise designed to generate new knowledge. This means that the ELMD was being rolled out as a kind of action-research experience where ideas were conceptualized, tried in practice and adjusted, changed or modified as the situation dictated. This

fact is borne out in the data presentation in Chapter 5, covering just over a year of implementation.

6.2.1 Pioneering an Alternative Way of Doing Development through Leadership Preparation

Concerning the attempt to develop a new paradigm, it can be said that the programme has been characterized by designers as well as commentators as innovative[20]. Apart from various testimonies attesting to this fact, the very composition of cohort 1 participants (this chapter, page 137), testifies to what commentators from universities as far afield as the United States of America, and including some African universities, have said: what the ELMD is doing is something unique. They have acknowledged that no university has tried to create a programme and course materials to accommodate different levels of learners, some of whom "do not have matric, while others in the same team have already completed graduate and even post-graduate university degrees" (Eastern Cape Department of Education, Undated:6). From this point of view, it could be said that the ELMD has something to contribute to the world concerning educational leadership development. Before claiming a paradigm shift, however, the ELMD still faced a number of challenges. These relate to the ELMD establishing convincingly what it was offering to its participants.

6.2.2 Knowledge for Development or for a University Qualification?

When people enroll on a university programme, the assumption and, indeed, the reality is that they want to obtain a paper qualification. Yet the ELMD project designers came up with the idea that what was really needed for educational and social development in the Eastern Cape and South Africa was not another set of qualifications in educational leadership *per se*. They argued that:

[20] ELMD Proposal Version 6, page1 and ELMD participant testimonies presented in Chapter 5 as well as anecdotal comments from partner institutions who have visited the programme as co-facilitators and module writers. The collaborators include California State University, in the USA, Africa University in Zimbabwe, University of Transkei and Rhodes University as well as the Eastern Cape Department of Education

> The ELMD, while primarily aimed at a practical development impact on schools and communities, will also lead to a range of accredited awards – from functional literacy & competency certificates for participants who enter the programme illiterate, to masters degrees for educators and officials who come in with first degrees (ELMD Version 6 Proposal: February 2002, p 1 Appendix 1).

Rolling out the ELMD programme based on this line of thinking has given prominence to the second issue. As seen from the above quote, it concerns the notion that the primary aim of enrolling on the ELMD is not the qualification that one gets out of it but, rather, the leadership skills and competencies as well as their practical application in bringing about change in schools and communities. Practical reality, as the programme was being implemented indicated that there were some constraints to this.

While the designers of the ELMD were concerned to push the development agenda, the same cannot be necessarily said with regard to cohort 1's motivation to enroll on the ELMD programme. When baseline interviewers asked in what areas prospective participants needed training, for the District officials and SMT members, the reasons were mainly professional. At least three SGB members mentioned "to develop the school" (Data Set 1a). By and large, however, anecdotal as well as explicitly stated evidence from ELMD participants shows that obtaining a qualification was, in fact, the key motivating factor for most, including SGB members who did not qualify for traditional university entrance. The following presentation from Fort Beaufort District SGB representative is telling:

> The ELMD unlocked the doors for us as far as school governance is concerned…there are problems we encounter like [that] some SGB members are not serious about the programme, they see it as a waste of time because we don't know what is in store for us unlike the educators who get remuneration and higher qualifications **(Fort Beaufort SGB presentation 12 – 16 July 2004: Block Session 4 in Appendix 14)**

One point is clear from the SGB presentation: that personal development in terms of acquiring a qualification is one of the key motivators. Perhaps two

implications can be deduced from this point. One is that universities are traditionally seen as qualification awarding institutions rather that development oriented. The other is that for such a perception to change there is need to transform both the individuals who hold them and the wider societal factors which perpetuate them. A case in point is the NQF purposes for various qualifications (see page 139). The section below on agency and structure deals with this issue in greater detail. For now, we need to consider the third issue.

6.2.3 What Competencies for Educational Leadership Development?

Related to the debate concerning what is the motivation for enrolling at a university is the underlying question of what competencies a university leadership development programme such as the EMLD should seek to develop. The ELMD has grappled with the issue of competencies for a considerable time. In the end, they came up with a set of five, as outlined in Chapter 5, (p.164). These emerged within the context of the bi-polar thrust of the programme, one development oriented, the other, academically orientated. As the programme unfolded, there was increasing tension between these two thrusts sitting side by side. One school of thought within those closely associated with the programme, argued that a university is an academic institution that must pursue academic excellence. Indeed, this thinking is buttressed by current thinking on the new policy on higher education qualification framework. In similar vein, Jansen (2004) has argued that "a university ceases to exist when the intellectual project no longer defines its identity" (Daily Dispatch, 24 November 2004). For such academics, development oriented education must be left to NGOs.

The other school of thought argues that a modern university cannot afford to be an ivory tower that pursues academic programmes that do not address the immediate development needs of a society in which it is located. The promoters of development cite the University of Fort Hare's own mission

statement which clearly situates the university in development mode which is "…to provide an attractive and enriching educational service to its graduates and scholars to become meaningful and critical participants in the social, [and] economic…development of society" (SP2000:2)[21]. Perhaps through these debates and attempts to meet both demands, the ELMD might come up with a "third way" which combines both.

The National Department of Education's report of the Technical Committee on Norms and Standards for Educators grapples with issues of competencies in great detail and recommends norms and standards for educators. The report defines educators broadly

> …to encompass all those practitioners who are part of the schooling system including: teachers in the classroom, heads of departments, deputy-principals, principals, education development officers, district and regional managers and system managers (Department of Education 1998, p 1).

This definition includes all ELMD participants, excluding SGBs. This therefore, means that in defining competencies for the ELMD, there is a need to interrogate those presented in the Norms and Standards for Educators and learn from and/or contribute to alternative understandings. The Norms and Standards comes up with the notion of applied competencies for educators which integrate *professional/reflective, occupational/practical* and *academic/foundational* competencies as shown in (Appendix 15)

One way of looking at the five ELMD competencies as given in the assessment criteria (see previous chapter) is that that they cover all the three sets of competencies shown in the Norms and Standards Characterization. When the ELMD proposal stated that the primary aim was developmental, it can be argued that they were focusing on the occupational/practical aspect which, as some would argue, is not for a university like Fort Hare. The other way to look at it is that the occupational/practical cannot be separated from

[21] See University of Fort Hare Strategic Plan 2000 abridged version.

the academic/foundational aspect as well as the professional/reflexive. The Norms and Standards does make the point that a competent educator is one who integrates all of these. This is a point for ELMD to debate.

6.2.4 How are Educational Leadership Competencies to be Assessed?

Closely related to the issue of what competencies to develop is another which relates to how chosen competencies are to be assessed. For traditional academic programmes, there are established ways such as examinations, tests and others. For a development oriented approach, as discussed in Chapter 5, it was felt that the assessment should move away from requiring candidates to demonstrate academic knowledge, but rather, to demonstrate their competencies in bringing about change for the better. It will be recalled how those who argued for abandoning traditional academic assessment procedures were even calling for a new term, called affirmation. Whatever ELMD does, however, has to meet the reality of quality assurance imperatives as defined by the HEQC and be in line with provisions of the South African Qualification Authority (SAQA).

The bigger issue concerning what to assess and how to assess it relates to the notions of quality and quality assurance. Although the notion of quality is highly contested, with no agreement on what it means, some writers have commented that "there is such a thing called quality but as soon as you try to define it, something goes haywire. You can't do it" (Schubert 1993:1). It seems quality is easy to recognize but difficult to describe. The *Framework for Institutional Audits* understands quality as "fitness for purpose, value for money, and individual and social transformation within an overarching fitness of purpose framework" (CHE 2004: 5). The implication here is that if the purpose of ELMD is developmental then the quality of the programme must be judged in terms of Fort Hare's mission and goals. In other words, to fit the bi-polar purposes of the ELMD as depicted in Figure 6.1, the quality of the

programme must be assured by assessing the core competencies as well as actions in developmental themes.

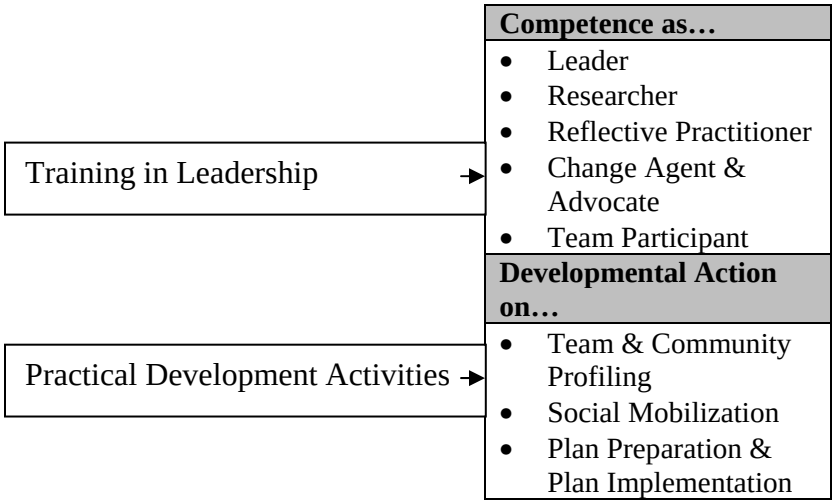


Figure 6.1: Bi-polar purposes of the ELMD Programme

The assessment and affirmation exercise was an attempt to quality assure the programme in the sense described above.

On the other hand, NQF new policy descriptions of the purposes of qualifications for which ELMD participants have enrolled (see page 139), do not appear to accommodate the developmental aspects. At the time of writing this study, the ELMD had provisional accreditation for the qualifications offered by the programme. The reality of the situation is that unless the HEQC academically oriented criteria change to fit the purpose of ELMD developmental criteria, or the ELMD abandons the developmental strand, then full accreditation of the qualifications may be in jeopardy. Since the debate between the academic and practical aspects of a programme or qualification cannot be exhausted here, it is recommended that ELMD experiences be systematically documented and opened up for academic debate.

I now turn to the second strand of issues raised by this study, that concerning change and change agentry.

6.3 Change and Change Agentry

To deliberate on leadership development and social change as I have been attempting to do in this study is to engage in the complex debate concerning the interplay between structure and agency. The ELMD leadership development strategy places a premium on collective learning and action. From the ELMD concept and its practical manifestation in the roll out plan, as well as testimonies from cohort 1, corroborated by what assessors and affirmers observed, the buzzwords are *team*, *community* and *stakeholder networks*. Furthermore, the evolution of leadership conceptions, (see Chapter 2 pp 32, 40 and 47) de-emphasize individual characteristics such as leadership style and charisma and stress networking, collaboration and sharing in the work of leadership. These perspectives make one wonder where the individual is in all these structural relationships. Indeed the affirmation review meeting did express this difficulty indirectly when one affirmer commented that *individual participation* "was a tricky phenomenon to identify" (Mid-affirmation Review Meeting. 13 October 2004). Related to this issue is the question regarding the extent to which the ELMD is developing each individual leader.

This section is an attempt to "fish" the individual out of this structural maze and examine how his/her training is influenced by structure and in turn how the individual changes the structure. I view *structure* as constituting wider societal relationships as well as what Sergiovanni called the systemsworld of organizations (Chapter 2, page 22). I will argue that it is in seeking the interplay between the structure and the individual agent that the prospects of change through an intervention such as that envisaged in the ELMD programme can be explored. First, however, it is important to revisit educational and social change with a view to developing a shared understanding.

6.3.1 Understanding Educational and Social Change

The ELMD is a programme that has as its stated purpose to develop leadership with a capacity to act as a catapult to transform schools, communities, districts, and eventually society at large. In Chapter 2, I argued that the intention of post-apartheid government policies is to transform education and society. In Chapters 1 and 2, I outlined the global context of doing social change through education. A key idea in that context is a growing worldwide realization that there is often an unexplained schism between what educational policies state or mandate and the realities of implementation. In South Africa, widespread research (CEPD 2000; CEPD 2001; CEPD 2002; CEPD 2003; Jansen and Jonathan 2001; Motala and Pampallis 2001; Fleisch 2002; among others) all shows that enactment of policies does not automatically translate into changes envisaged by the policy. The question has to do with how we explain the gap between what is mandated and what is practised. In education, the question is often framed in terms of linking theory with practice, that is to say, is has to do with examining the extent to which what is taught should be seen to have practical expression. The ELMD's assessment and affirmation of five competencies sought to identify evidence of how change in participants, as a result of ELMD participation, had led to changes in aspects of education delivery and community life. In order to recognize change and non-change, however, there is need to use a heuristic framework.

6.3.2 Educational Change as a Continuum

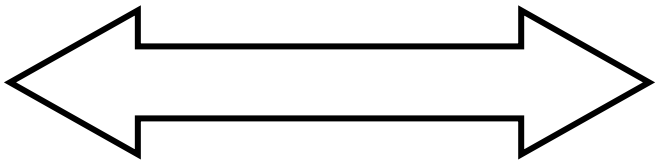
As seen in the data in the previous chapter, educational and social change is multi-faceted. Often interventions which seek to bring about change do not have a tool for assessing the many dimensions of change. It can be argued that change can be understood as a continuum as depicted in Figure 6.2.

In Figure 6.2, change can be seen along a five-stage continuum, from the legally sanctioned apartheid schooling system, which entrenched inequality, through symbolic, analytical, structural and transformative change. The figure

is presented for analytical purposes to make the point that the education policies and other interventions that have been developed will be implemented

and impact on the system along a continuum of change. At any one time implementation or an aspect of implementation may be symbolic, analytic, structural or transformative, depending on forces and power dynamics that are at play at the time. In real life it may be difficult to compartmentalize change in such a neat fashion. Implementation, in practice, may straddle more than one stage. The usefulness of Figure 6.2 as a tool for assessing change or non-change in the schooling system, however, lies in the fact that what might be recognized as change in one setting and perspective may merely be symbolic in the eyes of another. Yet, in actual fact, whenever an intervention has been undertaken, for example in the districts in which the ELMD is operating, it can be argued that change has in fact taken place. Although that change may not be at stage 5, change has nonetheless taken place. But perhaps, the basic

Figure 6.2: Continuum of Change in the Schooling System (Adapted from Karlsson 2001; Kass and Szabo 2004)

Exclusive, privilege for the few Apartheid Schooling System				**Inclusive, equity, access, quality** Post-apartheid Schooling System
Apartheid *Stage 1*	Symbolic Change *Stage 2*	Analytic Change *Stage 3*	Structural Change *Stage 4*	Transformative Change *Stage 5*
Legally sanctioned physical separation.	Policies in place to change inequality (Jansen 2001). Actors in the schooling system see themselves as committed to governance, school admission policies, etc., while cultures of privilege and paternalism remain intact (e.g. some ex-model C Schools)	Actors desire to eliminate inequality while mindset governed by dominant discourses which may be at the stage of symbolic change (see section below).	Actors develop new policies and models of practice for an inclusive equitable schooling system. Build a new culture of teaching and learning.	Actors in the schooling system reflect contributions and interests of diverse cultural and economic groups. Commitment to confronting and dismantling social inequality.

change that post-apartheid educational policies seek is transformative change. The section below explores how such change can be achieved through identifying and explaining factors at play in the process of change.

6.3.3 Change Agents and Exercise of Agency in Educational Leadership

The final ELMD proposal envisaged leadership as a "catapult" for change (Dladla and Moyo 2002: 4). This places leadership, within social action, as an agent for change. Indeed the five core competencies that the ELMD seeks to develop speak to producing change agents. That being the case, it is one thing to be called a change agent and quite another to actually exercise agency. I now examine what exercise of agency entails as well what promotes and what constrains it.

Sen (1999:19) defines an agent of change as "someone who acts and brings about change, and whose achievements can be judged in terms of [that person's] own values and objectives". Implicit in this definition is the idea of freedom to act in a manner one chooses. The concept of freedom is central to Sen's notion of exercise of agency. An individual, according to Sen, exercises agency when he or she takes part in various activities directly or indirectly to bring about desired changes in the economic, social and political spheres of life. Often, however, freedom to act is constrained by a variety of factors that Sen describes as *unfreedoms* (*Ibid.* p. 15), which comprise a number of social and economic vulnerabilities, such as famine, malnutrition, lack of basic health care and functional education. In post-1994 South Africa, education policies focusing on equity and redress, access and quality were designed to create an enabling framework for the exercise of agency in bringing about educational change within the schooling system. In the ELMD the strategy to bring in actors at different levels of the schooling system through team and community work were in one sense designed to eliminate structural unfreedoms created by hierarchical social relationships. The idea is that this helps create structural enablers.

6.4 Structural Enablers and Constraints in the Exercise of Leadership Agency

Exercise of agency in the schooling system, as implied above, is enabled and constrained by a number of factors. I will illustrate this by exploring the interplay between agency and structure. I deal with structural enablers and structural constraining factors separately. The separation, however, is for analytical purposes only. In real-life the interplay overlaps, that is, within the enabling factors there are always disabling factors competing for space as well. What influences actions and outcomes at any one moment in time depends on a number of other related factors, not least of which is power, as will be seen below.

6.4.1 Structural Enablers

The ELMD's knowledge ecology model (see page 71) approach to leadership development is a structural arrangement in which the ecosystem, as a structure, is seen to create enabling conditions for collective action. Within this, three kinds of structural enablers can be identified as embedded in the design of the programme. These are team, community and social class. Although social class is not directly addressed in the programme, it can be argued that South Africa is a class society as will be seen below.

a) ***Team***

One of the key pillars of the ELMD strategy is team building and teamwork, as seen in the previous chapters. Emphasis on teams is also one of the national government's strategies for transforming schools. In the area of school leadership and management, the idea of managing with teams has long been a feature of the post-apartheid educational policy. The Department of Education's five-year Implementation Plan for *Tirisano,* for example, expected that all schools should "have management teams that demonstrate a commitment to the development of a school".[22] The call was for shared

[22] See Implementation Plan for Tirisano January 2000 – December 2004 (p. 8). http://education.pwv.gov.za/content/tirisano/6.htm (accessed 21 August 2004)

leadership as well as collective management of the school through a structure called the School Management Team (SMT). The concept of an SMT is based first on the idea that the structural arrangement of collective management gives each participating member a chance to exercise agency and to develop expertise by working collaboratively. Second, collaborative management has the potential to move the school system away from inherited hierarchical management structures which, as McLennan argued (see Chapter 2 p.35), characterized paradigm 1 under the apartheid education system. Thirdly, teams are an important structure for learning and sharing knowledge (see Chapter 3 p 85). The data from the first year of ELMD implementation support this contention (see Chapter 5 p 172). For these reasons, I argue that teams and teamwork are a structural enabler for the exercise of agency.

b) ***Community***

The idea of "community" is another key structural enabler in the ELMD design. It was seen in Chapter 3 that community was another structure for social learning and knowledge sharing (see Chapter 3 p 87). This was seen in the data (Chapter 5), where communities which were previously not involved in school activities were increasingly being drawn towards school life (pages 174 - 176). The idea of schools becoming "centres of community life" (Tirisano Plan *Ibid.* p.7) is another way in which the National Department of Education sees this structure as an enabler.

Although there may be different interpretations of the term "community", I am using it here in three senses. One is that, in education, *community* has been used to describe a grouping comprising the principal, educators and learners as members of the school community. Second, the term has also been used to refer to people who live within the vicinity of the school, who send their children to the school. In the Eastern Cape, a great deal of effort has gone into encouraging school and community integration.[23] Third, I use it in

[23] See SCIPP Brochure *Growing Together: Our Schools, Our Community, Our Country.* DFID; ARCADIS, Eastern Cape Department of Education Imbewu Project.

the sense discussed in Chapter 3, drawing on Wenger's (1998) idea of community of practice.

For Wenger, communities of practice are places where people develop, negotiate and share knowledge. In other words, individuals exercise agency within an enabling structural context of a community of practice. When applied to education, it is conceivable that principals and educators as well as members of the SMT, can form communities of practice through clustering of schools or through some interest in a particular learning area. Wenger's idea of community of practice is further defined by reference to a group of people who share a common concern, set of problems or passion about a topic and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting on an ongoing basis. In the schooling system, for example, focus groups on language and literacy education could be formed, consisting of educators, district subject specialists and academics in tertiary institutions.

In all the ELMD deliberations during the first year of implementation and the reported experiences of the first cohort, the idea of community of practice had not yet surfaced. Perhaps this may one of those concepts whose practical expressions are yet to be seen in the Eastern Cape. If on the other hand, communities of practice develop out of the ELMD approach, then it will be interesting to see what forms they take and what they might add to Wenger's conceptualization. These questions notwithstanding, however it is viewed, community is a structural enabler for the exercise of agency.

c) *Social Class*

The third category, social class, is another structural enabler. Theorization around collective action in the form of social class has been well documented in the past (Althusser 1971; Gramsci 1971; Luxemburg 1986;[24] Poulantzas 1972). From these sources, it can be argued that one of the defining features of social class is the class actor's position in the means of production

[24] See Cliff, T. (1986) "Party and Class". In *Rosa Luxemburg*. London: Bookmarks. (pp. 41–54).

(including knowledge production) (Bernstein 1997) as well as interests in the control of those means. At the risk of over-simplifying the complexities of the concept of social class, my interest in class is restricted to identifying and understanding how different agents of change negotiate and position themselves in the exercise of agency through exercising power of one kind or another. Within the South African schooling system, individuals acting under the auspices of teachers unions have, for example, been able to exercise agency with considerable consequences for policy implementation and practice. To introduce an innovative programme such as the ELMD, teacher unions had to be consulted. In fact, I recall that early brainstorming meetings about the ELMD were attended by representatives of teacher unions. The point here is that these unions can exercise collective power to promote or oppose any initiative that affects their members. In other words, they are in a position to exercise collective agency. Another point to mention is that the collective transformative spirit that has been generated in ELMD schools may additionally and strategically enlist the weight of teacher unions or other class-based organizations to remove the unfreedoms towards achieving what they want.

6.4.2 Structural Constraints

While the existence of certain structures may create enabling conditions for exercise of agency, sight should not be lost of the fact that any structure or system exists in terms of power dynamics. The notion of power is central in critical social science theorizing, including an analysis of change in the schooling system. In my own perspective of things, which draws heavily on interpretive and critical science paradigms (see Chapter 4 p 110), I have identified power as one of the key variables to be addressed in any analysis of social action.

Relating this line of thinking to the experiences reported about the ELMD's one year of operation, it is important to seek an understanding of power dynamics, as it helps us recognize and unpack a number of assumptions that

may lie behind certain leadership behaviours. It also may assist in recognizing where in the continuum of change (see Figure 6.2) a particular action can be placed or understood. To view power as pervasive is also to say that all our social practice is entrapped in power dynamics. To appreciate how power works I draw on Foucault's conception. A common perception is that power always flows in a single direction, from top to bottom, and emanates from a specific source, such as the state, the ruling class and so on. For Foucault, power does not function like that. Instead, it circulates and is never monopolized at the centre (Hall 2001:77). According to this view, we are all caught up in its circulation. Power relationships take on a structural form that operates at every site of social life.

The implication for educational change here is that actors at all levels of the schooling system, national, provincial, district, school and community, are at one and the same time constrained by power that entraps them from all directions. At the same time, they have the potential to exercise what power is at their disposal. A related point is that power is not only negative and repressive; it can also be productive. While negative power can be seen as constraining, productive power is transformative, in the sense that it can be used to bring about desired change. Structural enablers such as SMTs, communities of practice and social class empower agents of change to exercise agency.

To gain a deeper understanding of how power works in the schooling system, it is necessary to distinguish among three types of power. I begin with the type that Foucault is referring to, *discursive power,* which is everywhere. I will then consider two other types, *criteria power* and *operational power,* which work at various levels of the system.

a) ***Discursive Power***

There are many definitions of discourse. I will choose one that is consistent with my perspective. Foucault saw discourse as a "system of representation"

(Hall 2001: 72), as a group of statements that provide a language for talking about or a way of representing the knowledge about a particular topic. T*ransformation, development, collaboration, teamwork, academic excellence, high quality research,* etc. are discourses that have characterized the language of ELMD, for example. These discourses denote social practices (see Wenger in Chapter 3 p 84) in the sense that they comprise structural as well as individual elements of social action. From a discourse analysis perspective, it is argued that every social practice has a *semiotic* element, that is, ways of analyzing language and meaning. Semiosis includes "all forms of meaning making – visual images, body language, as well as language" (Fairclough 2001:122). On the one hand the structural semiotic aspects of terms used in policies of educational transformation and the ELMD are prior to all actors in the schooling system, including ELMD participants. Jansen (2001:276) has shown, for example, that post-1994 education policies in South Africa have drawn very heavily on international consultants from countries like "Australia, the United Kingdom, the United States, New Zealand and others". In this sense, it can be argued that it is possible to trace where the discourses that characterize debate about educational change and transformation came from. On the other hand, dominant discourses provide the opportunity for change agents within the schooling system to engage with them as they negotiate their meanings. However, Wenger (1998) warns that negotiation of meaning within a social practice includes the process of *reification.*

For Wenger, reification is the process of "giving form to our experience by producing objects that congeal this experience into 'thingness'" (*Ibid.* p. 58). By doing this we create points around which the negotiation of meaning becomes organized. In other words, phrases such as "*a high level of theoretical engagement and intellectual independence*" (see Chapter 5 p 139), become points of focus around which debate about the academic standing of a programme is judged and understood. Reification can also apply to notions of change and transformation. Herein lies discursive power, that is, the ability to shift attention away from the way social life is experienced in various settings

towards dominant discourses. If agency is concerned with the subjective capability and capacity to exercise choice, as Sen argued, then discursive power can be seen to be constraining us, through discourses and the process of reification.

b) ***Criteria Power***

Another type of power is what Simkins (2003:217) calls criteria power. For Simkins, criteria power is "concerned with determining purposes and frameworks relating to 'what' and 'why' of service provision". This means that those educational stakeholders who have this kind of power define the aims and purposes of an educational service. It has to do with systems design, formulating policy, legislation and other instrumentalities. While Sergiovanni (see page 22) argued that instrumentalities on their own cannot bring about change, they have the power to set the agenda. Relating this to the EMLD, those who design the curriculum, for example, determine what is to be taught. ELMD participants joined the programme and found the curriculum, in terms of modules to be taught, already decided.

At another level, the HEQC, NQF as well as the Standards Generating Bodies of a field of study exercise criteria power when they decide what the purposes of a qualification shall be. In the first year of implementation, the ELMD, as discussed in Chapter 5, was already experiencing some constraints in pursuing the developmental thrust because they had to comply with the definitions of purposes of the qualifications to satisfy CHQC criteria. This, among other things, means that the participants' energies in exercising agency to transform their schools and communities have to be divided between those actions channeled towards social developmental actions and those that are aimed at actions to assist them obtain a university qualification.

c) ***Operational Power***

This type of power, according to Simkins (*Ibid.)*, has to do with the "how" of education service delivery. How something is actually done does not

necessarily coincide with what the designers of the system envisage. In Chapter 3 (p. 75), I drew on the work of a number of writers who argued that what actually gets done depends less on explicit than on implicit knowledge. If this point is true, it in a sense gives considerable power to the recipients of criteria power to exercise agency, while it puts constraints on the systems designers to achieve what they envisage.

A case in point is one school team report in Libode-Mega (see Data Set 3), that they had started consulting traditional leaders for guidance on certain community related issues. Perhaps they had realized that textbook knowledge of leadership could not suffice in dealing with everyday problems. This point should be read in conjunction with the ideas from Novins (see Chapter 3 p 80) who spoke of a four-polar model of applicability and transferability of knowledge, ranging from local to global and from programmable to unique. The argument here is that there are operational constraints to what any programme can teach, and thus the agency envisaged might not materialize.

6.5 Locating Leadership Agency within the Social Continua of the Change

As seen in the foregoing section, there is always a complex interplay between structural factors and individual actions. Indeed a number of writers (Giddens 1984; Noble 2000; Evans 2002, among others) have recognized the need to consider both structural influences and individuals as actors who exercise agency. For Giddens, the interdependence between action and structure is temporal and suggests that change is always implicit in social interaction because every process of action is a new production, although in the context of what has gone before (Ross 1991). Whereas this view may explain change that comes about incidentally and unintentionally, other theorists focus on an exercise of agency that brings about change that is both intentional and deliberate.

The actions of change agents in schooling and ELMD can be located and understood in terms of where they are at any particular time and with regard to a particular challenge within any of the three continua. Using this schema, it should be possible to examine and identify moments when various stakeholders exercise agency to achieve change or identify what the barriers are to the exercise of agency. In other words, exercise of agency should be explored in terms of how it "operates in the social landscape involving the dynamics of multiple interlocking sociobiographical journeys in a social terrain" (Evans 2002:262–264). Figure 6.3 shows how this can be viewed:

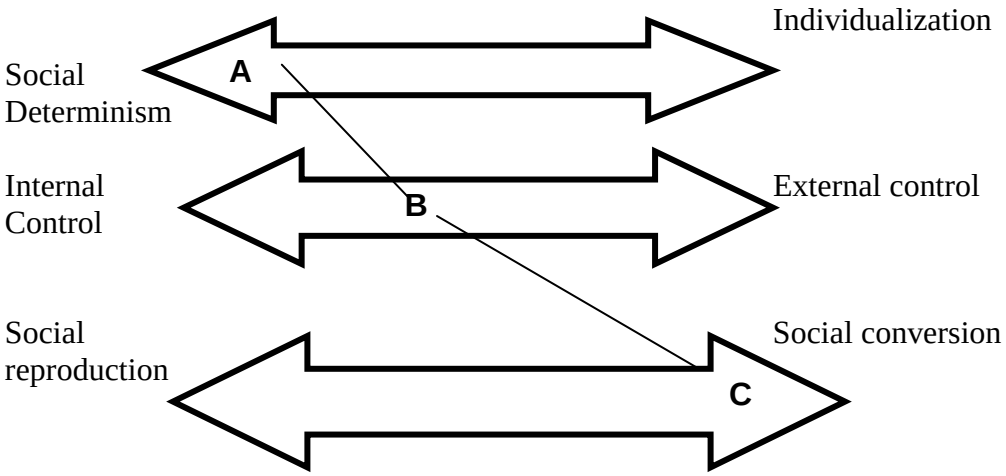


Figure 6.3: Locating Agency within a Social Continuum

The hypothetical situation shown in Figure 6.3 attempts to demonstrate different positions and moments of exercise of agency, where in position "A" the agent experiences an issue in terms of, for example, a given discourse about educational change, or by team, community or social class. However, due to internal motivation, feelings of control and belief that things could be different (position "B") moves on to position "C" where the agent actually converts the discourse into something meaningful to him or her in terms of prevailing contexts. Examples of such positions as taken by trainee leaders are presented in Chapter 5. It is also important to add that positions "A", "B" and "C" may depend on the social position of an agent of change within a society or schooling system and the ELMD. An SGB member may, for

example, be unable to exercise agency in the realm of criteria power of the district office.

6.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have attempted to crystallize my understanding of the ELMD in terms of two interrelated strands of issues. One relates to the programme epistemology and the other concerns change and change agency. With regard to the first set of issues, I argued that there are lessons to be learned from the ELMD experiment, which include how to build teams out of previously disparate actors whose power bases spanned various levels of the schooling system. With regard to the second strand, I identified structural enablers as well as structural constraints in the exercise of agency in educational leadership.

CHAPTER 7:

Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

7.1 Introduction

This chapter reflects on the whole study by drawing together key ideas, lessons and questions it has raised. It is divided into two main parts, the first dealing with what each chapter covered and the second outlining what I have concluded and recommended from this study.

7.2 Main Ideas from Each Chapter

The first chapter sets the context and focus of the study. It put forward two core research questions, both of which sought to answer ***how*** the ELMD set about doing what it purported to achieve. The study then grounded itself on a two-part literature review of the field of educational leadership and change.

The first part of literature review, Chapter 2, explored conceptions of leadership from its classical management ancestry to current debates about collaborative and distributed leadership. The evolving concepts on leadership corresponded with changing formulations about organization theory which can be traced from hierarchical to notions of post-bureaucratic flat education organizations. This trend has also been corroborated by researchers within the South African schooling system. It is an emphasis on which the post-apartheid South African government's transformation agenda is aimed. It is an agenda concerned with using educational leadership to create changing or learning education organizations. It was argued that the kind of educational leadership needed for that task is that which is collaborative and distributed. Such leadership works on the basis of collective effort, and hence the need to develop leadership capacity within an organization and community rather than individual leadership skills per ser. For sustainability such leadership capacity should be anchored on broad-based ***participation*** in the work of leadership

rather than ***followership*** of stakeholders. The chapter ends by raising implications for the development of such leadership.

Building on the question of how collaborative and distributed leadership is developed, part two of the literature review, in Chapter 3, concentrates on literature on the matter. It starts by exploring leadership preparation conventions in institutions of higher learning. From that, looks for a practical case study by focusing on one educational leadership development programme the ELMD, which set out to model an innovative stakeholder-inclusive leadership preparation programme. The literature shows that the ELMD approach was framed in terms of a knowledge ecosystem consisting of a number of stakeholders within the schooling system, from, district officials to school and community levels. The assumption behind the functioning of the ecosystem was that different kinds of knowledge can be produced and shared within and between various levels and parts of the ecosystem. The argument further goes that leadership knowledge is complex and cannot be simply packaged and dished out for regurgitation by recipients in a mechanical way. The applicability and transferability of leadership knowledge depends on a number of contexts and situations that can be depicted by a four-polar continuum, along, global to local and programmable to unique situations. Hence the need to go beyond explicitly written book knowledge towards encompassing culturally embedded tacit knowledge. Within this framework of leadership development, the chapter ends by outlining the ELMD programme philosophy and structure.

The next task was to carry out the actual empirical research on the ELMD. To do that, however, there was need to design the study. This was the focus of in Chapter 4, Methodology and Approach to Research. The chapter starts from the philosophical foundations of research, covering research paradigms and then going on to identify areas of overlap along ontological, epistemological and methodological dimensions of social research. From, that it draws together cross-cutting issues that constitute the multiparadigm approach on

which this study is designed. Based on the nature of the research questions that ask ***how*** and guided by canons of doing "good" research, I designed a case study, focusing on the ELMD case. The case study was structured to investigate two component aspects of the study: the conceptual and philosophical bases and the practical applications of these. The chapter then goes on to outline the actual methods of data collection and justifies their appropriateness for the data I was looking for, comprising *practice-based observation*, *interview* and *review of programme documents*. As the study has multiple sources of data, the chapter also addresses this issue. Finally, it ends with an ethical statement outlining my position as a researcher, given my involvement in the ELMD.

Chapter 5 is presentation of data. In qualitative research, presentation goes with some discussion as well. As there are multiple sources of data, the chapter starts by providing a map of finding answers to the research questions so that the reader is guided through. The chapter then goes on to present the characteristics of the first cohort of ELMD, comprising demographic aspects as well as perceptions. From there, it covers the content and process of ELMD. Once delivered, the content needs to be assessed, in line with the imperatives of SAQA and the HEQC. Data pertaining to the twin thrust of the programme, academic and developmental are presented. The chapter ends by raising issues around assessment and affirmation.

The next, Chapter 6, attempts to draw together issues from the whole study by framing them with two strands of analysis. The first set relating to programme design issues, covering ELMD's claim to model a new paradigm in leadership development, what participants' motivation in enrolling for ELMD was, what competencies are to be assessed for such a programme and how they should be assessed. The other strand of analysis concentrates on the notion of change and leadership change agentry. It locates change agency within the interplay between structural variables and individual capacity. From that perspective, it identifies structural enablers and structural

constraints to the exercise of individual and collective agency. The success of the ELMD in using educational leadership to do social and educational transformation, then hinges on these issues.

This final, Chapter 7 is a summary and conclusions. I now end it by outlining what I have concluded from this study.

7.3 Conclusions

From carrying out this study, I have drawn conclusions under three areas: Conceptions of Educational Leadership, Leadership Preparation Strategies, and Leadership Change Agentry.

7.3.1 Conceptions of Educational Leadership

Educational leadership is an evolving concept that continues to be debated locally and globally. In this study, I have noted the following:

- Leadership debates revolve around two main traditions, the bureaucratic-managerial and the emerging post-bureaucratic organizational perspectives.
- The literature shows a growing trend towards collaborative and distributed leadership.
- Inclusive leadership orientation is consistent with the post-apartheid social and educational transformation agenda.
- The ELMD programme conceives of educational leadership as greater than principalship, as it involves a number of education stakeholders. For this reason, the programme can perhaps consider itself as contributing towards re-inventing educational leadership.

7.3.2 Leadership Preparation

There is always a question as to whether training in leadership leads to changes in leadership behaviour. Not much is known about the link between leadership preparation and leadership action. The ELMD attempted to pioneer a training approach that links theory with practice aimed at bringing

about real-life changes in schools and communities. Around the theory/practice debate, I have concluded as follows:

- Leadership knowledge and skills are not always amenable to packaging for regurgitation in situations that demand leadership actions. This is because each situation may be unique, requiring the actor to use embedded tacit knowledge as the situation demands.
- Tacit knowledge can be tapped and used when leadership development is done within the framework of collective action such as team and community.
- Some knowledge generated from the ELMD key activities were being shared between the ELMD participants as well as stakeholders not in the programme.
- Training people in teams shows signs of breaking barriers of social distance between people occupying different levels of the schooling system.
- A programme such as the ELMD, which builds learning experiences around real-life challenges, motivates participants to see themselves as change agents who begin to take actions to bring about perceived change.
- The ELMD is an example of an educational leadership development programme that is driven by values of development, empowerment and social justice.
- The ELMD approach faced tensions between conventional and innovative ways of leadership development. These were most marked in the areas of assessment and accreditation of qualifications.
- The same tension, however, is reflected at national level in the draft qualifications for Educational management and leadership.

7.3.3 Leadership Change Agentry

Leadership is often associated with change agentry yet it is often not demonstrated whether those who are seen as change agents actually exercise agency. This is borne out by the fact that a number of interventions for

educational change in the Eastern Cape are uncoordinated and operating in compartmentalized bits. It can be argued that this shows lack of leadership or exercise of leadership agency. An examination of literature on this issue, and measured against the experiences of the first year of ELMD implementation has led me to conclude that:

- The exercise of agency has to do with the capacity to resolve the interplay between the human agency and structural variables.
- There is collective and individual exercise of agency. The former can be seen through the work of teams, and, the latter through individual initiative, as shown by the ELMD experience.
- In any exercise of agency, there are structural constraints and structural enablers that the change agent has to understand and navigate their way around.

7.4 Limitations Revisited

It will be recalled that in Chapter 4 I raised a number of potential to validity during the process of data production. At the conclusion of the study I need to return briefly to these issues, since they are part of a bigger challenge of representation in qualitative research. The central issue derives from my dual role as participant researcher and leadership educator in the programme, and the question to be addressed is how I guarded against distortions in the responses. It is possible to argue that in any qualitative research there will "…always be a precarious relationship between an experience and its description…" (Churchill 2000: 44). This suggests, for example, that respondents may find it difficult, or perhaps impossible, accurately to describe what it is they have experienced. However, it must be remembered that 'the experience' exists nowhere else but in the respondents' subjective consciousness, which can be accessed through narrative. The phenomenological argument that lived-experience data is always "true" since

it is pre-reflective is a strong safeguard against what Churchill (*Ibid.*) describes as potential "self-deception".

The practice-based approach I followed in this study also ensured that I was able to *see* changes in patterns of interaction among participants during the period of investigation, thus providing credibility to the verbal responses on which the conclusions of this study are based.

Against this background, I am now in a position to make the following recommendations.

7.5 Recommendations

The recommendations arising out of this study are in two sets. The one is about future research and the other is about programme development.

7.5.1 For Future Research

There are three areas of future research that emerge from this study.

The first is that there is some evidence in this study that a programme like the ELMD has the possibilities of drawing community based stakeholders closer to schools and for community learning to take place. However what remains unknown is what the school and the community learn from that interaction as well as how that learning takes place. A study exploring these issues could add to our understanding of transformation through education.

The second relates to the issue of what is meant by 'academic' – the move of the SGB to create 'professional' qualifications which seeks to move away from the 'academic' is an indication of lack of faith, or doubt. Perhaps traditional academic qualifications are seen to fail in respect of bringing about changed practice, a gap which the EMLD has recognized and is attempting to address. Nevertheless, the problem of how to satisfy conventional academic requirements cannot be wished away or ignored. It needs at least to be

signaled as an area that needs on-going debate and research. Verbal Xhosa[25] presentations of ELMD participants during the affirmation exercise, which comprised semi-literate old leaders of the community taking the lead, were richly descriptive, analytical and evaluative. The problem is that when these qualities are demonstrated orally they are difficult to assess by traditional written examination oriented means. The tension between community transformation and leadership growth and academic standards and requirements is at the heart of this study, but needs to be more vigorously interrogated.

The third area focuses on the untapped tacit and embedded knowledge in schools and communities. Although the study did not set out to study indigenous knowledge systems, from the findings there seems to rich reservoirs of indigenous knowing that are difficult to assess using CHE criteria. This is another fruitful area for future research.

7.5.2 For Programme Development

Three ideas can be considered for the future development of the ELMD or other programmes of a similar nature.

ELMD has been rolled out as a pilot study. This means that it should provide learning points for consideration by ELMD practitioners themselves as well as other people who may be interested in creating change oriented leadership development programmes. In order to enhance learning, therefore, I recommend that:

- ELMD Programme Coordinator and staff must document the experiences that show successes and challenges of the pilot programme and how they have been resolved.

[25] Xhosa is a local vernacular language that the participants speak.

- The participants, in order to raise their academic profile, should assist in the documentation of the ELMD by undertaking case studies of their own schools and communities.
- Debates concerning the assessment and affirmation need to be written and published so that the academic community can participate in “redefining” it for the twenty-first century (Broadfoot and Black *Ibid*.).

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1

Educational Leadership, Management & Development Programme: An Accredited Southern African Whole School, Whole District Development Initiative. Version 6, February 2002. By N. Dladla and G. Moyo.

Appendix 2

Educational Leadership Management & Development Introductory *Umthamo*: Priming Ourselves for Development
Activity Book 2: Social Mobilisation
Activity Book 3: District & School Development Planning

Appendix 3

Assessment of Leadership Knowledge and Dispositions Rating Questionnaire

Appendix 4

Assessment of Leadership Capacity Rating Questionnaire

Appendix 5

Reliability Coefficients for Leadership Knowledge and Dispositions Questionnaires and Leadership Capacity Questionnaire

Appendix 6

Data Sets of Empirical Research Data

Appendix 7

Total Possible Scores:

Assessment of Leadership Knowledge and Dispositions Rating Questionnaire
Assessment of Leadership Capacity Rating Questionnaire

Appendix 8

ELMD Introductory Week : July 14 – 18, 2003

Appendix 9

Affirmation Presentation by King William's Town Team
King William's Town Report on Face-to-Face Sessions: 25.9.03

Appendix 10

Libode-Mega Team Report to Block Session 4: July 2004-12-13

Appendix 11

Grahamstown Team Report on Face-to-face Session: 28 February 2004-12-13

Appendix 12

Assessment Policy and Procedures: Draft 1

Appendix 13

ELMD Assessment Collection Instrument

Appendix 14

Fort Beaufort SGB Presentation, Block Session 4: 12 – 16 July 2004

Appendix 15

Professional, Occupational and Academic Competences: Norms and Standards, p.53