The state's capacitation of school principals: A positivist reflection on the effectiveness of development programmes in Soshanguve secondary schools, Gauteng Province

by

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DECLARATION

Student number: **30421144**

I declare that **The state's capacitation of school principals: A positivist reflection on the effectiveness of the development programmes in Soshanguve secondary schools, Gauteng Province** is my work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete reference.

March 2016

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SIGNATURE   DATE

DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my loving and caring wife Emelda, for her undivided support and encouragement throughout my studies.

To my latmother Virginia, you have been and still are the foundation on which this study was laid; you have been the best.

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ABSTRACT

In the 21st century, there is a growing realisation that providing principals with the necessary opportunities of training in leadership and management skills has become increasingly important as a way to increase school effectiveness and achieve quality performance. Central to this argument is the fact that principals are merely accorded a status and role without the necessary training. The purpose of this study was therefore to explore the effectiveness of state-funded professional development programmes of school principals with specific reference to Soshanguve secondary schools and also to ascertain the extent to which principals' training meets the schools' and principals' needs given the changed conditions that exist in the country.

The study employed a quantitative research methods approach to collect data from 100 educators and 20 Head of Departments (HoDs). This was done through administration of questionnaires. Data was analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), which was used to generate the frequencies and descriptive statistics that were used to answer research questions. While it is expected that principals should effectively and rigorously be developed to enable them to improve teaching and learning at their schools, the study, however, found that training of school principals in Soshanguve was elusive and ineffective, and as result, the majority of these principals lack basic management training prior to and after their entry into principalship. The study has shown that apart from being faced with various challenges and being promoted to principalship without the necessary leadership experience, principals rely on trial-and-error experience and common sense in leading and managing schools. The study also showed that a majority of principals are in great need of being professionally developed in some specific areas. Furthermore, the study discovered that the Department of Basic Education does not seem to be making efforts in ensuring that principals are professionally developed. Consequently, principals develop on their own through informal professional development strategies.

In conclusion, the study recommended, amongst others, that principals should be encouraged to take personal responsibility and initiative in preparing and developing school leadership through self-study, reading literature, attending seminars and workshops out of their own personal volition. That Department of Basic Education (DoBE) needs to look into ways of subsidising the training of school principals. DoBE should also find ways of formally incorporating more of the private sector and non-governmental organisations to help in the preparation and development of

principals for school leadership by allowing them to offer in-service courses for potential principals and serving principals.

Key terms:

School principals; Capacitation; Development programmes; Effectiveness; Positivist reflection; Secondary schools; Gauteng Province; Professional development; Leadership; Management

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

LISTS OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ACE	Advance Certificate in Education
ACE-SML	Advance Certificate in Education-School Management and Leadership
AI	Appreciative Inquiry
ANC	African National Congress
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
AP	Aspiring Principal
CAPS	Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement
CCSSO	Council of Chief State School Officers
COLT	Culture of Learning and Teaching
DOBE	Department of Basic Education
DOE	Department of Education
EAZ	Education Action Zone
ED	Education Department
EEA	Educators Employment Act
EHP	Early Headship Programme
ELL	English Language Learner
ELRC	Education and Labour Relations Council
EMD	Education Management Development
EMDPs	Education Management Development Programmes
EMDTP	Education Management Development Training Programmes
EMIS	Education Management Information System
EML	Education Management and Leadership
EMIT	Education Management Training Institute
ERS	Education Renewal Strategy
FP	Foundation Phase
GDE	Gauteng Department of Education
HDSS	Historically Disadvantaged Secondary Schools
HEADLA-MP	Headteacher Leadership and Management Programme
HEF	Higher Education Forum
HEIs	Higher Education Institutions

HEQC	Higher Education Quality Council
HftF	Heads for the Future
HoD	Head of Department
ICT	Information and Communcations Technology
IMF	International Monetary Fund
INSET	In-Service Training
ISLLC	Interstate School Leaders Licensure
ISSP	International Study of the Preparation
IT	Information Technology
IQMS	Integrated Quality Management System
JET	Joint Education Trust
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer Olkin
KSSHA	Kenya Secondary Schools Heads Association
LGBS	Learning Institution Governing Bodies
LPSH	Learnership Programme for Serving Heads
MEC	Member of the Executive Council
MGSLG	Matthew Goniwe School of Leadership and Governance
NAP	Newly Appointed Principal
NASSP	National Association of Secondary School Principals
NCEE	National Centre for Education and Econony
NCREL	North Central Regional Education Laboratory
NCS	National Curriculum Statement
NCSL	National College of School Leadership
NDPB	Non-Departmental Public Body
NEEDU	National Education Evaluation and Development Unit
NEPI	National Education Policy Investigation
NGO	Non-Deparmental organisation
NIEPA	National Institute for Educational Planning and Administration
NMLC	National Management and Leadership Committee
NPQH	National Professional Qualification for Headship
NQF	National Qualification Framework
NSC	National Curriculum Ststement
PAM	Personnel Administration Measures

PD	Profession Development
PEP	Principal Excellece Programme
PFLMD	Policy Framework For Education and Management Development
PLC	Porfessional Learning Community
PQP	Principals` Qualification Programme
OFSTED	Office of Standards in Education
QLP	Quality Learning Project
QLYP	Quality Learnig and Teachers Union
SADTU	South African Democratic Teachers Union
SAIDE	South African Institute for Distance Education
SASA	South African School Act
SANPQP	South African National Professional Qualification for Principalship
SAQA	South African Qualification Authority
SASP	South African Standards for Principalship
SBM	School-Based Management
SELI	Stanford Educational Leadership Institute
SESA	School Effectiveness in South African
SMT	School Management Team
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SQH	Scottish Qualification for Headship
SWOT	Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats
TLI	Teacher Laptop Initiative
TQM	Total Quality Management
TTA	Teacher Training Agency
UCEA	Univercity Council for Educational Administrators
UJ	University of Johannesburg

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

CHAPTER 1: ORIENTATION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Effective school leadership is increasingly viewed as central to large-scale educational reform and to improved educational outcomes. As educational reform throughout any country continues, school leaders must play a major role if such reform is to be successful. That places principals at the centre of school improvement efforts at each school, where the principal is central to a school's success and learners' learning (Deal and Peterson, 1999).

According to Tirozzi (2000), reforming educational practice and realising learner achievement gains will require enlightened leadership. However, Elmore (2000) argues that many school leaders do not possess necessary knowledge and skills to manage standard-based school reform. Housman, Crow and Sperry (2000) concurred and stated that for education reforms efforts to be successfully implemented, educational leadership must be strengthened and professional development for principals must be restructured. With the widespread acceptance of the need for schools to improve, it is impossible to ignore the critical needs of school principals to be more effective at their work. They require professional development (PD) aimed at helping them to be more effective, knowledgeable and adequately qualified to facilitate continuous improvement in their respective schools.

In view of the above, Bush and Odura (2006:362) proffer that formal leadership training rarely takes place; principals are appointedon the basis of their teaching record rather than their leadership potential. However, Kitavi and Van der Westhuizen (1997:252) note that in respect of Kenya, "… good teaching abilities are not necessarily indication that the person appointed will be a capable educational manager". Van der Westhuizen, Mosoge and Van Vuuren (2004:1) reach a similar conclusion, following their research in Mpumalanga province. They refer to "wide ranging changes in the education system which have rendered many serving school principals ineffective in their management training prior to and after entry into headship"(Van der Westhuizen *et al.*, 2004:1).

Because of the general lack of well-coordinated education management development programmes for school principals in South Africa, it may be argued that there are few available avenues for principals' professional development that are effective. In other words, there is a need to ensure that those currently available do adequately equip principals with the necessary skills, knowledge and attitudes for effective leadership and management of

schools. Consequently, these programmes should have a positive effect on principals' practices so as to improve South African schools. Therefore, this study is intended to explore the professional development programmes that are being used by Soshanguve secondary school principals with the aim of providing insight into how these programmes may successfully be implemented.

1.2   BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Worldwide, the recognition of the need for specific preparation for aspiring and practising school leaders in order to improve school effectiveness has been slow to emerge. In 1980, no country had a clear system of national requirements, agreed-upon frameworks of knowledge or standards of preparation for school leaders (Cardno and Fitzgerald, 2005). Training in many countries has not been a requirement for appointment to post of principal, and it has been assumed that good teachers can become effective leaders and managers without specific preparation (Bush & Jackson, 2002:18). Today, however, interest in leadership development and learning programmes has become an international phenomenon, and there is much debate surrounding such philosophies and programmes. Efforts to improve the recruitment, training, evaluation and ongoing development of principals are being considered a highly cost-effective approach to successful school improvement (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson & Wahlstrom, 2004:4).

In many countries, principals are now required to obtain relevant leadership professional qualifications prior to their appointment; training and development of school leaders have become of paramount importance. In the United States of America (USA), it is mandatory for principals to attain a professional educational master's degree, while in South Africa, a focus on the professional development of educational leaders and managers has been slow to emerge. It was only in 2003 that the National Department of Education released a draft policy framework, proposing the professionalisation of education managers and leaders by introducing a national principalship qualification for aspiring principals (Department of Education (DoE), 2004:3).

However, critics in the United States of America (USA), including principals themselves, have raised numerous concerns about the quality and effectiveness of leadership preparation that is typically provided by university-based programmes and elsewhere. Such critics assert that it is disconnected from real-world complexities; that the knowledge base is weak and outdated; that curricula often fail to provide grounding in effective teaching and learning; that

mentorship and internship often lack depth or opportunities to test leadership skills in real situations; and that admissions standard lack rigour, and as result, too many graduates will eventually be certified, but not truly qualified to effectively lead school-wide change (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe& Meyerson, 2005:4).

1.2.1   The South African context: the apartheid legacy

From 1910 to 1990, educational inequality was conceptualised along racial lines and was pervasive in South African schools. Severe underfunding, high pupil-teacher ratios, a lack of basic learning resources, underqualified teachers and inadequate infrastructure epitomised South African black rural and township schools. Bureaucratic leadership styles and departmental control governed and determined all decision-making processes. In many of these dysfunctional schools, principals lacked legitimacy, as well as authority, and were unable to influence the daily operations of the school. They were unable to build a vision to harness the leadership that existed among learners and staff towards the goals of the school, with the effect that learners and staff often worked against principals' authority, leading to the collapse of teaching and learning (Fleish & Christie, 2004:102).

1.2.2   The role of principals under apartheid

The role of principals in the traditional model dominant in South Africa prior to 1994 was that of a manager or administrator (Steyn, 2003:3). They carried out more managerial and administrative tasks and fewer teaching duties. These schools were characterised by authoritarian, hierarchical, top-down management styles (Chisholm and Vally, 1996, cited in Steyn, 2003:3). Principals were implementers of official decisions rather than managers with the freedom to manage as they saw fit.

The organisational structure in many previously disadvantaged schools remained bureaucratic with rigid school procedures, policies, processes, regulations and rules. The principals lacked visibility and their criticism was negatively received, thus affecting educators' performance and resulting in a negative impact on the culture of teaching and learning. Relationships between principals, educators, learners and parents were characterised by a lack of respect, mistrust, conflict, dissatisfaction, isolation, poor communication and little or no cooperation and support (Chisholm and Vally, 1996, cited in Steyn, 2003:2). The training and development available to principals during the apartheid era was inadequate, and

headteachers were often appointed to the role without any preparation, having to rely on experience, common sense and character (Tsukudu and Taylor, cited in Bush *et al*., 2006:16).

1.2.3   The role of principals, post 1994

Post 1994, principals have been faced with a wide range of demands and challenges, particularly in establishing a culture of teaching and learning in their schools. Other demands and challenges include improving and maintaining high standards of education, working more closely with parents, coping with multicultural school populations, managing change and conflict, coping with limited resources, and ensuring more accountability to the community they serve (Mestry and Grobler, 2004:3).

The decentralisation of power to learning institution governing bodies (LIGBs), also commonly known as school governing bodies, had major implications for the role of principals, whose responsibility and function changed radically and who were now expected to lead rather than instruct. Principals were also expected to introduce more participatory management structures, to share responsibilities with the School Management Team (SMT), empower others to make decisions about the operation of the school rather than controlling them, and create a culture of learning rather than controlling behaviour (Steyn, 2003:3-4).

Furthermore, principals are now required to deal with issues outside their control, for example, unions and the Department of Education, negotiating provisions pertaining to class size, employee discipline, grievances, leave for educators, teaching loads, and implementing curriculum assessment policy statement (CAPS). They need to be adaptable and responsive to local circumstances requiring new skills and working styles. In addition to the above, they must be capable of providing leadership for teams and be able to interact with communities and stakeholders, both inside and outside the system, as well as manage and use information to promote efficiency and support democratic governance. The task is demanding, requiring energy, drive and many personal competencies such as commitment, dedication, resilience and skills (Mestry and Grobler, 2004:3).

1.2.4 HISTORICAL DYNAMICS TO PROFESSIONALISING PRINCIPALSHIP IN SOUTH AFRICA

1.2.4.1 From unbanning to election (1990-1994)

From various documents during 1990 to 1994, namely, ANC Discussion Paper (African National Congress (ANC), 1991), ANC Policy Guidelines for Democratic South Africa (ANC, 1992), Educational Renewal Strategy (ERS) (1992), and National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI), it appears that professionalisation of school principals did not yet appear officially on the national education agenda.

1.2.4.2 From election to White Paper 2 (1994-1996)

In the first White Paper on Education (1994), education management was likewise not referred to, although generic guidelines were indeed offered for school management. In the HunterReport (1995), it was proposed, amongst other things, that a capacity building programme should be developed for school governance. Proposals were also made for the creation of an Education Management Information System (EMIS) and the founding of an Education Management Training Institute (EMTI). For the first time, official proposals were also formulated for the development of education management, per se.

White Paper 2 (1995/1996), which followed the Hunter Report, introduced the establishment of democratic school governing bodies. The appointment of a task team for education management was also proposed. Part of the terms of reference of the task group was to conduct a needs assessment and to identify best practices with respect to education management. During this period, education management was officially placed on the national education agenda, and a process was initiated that would irreversibly change the professional landscape of education management (that is, principalship) in this country.

1.2.4.3 Report of the task team on Education Management Development (1996)

This report was not only a turning point but also a starting point for the training and development of education leaders in South Africa. The highlights of the report were the specification of the needs and priorities of Education Management Development (EMD). The report established the primary focus of education management as being the promotion of effective teaching and learning. Reference was also made to the self-managing school, and

emphasis was placed on schools as learning organisations. At the heart of the report was, however, a proposal for the establishment of a national institutefor education management.

Past and current management and leadership training in South African education system was, however, not regarded by the Draft Policy Framework for Management and Leadership Development (2004) to be cost-effective or efficient, neither with regard to capacity building, skills and competency development nor concerning enabling policies that could impact significantly on the majority of schools. This situation was attributed to the absence of a national framework to guide education management and leadership development in the South African education system. A policy framework was therefore designed to address these particular concerns by the introduction of a national professional certification for principals.

1.2.4.4 Education White Paper 3 of 1997: a programme for the transformation of higher education

This policy document introduced a single qualification framework for higher education in South Africa. The purpose was to provide a framework for the provision of higher education qualifications within a single, coordinated higher education sector to facilitate the articulation and comparability of qualifications across the South African education system. The Standards Generating Body registered a qualification called the 'Advanced Certificate in Education (School Management and Leadership)' for the professionalisation of school principalship with the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA). This qualification was subsequently developed as a National Professional Qualification for Principalship within the National Qualification Framework.

1.4.4.5 A draft policy framework: Education Management and Leadership Development

This policy framework provided the context for a multifaceted strategy for education management and leadership development. From that point of departure, the policy framework aimed to provide a conceptual "map" that was rooted in the contextual needs and realities of South African schools for building capacity in management and leadership and, by so doing, to build excellence throughout the South African education system.The policy framework intended to define the roles and responsibilities of the National Department of Education, Provincial Department of Education, and school management teams. The premise was that without this policy framework, school management, per se,will remain uncoordinated and directionless, with limited leverage available to hold school managers accountable.

The vision for the professionalisation of principalship in South Africa emerged from a reliance on the potential effectiveness of decentralised, site-based management for the achievement of transformation in the education system. The national education management and leadership development programme was intended to be a truly national initiative because it was designed, shaped, and owned by all roleplayers and stakeholders. This emergence of a national strategy for education management and leadership development necessitated a mindful approach to the theory of school leadership in South Africa.

1.2.4.6 The development of the South African National Qualification for Principalship

The Department of Education (DoE) took the initiative, and with representatives from higher education institutions, formed a National Management and Leadership Committee (NMLC) with agreed-upon terms of reference and an operational plan with time frames. The higher education institutions (HEIs) provided consultative constituency through their nominated members on the NMLC and accordingly mandated the process through representation.

Through this principalship qualification, the DoE was seeking to raise the professional standards and competencies of school principals for the benefit of the quality of the entire education system. The intention was also to implement a mandatory professional certification for principals without which no educator will be eligible for appointment to the post of first-time principal. Located within the National Qualification Framework, this qualification was to be developedaccording to the South African school context and in coherence with the proposals for continuous professional development and career paths for educators.

The Department of Education had identified a number of key principles that should inform a national professional qualification for existing and aspiring principals. Those key principles made it clear that the South African National Professional Qualification for Principalship (DoE, 2004a:4):

- should be rooted in school improvement and that it should draw on the best leadership and management practice inside and outside education;
- should be based ona set of agreed-upon national standards for principals;
- should be sufficiently rigorous to ensure that only those ready for principalship are awarded the qualification;
- should provide a focus for the continued professional development of aspiring principals to assist them in preparing for principalship; and

- should provide a baseline from which newly appointed principals can continue to develop their leadership and management competencies within the context of their own school environment.

1.3   PROBLEM STATEMENT

One of the challenges facing schools today is the ability of principals to lead and manage those schools in line with empowering provisions. As a teacher for more than 20 years in the vicinity of Soshanguve, the researcher came to the realisation that there is a problem regarding the professional development of school principals. Despite all efforts by the National Department of Education to develop principals through their being required to take the Advanced Certificate in Education: School Management and Leadership, the indications are that, some principals in the Soshanguve area are still unable to develop the necessary capacity to improve the quality of leadership, teaching and learning in their respective schools. Nonetheless, Mathibe (2007) contends that one reason that has always been advanced for any failure in schools is that, principals are not appropriately skilled and trained in school management and leadership. Today principals need to grow and learn throughout their careers to adapt to the changing needs of learners and schools. Twale and Kochar (2001) further state that there is a strong conviction that today's principals face different and more difficult challenges, requiring different skills and knowledge from those which were needed in the past. These challenges necessitate continuous and improved in-service professional development for principals (Ng, 2001; Kennedy, 2005; Stroud, 2005).

Against this background, a need exists to explore the impact and the effectiveness of development programmes on the capacitation of principals in Soshanguve secondary scchols.

1.4   RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In light of the preceding information, the study investigated the following research questions. In order to find answers for this study, the key research question was formulated as follows: ***How can the capacitation of principals through state-supported development programmes be used to improve the quality of leadership in South African public high schools?***

The study was also guided by the following sub-questions:

- What are the core professional development needs of high school principals?

- What challenges do newly appointed principals face in performing their duties efficiently and effectively?
- How does the Department of Basic Education through its continuous development programmes ensure that school principals are capacitated?
- What suggestions and recommendations can be made with regard to improving the professional development of secondary schools principals?

1.5   AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The aim and objectives of the study were set out in order to give direction to the study. This study aimed to:

- describe the capacitation of school principals through state-supported programmes in improving the quality of leadership in South African public high schools;
- describe the core professional development needs of school principals;
- identify the challenges faced by newly appointed principals in performing their duties efficiently and effectively;
- identify the role that the National Department of Basic Education play in ensuring that school principals are professionally capacitated; and
- suggest and recommend context-free strategies that can be used with regard to improving the professional development of secondary school principals with special reference to Soshanguve.

1.6   SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study was an attempt to investigate principals' experiences in partnership with the Department of Basic Education'sdevelopmental leadership programmes in which practising principals are engaged. It was expected that the findings drawn from this study would provide a particular assistance to the education sector by developing different context-free intervention strategies, so that quality teaching and learning may be implemented and the best results obtained.

It is also envisaged that the results of this study will makea purposeful contribution to the existing body of knowledge (literature) on the professional development of school principals. This study sheds light on how practising and aspiring principals may equip themselves through workshops and in-service training, with a view to dealing with problems that are

found in South African public schools. It was hoped that the study will also prompt other researchers to engage in research studies concerning theprofessional development of school principals.

Finally, the recommendations that emanate from this study may provide clear guidelines and practices that the Department of Basic Education may put in place to ensure that there is improvement of schools in terms of the delivery of quality education in South Africa.

1.7   THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

There is a considerable amount of literature (Barnett, 1989; Murphy and Hallinger, 1989; Danzig, 1997; Restine,1997; Evans and Mohr, 1999; Grogan and Andrews, 2002; Peterson, 2002) suggesting that the appropriate theoretical framework for professional development of principals is the constructivist learning theory. Constructivism informs professional development and learning of "all learners" (Hoover, 2005:1). Constructivists make a number of assumptions about learning and development (Bruner, 1996). The researcher outlines some of them and shows how they have implications for the professional development of practising principals.

The central postulation of constructivism is that human learning is constructed. This means that human beings, individually or socially, construct their knowledge and meanings. This idea counteracts the Platonic realistic view, which deems knowledge to be "out there" and independent of the knower. The crucial action of constructing meanings and knowledge takes place in the mind (Hein, 1996). This implies that principals reflect, individually or in groups, on the existing knowledge and work out new knowledge for themselves. If principals have to construct their own knowledge, it follows that they have to be active rather than passive in their professional development. They are active consciously or unconsciously; they test the applicability of new knowledge, judge the consistency of new knowledge and prior knowledge, and, based on that judgment, they modify their prior knowledge.

There are two mechanisms according to which new ideas are accommodated and assimilated: integration and substitution (Kolb, 1984). Kolb recommends integration of new ideas into the old ones, as this ensures stable conception. However, when new ideas are accommodated through substitution of old ideas with new ones, there is always a possibility of reversion to old ideas. The role of the developer, therefore, is not to take the role of the "sage on the stage" but to act as a "guide on the side" (Hoover, 2005:1) who provides principals with

10

environments that exploit inconsistencies between their current understanding and the new knowledge, reflect on the new knowledge, and modify their current knowledge by integrating needed new knowledge (or selected elements of new knowledge) into their current knowledge. Furthermore, active participation in the professional development means that principals try new knowledge in practice and thereby test its workability and learn how to put it into action.

In constructing new knowledge, human beings use what they already know (Bruner, 1996; Hoover, 2005). When people actively construct knowledge, they do so by relating incoming information to a previously acquired frame of reference. Practising principals have gathered a reservoir of germane knowledge upon which new knowledge can be built. This suggests that professional developers should not consider principals as *tabulae rasae*, on which they inscribe new knowledge. Every principal comes to the development situation with more or less articulateideas of the topic under discussion, that is, they have some experiences (Ng, 2001). Thus, principals' prior knowledge influences what new or modified knowledge they construct from a new development experience. Of course, some of the established ideas need modification because they are not workable or inconsistent with the new ideas.

In most cases, resistance to new ideas results from incompatibility between the new ideas and the old ideas. The function of the developers of principals, therefore, is not only to facilitate the construction of new ideas but also to work out a plan to influence (not to manipulate) principals to dispose or modify existing ideas that might be incongruent with, and resistant to, new ideas.

The implication is that for individual principals, some knowledge is public (knowledge that can be acquired from other people), while other knowledge is personal (personalising public knowledge or learning from experience) (Eraut, 1997). Principals learn personal knowledge most effectively while in groups (Evans and Mohr, 1999). Having realised the effectiveness of group learning, developers are devising strategies whereby principals learn in groups. Some schools have become learning organisations, where everybody, including the principal, learns. The other example of group learning strategy is peer-assisted leadership programme, whereby principals develop through peer observation and feedback (Barnett, 1989; Robertson, 1999). As implied above, knowledge is continuously derived from and tested out in experience. Experience is mediated by culture. Hence, all knowledge is only, to use Cobb's (as quoted in Fosnot, 1996:24) terminology, "taken-as-shared".This implies that the culture

11

and social environments are important and need to be considered in any professional development of principals. This view is based on dialectical constructivism of Vygotsky, a Russian theorist. Vygotsky emphasises the importance of social interaction between competent and less competent members of society, and the transaction between internal characteristics and external circumstances, and between personal knowledge and social knowledge. Thus, individual development of principals is shaped by the cultural system of social knowledge (Kolb, 1984; Byrnes, 1996).

Furthermore, social constructivism assumes that people learn informally while working. Informal learning is an unintentional, unofficial, unscheduled, impromptu way most people learn to do their jobs (Cross, 2007; De Vries and Brall, 2008). Although dismissed by some academics as not learning, research has found that employees learn more than 75% of what they know informally when they interact with one another and with other people (Cross, 2007; CARA Group, 2011). Thus, when interacting with stakeholders, principals learn from them. Cross (2007) states, "after looking at all kinds of fancy educational technologies, he came to the conclusion that the most powerful instructional technology ever invented is human conversation".

In addition, human learning is contextual. This point proposes that principals do not learn isolated facts and theories in some abstract, ethereal land of the mind separate from the rest of their lives. They link the new knowledge to their prior knowledge, what they believe in, their prejudices and their fears. This point is a corollary to the idea that learning is active and social. Principals cannot ever divorce their development from their lives.

1.8 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

1.8.1 Philosophical Stance: Research Paradigm

The purpose of the study aims to explore the effectiveness of state-funded development programmes of school principals with specific reference to Soshanguve secondary schools. The central research question of this study is: *How can the capacitation of principals through state-supported development programmes be used to improve the quality of leadership in South African public high schools?* It is essential to explore the most suitable research methods for this study. The philosophical stance, as well as the ontological and epistemological perspectives (Lincoln and Guba, 1985), are important to the selection of research methodology. In fact, it is necessarily required to question the guiding principles or research paradigms of a study. As emphasized by Guba and Lincoln (1994:105), 'questions

of method are secondary to questions of paradigms.' These very important issues have to be sorted out and digested before the start of the research. In the literature, it is noted that understanding research paradigms guides us to be reflective in what, how and why we do the research. Thus the following will be a presentation of the research paradigms as followed by a discussion of research approaches and methods for guiding this study.

1.8.2 Positivist research paradigm

Paradigms are models, perspectives or conceptual frameworks for guiding the organization of thoughts, beliefs, views and practices into a logical whole and eventually inform research design (Basit, 2010:14). There are two dominant research paradigms in educational research: the positivist paradigm and the interpretive paradigm. The positivist paradigm, also known as normative paradigm, takes a more traditional view of educational research. It is similar to natural sciences, holding the view that truth can only seen to be discovered by observing, experimenting on, or interrogating a large number of subjects, resulting in findings that can be statistically analysed, and are therefore believed to be generalizable' (Basit, 2010:14). Lincoln and Guba (1985) argue that positivism can be defined as a philosophy characterized by a positive evaluation of science and the scientific method. That means, the method of study is expected to be more scientific and objective to formulate a hypothesis to test its validity in the real world (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Anderson, 2000). The approach is inherently quantitative with the emphasis on the measurement of behaviour, prediction of future measurements and patterns and explanation of a reality predicated. (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Maykut and Morehouse, 1994; Anderson, 2000). However, with the assumption that methods of natural science could be applied to social sciences (Lincoln and Guba, 1985), the positivist paradigm has been criticized for being unable to observe something in human behaviours, for example, intentions and feelings (Anderson, 2000). On this point, Hesse (1980, cited in Lincoln and Guba, 1985) further criticizes positivism according to the three most important assumptions-naïve realism, belief in a universal scientific language, and a correspondence theory of truth. According to these assumptions, there is an external world, which can be described, in scientific language. There is one-to-one relation to facts so that the scientist can capture external facts of the world. However, in social sciences 'one-to-one' relationship between variables is not always evident.

In spite of the scientific enterprise's proven success, especially in the field of natural science, its ontological and epistemological bases have been the focus of sustained and sometimes

vehement criticism from some quarters. Beginning in the second half of the nineteenth century, the revolt against positivism occurred on a broad front. Cohen and Manion (1994) argued against the world picture projected by science's mechanistic and reductionist view of nature which excludes notions of choice, freedom and individuality. Lincoln and Guba (1985), however, state that post-positivism – that is the interpretive paradigm – could be seen.

Two dominant research paradigms, positivist and interpretive paradigms, exist in the field of social sciences (Cohen and Manion, 1994). The philosophical underpinnings, as well as the features, assumptions and criticisms of these two paradigms will be first discussed in the following section in order to provide a better understanding about the choice of the research design and methods in this study.

1.8.3   Positivist epistemological underpinnings

Epistemology concerns itself with "… the very bases of knowledge, its nature and forms, how it may be acquired, and how communicated to other human beings" (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000:6). Positivists initially believed that the inquirer (researcher) and the people being inquired (participants) were independent of each other, meaning that they did not influence each other. Modifying this belief, positivists now acknowledge that the hypotheses, theories and background knowledge held by the researcher can influence what is observed (Mertens, 1998). Moreover, they hold that the goal of research is to derive universal laws, and they argue that the researcher should remain neutral in order to prevent their values and biases from influencing their studies (Martens, 1998).

1.8.3   Ontology

Ontology relates to "… the very nature or essence of the social phenomena being investigated" (Cohen *et al.*, 2000:5). Positivists hold to the notion that there is only reality that exists, and it is the responsibility of the researcher to discover that reality. Furthermore, they believe that the world is ordered and operates according to scientific laws (Robson, 2002; Mertens, 1998). Positivistic researchers believe that one reality exists but can only be imperfectly known and that the truth may be discovered within the confines of probability (Mertens, 1998). In this study, the ontology of effective school leadership was explored in order to gain a balanced view of its meaning and also to optimise the professional development of principals in schools.

1.8.4   Research design

According to Henning and Van Rensburg (2004:63), a research design is a programme used to guide the researcher in collecting, analysing and interpreting observed facts. Research design refers to a plan for selecting subjects, research sites, and data collection procedures to answer research questions (McMillan and Schumacher, 2006:117). Polit and Beck (2004:211) describe a research design as "… a blueprint or outline, for conducting a study in such a way that maximum control will be exercised overfactors that could interfere with the validity of research results".

The research design selected for this study was quantitative in nature. One of the major reasons for choosing this design is that it enables the researcher to statistically analyse the data collected in order to provide solutions to the problem being investigated. Burns and Grove (2001:26) refer to quantitative research as "… a formal, objective and systematic process in which numerical data are used to obtain information about the phenomenon under study". These authors point out that a quantitative study seeks to describe variables, examine the relationship between variables, and determine cause-effect interactions between the variables. In using this approach, the researcher obtains first-hand information because the participants may be readily encouraged to be as honest and sincere as possible. Equally so, the quantitative resign design was chosen because it emphasises measurement analysis of the casual relationship between variables and not analysis of casual relationship variables and process (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994:4).

A descriptive method, as a non-experimental quantitative research design, was used in this study. The purpose of this type of method is "… to provide the opinions of respondents regarding the phenomenon being studied" (Burns and Grove, 2001:44). Furthermore, it furnishes an accurate portrayal or account of the characteristics of a particular individual event, or group, in real-life situations for the purpose of discovering new meaning, describing existing situations, determining the frequency with which something occurs, and categorising information. Descriptive research presents a picture of specific details of information, social setting or relationship and focuses on the "how and why" questions (Neuman, 2000:22).

1.9   POPULATION AND SAMPLING

A population is defined by Neuman (2006:224) as the abstract idea of a large group of cases from which a researcher draws a sample, from which results are generalised. Polit and Beck

(2004:50) define it as "… the totality of subjects that confirm to a set of specifications, comprising the entire group of persons that is of interest to the researcher and from whom the research results can be generalized". Out of 25 secondary schools in Tshwane North District, 10 secondary schools were randomly selected to participate in this study. The target population in this study comprised HoDs and teachers in the 10 secondary schools. These participants were selected on the basis that they were likely knowledgeable and informed about the problem the researcher is investigating.

Sampling is defined by Neuman (2006:218) as a small set of cases which a researcher selects from a large pool and generalises to the population. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2006:119), a sample is the group of subjects or participants from whom the data is collected. Samples must be representative of the population concerned. A sample is biased if it represents only a specific sub-group of the population or when a particular sub-group is over- or under-represented (Best and Khahn, 1993:13).

To select the sample to participate in this study, probability sample techniques by means of simple random sampling were used. Through utilising this method, each member of the population has an equal chance of being selected for the sample (Thomas, 1998:140). From the 10 secondary schools, two HoDs and 10 teachers were selected from each school as a sample for this study.

1.10   DATA COLLECTION

Burns and Grove (2001:43) define data collection as "… the precise, systematic gathering of information relevant to specific research objectives or questions". According to these authors, data may be collected in several ways, depending on the study, and by utilising a variety of methods.

1.10.1 Data collection instrument

Data for this study was collected using a structured questionnaire, which is a written schedule that respondents complete themselves (Polit and Beck, 2004:349. A questionnaire was selected because it is less costly and requires less time (Polit and Beck, 2004:350). Its advantage is that the respondents answer questions with confidence and that their responses remain anonymous (Leedy, 2001:198). Wilkinson (2000:42) concurs that a questionnaire is a useful tool for collecting data from a large number of respondents. Krathwohl (1998:361)

16

points out that questionnaires could be advantageous in that much information may be obtained fairly rapidly, and confidentiality is guaranteed.

The questionnaire for this study comprised a biographical section where respondents were requested to respond to question items regarding private issues of importance for the research. It also consisted of sections where respondents were required to answer questions related to the problem being investigated, by indicating their choices on the Likert scale and using closed-ended questions. According to Burns and Ronald (cited in Magolego, 2011:32), a Likert item is simply a statement which the respondent is asked to evaluate according to any kind of subjective or objective criteria; generally the level of agreement or disagreement is measured. This technique is considered to be systematic or "balanced" because there are equal amounts of positive and negative positions.

In this study, the researcher developed a structured questionnaire based on different Likert scales which complied with the following principles:

- Keep questions simple and clear.
- Avoid ambiguity.
- Do not use negatives in the statements.
- Do not lead the respondents.
- Ensure that statements are in line with possible choices.

1.11   VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

With any type of measurement, two considerations are very important, namely, validity and reliability. They are important criteria to evaluate a research instrument in terms of its adequacy and quality.

1.11.1 Validity

Validity is concerned with the soundness and effectiveness of the measuring instrument and refers to the ability of the instrument to measure only what it is intended to measure, given the context in which it is applied (Polit and Hungler, 1999:418). According to Babbie and Mouton (2001:143), validity refers to "the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration". Validity can be sub-categorised as external and internal validity. External validity refers to the generalisation of the research findings to other settings or samples other than the one studied (Polit and Beck, 2004:718).

Burns and Groove (2005:218) describe external validity as "the extent to which the results can be generalized beyond the sample used in the study. This usually depends on the degree to which the sample represents the population". In this study, the researcher paid attention to face content and construct validity.

- *Face validity* means that an instrument empirically appears to measure what is needed, given the construct that is supposed to be measured (Polit and Hungler, 1999:418). Brink (1996:168) defines face validity as "a judgment based on the face value of an instrument".In addition, face validity also serves to assess if the items or questions presented seem to measure the main concepts of the study.

- *Content validity* refers to how representative or adequate the compiled questions are for the construct being measured (De Vos, 2001:167). To ensure content validity. Construct validity involves determining the degree to which an instrument successfully measures a theoretical construct (De Vos, 2001:167). In other words, it checks whether the tool does measure what it was supposed to measure.

1.11.2 Reliability

Reliability is concerned with the consistency, accuracy, dependability and comparability of a measuring technique and refers to how consistent or stable the data collection instrument is. Polit and Hungler (1999:411) describe reliability as the consistency with which a tool measures the attribute it is supposed to measure. If a study and results are reliable, other researchers using the same method will obtain the same results. According to De Vos (2001:168), reliability indicates the accuracy or precision of an instrument and refers in general to the extent to which independent administration of the same instrument (or highly similar instruments) consistently yields the same or similar results under comparable conditions.

The test-retest method, split-half technique, Cronbach's alpha coefficient and other methods can be used to assess the reliability of a tool (Polit and Hungler, 1999:420). In this study, the test-retest method assessed stability and Cronbach's alpha coefficient, Kuder-Richardson's formula 2, and Spearman-Brown's prophecy formula that tested the internal consistency or reliability of the questionnaire (Polit and Hungler, 1999:415-420).

1.12   LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The major limitation of this study was that very little is written about the professional development of principals in South Africa. Most literature focuses on the role of principals and the need for managerial competences rather than actual practices, the needs of principals and the availability of training. Apart from time constraints, the researcher also experienced difficulties regarding voluntary cooperation of school principals. All the principals of the 10 sampled schools in Soshanguve did not want to participate in this study. To overcome the latter problem, the researcher had to rely on the responses provided by HoDs and teachers.

The researcher delimited the study by selecting participants with whom he had a prior professional relationship. This was done by means of simple random sampling to select 10 secondary schools in Tshwane North District three to participate in this study. In each school, the empirical investigation was limited to two HoDs and 10 teachers. As the study covers one district in the Tshwane region, possible different results would have been obtained if more districts were involved. As a result, the findings of this study cannot be generalised to teachers and HoDs from other secondary schools or other districts.

1.13   DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis refers to "… techniques to reduce, organize and give meaning to data" (Burns and Grove, 2005:41). Polit and Beck (2004:452-453) define it as the process of organising data in order to provide structure and elicit meaning.

Data obtained in this study was quantitatively analysed. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), which contains a comprehensive set of procedures for organising, transforming and analysing quantitative data, was used to analyse data. According to Magolego (2011:35), the advantage of SPSS is that any information can be analysed and interpreted perfectly in a short space of time.

Descriptive statistical analysis was done by computing mean scores, standard deviations, correlations, t-test, frequency tables, pie charts and histograms for data presentation analysis. This method is relevant when describing situations and events (Magolego, 2011:35). Tables, pie charts percentages and graphs were used to present quantitative descriptions in a manageable form, such as describing single variables and describing associations that connect.

1.14   ASSUMPTION OF THE STUDY

This study was undertaken with the assumption that in order to ultimately answer questions related to the phenomenon under study, one must first understand the nature of the current professional development of school principals. As a result, this study was undertaken primarily in anticipation of its value in guiding future studies.

1.15   CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

For the sake of clarity, it is essential that certain relevant concepts used in this study, be defined. These concepts are clarified below.

School effectiveness: MacBeath and Mortimore (2001:9) indicate that school effectiveness is a process that includes effective teaching. In this research, school effectiveness is viewed as a process that determines how well the school enhances learners' achievements through teaching, leadership, management and governance.

School improvement: School improvement is conceptualised as a process by which schools implement change towards an ideal state. Teddlie and Reynolds (2000:146) describe the process as the "… long-term goal of moving towards the ideal type of the renewing school".

Management and leadership: Management is a process of implementation of policies and the maintenance of school activities. Management is concerned with procedures to keep the school running, focuses on providing order and consistency, and is mostly associated with the immediate and the short term objectives (Earley and Weindling, 2004:5; Dunford, Fawcett & Bennett, 2000:2).

Leadership, on the other hand, is a process of influence leading to achieving the desired purposes. It involves inspiring and supporting others towards the achievement of a vision or a school that is based on clear personal and professional values. Leadership is a relationship that is understood through experience, and it is not found in job descriptions but in the professionality of working towards teaching and learning (Bush and Glover, 2003:10, cited in Earley and Weindling, 2004:4; Gunter, 2001:vii). Though management and leadership are often distinguished from each other (MacBeath, 1998:3; Gunter, 2001:32) and are associated with structure and culture respectively, they are both inseparable and necessary for any school to be effective (MacGilchrist, Myers & Reed, 2004:41). The effective leader needs to be both a leader and a manager at the same time. Thus, any reference in this study to

leadership shall include management, and any reference to management shall include leadership.

Change: Change is defined as a phenomenon that affects all aspects of personal life (Mampuru, 2001:188) and represents the struggle between what is desired. Change may be described as the adoption of an innovation, where the ultimate goal is to improve outcomes through an alteration of practices (Carlopio, 1998:2). In the context of education, change means that school principals are exposed to new controls, regulations, growth, technological developments and changes in the workforce (Kotter and Schlesinger, 1979:106). Change contains both technical and human aspects. It begins and ends with individuals acting in unison to make a school effective. In short, change refers to a planned, systematic process affected by individuals, and one which takes time to come to fruition.

Collaborative leadership: Collaborative leadership is demonstrated by groups working collaboratively to solve agreed-upon issues. It uses supportive and inclusive methods to ensure that all people affected by a decision are part of the change process (Sergiovanni, 1994). Hallinger and Heck (2010) indicate that collaborative leadership focuses on the strategic school-wide actions that are directed towards school improvement and shared among the principals, teachers, administrators and others.

Partnership: The term 'partnership' has many different meanings. It refers to a mutually beneficial relationship in which both parties seek out an opportunity to work together (Riane, 1987). In this study, partnership simply means a voluntary contract between the Gauteng Department of Education and school principals, aimed at providing aspirant principals with a professional qualification for school governance and management.

Professional development: To define professional development is not easy, being highly dependent on the prevalent cultural and socio-economic climate. PD is much more than training. It includes ongoing workshops, follow-up, study, reflections, observations and assessment that comprise PD that accommodates teachers as learners, recognises the long-term nature of learning, and utilises methods that are likely to lead teachers to improve their practice as professionals (Gaible and Burns, 2012:15). According to Fullan (1991:326), PD refers to the sum total of formal and informal learning experiences throughout one's career from pre-service teacher education to retirement. Salmon (1997:7), on the other hand, views PD as a means of improving the quality of teaching and learning. This can be achieved by recognising the status of the teacher as a professional and ensuring opportunity for that

teacher to update and extend his or her knowledge and skills. Professional development should provide opportunities for reflection and learning from experiences as well as training and development for new roles and responsibilities to ensure the effectiveness of the individual teacher in contributing to the development of the whole school.

Desimone, Porter, Garet, Yoon and Birman (2002:81) and the North Central Regional Educational Laboratory (NCREL) (2013:1) expand the definition to include the activities to enhance professional career growth. Such activities may include individual development, continuing education, and in-service education, as well as curriculum writing, peer collaboration, study groups, and peer coaching or mentoring. .

Effective PD is the one rated positively by participants in terms of satisfaction with the experience. The test of effective PD is whether teachers come to know more about their subjects, their learners, and their practice, and make informed use of what they know. Effective PD should address the flaws of traditional approaches, which are often criticised for being fragmented, unproductive, inefficient, unrelated to practice, and lacking in intensity and follow-up (Elmore, 2002:26). This study considers PD as a broad term that covers all forms of teachers' professional learning, whether formal or informal, within the school or out of school, self-directed or externally prescribed. It is a process of learning and keeping uptodate in one's area of expertise. It refers to activities and classes which teachers attend in order to learn new methods and subjects.

In-service training (INSET): According to Oldroyd and Hall (1991), INSET is the education intended to support and assist the PD that teachers ought to experience throughout their working lives. Its starting point thus should be marked by the occasion when the newly qualified entrant to the teaching profession takes up his or her first appointment in school. Its finishing point coincides with retirement. PD, on the other hand, is for individuals or groups whose needs are identified by them or the school. A professional will have undergone a lengthy period of time in professional training in a body of abstract knowledge and will have experience in the relevant field, in this case, teaching.

Dean (1991:23) argues that INSET originally meant education and training of serving teachers, but that today is merely defined as in-service training. It is part of the process of change involving a series of activities, that is, programmes intended to change the style of instruction in the school. This simply means that INSET is an attempt to see to it that, as far

as possible, the Foundation Phase (FP) teachers change their styles to be able to cope with what is happening in order to manage change rather than be managed by it.

Bolam (2000:267) emphasises that INSET embraces all those education, training and job-embedded support activities engaged in by teachers following their initial certification and by headteachers. Such activities are aimed primarily at adding to the FP teachers' professional knowledge, improving their professional skills and helping them to clarify their various professional values so that they can educate their students more effectively. In terms of this study, INSET refers to planned activities practised both within and outside schools primarily to develop the professional knowledge, skills, attitude and performance of professional staff in schools in order to influence student performance. The focus is on activities that will enhance the performance of students.

The principal: The principal as the manager of the school has leadership and management duties and responsibilities. According to Van Amelsvoort, Hendriks and Scheerens (2002:26), the school head is the principal. The principal's role entails the following duties and responsibilities (Potgieter, Visser, Van der Bank, Mothata & Squelch, 1997:14):

- the administering and organising of day-to-day teaching and learning at school;
- the organisation of all activities which support teaching andlearning at school;
- deciding on textbooks, education materials and equipment to be bought; and
- managing personnel and finances at school.

Secondary school:A secondary school is an educational institution that operates to provide formal secondary education to school-age youth. According to the World Bank (2002), secondary education completes the provision of basic education and aims at laying the foundation for lifelong learning and human development by offering more subjects or skill-orientated instruction using more specialised teachers. For the purpose of this study, secondary schools referto public schools, as they constitute the research sites of the researcher.

1.16   CHAPTER DIVISION

This section describes the actual plan and path that the researcher will follow during the process of carrying out the research. To enable the reader to obtain an overview of the

contents and to acquire insight into this study, a brief summary of the proposed chapters is provided as follows:

- **Chapter 1**

The research problem is introduced to the reader in this chapter. The background to the study, problem statement, the significance of the study, the research design and methodology, theoretical framework, validity and reliability, limitations and delimitations of the study, and assumption of the study are presented. Lastly, the important concepts used in this study are clarified.

- **Chapter 2**

This chapter gives a review of the related literature that focuses on the professional development of school principals.

- **Chapter 3**

This deals with school leadership for school improvement and its impact on school capacity and student learning.

- **Chapter 4**

The chapter presents the research methodology and design. It describes and justifies the research design to be employed in this study. It also describes the data collection tools and how the data is actually collected and analysed.

- **Chapter 5**

This penultimate chapter presents the analysis and interpretation of the collected data.

- **Chapter 6**

The final chapter gives a summary of the main findings and conclusions, and makes recommendations for practice and future research.

1.17   CHAPTER SUMMARY

The orientation to the study, problem formulation, research questions, aims and objectives, significance of the study, research design and methodology, theoretical framework, validity

and reliability of the study, limitations and delimitations of the study, chapter division, as well as definition of concepts have been highlighted in this chapter. The next chapter is dedicated to the literature review which underpins this study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   INTRODUCTION

Globally, there is a growing recognition of the need for professional development of secondary school principals. In England, for example, the National College for School Leadership (NCSL) was formed in 2000 to ensure that current and future leaders develop managerial skills, especially in human and financial management, and that there will be capacity to lead and transform the school education system to be the best in the world. Aspiring principals are prepared through the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH) programme (Fink, 2005) and are inducted through Early Headship Programme (EHP) on ascension to principalship. Those in-serviced are continually developed through Heads for the Future (HftF) programme (Brundret and De Cuevas, 2007).

Kamau (2010, citing the United States Congress, 1970) highlighted the role of the principal and his influence on school performance by opining, "In many ways, the school principal is the most influential individual in any school. He/she is responsible for all activities around the school. It is his/her leadership that sets the tone of the school, the climate of learning, the level of professionalism, morale of teachers and the degree of concern for what the students may or may not become". This calls for constant training.

In developing countries, especially in Africa, the development of principals is either lacking or not formal (Bush and Oduro, 2006). Oduro and Wanga (2003) observe that though most studies on principals in Africa concentrate on the problems facing principals in the performance of their duties, there are efforts being made by some countries in coming up with programmes for preparation and development of principals. In South Africa, for example, Moloi and Bush (2006) maintain that apartheid affected both education and social infrastructure. These effects included ineffective leadership and management practices of public schools. New professional development initiatives for principals and aspiring principals in South Africa are now covered in Policy Framework for Leadership Education and Management Development. As a result, the Department of Education has developed the Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE) in collaboration with 14 universities, unions, and the professional association of principals to train aspiring school principals and develop those already in service. The aim is to create a pool of school managers (Moloi and Bush, 2006).

In the Seychelles, the University of Lincoln (UK) in partnership with the Ministry of Education provides training at master's level to principals and senior managers on management of institutions of learning. On the other hand, Tanzania's Agency for Development, formerly called MANTEP, offers training of education managers (ADEM) and administrators as well as in-servicing principals in primary and.

In light of the preceding information, this chapter presents a review of literature which explores the nature of principals' development programmes worldwide in order to assess whether these programmes are well structured and systematic in the sense that principals are capacitated to manage their schools effectively and developed for school leadership and then continuously developed after appointment to enhance the performance of their duties.The purpose of a literature review is to establish a link between existing knowledge and the research problem being investigated, thereby enhancing its significance. The chapter further highlights the challenges faced by these leaders and also their needs as school principals.

2.2   WHY PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT NOW?

The introduction of the Advanced Certificate in Education School Management and Leadership (ACE-SML) qualification came at a time when many education stakeholders in South Africa were showing growing concerns about school performance. The ACE-SML is a part-time programme that utilises interactive materials to empower school managers. It was started by the National Department of Education (DoE) in 2007, and the first cohort completed it in 2009. The preliminary research results of this programme have shown its invaluable nature of empowering principals (Bush *et al.*, 2008). Similar programmes have been developed around the world. Steward (2010) stated that in England, the National College of School Leadership was established in 2000 for new headteachers. In China, there are two university-based centres on school leadership. This reflects the recognition that weak school leadership can result in poor school performance and teacher turnout (Stewart, 2010). Generally, this gives the credence to the need for preparation and development of school leaders and also shows that professional development has become crucial in all countries. Darling-Hammond (2010) cites an interesting policy in Singapore where the policy is for teachers "to teach less and learn more".

In South African schools, grade 12 results are usually used as a yardstick to differentiate effective schools from non-performing schools. This challenge is usually perceived as a way of determining which leaders work hard. The need for professional development emanates

from, *inter alia*, poor grade 12 results (Lethoko, Hystek & Maree, 2001). Research shows that many historically black African schools in South African are underperforming (Lethoko *et al.*, 2001; Taylor, 2008). It is usually stated that one of the reasons for unsatisfactory grade 12 results is that many principals have no formal training in leadership and management skills and are thus ill-prepared to effectively run schools (Van der Westhuizen, 1991; Van der Westhuizen *et al.*, 2004; Heystek, 2006). Most studies carried out over the past decade on principals' development have shown that the focus is mainly on secondary school principals. Some critics argue that even primary schools fail to prepare learners well for secondary school education and this attributed to the neglect of professional development for school leaders and managers. Tucker and Codding (2002) highlight the neglect of professional development for school principals as "education's disaster area".

2.3 PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

In the United Kingdom, the New Version programme was developed to meet the leadership development needs of principals in the first three years of school principalship (Bush, 2003). To ensure that a principal attends the New Vision Programme, funds are made available from the Headteachers Leadership Management Programme (HEADLAMP). According to Bush (2003:3), the programme has anunusual mix of content and process, with emphasis on participants' personal and school contexts. NCSL (2002:31-32) summarises the key learning processes and protocols of the programme as the following:

- coaching and mentoring;
- diagnostic instruments;
- leadership learning portfolios;
- peer coaching; and
- inter-visitation.

Bush, Briggs and Middlewood (2002) contend that in their first survey of the New Vision Programme, they acknowledge that participants may not attain all protocols. However, participants benefited from think pieces and short summary papers prepared by academics (Bush, 2003:4; Debrou, 2003:7-8). In addition, participants were stimulated to think about key issues in education management and leadership. In the light of the effectiveness of New

Visions, Bush (2003:4) notes that formative and summative evaluations were conducted with the following specific objectives:

- to establish the felt needs of participants, consultant and facilitators before, during and after the programme;
- to establish whether, and to what extent, the programme builds on the 10 principles set out in the NCSL's Leadership Development Framework;
- to establish the quality of programmes as perceived by participants and other stakeholders;
- to examine the impact of the programme upon participants and their schools; and
- to assess the sustainability of this programme of leadership development.

Against the background of the preceding discussion, Bush (2003:10) submits that the consultant brought a wealth of knowledge to the New Vision Programme. For example, they contributed to leadership development especially towards the attainment of school vision, motivation, performance management, decision-making, negotiation and interpersonal skills. In this respect, the work of consultant heads was given special examination. The significance of consultant heads for the New Vision Programme is illustrated in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Potential contribution of consultant heads

Anticipated potential contribution (Main area)	No. of consultant heads identifying this area (Whole numbers)
Vision of the school	16
Motivating others	15
Interpersonal relationships	15
Leadership skills	15
Performance management	14
Monitoring and evaluation	14

Source: Bush (2003:10)

Looking at the numbers provided in the Table 2.1, it can be deduced that consultant heads assist in management and leadership development in the British schooling system. In their report, Bush, Briggs and Middlewood, with Blackburn and Stephen (2003) indicated that the New Vision Programme allowed the participating principals to look at themselves, their behaviour and where they find themselves objectively. There is evidence to suggest that the New Vision Programme enhances management and leadership development. Consequently, Bush (2003:3) notes that participants in the programme indicated that after being in the programme for 18 months, they:

- are more reflective;
- review their approach to leadership and management;
- focus more on the big picture;
- improve their people management skills; and
- improve their leadership quality and skills.

In addition, Coles (2003:4) observes that professional development of school principals is necessary for the growth of leaders in the schooling system.

Researchers in South Africa are beginning to realise that professional development is an ingredient that is essential to creating effective schools and raising learners' performance (Steyn, 2005). Steyn writes about the concept Culture of Learning and Teaching (COLT) widely used in South Africa to refer to the attitude of educators and learners to learning and teaching as well as their commitment to the school. When this breaks down, it manifests itself in the disruption of classes, the malfunctioning of management, the collapse of authority and disruption of disciplined learning and teaching (Steyn, 2005). When COLT crumples in schools, more often than not, it is the inadequacy of the school managers and leaders that is usually questioned. Many principals who have never been inducted and professionally developed can be daunted by the task of rebuilding a school whose COLT has crumbled.

Furthermore, Steyn (2005) underscores the need to build invitational education, a strategy that has been applied in various countries over the epochs. This refers to a theory of practice where schools work for success among learners and teachers. Teachers who want to make their schools invitational have to have a map of how to get there; this is unlikely to be achieved through a fluke. Empowered leaders need to set an agenda of how they want to get to the point of having such schools. The discussion in Steyn's paper has highlighted the ingredients of effective professional development. Literature above has also shown the importance of understanding aspects such as context, self, other people, and the processes before one can be professionally developed.

Traditionally, professional development has been conducted outside the school where participants had to leave their jobs and attend workshops elsewhere (Valli and Hawley, 1998). However, it is now suggested that professional development of school principals should ideally and primarily be school-based and be part of school operations (Valli and Hawley, 1998).This implies that newly appointed principals be mentored at their schools by experienced people on a one-to-one basis. The learning should connect theory to practice and be contextually relevant. Hawley (1998) refers to this situation as "job-embedded", which is considered to be one of the best practices of professional development. According to Wayne *et al*. (2008), school-based professional development requires an experienced mentor to work with a colleague. School-based professional development through mentoring is beneficial in that participants can form support teams and network while exposed to learning opportunities and the acquisition of practical knowledge and skills that address their immediate problems. The section that follows discusses what has already been done in the area of professional development of school principals in developed countries. The section further highlights how

professional development for aspiring newly appointed and experienced principals is implemented and funded in developed countries.

2.4   INTERNATIONAL COMPARISON OF LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES

Worldwide, recognition of the need for specific preparation of aspiring and practising school leaders in order to improve school effectiveness has been slow to emerge. In 1980, no country had a clear system of national requirements, agreed-upon frameworks of knowledge and standards of preparation for school leaders. Training in many countries has not been a requirement for appointment to principalship, and it was assumed that good teachers can become effective managers and leaders without specific preparation (Bush and Jackson, 2002:418). Today, however, interest in leadership development and learning programmes has become an international phenomenon, and there is much debate on leadership development philosophies and programmes (Walker and Dimmock, 2006:127).

The NCSL was established in England in November 2000 with the aim of ensuring that England's current and future school leaders developed the skills, capability and capacity to lead and transform the school education system into the best in the world (Bush and Jackson, 2002:419). To inform its strategy, policies and decision-making, the NCSL undertook an exploratory study in 2001 of some of the best international leadership centres (Bush and Jackson, 2002:419). The study examined centres in Australia, Canada, Hong Kong, New Zealand, Singapore, Sweden and the USA.

The study included both researchers and school leaders and entailed site visitations to all the centres. The visits were comprehensive, incorporating a number of research elements, including scrutinising centre materials, interviewing providers and participants, visiting schools and observing training activities (Bush and Jackson, 2002:419).

A similar analysis of headteacher or principal training programmes in England, Australia, Hong Kong and Sweden was conducted in 2000 for the National Centre for Education and Economy (NCEE) in Washington, DC, in order to inform the design of leadership programmes in USA. Caldwell, Calnin and Cahill (2003) documented the findings of this research which are incorporated into the discussions that follow.

Walker and Dimmock (2006:125) address the preparation and ongoing learning of school leaders in Hong Kong, describing a model of good practice thathas been founded on and

derived from a body of international research-based evidence of successful principal leadership programmes. Further, a study examining the profiles and perspectives of Australian and Japanese school principals, including obtaining information on their pre- and in-service training programmes, was undertaken by Gamage and Ueyama (2004), the findings of which are also incorporated into the discussion that follows.

2.5   PREPARATION FOR ASPIRING PRINCIPALS

All the centres reviewed by the NCSL researchers, except Sweden, offered programmes for aspiring principals. The main distinction between centres is that some of the programmes are mandatory while other courses are available but not compulsory (Bush and Jackson, 2002:420). Most American states have compulsory programmes. In USA, it is mandatory for principals to attain an educational master's degree and 35 of the 50 states have adopted or adapted the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) Standards which define and guide school leaders' practice in their principal preparation programmes. The University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA), founded in 1956, is regarded as a major influence in shaping the study of educational administration in USA, but there are few equivalent bodies in other countries (Bush and Jackson, 2002:418). In Canada, aspiring leaders must complete the Principals'Qualification Programme (PQP) before being appointed as principals or vice-principals (Bush and Jackson, 2002:420).

In Singapore, a national programme was introduced in 1984, but it is not mandatory for appointment as a principal. However, inclusion in the programme is by invitation, and successful completion of the course is expected to ensure promotion. The course differs from that in other countries, in that it is full time – for six months – with candidates receiving full pay during the training.

Prior to 2000, leadership development in Hong Kong was peripheral, ad hoc, policy-and provider-led, competency-based and built around perceived deficits (Walker and Dimmock, 2006:127). The few centrally supported programmes for education leaders' pre-2000 appeared overwhelmingly classroom-based, were tendered out to universities, rarely involved practising leaders and were largely detached from school life (Walker and Dimmock, 2006:128). A new policy for developing principals was adopted by the Department of Education in 2002. It was a landmark policy in that it had differentiated levels of leadership, mandated pre-principalship certification, introduced a set of principalship beliefs and "standards" and a time-regulated structure for development. Requirements were differentiated

for aspiring principals, deputy principals and department heads, newly appointed principals for principals during their first two years in the post and serving principals – principals with over two years of experience.

There are no courses for aspiring principals in Sweden, where provision focuses on newly appointed leaders, while in New Zealand, the leadership centres there offer a range of programmes which are not mandatory. In Japan, most principals have no pre-service training, as the systemic authorities or an individual's peers decide whether a person should be appointed to a principal position (Gamage and Ueyama, 2004:74). In Australia, most prospective principals enrol in university-level courses; however, there are no pre-service requirements except being a good practising teacher (Gamage and Uleyama, 2004:72).

Until the 1990s, principals could be appointed in the UK without specific training, no minimum length of service and no other qualification than to teach. In 1995, the HEADLAMP was introduced by the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) to address the training needs of newly appointed heads followed by the NPQH in 1997 for aspiring heads (Bush and Jackson, 2002:419). It adopted the English National Standards for headship. The NPQH became mandatory for all first-time headteachers in March 2004 (Stroud, 2005:93). Until 31 March 2009, there was a transitional arrangement allowing those with a place on the programme to be appointed to a first headship. However, from 1 April 2009, only those who had successfully completed the NPQH would be able to be appointed to their first substantive headship position (NCSL (a)).

The NCSL has been given responsibility for the NPQH and the full range of leadership development programmes offered in the UK (NCSL (a)). Training centres and providers have been established in 10 NPQH Training and Development Centres in England, Wales and Regional Assessment Centres (Caldwell *et al.*, 2003:113). Training is provided by accredited trainers of the NPQH (Caldwell *et al.*, 2003:113).

Although Caldwell *et al.* (2003:114) describe the stages of the NPQH, information describing the programme has been extracted from the NCSL website (NCSL (b)) which reflects a more current and updated version. The NPQH is a personalised programme based on the individuals' development needs, taking between 4-12 months to complete, depending on the candidates' closeness to headship. The structure of provision entails four stages.

During the pre-entry stage, the candidate accesses resources to consider their readiness for headship and NPQH. At the entry stage, the candidate completes an online application form, providing evidence of their experience and expertise across the six areas of the National Standards for Headteacher. If the online application is successful, the candidate completes online self-assessment activities and a 360° diagnosis before attending a two-day entry event, where they undertake a range of assessment and development activities designed to reflect the role of a headteacher. This culminates in a one-to-one feedback session where the individual's strengths and areas for development are agreedupon, and the candidate becomes an NPQH trainee headteacher.

During the development stage (4-12 months), candidates attend a regional introductory day to meet other trainee headteachers and find out more about the provision as well as determine their individual development plan, which will include undertaking a placement in another context (5-20 days); peer learning with other trainee headteachers; and work-based learning in their current school or organisation and attending national, regional and local development events such as conferences, seminars and master classes. Candidates are provided with support including one-on-one coaching (up to seven hours), NCSL learning materials, research and online activities, and access to NCSL's online communities where trainees can engage with other school leaders. Candidates are required to build a portfolio of evidence to demonstrate their learning in relation to their identified development needs.

When candidates are ready, they present their portfolio of evidence for graduation assessment, which is the final stage. The assessment takes the form of a panel interview with assessors including serving headteachers. If successful, the trainee is awarded the NPQH on behalf of the Secretary of State for Children, Schools and Families.

2.6 PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR NEWLY APPOINTED PRINCIPALS

The NCSL research revealed that very few of the centres studied have established programmes for newly appointed principals (Bush and Jackson, 2002:421). Chicago offered the most comprehensive programme for principals during their first year in the post, which consists of a number of elements: a four-day orientation course, full and half-day workshops, and five "retreats" followed by coaching. The "master principal" coaches are trained and receive payment for their role (Bush and Jackson, 2002:422).

The research of Walker and Dimmock (2006) in Hong Kong reported that newly appointed principals undertake a programme called *Blue Skies* – a professional learning programme for new principals, which starts at the end of their first year in the post. It is designed to fit coherently with programmes for aspiring and serving principals and with a centralised induction programme. *Blue Skies* was designed after ongoing evaluations, formal review and other studies into the original newly appointed principal programme. It was also informed by international research and insights.

In New South Wales and New Zealand, there are principal induction courses, whereas in Ohio entry-level principals undergo a two-year curriculum where the aim is to nurture, guide and develop their knowledge, dispositions and leadership skills. In England in 2000, the HEADLAMP provided a budget of 2500 pounds for each new principal to spend on their personal professional development during their first two years in the post. Participation is not mandatory, and the programme focus is left up to the principal's discretion (Bush and Jackson, 2002:422).

- **How do new principals feel about the job they are about to enter?**

The first-time administrative position gives leaders situations where many things will be experienced for the first time. This transition period is referred to by Hart (1993) as the organisational socialisation period. During this period, principals experience a plethora of emotions as they try to determine answers to questions and face problems for which they do not yet know the answers. As the teacher moves up the professional ladder into the principalship, there is much to learn about educational administration. Unfortunately, there is no playbook to guide the rookie administrator through the daily encounters that shape the career of the school principal. Each situation an administrator encounters is unique to that principal, building, district, and culture. "Changing educational careers requires an individual to relinquish the comfort and confidence of a known role – such as being a teacher – and experience the discomfort and uncertainty of a new, unknown role – being a principal" (Ferrigno, 2003:470).

- **How do new principals see their role?**

"Leadership within a school is a dynamic process of negotiation that takes into consideration the demands of the moment, the institutional structure, and the historical definitions of power and relationships" (Smulyan, 2000:6). Among the role descriptors of the principalship from

the National Policy Board for Educational Administration are these: "instructional leadership, organisational leadership, strategic leadership, and community and political leadership" (Goodwin, Cunningham and Childress, 2003:28).

- **What conditions should be in place to make their job more effective and efficient?**

The research literature highlights the importance of a strong mentorship for new principals (Podlubny, 1999; Reynolds, 1999) regardless of age; however, in most districts, mentoring simply does not occur unless the principal seeks out help. Principals must draw upon their colleagues for help through mentoring and networking. Experienced principals can have a positive or negative impact on the socialisation of those transitioning into the job for the first time. For example, "some female principals have found difficulty in this area because they are the minority within the administrative club" (Alvy and Robbins, 1998:50). Principals who are just starting do not always have supportive relationships with their experienced colleagues (Daresh, 2001). In the ideal socialisation process, role identity is enhanced by the way an administrator is treated by his or her peers (Ferrigno, 2003).

Overload, stress, and role conflict are the bane of many leadership positions. Fullan (1997:29) recognises that these obstacles can be overcome, but this must happen in a rational manner by prioritising core values and how best to work to achieve them. For school principals, Fullan (1997:29) states, "overload and role conflict can best be overcome by understanding that: … we are going to implement a few things especially well, and implement other priorities as well as we would have anyway, which is to keep them from getting out of hand. We will look for ways of integrating or aligning components that might otherwise be fragmented."

- **What obstacles do new principals encounter along the way?**

The topic of socialisation as it relates to the new administrator's success is one of the most crucial areas for administrators to consider as they take on the principal's role (Alvy and Robins, 1998; Brock and Grady, 2002; Daresh, 2001; Duncan, Seguin & Spaulding, 1999; Ferrigno, 2003; Loper, 1994; Morford, 2002). Socialisation occurs both to the norms and the culture within a particular school district and to the profession of administration. Principals just starting out struggle to understand how principals are supposed to act, what they are supposed to know, and what they are supposed to do (Banks, 2000; Daresh, 2001; Morford, 2002). They have preconceptions that have developed through observation of previous

administrators during their teaching careers (Morford, 2002). The only real way to learn the role is to live the position.

Often the administrator is a newcomer working in a school that has established routines and traditions. A mentor can help significantly with the task of becoming socialised into the role of administration, the norms, culture, practices, and procedures of the school (Daresh, 2001; Ferrigno, 2003).

Although there is ample literature and research evidence that attests to the continued challenges and role ambiguities of school principals in North America, interest in those matters has only recently surfaced in the Greek scene. However, a number of research projects have now been conducted.

2.7   PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR EXPERIENCED PRINCIPALS

In Sweden, the National Agency for Education has designed a programme for serving principals, which is the main professional development provision. The course has a limited intake and operates over three years, with two four-day residential units per year. Participants also receive in-school consultancy (Bush and Jackson, 2002:422).

The NCSL research reported that the principal development programme in New South Wales includes courses delivered by university centres, leading to a qualification – the Certificate of School Leadership and Management. It includes peer-assisted leadership, mentoring, coaching and shadowing, seminars and study leave (Bush and Jackson, 2002:422). In England, the Leadership Programme for Serving Heads (LPSH) is a shorter programme than in other countries, and it consists of pre-workshop preparation, a four-day residential workshop, post-workshop activity with a senior business leader and a follow-up one year after the workshop (Bush and Jackson, 2002:422). It is available for principals that have been serving for at least four years (Stroud, 2005:93).

Although a number of courses exist for aspiring, beginning and experienced principals, there were few examples of a coherent programme for all three stages (Bush and Jackson, 2002:426).Walker and Dimmock (2006:127) highlighted that many of the development programmes emerging from centralised initiatives are not without their problems or critics. Their research revealed that these initiatives are often contested at formulation, implementation and evaluation stages, as was the case in Hong Kong where formal requirements for serving principals were loosened in response to practitioner concerns.

2.8   FUNDING LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES

The study by Bush and Jackson (2002:423) of leadership programmes in nine countries and 15 centres revealed considerable diversity in the ways that leadership development programmes are funded. In Singapore's full-time programme, the cost is paid by the government, and candidates still receive their salaries. North Carolina's masters' candidates receive a loan that is repayable if they leave the state within four years. In Sweden, the state funds the programme, including the costs of stand-in teachers, and in Chicago, all programmes are free – representing their commitment to educational regeneration through leadership development.

In Ontario, candidates pay their own fees, although they are tax deductible. In New South Wales, candidates receive grants to assist with fees, but these do not cover the whole cost. The masters and certification programmes in Hong Kong are also provided on a self-funding basis.

Selection for programmes also tends to be linked to the funding model. Where governments provide funding, there is an explicit selection process, whereas selection for programmes that are self-funding is independent of state sponsorship. In Ontario, there are tough prerequisites to be accepted, such as a master's degree or equivalent additional qualifications.

2.9   NATIONAL COLLEGE FOR SCHOOL LEADERSHIP (NCSL)

The NCSL is a principal source of advice to government and policymakers on school leadership issues (Hartle and Thomas, 2003:14). It has set out a national framework for leadership development which provides a professional development route for the preparation, induction, development and regeneration of school leaders. The NCSL is a government-funded non-departmental public body (NDPB). The government provided 10 million pounds for building the headquarters in Nottingham. The NCSL receives notification of their targets and objectives through an annual remit from the Secretary of State for Children, Schools and Families (NCSL (c)).

2.10   NATIONAL STANDARDS

Today the use of standards is becoming an international trend, with similarities in the standards across USA, the UK, Australia and New Zealand (Leithwood and Steinbach, 2003, cited in Weindling, 2003:12). In the US, the 1996 ISLLC Standards for school leaders have

recently been updated. The new standards, Educational Leadership Policy Standards: ISLLC 2008, were adopted by the National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA) in November 2007 after a two-year national collaborative review process. They incorporate what has been learned about education leadership in the past decade and address the changing policy context of American education. They aim to provide guidance to state policymakers as they work to improve education leadership preparation, licensure, evaluation and professional development. They are the foundation and should inform all components of an aligned and cohesive system (Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO), 2008:1-4).

The six ISLLC 2008 standards are themes organising the functions that define strong leadership. The standards are listed below.

"An education leader promotes the success of every student:

1. By facilitating the development, articulation, implementation and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by all stakeholders
2. By advocating, nurturing and sustaining a school culture and instructional programme conducive to student learning and staff professional growth

3. By ensuring management of the organization, operations and resources for a safe, efficient and effective learning environment

4. By collaborating with faculty and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources

5. By acting with integrity, fairness and in an ethical manner

6. By understanding, responding to and influencing the political, social, economic, legal and cultural context (CCSSO, 2008:14).

In the US, Standards and other guidelines have been shown to be essential tools in developing effective pre-service training programmes for principals. Moreover, in the US, exemplary pre-and in-service development programmes for principals have many common components, including a comprehensive and coherent curriculum aligned to state and professional standards which emphasise instructional leadership (Darling-Hammond, Lapointe, Meyerson & Orr, 2007:18). The standards document clear expectations about what education leaders need to know to enable every child to meet academic achievement standards and provide a framework for evaluating the skills and disposition of a candidate or a continuing education

programme or a school leader. They are predominantly policy standards and are not to be confused with programme or practice standards. The NPBEA and other organisations are engaging to make recommendations regarding how these policy standards can be used to influence leadership practice, programmes and policy (CCSSO, 2008:6).

In England, the revised National Standards for Headteachers were published in September 2004 following widespread consultation within the profession. It reflects the evolving role of headship withinthe 21st century and incorporates current government thinking and guidance. The Standards recognise the key role that headteachers play in engaging in the development and delivery of government policy and in raising and maintaining levels of attainment in schools in order to meet the needs of every child (NCSL (d)).

The Standards define the core purpose of headship and six key non-hierarchical areas that when taken together, represent the role of the headteacher. Within each key area, the knowledge requirements, professional qualities (skills, dispositions and personal capabilities headteachers bring to the role) and actions needed to achieve the core purpose are identified. The six key areas are as follows:

- shaping the future

- leading learning and teaching

- developing self and working with others

- managing the organisation

- securing accountability

- strengthening community

The standards are generic and applicable to headteachers irrespective of phase and type of school. The standards are meant to have a range of uses, such as assisting with recruitment and performance management processes. They also provide guidance to all stakeholders what should be expected regarding the role of the headteacher as well as being used to identify threshold levels of performance for the assessment framework within the NPQH (Department of Education and Skills, no date).The following section summarises the empirical evidence and theory on current principal development programmes available in African countries.

2.11   PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF PRINCIPALS IN NAMIBIA

Namibian schools have experienced significant changes since independence in 1990, changes that are intended to facilitate paradigm shifts in terms of education governance, quality, equity and international comparability (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1993). According to the former minister responsible for education in Namibia (Angula, 1999), changes in the Namibian education system include change of educational ethos, administrative reform, curriculum renewal, reorientation of pedagogy, new approaches to examinations, professional development opportunities, greater dissemination of information, and inclusion of more individuals in the decision-making process. The implementation of these and many more changes pose challenges to school principals. The challenges include managing schools with limited resources, teacher and learner indiscipline which make teaching and learning virtually impossible, implementing participatory management and managing diverse expectations (Zimba, Auala & Scott, 1997; Government of the Republic of Namibia, 1999; Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture, 2001).

Twale and Kochan (1999) indicate that there is a strong conviction that, since today's principals face different and more difficult challenges, they need different leadership skills and knowledge than those needed in the past. A good pre-service training in school management is no more sufficient. The challenges necessitate improved, continuous in-service professional development for principals (Ng, 2001; Stroud, 2005). There is a strong belief that most of the professional development of principals takes place on the job (Murphy and Hallinger, 1989; McCay, 2001). As McCay (2001:75) states, "You don't learn to be a principal until you are one". This is so because most principals do not fully understand their job until they are in it. In other words, principals learn more through continuous in-service professional development. Moreover, it is an established belief that professional development of principals should be sensitive to both time and place (Dadey and Olaniyan, 1992). That is to say, the professional development that works effectively in one context may not be effective in another context, or a previously successful programme for professional development for principals may be irrelevant to today's principals.

Pashiardis (1997) and Dadey and Olaniyan (1992) conducted studies on the professional development needs of secondary school principals in Cyprus and Namibia respectively. Pashiardis (1997) found that although the Cypriot secondary school principals lacked competences in all management areas, the greatest needs existed in the following areas:

programme and curriculum renewal and management, special education administration, school improvement, and the use of developmental evaluation techniques. Dadey and Olaniyan (1992) conducted a similar study in Namibia. Unfortunately, no secondary school principal from the Omusati region was included in the sample. The findings reveal that, by and large, Namibian secondary school principals were incompetent in leadership. Moreover, the study found that secondary school principals were incompetent in human resources management, management of change, finance and resources, and external relations management. Management functions that were aimed at ensuring thesmooth running of the school machinery such as planning, implementing, supervising and evaluating were found to be moderately difficult. The study indicated that secondary school principals were finding the following functions easy: managing learners, managing meetings, and routine administration. However, the study found that there were some difficult aspects in the easy tasks as well.

Although the foregoing studies suggest some clusters of generic competences that enhance a secondary school educational leader's chance of success, they were both in agreement that there was no conclusive evidence nor research findings available which show that the possession of certain qualities or competences will guarantee effective principalship. Whatever good competences of principals referred to already should not be seen as sufficient or necessary conditions but desirable qualities for principals for a particular situation. Furthermore, making principals competent is not that easy, and even describing a competent principal is difficult. Referring to this dilemma of making principals competent leaders, Cave and Wilkinson (1997:147) state, "… you know who they are but you don't know why they are", and that competent leadership is "… something that we can know more than we can tell".

Ouston (1997) and Cave and Wilkinson (1997) cite some factors that make the identification of clusters of generic development needs problematic. First, the purpose of effective educational leadership is to be able to create, maintain, review and develop the conditions that enable teachers and learners to achieve effective teaching and learning. The question that is not yet answered here is what effective or competent leadership means. What is clear, though, is that competence is not the same in all schools and to all principals. The second problem is that the competence approach seems to underestimate educational management. Education managers have to be able to do many things at once, using different competences in different combinations, according to context. An educational manager could perform all the competences, but not in everyday environment. Similarly, an educational manager could

perform excellently in one school but completely incompetently in another. This raises the whole question of context. The needs are consequent on the political, economic, social and cultural ambience of a community, which play an important part in influencing the leadership of principals (Dadey and Olaniyan, 1992; Bezzina, 2002). Thus, "… there is no single 'one-size-fits-all' solution …" to all management problems in all schools (Glatter and Kydd, 2003:38). This is so because a manager is a product of his or her functional relations to specific individuals in a specific situation (Musaazi, 1982).

The situation is one of the important variables forming managerial practice. Third, a competence-based approach is extremely individualised. Effective leaders need not be know-it-alls. They have to empower their subordinates to be able to perform certain tasks, and in this way, they can groom leaders through coaching and guiding. They should not do everything themselves. They have to delegate tasks and authority to people with relevant expertise. The management team as a whole, rather than each individual, has to have the required competences. Finally, lists of competences are based on past best practices. In an era of rapid change, the lists of best practices reflect what good managers could do well in the past rather than what they can do well in the present situation or in the future. Moreover, because of rapid change, principals may find themselves concerned with the current force, an attitude of short-termism and coping with immediate practicalities rather than long-term development issues (Cave and Wilkinson, 1997). Thus, for example, the professional development needs of secondary school principals in Namibia identified by the Dadey and Olaniyan study in 1992, immediately after Namibian independence in 1990, may be outdated. The competences identified might have been significantly altered by the fermenting state of education. Therefore, the competence-based development needs of Namibian secondary school principals may have changed over time, for better or worse.

In short, professional development needs are as sensitive to time as they are to place. As the knowledge and skills of principals change with time, the way they manage their schools should also change. The technical aspect of competence is neither the sole nor the most important dimension of principal development (Morgan, 1997; Bennett, 1997; Ng, 2001).

2.12   IN-SERVICE TRAINING OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN KENYA

The Government of Kenya in answer to principals' management needs established the Kenya Education Staff Institute (now KEMI) in 1981 after a recommendation of the Maina Report of 1978. The report noted that educational administrators were originally trained for teaching

and not necessarily for management. The committee reported a series of deficiencies of administrative training among the educational administrators and thus the necessity to establish KESI (KEMI). KESI started operating in 1981 although it was legally established in 1988 under Legal Notice No. 565 (Republic of Kenya, 1988).

KEMI trains educational managers in management skills, especially personnel management; curriculum implementation; employee motivation; financial management; and effective implementation of education policies. These courses are offered mainly during the school holidays for two weeks. It is argued that this duration is too short to satisfy the requirements for complex functions of school headship (Olembo, Wanga & Karagu, 1992; Wachira, 1996).

The study of Muthini (2004) on principals' perception of KEMI programmes in Nairobi province found that principals appreciated the relevance of KEMI programmes. However, felt that the programmes should be regular and that they should be consulted on courses they (the principals) wish to be covered.

There are also other training opportunities offered to principals in Kenya other than those of KEMI by the Kenya Secondary Schools Heads Association (KSSHA). This body, consisting of principals of secondary schools, was formed mainly to discuss educational issues affecting schools. Among them is the in-service programmes that address issues in human resource management and financial management (Kamau, 2010).

2.13   PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF PRINCIPALS IN APPALACHIA

There appears to be little research on principals' professional development, exclusive of any linkage to student achievement. Narrowing the focus to principals of schools in Appalachia reduces the knowledge base even more. Nicholson, Harris-John and Schimmel (2005) reported that research on professional development is a young field and is almost exclusively focused on teachers' professional development. Knowledge of the quality of professional development and its effects on principals'behaviours may be of greater importance in Appalachia or other rural, high-poverty areas. In a study of school principals in Texas, Branch, Hanushek and Rivkin (2009) found that there was a larger variation in the effectiveness of principals in high-poverty schools compared with others and concluded that principal ability was most important in those schools.

Geographically, Appalachia is defined as those areas from southern New York to northern Mississippi that follow the ridges of the Appalachian Mountains (Appalachian Regional

Commission, 2010). In terms of educational attainment, Appalachia is improving but continues to lag behind the nation. In fact, the gap between Appalachia and the nation, in terms of percentage of adults who are college graduates, increased slightly during the 1990s (Haaga, 2004). In 2000, 24.4% of the US population completed college compared with 17.6% of people living in Appalachia (Haaga, 2004). Additionally, Appalachia's poverty rate in 2000 was 109.9% of the national average (Haaga, 2004). These statistics are important when on econsiders leadership development, as principals and the students in their schools are influenced by their context (Louis, Leithwood, Wahlstrom & Anderson, 2010).

Rodriquez-Campos, Rincones-Gomez and Shen (2005:318) used data from the NCES to report on principals' professional development. They reported percentages of principals who had participated in various types of professional development activities. Percentages ranged from 97% for principals who had attended a workshop or conference in the previous 12 months to 38% for principals who had participated in mentoring, peer observation, or coaching. Rodriquez-Campos *et al.* (2005:318) indicated a positive trend in participation in professional development but concluded there was a need for "more innovative professional activities". The data from the database at NCES is disaggregated by community type (although not specifically to Appalachia) but provides no detail regarding the content or duration of professional development activities nor data related to outcomes of professional development.

Nicholson *et al*. (2005) examined professional development for principals in the four-state region of Kentucky, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia. Significant portions of each of these states fall within the region of Appalachia (Sokol, 2005:2), including all of West Virginia. Their study included a substantial literature review, a document review, and semi-structured interviews. The authors examined professional development in relation to the following three constructs: "(a) the extent to which professional development activities focused on specific school improvement goals, (b) the extent to which they are job-embedded, and (c) the extent to which they feature cycles of evaluation and revision".

In the above-mentioned study, literature review began with the identification of multiple limitations in the examination of literature on professional development for principals (Nicholson *et al*., 2005:3). Nicholson *et al.,* (2005:3) stated that the frameworks used to explore educational leadership are unable to account for the complexities of schools, and therefore, researchers are limited in their ability to study causal relationships between

principals' professional development and student learning. They also noted the difficulty in finding research specifically on principals' professional development apart from principal preparation, which was more generally available. Further, the researchers stated there is a "virtual absence of any scientifically based research linking professional development to changes in administrator behaviour, school functioning, or student learning" (Nicholson *et al*., 2003:3).

Because of these limitations, Nicholson *et al*. (2003) examined literature on professional development in general, the principal's influence on student achievement, principal preparation, and principal professional development trends. Nicholson *et al.* concluded that in order to exert a positive influence on student achievement, principals need both adequate preparation and professional development. The authors also noted that a shift in professional development to a more principal-centred, school-focused and job-embedded model is supported by literature.

Nicholson *et al*. (2005) provided a summary of professional development opportunities and practices for principals. The authors conducted interviews with seven individuals deemed most knowledgeable about professional development for principals in their respective states. The interviewees included people from state departments of education, principals' 24 associations, professional development centres, and state/local leadership academies. Nicholson *et al.* (2005) reported findings in five areas: (a) professional development policy, (b) professional development content, (c) professional development delivery, (d) professional development evaluation practices, and (e) professional development funding. Examining professional development practices across these five areas may provide a good model for future studies to follow.

A summary of the findings of Nicholson *et al*. (2005) indicated consensus among the interviewees that professional development for principals was critical for leading schools to meet the demands for increased student achievement. They found that most states had similar requirements for the amount of professional development required of principals: 18 hours per year. Nicholson *et al.* also found that the content of professional development was primarily driven by requirements of the No Child Left Behind Act. Delivery of professional development was generally found to follow the traditional model of expert-led, centralised, short-term workshops. Regarding evaluation of professional development, the authors stated,

"rarely, if ever, is there any follow-up to determine whether the activities have had any discernible effect on practice" (Nicholson *et al*., 2005:30).

Nicholson *et al.* (2005) concluded their report with the statement that professional development for principals in this four-state region (Kentucky, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia) is consistent with national practices. They recommended a more thorough investigation of professional development practices, noting the lack of empirical data on the general effectiveness of professional development generally and, to an even greater extent, professional development for principals. The authors recommended surveys of all principals in the four states, noting the limitation of their study where conclusions were drawn from only seven interviews coupled with document and literature reviews.

There are numerous qualitative studies that have examined specific professional development events for principals (Browne-Ferrigno and Maynard, 2005; Daresh, 2001; Eller, 2008; Houle, 2006; Howley, Chadwick & Howley, 2002). Browne-Ferrigno and Maynard, Eller, and Howley *et al.* focused on principals and professional development events within the Appalachian region. Browne-Ferrigno and Maynard (2005) conducted an exploratory case study of a school leadership programme for principals, assistant principals, and teachers who both held credentials for and desired to become school administrators. The Principals Excellence Programme (PEP) was a 25 joint effort of a rural school district in eastern Kentucky and the University of Kentucky. The programmewas fundedby means of a U.S. Department of Education grant through the NCLB School Leadership Development Programme in 2002. The primary goal of the programme was to increase the leadership capacity of the school district in order to increase student learning. Two cohorts of 15 participants each completed the one-year programme over the course of the two years reported on by Browne-Ferrigno and Maynard.

Background information was reported by Browne-Ferrigno and Maynard (2005:7) regarding economic and cultural conditions within the community served by the school district and principal perceptions at the inception of the programme. Depressed economic conditions and the lack of post-secondary education by most residents were viewed as factors contributing to poor academic achievement among current students. Additionally, principals within the district acknowledged their lack of skill in leadership to improve student learning. The school district's stated goal for the programme was to "transform administrative practice from

school management to leadership for learning [through the enhancement of] knowledge and skills of current and prospective principals".

Browne-Ferrigno and Maynard (2005:7) provided a description of the various professional development activities that the participants engaged induring the programme including workshops, job-embedded action-research projects, mentoring, professional reading, and reflections. Activities were completed through a mix of individual work and group work with other participants and mentor principals. Participants were released from their usual job responsibilities one day each week to complete activities. Formal programme activities alternated on a weekly basis between whole-cohort workshop-style activities and field-based work with mentor principals. Activities were driven by a curriculum based on four themes within the ISLLC Standards: "vision for success, focus on teaching and learning, involvement of all stakeholders, and demonstration of ethical behaviour". Data was collected at various times throughout the programme's implementation from programme participants, mentor principals, division-level administrators, and PEP instructors through the use of surveys, interviews, and observations.

The evidence accumulated focused primarily on the perceptions of people surveyed. Specific data collection instruments are not presented or described in detail, but some specific questions posed to participants are included in the findings section. Data analysis consisted primarily of interpretation of participant perceptions based on their responses to prompts or participants' reflections on professional development activities. Findings were reported in three sections: "(a) preparing school leaders to promote learning success for all students, (b) engaging participants in authentic practice with mentor principals and (c) addressing high-stakes accountability issues" (Browne-Ferrigno and Maynard, 2005:5-11).

Throughout the findings section, Browne-Ferrigno and Maynard (2005) relied on participant and programme observer comments to make points in support of the achievement of programme goals. In the first section, they reported comments on the participants' broadened perspectives, increased awareness of social justice issues, increased awareness of the need for division-wide collaboration, and greater skill development as a result of participation in PEP. The authors concluded,"participants and observers alike perceive that the leadership development activities are changing administrative practice in the district". The authors do not describe how the perceptions of changed practice are documented, leaving one to assume that programme participants self-reported this data.

In the second section, Browne-Ferrigno and Maynard (2005:11) reported on engaging participants in authentic practice with mentor principals, and they focused on the participants' field experiences. Each participant completed a collaborative action research project in their mentor principal's school. The purpose of the field experiences was to "stimulate the theory-to-practice linkage". Participants commented that these activities provided valuable opportunities to engage in real-life, educational problem-solving and develop collegial relationships. The authors concluded that the action research project provided a focus for the mentor-mentee working relationship and gave all an opportunity to work as teams, problem-solve, and use professional literature as part of the problem-solving process.

In the third findings section, Browne-Ferrigno and Maynard (2005) detailed evidence that the PEP programme prepared leaders to address high-stakes accountability issues. Participants' comments identified the study of social justice issues, focus on instructional leadership, observation of teaching in multiple settings, and the use of positive attitudes to influence teachers as critical ways the PEP programme helped prepare participants to address accountability issues.

When they evaluated the PEP programme as a professional development model, Browne-Ferrigno and Maynard (2005) identified the theory-to-practice linkage as the key component. The linkage was supported by a combination of field-based and workshop-based experiences with both aspiring and practising principals. According to Browne-Ferrigno and Maynard, using a combination of experiences resulted in action-orientated, collaborative professional development in authentic settings.

The stated goal of the PEP was to increase leadership skill in order to increase student learning (Browne-Ferrigno and Maynard, 2005:16). Results reported by the researchers contained descriptions of the positive perceptions participants and observers held of the programme. The authors concluded, "the principals and teachers are demonstrating greater confidence, competence, and comfort in their roles as instructional leaders, and student academic performance is improving". Browne-Ferrigno and Maynard cautioned that they could not yet conclude that student performance gains are connected to the PEP.

Eller (2008) completed a qualitative programme evaluation of an academy for newly appointed administrators primarily from Southwest Virginia. Participants in the Recently Appointed Administrators' Programme, sponsored by the Western Virginia Public Education Consortium in collaboration with Virginia Tech, attended four multi-day sessions in which

they received instruction on current leadership topics, interacted with other participants, and discussed reading material. Participants also had a mentor principal with whom they worked outside the four sessions. Eller's evaluation was based on data from "a questionnaire, focus group sessions, programme session agendas, training materials, participant session feedback forms, and participant writing samples". Data analysis began with the sorting of data into three categories: (a) knowledge, (b) skills, and (c) applications. The data was further classified as meeting needs related to (a) socialisation, (b) role clarification, or (c) technical skill. Analysis also focused on the relationship between planned, delivered, and applied curricula. Eller (2009) stated that examination enabled the researchers to study what participants reported they were able to actually use from their experiences back at their school sites.

Based on the evidence collected, Eller (2008) offered multiple recommendations for future programmes to support new principals. Recommendations included (a) introducing content that will assist participants in the development of interpersonal skills and understanding the need for balance in their professional and personal lives, (b) scheduling time for informal networking among participants, and (c) designing participant feedback forms to collect data to determine how academy learning impacts participants'behaviour in their job. Eller stated that it is crucial to ask participants information related to their ability to use and apply programme content".

Howley *et al*. (2002:2) conducted a study to determine what approaches to professional development principals participating in an academy for earlycareer principals in rural Appalachian Ohio perceived as most valuable. The authors were motivated to explore this topic as a result of their review of literature on professional development for rural principals. They found "little research has been conducted to explore the nature, quality, and outcomes of professional development offered to school administrators, especially those who work in rural schools".

Furthermore, Howley *et al*. (2002:2) argued that the needs of rural, earlycareer principals were unique, as these principals tended to be less educated, more isolated, and expected to fulfil more roles than urban or suburban principals. The academy was designed to assist new principals in completing a state-required portfolio with content based on the ISLLC Standards. The academy was a collaborative effort between a university and a consortium of schools. Nineteen principals were organised into four groups at different sites led by a mentor

principal. Each group selected issues of interest and approaches to examine those issues in addition to working on their portfolios. Each group met a minimum of eight days over the two years of the academy. In their findings, Howley *et al.* (2002) described how principals valued professional development related to their daily responsibilities and viewed the mentor-led study groups as an effective approach.

In each of the studies referenced above (that is, Browne-Ferrigno and Maynard, 2005; Eller, 2008; Howley *et al.*, 2002), the authors provided descriptions and evaluation of professional development for principals. They relied primarily on participant feedback, surveys, and artifact examination to assess the effectiveness and/or strengths and weaknesses of the approaches to professional development of principals. Other studies (Daresh, 2001; Houle, 2006) used similar methods and with similar results. None of these studies have evaluated professional development approaches or the achievement of professional development goals through the examination of principal behaviours.

2.14   PRINCIPAL LEADERSHIP PREPARATION AND DEVELOPMENT IN HONG KONG

In the Hong Kong educational context, there are 12 years of compulsory education: six in primary school and another six in secondary school. Since 2009, there have been some changes to the senior secondary curriculum. The new 334 model is now more in line with those found in China and even in USA. Secondary education is separated into sections of junior and senior years. In junior years, the curriculum is a broad one where history, geography and science are studied alongside subjects that have already been studied at primary school. In senior years, this becomes more selective and students have a choice over what and how much is to be studied. In recent years, there have been quite a number of new major initiatives in the secondary school sector. These include, for example, the new senior secondary curriculum, the fine-tuning of medium of instruction, temporary decline in Secondary one student proportion, parent involvement, professional development for teachers and principals, and legal matters regarding school education. These initiatives, together with other concerns of individual schools, pose challenges to beginning principals.

Before the year 2000 in Hong Kong, beginning principals were required to attend a basic course with regard to administrative matters only at the time they were appointed (Walker and Dimmock, 2006). Training programmes for aspirants, beginning and serving principals were organised on anad hoc basis by school organisations or the Education Department (ED)

at that time (Walker, 2004). In 1999, the ED set up a task group to explore the possibility of providing training and development for school leaders. Although the task group proposed a framework for principal leadership preparation and development, some interest groups demonstrated reservations about the recommendations (Ng, 2013; Pang, 2007). In 2002, a second consultation document regarding the policy of delivering the training programmes for principals was released. Stipulated in the consultation paper on 'Continuous Professional Development for School Excellence' (Education Department, 2002), a more coherent framework for principal development was depicted. Under the newly Educational Management Administration & Leadership announced policy, there were different types of requirements for aspiring principals (APs), newly appointed principals (NAPs) and serving principals. Aspirants were required to obtain a Certificate for Principalship (CFP) within a period of two years before assuming the role of principal with effect from 2004. The CFP comprises three components: (a) a needs analysis aiming at helping APs reflect on their own weaknesses and strengths; (b) a designated preparation for principalship course composed of not less than 72 contact hours and containing six core areas of school leadership; and (c) submission of a portfolio of a formative account covering the aspirant's ongoing reflections and a personal statement on his or her educational values (Education Department, 2002).

In the light of the introduction of the CFP requirement in 2004, all NAPs should have undergone designated preparation prior to their appointment to principalship. In addition, a two-year designated programme has been introduced for NAPs since 2002 to provide them with timely support in adapting to their new role. Apart from the induction programme in the first year, the structured support programme has been introduced since 2004 to provide NAPs with leadership development opportunities andsupport from experienced principals in order to meet the challenges including major new initiatives pertaining to the secondary level of education.

2.15 PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN NIGERIA

The study conducted by Akpa (1990) in Nigeria discovered that academic and instructional activities including curriculum development, teaching and instructional supervision were treated with less vigour. This finding was further corroborated by Mulkeen, Chapman, DeJaeghere and Leu (2007), who found that principals in most African countries do not have regard for instructional supervision and thus viewed it as not part of their duties. Though

Togneri (2003) has discovered that principals focus more on administrative parts of their role, there is still strong evidence to show that they play a critical part in ensuring instructional quality. As a matter of fact, ensuring that quality instruction goes on in the school should be a major part of the administrative functions of the school principal. However, it has been discovered that while some countries have been making efforts to practically train principals of secondary schools, Nigeria seems to have not done so.

Despite calls by various bodies and scholars for professional training of school heads (Obemeata, 1984; Ajayi, 1987; Arikewuyo, 1997), the country has continually been using teaching experience as the major yardstick for appointing principals. Over the years, heads of secondary schools in Nigeria have been accused of various lapses and offences. They are said to be inefficient and accused of failing to provide direction and adequate leadership for their schools. The falling standard of education in the schools has also been attributed to the inefficiency of the principals (Obemeata, 1984). All these inefficiencies, lapses and ineptitude on the part of secondary school principals in Nigeria are often attributed to their lack of professional training, as they do not possess the necessary managerial qualifications and skills needed to administer the schools. Thus, promotion and seniority have failed to provide the prerequisite necessary for eligibility into managerial positions.

Experience in many African countries shows that the mechanisms for recruiting teachers to become principals is unsystematic and have not been based on professional criteria (Mulkeen *et al.*, 2007). It therefore called for the establishment of a national or regional institution that specialises in advanced degrees or certification in educational leadership to address the problem.

From all indications, the professional training of school administrators, particularly principals of secondary schools, has not been given any serious attention in Nigeria's educational policies. This is because of the general belief that experienced teachers can be promoted to the rank of principals of secondary schools. As a matter of fact, teachers who have spent a minimum of 10 years of teaching experience are usually promoted as principals and vice-principals. The Federal Republic of Nigeria (2004:39-40) maintains that all teachers in educational institutions shall be professionally trained. Teacher education programmes shall be structured to equip teachers for the effective performance of their duties. Invariably, the government is paying attention only to the training of teachers. No mention has been made of the training of heads of schools. The popular assumption is that those who would be

54

principals and school heads should rise to the position from among the products of teacher education.

The above situation about Nigeria further confirms the observations that despite the enormous expectations of school principals, many are poorly prepared for the task. Dadey and Harber (1991) and De Grauwe (2001) quoted a 1990 study of 31 African countries which concluded that only three of the countries had comprehensive training programmes in educational planning, administration and management. Even where training programmes are provided, they are sometimes criticised for being unsystematic and inadequate in content and coverage, lacking follow-up and failing to address the real needs of supervision. Though Adams (1998) discovered that most of the training focused on how to budget, analyse data or design an evaluation, Mulkeen *et al.,* (2007) argued that the more profound problem in the preparation of principals is that even if they have strategic planning skills, they often lack a firm understanding of the education system. They do not know what inputs and processes can reasonably be expected to contribute to increased student learning. Lacking this, principals are left to react to daily events and ongoing political pressures. Consequently, in many African countries the mechanism for recruiting teachers to become principals is unsystematic and not necessarily based on professional criteria.

With the continuous increase of enrolment in secondary education in Nigeria, especially with the division of schools into junior and senior secondary, which has impacted on increased enrolment, it is pertinent that those who would head the schools must be formally trained. The problem of administering the schools is now becoming more complex than it used to be. Students and parents are now becoming more aware of their rights and obligations within the educational system. The entire society's structure has changed tremendously, and this has also entered the system of the educational setting. To that extent, it is a wrong assumption to think that any educated person can head the school. Consequently, the days of amateur principals are gone. For a variety of reasons, secondary schools are increasing in size, and their organisation is getting more complex. It is therefore necessary to have principals who have some management skills. Furthermore, according to Bernbaum (1976), the managerial function of the secondary school principal is becoming more important. Management by objective and a conscious style of management are essential in any school.

As a matter of fact, the changed conditions in secondary schools require principals to be trained and equipped with necessary skills in school administration, so as to be able to make

scientific and detailed decisions. It is in this regard that Hughes warned, it is no longer possible to believe that practical experience alone constitutes valid management training. Too many costly mistakes can occur while experience is being acquired, and in any case, the quality of experience can vary widely. Similarly, the American Association of School Administrators (Hoyle, Fenwick & Betty, 1985) contended that school administrators need to develop skills in the following areas: designing, implementing and evaluating school climate; building support for schools; developing school curriculum; instructional management; staff evaluation; staff development; allocating resources; as well as educational research, evaluation and planning. Also, the Association states that administrators must possess a thorough understanding of the learning process, as well as the ability to communicate and cooperate with people of diverse cultures, positions and perspectives within the school and the community. According to Ajayi (1987), some of the ineptitude, inactivity and failure of Nigeria's school system to meet the needs and aspirations of the populace could be traced to poor leadership. Indeed, a good teacher does not necessarily make a good school head.

The Federal Military Government of Nigeria, in 1992, established the National Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA) in Ondo, Ondo state. The aim is to give professional training to all those who are involved and want to make a career in educational planning and administration. Invariably, the Institute is expected to train headteachers of primary schools, principals of secondary schools, heads of tertiary institutions, inspectors, local education officers, for example. However, a look at the 2008 programme of the Institute shows that it only organises two and three days workshops and seminars for principals and other educational leaders. This is just not sufficient. There is a need for NIEPA to develop training modules and organise resident long-term training programmes and courses for aspiring secondary school principals. This is the practice in Hong Kong, Singapore and the United Kingdom. In fact, possession of certificates issued at the end of such training programmes should be one of the yardsticks for appointing principals of secondary schools in Nigeria. Mulkeen *et al.,* (2007) discovered that this situation is not limited to Nigeria alone.

In a study of some other African countries, it was discovered that many secondary school administrators are ill-prepared to meet the demands posed by the changing nature of their jobs. They further argued that organised and systematic training in educational leadership and effective and transparent management that goes beyond the occasional workshop presently offered in most systems is urgently needed for principals in Africa. NIEPA, as presently constituted, is only organising workshops and seminars for heads of schools (NIEPA, 2008).

However, the Institute needs to go beyond this and develop into what Mulkeen *et al.,* (2007) called an institution that specialises in advanced degrees or certification for educational leadership. However, this could only be possible if the government gives the necessary legal impetus to the training of school heads. In the next section, a report on the selection criteria for school principal in Greece and Cyprus will be given.

2.16   SELECTION OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN GREECE AND CYPRUS

In both Greece and Cyprus, the selection of school principals has frequently been based on criteria that did not correspond to the skills and abilities that new principals needed for the effective administration of schools. Instead, principal selection was a "game" that had powerful political dynamics (Athanasoula-Reppa, 2001, 2005). In this game, the interview with a candidate was emphasised and overshadowed other considerations. Both countries are now in a period of major restructuring of processes for the selection of school principals. In the following sections, the most current criteria and procedures used in both countries for the selection of school principals are outlined.

2.16.1 Greece

In Greece, applications for the principalship can be submitted by anyone who has had at least eight years in educational service and at least five years of teaching experience.

The criteria for selection are of three types:

1. Training and work experience, which covers the academic and pedagogical training of the candidate, teaching experience, and experience in administrative work.
2. Work evaluations – performance evaluation reports.
3. Appraisals by the selection council, which are based on data in candidates' files, acurriculum vitae and the documentation the candidate provides. The documentation provides descriptions of the candidate's work, participation in producing instructional materials, and service to the community.

Candidates who do not attend the oral interview are excluded automatically from the election. One can conclude that "professional conduct" and "teaching experience" are given more emphasis (22 units) and the academic/pedagogical expertise elements carry less weight (14 units). In addition, a candidate's personality and general conduct are valued more than his or her academic and pedagogic expertise (20 units).

Furthermore, the fact that experience in assistant principalship is not a prerequisite for promotion to principalship reveals how insignificant a candidate's administrative experience is.

In sum, in the Greek educational system, one does not necessarily need the technical and professional capabilities that are generally required for the exercise of administrative, managerial, and leadership roles (Athanasoula-Reppa, 2005). In addition, candidates for the principalship do not, at any stage in their training, participate in systematic programmes or practical exercises related to the administration of schools.

What then can be done in the Greek educational system to ensure that there are more effective school principals? Research and experience in other parts of the world have produced five points:

a) Academic preparation of principals through basic training and postgraduate work;
b) Professional development programmes;
c) Apprenticeships;
d) Mentorships;
e) Participation in special programmes offered collaboratively by faculties of public administration and academic departments.

In other words, there needs to be preparation before, during, and after the selection of principals.

2.16.2 Cyprus

Applications for school principals can be submitted only by teachers who have served as *assistant principals* for at least two years and as the more senior *Assistant Principals B* for at least one year. With that said, all aspiring principals need to have a minimum apprenticeship and preparation for the role. A teacher who wants to become *Assistant Principal A* first has to be evaluated by the Committee of Evaluation (inspectors). Teachers are evaluated after completion of their 12th year, and every second year thereafter, on a scale of 0-40. These evaluations cover the following four factors:

a) Professional training;
b) Effectiveness on the job;
c) Organisation, administration, and human relations; and

d) General behaviour and actions.

Promotion to *Assistant Principal* is based on the points the candidate has earned– amean of grades earned in the last two evaluations multiplied by four:

a) Mean of grades of the last decade of evaluations; and
b) Years of service (one point for every year).

Other qualifications earn points as follows:

a) A second degree gets two units;
b) Postgraduate study gets three units; and
c) A doctorate gets five units.

Also, a candidate for *Assistant Principal B* must be interviewed by the Committee of Educational Service (one chairperson and four members).The Committee can give a maximum of five points. These points are based on such measurable criteria as:

a) Knowledge of pedagogical and methodological subjects (1point);
b) Comprehension of the role and responsibilities of the principal (1 point);
c) Critical analysis of administrative and organisational problems in relation to the duties and responsibilities of the role (1 point);
d) Effectiveness in communication and sufficiency of documentation (1 point);
e) Personality – comfortable presence, adaptability, and flexibility (0.5 point);
f) Language proficiency – vocabulary, syntax, and expression (0.5 point).

Those who get the highest scores are promoted to the level of *Assistant Principal B*. Usually, *Assistant Principals* are teachers who already have been evaluated three and four times. Evaluations for the position of *Assistant Principal A* also consider evaluations done at the level of *Assistant Principal B.* To become a *Principal,* evaluations at both levels A and B are taken into consideration. Newly appointed principals are required to attend the Programme of Training for Principals that is provided by the Pedagogical Institute (15 meetings). Assistant Principals attend a similar programme as well (26 meetings). In addition to the *Assistant Principal A* and *B* apprenticeships, Cypriot principals attend a special seminar before assuming their new position, which means that socialisation and integration into the new role happen easily.

There are two critiques on the appointment of principalsin Cyprus. The main disadvantage is the importance given to years of service. Because of this, capable members of the educational community are excluded when colleagues with more years of experience take up the openings. The evaluations of inspectors are considered biased.

2.17   PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN SOUTH AFRICA

Mathibe (2005) notes that in South Africa, unlike in the UK and USA, any educator can be appointed to the office of principalship irrespective of the fact that he or she had a school management or leadership qualification. Such openness to appointment to the highest office in a school does not only defeat Frederick Taylor's view of "getting the right man" for the job (Van der Westhuizen, 1999), but it also places school administration, management, leadership and governance in the hands of 'technically qualified' personnel. It is in this way that ad hoc attempts have been made to provide skills and professional development programmes for principals in South African schools (Education and Training for Development Programmes-Sector Education and Training Authority (ETDP-SETA), 2002). For example, an advisory body consisting of former principals, union representatives and members of the education department was established to give direction to the Delta Foundation's programme for delivery capacity in school management and leadership. Key features of the programme were:

- ensuring that training programmes conform to the ETDP SETA-SAQA standards;
- ensuring that all training has a long-term strategic objective;
- ensuring that all principals' training should be a mixture of face-to-face contact and group work;
- rigorous impact evaluation and cost-benefit analysis; and
- the Department of Education to support the initiative as a full partner by providing financial assistance to the programme (Delta Foundation, 2001).

In addition to efforts by non-governmental organisations to build management and leadership capacity in schools, the ETDP-SETA (2002:35) notes that in South Africa, some of the management development programmes are provided by universities and technikons (universities of technology), as well as workshop-based training offered by the Department of

Education on education management development (EMD). Mahanjana (1999:9-10) notes the following salient points regarding strategic outcomes of EMD:

- strengthening the capacity of district and regional officials to enable them to provide ongoing on-site professional support to principals;
- developing principals as leaders and managers of collaborative management teams;
- supporting the strategic role of principals and school governing bodies in addressing challenges at school level;
- advocating the EDM visions, principles and practices to education stakeholders; and
- developing a holistic resource and distribution plan which acknowledges EDM as a function of people and organisational development.

In a study of 12 management development programmes conducted by the Joint Education Trust (JET) on training offered by non-governmental organisations(NGOs), it was found that all 12 programmes offered by NGOs provided some form of training to principals (ETDP-SETA, 2002; Heystek, 2003:10). The content of some of the training programmes included:

- personnel management: developing a personal vision and mission, leadership skills, stress management, and change management;

- organisational development: vision crafting for school, drawing up mission and development plan, inspiring and motivating staff, and conducting a Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats (SWOT)analysis and strategic planning;

- skills development: delegation, problem-solving, conflict management and resolution, aligning constituencies, team building, human resource management, employee appointment, induction, financial management, and staff appraisal;

- administrative management: computer literacy, timetabling, activity planning, improved recording keeping, effective resource management, and the planning of duty rosters;

- management of curriculum delivery: managing the classroom and quality assurance procedures (ETDP-SETA, 2002).

From the preceding discussion of professional development programmes, it is evident that professional development programmes for principals in South Africa are:

- fragmented: there are too many agencies (both state and private) engaged in professional development, and consequently, the different agencies emphasise different points of interest; and

- not coordinated and sometimes are irrelevant: university qualifications on school management and leadership differ in depth, quality and emphasis, since there is no directive from the National Education Ministry on what service providers (universities) should offer in relation to what schools need.

2.18 PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND SOUTH AFRICAN SCHOOLS

Researchers in South Africa are beginning to realise that professional development is an ingredient essential to creating effective schools and raising learners' performance (Steyn, 2005). Steyn mentions the concept culture of learning and teaching (COLT) that is widely used in South Africa to refer to the attitude of educators and learners to learning and teaching as well as their commitment to the school. When this breaks down, it manifests itself in the disruption of classes, the malfunctioning of management, the collapse of authority, and the disruption of disciplined learning and teaching (Steyn, 2005). When COLT crumbles in schools, more often than not, it is the inadequacy of the school managers and leaders that is usually questioned. Many principals who have never been inducted and professionally developed can be daunted with the task of building a school whose COLT has deteriorated.

Furthermore, Steyn (2005) underscores the need to build invitational education, a strategy that has been applied in various countries over the years. This refers to a theory of practice where schools work for success among learners and teachers. Teachers who want to make their schools invitational need to have a map of how to get there; this is unlikely to be achieved through a fluke. Empowered leaders need to set an agenda of how they want to achieve such schools. The discussion in Steyn's paper has highlighted the ingredients of effective professional development. Literature discussed has also shown the importance of understanding aspects such as context, self, other people, and the processes before one can be professionally developed.

Traditionally, professional development has been conducted outside schools where participants had to leave their jobs and attend workshops elsewhere (Valli and Hawley, 1998). However, it is now suggested that professional development of school principals should ideally and primarily be school-based and be part of schools operations (Valli and

Hawley, 1998). This implies that newly appointed principals be mentored at their schools by experienced people on a one-to-one basis. The learning should connect theory to practice and be contextually relevant. Valli and Hawley (1998) refer to this situation as "job-embedded learning", which is considered one of the best practices of professional development. According to Wayne *et al.,* (2008), school-based professional development requires an experienced mentor to work with acolleague. School-based professional development through mentoring is beneficial in that participants can form support teams and networks while exposed to learning opportunities and the acquisition of practical knowledge and skills that directly address their immediate problems.

2.19   PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND THE CHANGE STRATEGY

Current research conducted is showing why teachers need to be change agents and agents of change. Empowered managers would be receptive to any change initiatives. There are so many aspects about change that require teacher preparation, for change is about new paradigms, and when teachers have not been prepared for change initiative, change can be frustrating. Leaders who have been constantly developed professionally will be victors in a time of change. A DoE (2007) ACE-SML study guide stipulates:

> Some will embrace change and some will resist it: hidden norms and mores may come to the fore, with the potential to unsettle or even derail the process. A prepared leader will spend time gathering information, observing and predicting. This makes the difference between 'winners' and 'losers' in change … a simple model for placing people in terms of support for, and resistance to, change and the likely impact that may have on the planned change intervention is offered.

Professionally developed leaders will be ideal in equipping their own teachers in a time of change. Leaders also live in a time where the most conscientious of them would want to create more leaders. Crowther *et al.* (2002) posit that principals need to play a pivotal role for successful school reform to occur. These authors also found that successful school transformation encompassed five functions:

a) Visioning: This links to developmental work in schools with an inspiring image of apreferred future.

b) Identity generation: This promotes the creation of cultural meaning. Here it is important to look into the values of the school and the broader community.

c) Alignment of organisational elements:This refers to the holistic implementation of school-based reforms.

d) Distribution of power and leadership:This encourages teachers and community members to view themselves as important role players in shaping the school'sdirection.

e) External alliances and networking:This last one allows schools to work closely with other schools and with the community.

All these cannot happen when the school leaders and managers are not well prepared for changes. Craig *et al.* (1998) point out that teachers need to be actively involved in the change process. They also contend that teacher development is about ongoing professional growth and support.

When teachers are actively involved and empowered in the reform of their own schools, curriculum, pedagogy, and classrooms, even those with minimal levels of formal education and training are capable of dramatically changing their teaching behaviour, the classroom environment, and improving the achievement of their students. Conversely, when teachers are ignored, or when reforms come from above are not connected to the daily realities of the classroom and local environment (Craig *et al*., 1998).

Teachers who are active participants in their roles as agents of change grow professionally. This has positive implications for the schools. Malgas (2003) highlights ongoing staff development and in-service training as being among the characteristics of effective schools. These factors underscore the importance and relevance of the professional development of school principals and educators. A number of authors state the importance of being a strategic leader in an organisation, and the best way for them to thrive in the face of this new reality is to become continual learning engines (Hughes and Beatty, 2005). Davies and Davies (2010) also posit that strategic leaders envisage what a desirable future for the school will be and are "often change champions' building coalitions of staff to create conditions for change and embedding new ways of working".This then implies that for all principals, new and old organisational strategies have to be held on an ongoing state of formulation and reassessment. Fink (2010) supports this when he emphasises the need to develop and sustain leaders of learning. This author states that the most fundamental question that all educators should ask is, what is our purpose? There is this need to sustain learning to lead in all organisations, and Fink refers to this as deep, broad learning. Effective leaders will be lifelong learners who

64

enhance their human capital throughout their lives; they need to redefine leadership and refocus leadership on learning.

Fink (2010) identified seven sets of learning that provide a useful organiser for redefining leadership:

a) Contextual knowledge: Effective and successful leaders make connections by developing firm knowledge and understanding of their contexts well. Fink emphasises that schools can be understood in their context. In South Africa, for example, schools in rural areas operate differently from urban schools. Former white schools are different from historically black schools. It is crucial to understand these contexts as a leader.

b) Political acumen: In schools, there are people with varying interests and different degrees of power; this usually leads to conflict. Effective leaders utilise political methods such as negotiation to move schools towards agreed-upon goals. In many South African schools, there might be many political differences among staff members, and it usually matters which teacher union teachers belong. Effective leaders need to respect the unions' existence while upholding the vision and mission of the school.

c) Emotional understanding: Fink points out that leaders of learning read emotional responses of their followers. "Leaders with emotional understanding do, however, lead their colleagues into uncharted territory on the change journey, through the 'impassioned and critical engagement or critique' of ideas, purposes, and practices" (Fink, 2010).

d) Understanding learning: Leaders need to have an understanding of the learning process to promote learning and support others' learning.

e) Critical thinking: Leaders need to make quality judgments; they need to make informed choices for the benefit of their schools. The reason that many schools fail is because the people at the helm are not critical thinkers. "Innovation and creativity, which are the lifeblood of leadership for learning, require the ability to ask better questions not recycle old answers" (Fink, 2010).

f) Making connections: Leaders of learning need to connect with all stakeholders. Stakeholders within and outside the school need to see what is happening within the school. This helps in understanding the school as a holistic organisation. The parents, the community, the district office and business should view the school and see the interconnections and interrelationships happening in a school.

g) Futures thinking: Davies (2006, cited in Fink, 2010) avers that leaders of learning need to be able to connect the past, the present and the future. In order to be able to communicate a shared vision and a sense of purpose, leaders have to understand the forces that influence the life and culture of a school. It helps to anticipate the future because, among others, colleagues will not be shaken by educational changes and transformation.

What Fink (2010) stresses above is that all school leaders should be leaders of learning. The above sets of learning also show how important it is to look at various facets of the organisation when developing leaders. It would also help to see professional development as a process that might glean from eclectic approaches than a single one. One approach might be better in exposing the strengths of some leaders than other approaches. Effective organisations have able strategic leaders at the helm. Strategic leaders are able to utilise a vision and ensure that there is commitment among an organisation's members towards the organisation. The constant changes in education require leaders who are strategic in their approach so as to be able to deal with constant changes.

There are a number of ways in which a strategic leader can plan the running of his or her school. One of these, which will be shortly discussed, is to develop teacher leaders within their schools. Developing other teachers within the school should be the focus of professional development; the focus of strategic leadership is to ensure that the organisation is sustained. "The focus of strategic leadership is sustainable competitive advantage, or the enduring success of the organisation. Indeed, this is the work of strategic leadership: to drive and move an organisation so that it will thrive in the long term" (Hughes and Beatty, 2005). Among the reasons why today's leaders need to be strategic was highlighted above – to be able to deal with change. Professionally developed leaders will be effective, and effective leaders will be effective change managers. Herold and Fedor (2008) point out that leading implies change, and change implies leadership. Again, professional development is very crucial in this regard.

66

It is clear from much leadership literature that leaders need expertise and can only steer their organisations to success if they are aware of their role. Herold and Fedor (2008) underscore the need to emphasise the role of being a change leader. They averred that managing and leading are both embodied in the change leader. Change leadership is not only about setting new directions. Although it does often require the articulation of a future vision, it is also about properly setting the stage, making convincing arguments, developing a reasonable plan, being realistic about resources, assessing capabilities, and attending to execution details.

For leaders to be able to motivate change, they have to work well with other stakeholders. For leaders to have effective organisations, they must articulate the vision mentioned above well to the colleagues, hence the idea of developing other teachers as leaders. One cannot be a true leader when they cannot develop others in their organisation. The latter requires people who have been well prepared for this role, and effective leaders will use their credibility to lead others. Leaders are able to persuade their followers through the strength of interpersonal credibility that they enjoy (Herold and Fedor, 2008).

2.20   LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT OF PRINCIPALS IN SOUTH AFRICA

A review of the South African literature reveals that a focus on the professional development of educational leaders and managers has been slow to emerge in South Africa compared to developed countries across the world. It was only in 2003 that the National Department of Education released a draft policy framework proposing the professionalisation of education managers and leaders by introducing a national principalship qualification for aspiring principals (DoE, 2004:3).

This entry level qualification for principalship, called the Advanced Certificate: Education (ACE) (School Management and Leadership) (DoE, 2008:2), was introduced in 2007 and was intended to provide aspirant principals with a professional qualification focusing on skills development, applied competence and on-site assessment. Its purpose was "to provide structured learning opportunities that promote the development of education leaders who can apply critical understanding, values, knowledge and skills to school leadership and management within the vision of democratic transformation and contribute to improving the delivery of quality learning and teaching in schools, having impact across the whole school culture and operations"(DoE, 2006:2-4).

The South African ACE is believed to be the 'first' national training programme in South Africa (Bush *et al*., 2008:7). The programme is a two-year part-time course at NQF Level 6 and comprises 120 credits.

This ACE is currently in the second phase of field testing and being delivered by 16 HEIs across South Africa. A total of 1667 candidates are currently enrolled in either their first or second year of the programme. A two-year longitudinal study of the ACE is currently being conducted for the DoE by a team of researchers led by Professor Tony Bush of the University of Warwick and funded by the Zenex Foundation (Bush *et al*., 2008). The second interim report documents the research and findings, providing a comprehensive evaluation of the field test in order to inform the development of the course and to provide advice to the Minister of Education about the suitability and sustainability of the qualification (Bush *et al*., 2008:4). In particular, the research seeks to establish whether the programme is enhancing leadership learning, has led to improved management and leadership practice in school, and has enhanced learner outcomes (Bush *et al*., 2008:4).

The researchers were confident that the ACE design is highly appropriate for development of school leaders (Bush *et al.*, 2008:150). Both the curriculum and design are aligned with international practice, focusing on traditional classroom-based'content' and leadership development process dimensions, such as mentoring, networking and site-based assessment (Bush *et al*., 2008:15). The discussion that follows shed light on some of the key findings of the Zenex research regarding the ACE programme and its learning methods.

- **Curriculum content**

The core modules of the ACE curriculum are listed in Table 2.2 and compared to the international curriculum for school leadership preparation, proposed by Bush and Jackson (2002:420) from their study of international leadership centres around the world.

Table 2.2: Core modules of the ACE curriculum

International curriculum	National ACE core modules
Leadership: including vision, mission and transformational leadership	Understand school leadership and management in the South African context
Learning and teaching	Manage teaching and learning
Human resource management and professional development	Lead and manage people
Financial management	Manage organisational systems

The SA ACE curriculum is therefore similar to the curricula offered by other leadership programmes around the world, but it is specifically contextualised for the South African environment. Both the curriculum outlines and material provided by the DoE are infused with the theme of how to manage schools in order to support the transformation of South African schools within the border of national democratic agenda and provide specific examples of how the needs are to be applied to SA context. Specific focus is given to this in module one listed in Table 2.2. It provides principals with an understanding of the legislative and policy framework and broader social demands such as aids, poverty and gender, so that they can make the necessary decisions for their school environment. Examples and exercises in their materials include examples applicable to SA schools across the range of urban, township, privileged elite and rural contexts.

The programme has four elective modules listed in Table 2.3, and students are required to successfully pass one or more electives. The programme, however, does allow for additional modules to be registered by individual HEIs to address specific contextual realities, such as 'Managing HIV and AIDS in schools' (DoE, 2008:7).

The principal's ability to communicate effectively with their community, teachers and learners through a variety of methods, such as chairing meetings, making presentations, in written correspondence or in expressing their view, is developed and evaluated during one of the two fundamental modules. The other one focuses on the benefits of information and communications technology (ICT) and how information technology (IT) can be used to manage the school (DoE, 2008). Table 2.3 shows the elective modules.

Table 2.3: Different modules for principals

Elective modules
Lead and manage a subject, learning area or phase
Mentor school managers and manage mentoring programmes in schools
Plan and conduct assessment
Moderate assessment
Fundamental modules
Develop a portfolio to demonstrate school management and leadership competence
Additional modules
Leading and managing effective use of ICTs in South African schools

In examining the content of the ACE programme, Bush *et al.* (2008:8) used written materials represented by the modules and supporting materials. The South African Institute for Distance Education (SAIDE) managed the process of developing the course material, which was funded by one of the DoE's social partners, the Shuttleworth Foundation.

A documentary analysis of the content was undertaken during the preliminary phase for the ACE evaluation. Some of the key recommendations were as follows:

o Provide a stronger focus on the management of learning as opposed to learning and curriculum theory in the 'manage teaching and learning' module.
o Combine the two assessment electives.
o Include the elements relevant to principals from the 'lead and manage a subject, learning area' elective into the 'manage teaching and learning' module.
o Provide a stronger focus on school-level implementation rather than policy analysis.
o Focus more on the learning needs of principals and aspiring principals rather than those of middle managers, educators and learning.
o Ensure that the 'language skills module' caters for the needs of students with more limited English language skills.

o Ensure that all candidates have convenient access to ICT facilities, training and support to prove equality (Bush *et al*., 2008:9).

The foregoing recommendations are being addressed by a review group set up by the DoE and the National Management and Leadership Committee (NMLC) (Bush *et al*., 2008:156).

The evaluation found that ACE is content 'heavy' and that many principals are overwhelmed by the content, to the detriment of their leadership learning (Bush *et al*., 2008:10). According to international research, leadership behaviour is unlikely to change significantly simply as a result of enhanced knowledge (Bush *et al.*, 2008:10). The 'process' element of the ACE, including mentoring, networking, portfolios and site-based assessment,is likely to be more powerful in influencing leadership practice (Bush *et al.*, 2008:10). The authors recommended that the 'content' in the ACE be reduced to enable more time for this process element to be effective. It must be stated that, although the curriculum and materials provide some insight into what is intended to be taught, it is not a reflection of what actually takes place inside the classroom and what concepts are being taught.

- **Assessment**

Higher education institutions have all adopted a fairly similar assessment process, adopting many common features, namely, that it is practice-based, measures competence and is integratedthrough the portfolio and research project (Bush *et al*., 2008:140). The main assessment tool employed by the HEIs is the portfolio, which is intended to include all the assignments, as well as school-based documents, student reflections and a research project (Bush *et al*., 2008:140). The portfolios showed little evidence of reflection and it was clear that candidates were finding it difficult to go beyond description to adopting a reflective approach (Bush *et al*., 2008:141).

The research highlighted that the ACE is overassessed and based primarily on the prescribed content of the course (Bush *et al*., 2008:158). In a number of provinces, the heavy ACE workload has led to principals giving precedence to completing their assignment rather than applying their learning to school management, contrary to the aims of the programme (Bush *et al*., 2008:141). The research recommended that the number of assignments be reduced and that they focus more strongly on school management practice (Bush *et al*., 2008:158).

An important feature of the ACE is the provision of a site-based assessment, linking leadership learning to school practice. This is a critical part of the assessment strategy and is

subject to an on-site verification process. However, in practice, there was little evidence of on-site verification taking place (Bush *et al*., 2008:17). There was even some evidence to suggest that candidates were dividing up the work at the networking sessions, with the result that similar assignments were being submitted. On-site verification is critical to ensure that the submission reflects the candidate's own work and practice (Bush *et al*., 2008:141).

- **Work-based learning**

'Learning by experience' and 'learning on the job' are significant factors in the development of a school leader. The ACE is a practice-based course underpinned by the venue of 'applied knowledge'. Therefore, there should be strong emphasis on all forms of practice, site-based activity, school focus, the candidate being actively involved in leadership, management and organisational behaviour, and working in relationship with teams and within multiple structures (DoE, 2007:19).

Although the assignments and exercises in the materials include work-related examples, there is no guarantee that the principals are putting this into practice. More concerning was the finding of the mid-term evaluation that some principals were fabricating the content of the assignment and had not implemented the practice in their schools (Bush *et al*., 2008:153). In addition, the assignments were found to be taking precedence over running and managing the schools, as principals were completing their ACE coursework requirements during school hours. The ACE does not incorporate an internship as part of its work-based learning programme.

- **Mentoring**

Effective mentoring provides the potential for personal engagement with the candidates and their school, acting as the conduit between the HEI theory and school-level practice and provides the potential for deep learning (Bush *et al*., 2008:138). In many provinces, mentors were involved in a two-stage process: (a) group 'facilitation' as part of, or separate from the formal teaching sessions at the HEI and visit to candidates and (b) schools to provide on-site support (Bush *et al*., 2008:138).

The mid-term evaluation reported that the small group sessions involve networking rather than mentoring and that the mentor's role is mainly that of facilitation. Candidates in some provinces criticised the process saying that the mentors do not visit the schools and only discuss issues telephonically. They suggested that there should be professional mentors and

more mentoring sessions. The mentors stated that it was not possible to visit schools because of the geographical distance between schools and the lack of time, as they were busy with their own schools (Bush *et al*., 2008:118-119).

The group sessions were also leading to mentors determining the agenda and dominating the discussion. In situations where the mentors do work directly with the candidates, they often provide 'solutions' and specific advice rather than asking questions and providing support and encouragement to enable candidates to make decisions themselves. Although this is welcomed by candidates, it serves to reinforce a dependency model rather than providing a means to develop the candidate's confidence and skills (Bush *et al*., 2008:157). This could lead to the reinforcement of traditional role expectations rather than the rethinking of approaches and innovative leadership practice.

Although commending the inclusion of a mentoring process, Bush *et al*. (2008) recommended that the current mentoring process be remodelled to provide one-on-one support and an extensive training programme to develop genuine mentors rather than people who guide or tell candidates how to run their schools (Bush *et al.*, 2008:157). Two major constraints that would need to be resolved in enabling this include the funding of the cost of mentor provision and the limited availability of well-trained and motivated professionals with good experience in leading urban and rural schools (Bush *et al*., 2008:157).

- **Networking**

Most of the HEIs have some form of network activity, usually initiated by the mentors or the candidates themselves. However, the evidence revealed that groups rarely meet and that the sessions are often informal work and voluntary, with variable attendance level (Bush *et al*., 2008:139). The DoE envisaged the formation of a clustering and learning network around particular areas which students wanted to address, as one of the levels of support for candidates. However, the mid-term evaluation highlighted that students are using these sessions to work together to complete assignments and not to share professional experience in order to improve their school (Bush *et al*., 2008:1390). The Gauteng Department of Education (GDE) mentioned that if the department had a suitable process in place, they would officially encourage and monitor principal collaboration and school visitation.

- **The portfolio**

73

One of the core modules of the ACE includes the development of a portfolio where students are required to compile a comprehensive record of all completed assignments, written test and work-based projects that they completed in the modules, as well as including relevant evidence from the execution of their regular school management or leadership functions so as to demonstrate their competence in school management and leadership (DoE, 2008:14). Students are required to include journal articles where they critically reflect on their learning experience, reporting on their personal growth and any insights developed. However, the mid-term evaluation revealed that the portfolios were more descriptive accounts of what they had done and contained little evidence of reflection (Bush *et al*., 2008:141). Reflective practice is aimed at enabling and enhancing understanding through fundamental questioning and analysis and thereby informing future actions (West-Burnham and Ireson, 2008:5). It is a core learning principle included in the ACE curriculum but requires a high level of self-awareness. A mentor could assist students in developing reflective practice, provided they have the requisite competence and capacity.

- **Going to scale**

The mid-term evaluation reported that approximately 2700 principals would need to be recruited and trained in SA per annum (Bush *et al*., 2008:152). The 16 HEIs that are currently delivering the programme do not have the type of capacity to provide this, unless the intake is increased from 100 to 170 per HEI per year. This may not be feasible due to capacity issues at some HEIs (Bush *et al*., 2008:152).

A short-term solution to cater for current capacity issues would be to regard the thousands of educators who hold ACE, BEd, Hons, master's and doctoral degrees as being equivalent to the national ACE, subject to conversion processes (Bush *et al*., 2008:152). The conversion processes could involve the preparation of a portfolio to demonstrate how their management learning has been translated into effective practice (Bush *et al*., 2008:158).

- **Application of learning outcomes**

The application of learning outcomes is of paramount importance if the ACE is to contribute to school improvement as well as developing individuals. The mid-term evaluation undertook an interim assessment to establish whether there were any changes to management practice arising from participation in the ACE training. The findings were determined from interviews with 25 of the ACE candidates and represent self-perceptions, so these need to be interpreted

with caution. The next face of a two-year longitudinal ACE evaluation will include an impact study where the research team will interview a broader selection of the candidate's school staff (Bush *et al*., 2008:142).

Fifty-six per cent of the candidates claimed to be managing their time more effectively, specifically through improved delegation to the School Management Team (SMT), better planning and improving task prioritisation. Some of the candidates reported several changes to personal attributes, including enhanced confidence, improved self-control and better relationship with educators and SMTs. Some claimed skills gains, such as ICT, problem-solving, financial planning and better teamwork (Bush *et al*., 2008:147).

The mid-term evaluation concluded that although there have been knowledge gains, there is only limited evidence of changes in management practice. "It is too early to judge whether participating in the programmes is likely to enhance learner outcomes, although the early evidence is disappointing" (Bush *et al*., 2008:147).

2.21 ESTABLISHING AN ACADEMY FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN GAUTENG

In 1996, the National Department of Education established a Task Team on Education Management Development to review South Africa's education system and to make recommendations to improve the management of education. One of the recommendations of the Task Team was the creation of a national education management institute to become the *principal locus* of a focused managed network of researchers, practitioners, policymakers and others (McLennan *et al*., 2002:1).

When none of the recommendations were adopted, the GDE undertook a feasibility study into the establishment of a provincial institute for education management and governance development. The study undertook comparative research of local and international models of similar institutions. Based on the recommendations in the report "The Road less travelled" (McLennan *et al*., 2002), the Matthew Goniwe School of Leadership and Governance (MGSLG) was established by the GDE and launched in August 2003.

The MGSLG is a non-profit section 21 company funded primarily by the GDE. Its main purpose is to support the development of principals, other school managers (deputies, heads of departments, and district officials) and school governors in order to enhance the effectiveness of all schools in the province and to improve learner outcomes (Bush *et al*.,

2006:3). The institution has had very limited resources in the past, relying on a joint venture with the University of Johannesburg (UJ), to deliver its 'lecture' contact sessions. During 2008, it introduced a National Curriculum Statement (NCS) directorate, and today the institution currently employs approximately 13 full-time professional staff.

A mid-term evaluation of the institution, providing an independent report to its board and the GDE on the operation of the school and on the progress made in addressing management and governance training in SA, concluded that the MGSLG had made a good start and highlighted areas for improvement (Bush, Joubert & Moloi, 2006). It was noted that the MGSLG had 'reached' a significant proportion of its target audience, despite one director's claim that its main focus should be on making a difference in a limited number of schools and focus on 'depth, not breadth' (Bush *et al.*, 2006:35). To increase its scale and focus would require employing substantially more resources. England's NCSL, which has the objective "to become a strategically focused, powerful hub of school leadership development, seeking to harness and develop the capabilities and capacities of the very best in the education system and beyond, to develop a high-performing, self-improving education system", employs a large (200+) and highly qualified staff team to execute and implement its vision (Bush *et al.*, 2006:5).The evaluation highlighted a number of strengths and development needs but most significantly the need to improve and sustain effective working relationship between MGSLG and the GDE, concluding that the future of MGSLG and the important work that it has pioneered depends on its relationship with the GDE becoming solid and mutually beneficial (Bush *et al.*, 2006:37).

Although the research wing of MGSLG has been closed down due to lack of funding and insufficient resources, the MGSLG still commissions baseline research, evaluations and impact studies of its own programmes. In 2007, the MGSLG was accredited as a higher education institution to provide the ACE School Management and Leadership programme, which effectively makes it a 'competitor' to the universities in ACE provision.

2.22   THE SOUTH AFRICAN STANDARD FOR SCHOOL LEADERSHIP (SASSL)

From 2003-2005, the DoE, together with various stakeholders, developed the South African Standards for School Leadership (SASSL), which defines the role of the principal and key aspect of professionalism and expertise required in South African schools. Surprisingly, no such understanding has existed todate, although limited definitions are included in both the Personnel Administration Measures (PAM) and Integrated Quality Management System

(IQMS). In 2007, the South African Schools Act of 1996 was amended by adding the 'Functions and responsibilities of principals of public schools' after section 16 via Education Laws Amendment Act 31. The standard, originally called the standard for principalship, is in its sixth revision and not yet officially validated and published.

The standard is comprised of four elements. These are as follows:

- The core purpose of principalship: 'To provide leadership and management in areas of the school to enable the creation and support of conditions under which high-quality teaching and learning take place and which promote the highest possible standard of learner achievement.'

- The education and social values, both national and context specific, which underpin all that happens in the school and which inform everything that the principal does in leading and managing the school.

- The key areas of principalship: These are six interdependent areas that define the role of the principal in any school context but are focused on the priorities of the SA schooling system. Within each area, some typical 'actions' that need to be undertaken are defined, as well as examples of the types of 'knowledge' requirement that underpin these actions. The six areas are the following:

  o leading and managing the learning school;
  o shaping the direction and development of the school;
  o assuring quality and securing accountability;
  o developing empowering self and others;
  o managing the school as an organization;
  o working with and for the community.

- Personal and professional attributes which a principal brings to the role: These will influence the ways in which the leadership and management role is fulfilled and determine the effectiveness in carrying out the role. The development of these attributes, through experience and training, is crucial for principalship in a contemporary South African context.

The SASSL is closely aligned with the National Standards for Headteachersin England. The SASSL creates acommon language and the foundation upon which consistent and aligned

educational leadership policy can be developed, both at the programme and practice level. The DoE must with urgency adopt and publish the SASSL so that HEIs, schools and all stakeholders have a definition and clear expectations of what the principalship role entails and the key aspect of professionalism and expertise required.

2.23   PROVISION OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT TO GAUTENG PRINCIPALS

Provision of management education and training prior to 1994 was fragmented and patchy, provided by a range of providers, including higher education institutions, state departments of education and – to a lesser degree – non-governmental and private sector organisations (Johnson, 1995:232). Although the number of universities offering courses was increasing, enrolment figures were low, and there were problems with scale and relevance (Johnson, 1995:232).

The first comprehensive study assessing the extent, nature and quality of school management development and governor training in Gauteng was undertaken in 2003-2004 in order to provide baseline data for the new MGSLG and generate a body of evidence to inform policy and practice (Bush and Heystek, 2006:65). The discussion that follows highlights those programmes.

2.23.1 Formal development programme

The research revealed that the eight universities and universities of technology in Gauteng provided a 'ladder of opportunities' for practising and aspiring school leaders, ranging from an ACE to specialist courses and postgraduate degrees in education management (Bush and Heystek, 2006:71). The BEd (Hons) degree has historically been the recognised NQF qualification aimed at developing the role and associated competencies of a school principal (Norms and Standards for Educators, 2000). The ACE in Educational Management and Leadership was introduced in 2003 as a diploma and offered by universities as a means for unqualified educators to upgrade their skills level, whereafter they had the option to enrol for a BEd (Hons) degree.

The study showed that the programmes extend over one or more years and cover most of the content required for leaders of self-managing schools, thus providing the potential for long-term sustainable learning (Bush and Heystek, 2006:71). Human resource management and legal issues were given substantial attention, and financial management theory and research

methods were also addressed by several providers (Bush, 2004:9). Limited attention was given to the issue of teaching and learning, including curriculum studies and classroom management (Bush, 2004:9).

2.23.2 Non-formal programme provision

The inquiry reveals that a range of short courses were offered by providing management training for principals. They were initiated by the GDE, but the providers were often non-governmental organisations or consultants often with no teaching or management experience in schools (Bush and Heystek, 2006:71). Some of these courses specialised in specific topics, for example, financial management, leadership, education policy, education law, human resource management, curriculum management, team building, conflict management/discipline, strategic planning, school development, and managing change (Bush, 2004:11). The duration of the non-formal courses varied according to the need, running from a few days up to a week. The mode of delivery often had a practical focus on case studies, videos, group work and role plays. These courses were rarely accredited. The brief and fragmented provision of these in-service programmes may have been suitable for the transfer of information about a new policy but were considered not suitable for extended engagement with theory, research and practice (Bush and Heystek, 2006:73).

A paper evaluating the in-service training given to school principals in Mpumalanga provides insight into the shortcomings of the quality of in-service training provision. It recommended that the trainers (the circuit and district officials) be trained in facilitation skills, that they needed to be aware of the social and cultural factors of the trainees, which could determine the success or failure of a training workshop, and they needed training on how to manage multi-grade classes, hence making provision for the individual pace or progress of the trainees. Trainees may not find the programme useful if they consider the presenter to be their equal, and trainers needed to establish credibility, persuading the trainees that what they are doing is useful. Formal recognition was required, as participants wanted some form of accreditation. Follow-up training and support was critical and requested by principals.

2.24   WHAT PRINCIPALS NEED TO KNOW ABOUT THEIR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT?

Leadership research reflects a number of dimensions that leaders need to know about their professional development. Valerio (2009) states that people who aspire to be leaders in their

organisations may want to better understand the factors involved in the emergence of leadership. Leadership competencies, which are necessary for success; attitudes about male and female managers; intelligence; personality; ethics; and leadership styles are all crucial factors (Valerio, 2009). Although all these factors are important, this study will only discuss leadership competencies, personality and leadership styles.

2.24.1 Leadership competencies

New leaders in particular need to know their leadership competencies or preferred leadership models. There is a need to be clear during the professional development process. These leadership competencies can be very useful in selecting people who should lead organisations.

Recent research is also showing that gender differences between male and female principals are negligible. This is very vital for professional development programmes which might not have to be gender-specific. Coleman (2005) cites the results of two studies, one in Hong Kong and the other in England. In both studies, male and female principals were asked about their leadership styles. These principals were asked to identify three adjectives that expressed the way they saw their own management and leadership styles. "The most popular words chosen by the principals were very much the same for both male and female".

Valerio (2009) also points out that a generic leadership competency model consists of the following factors in all potential leaders and actual leaders:

- cognitive abilities;
- communication skills;
- leadership skills;
- technical skills.

Each of these contains certain abilities linked to leadership. Cognitive abilities, for example, include competencies such as being a visionary; communication skills contain listening to others; leadership abilities can include coaching others; and technical skills might mean developing functional expertise. Various approaches can be made part of professional development and can be able to expose the competency of leaders. The three models that follow can be used to bring out leadership competencies.

2.24.1.1 Training

The training model is widely used and considered synonymous with professional development (Valli and Hawley, 1998). It is variously referred to as the defect model (Bagwandeen, 1991), deficit model (Pather, 1995), traditional model (Bennet, Glatter & Levacic, 1994), and cascade model (Heystek *et al*., 2008). In this model, an "outsider" or "expert" conducts training in a workshop in which principals are passive recipients of new knowledge and skills (Villi and Hawley, 1998; Bennett *et al.*, 1994). According to Mofokeng (2002), this model assumes that principals bring weaknesses to the learning encounter which needs to be remedied or fixed by an expert outsider through professional development training programmes.

Guskey (2002) contends that for training to be effective, it must include "an exploration of theory, demonstrations and modelling of skills, simulated practice, feedback about performance and watching in the workplace. The advantage of the training model is that it is cost-effective as it requires little time, contact and skill on the part of the facilitator; hence, it may be the most practical and efficient model where the facilitator-principal ratios are high (Mofokeng, 2002; Guskey, 2002). However, its major shortcoming is that it offers few opportunities for choice or individualisation and follow-up activities.

2.24.1.2 Mentoring

Recent South African studies on principals show that mentoring is a powerful tool for improving the leadership and management skill competence of principals and school effectiveness (Bush, 2005; Msila, 2010). In this regard, Msila (2010) avers, "with no induction of principals apparent, mentoring can be the best remedy for beginning principals in particular". Mentoring affords newly appointed principals opportunities for peer learning, coaching and networking (Walker and Dimmock, 2006). Mentoring involves pairing an experienced, highly successful principal with an experienced colleague (Guskey, 2000). This model of professional development provides opportunities for regular discussions, sharing of ideas and strategies on effective leadership and management practice; reflection on current methods and procedures; on-the-jobtraining and observation; as well as tactics for improvement (Guskey, 2000; The Alliance, 2003).

This model's advantage is that it offers a highly individualised approach to professional development that benefits both parties involved. However, its shortcoming is that it may limit

opportunities for broader collaboration and collegial sharing unless it is supplemented by other forms of professional development such as training, networking and reflective practice (Guskey, 2000).

2.24.1.3 *Reflective practice model*

Reflective practice is a form of professional growth and development model whereby principals develop greater self-awareness about their leadership and management performance (Skrla *et al*., 2001). Bennett *et al*. (1994) postulate that this model is undergirded by the experiential learning cycle and school-based. The experiential learning cycle embraces four stages: experience, observation, reconceptualisation, and experimentation, which leads to principal behavioural change and improved performance (Bennett *et al.*, 1994). Principals engaged with the reflective practice model use reflection as an integral part of their learning (Guskey, 2000). Skrla *et al*. (2001) consider reflection as one the best practices of professional development as they concede: The application of skilled reflection is an essential component of job-embedded learning. Reflection helps the principals examine gaps or congruence between what they believe (espoused theory) and what they actually do (theoryinuse).

According to Evans and Morth (1999), reflection will enable principals to improve their ability to plan, analyse, solve problems and increase their creativity and effectiveness. The advantages of the model are that it integrates theory and practice; it involves learning on the job and promotes collaboration (Rich and Jackson, 2006).

2.24.2 Personality

Certain personality traits are said to enhance leadership qualities. Some researchers have highlighted the Big Five personality traits as crucial for leaders:

- openness to experience;
- conscientiousness and strong work ethic;
- extraversion, assertiveness and sociability;
- agreeableness and other gentle qualities;
- neuroticism – showing negative emotions of danger and fear.

The Big Five traits determine the kind of leaders that can emerge as aresult of certain personality traits. People who show extraversion and conscientiousness are likely to emerge

as effectiveness leaders. Effective leaders also display greater openness to experience and creativity (Valerio, 2009). Moreover, Valerio (2009) contends that agreeableness and neuroticism are less important than other personality traits in understanding leadership. "Successful leaders find ways of interacting with others, have wide networks of associates, build teams, and motivate. Leaders must also be willing to be open to new experiences, 'think outside box', take some risks and be creative" (Valerio, 2009).

2.24.3 Leadership styles

In any professional development programme, the preferred leadership styles of principals will always show. Leadership styles are influenced by personal characteristics such as personality and values; the leadership styles the leader has observed in bosses, mentors and other managers; the organisation's values concerning "the right way" to manage; and specific management situations faced by the leader (Valerio, 2009). Fink and Leithwood (2005) have outlined seven major approaches to leadership that influence educational policy approaches to leadership: managerial, contingent, instructional, transactional, moral, transformational, and participative. Various leadership styles serve various purposes. Collaborative styles such as transformational and participative styles are both intended to involve people in organisations in the decisions that will enhance an organisation's capacity to improve (Fink, 2005). Further, Fink states that in other five styles, formal leaders try to influence followers to achieve organisational goals by employing various sources of power – the positional power of the manager or contingent leader, the expertise of the instructional leader or the system values of a moral leader. Professional development programmes have to take into cognisance the preferred styles at all times so as to maximise the effectiveness of a leader or manager. Usually, there is no right or wrong leadership style, and circumstances will determine the sustainability of a style. Fink, for example, states that leadership styles explicate two general approaches to the ways leaders influence others to achieve organisational goals, one set can be instrumental and the other can be empowering. (Fink, 2005) contends,"Instrumental strategies can be overt, such as demand for compliance, or subtle, such as involving teachers in committees in which the goals are predetermined. Regardless of the style, instrumental strategies represent the calculated and sometimes cynical ways employed in order to'influence' others to improve their procedures and practices, and to submit sources of power that reside outside themselves and their school community."

2.25 PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT NEEDS OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

In the current era of globalisation, school leadership has become increasingly debated and explored in an international and comparative context. This is mainly due to research evidence produced so far that a principal's role is indeed crucial for improving students' academic achievement (Marzano, Waters & McNulty, 2005). If school leadership is important, then one should also be concerned with how leaders learn to do their jobs in ways that contribute to students' learning (Crow, Lumby & Pashiardis, 2008).

In light of this, a global focus on leadership development has begun to evolve, and many countries have come to realise the importance of investing in school leadership support systems. Policymakers in mainland Europe, North America and Australasia have launched programmes designed to support leadership development in education (Hallinger, 2003).

Education ministers of countries participating in organisations such as The Commonwealth have emphasised the need to improve school leadership as away to increase school effectiveness and achieve quality performance. In particular, the 15th Conference of Commonwealth Education Ministers of 2003 concluded that aspirant leaders should be provided with opportunities of training and coaching in leadership and management skills (Commonwealth Secretariat, 2003). Additionally, the discussions of the 16th Conference of Commonwealth Education Ministers of 2006 raised the following recommendation (CCME, 2006:3): "Since school principals are keys to facilitating and overseeing that quality teaching and learning take place in schools, the professional development of school leaders through a contextually relevant school principalship qualification should be an approach adopted more widely among members' states."

The professional development needs of school principals may be determined by a number of dimensions related to the respective features of training schemes. These dimensions concern the patterns of provision, the design characteristics of programmes, the delivery modes, and the leadership areas in need of improvement. Therefore, it is essential to review the literature on every aspect in order to gain a holistic picture of what kind of professional development principals really need.

2.26 INDUCTION PROCESS FOR PRINCIPALS

Induction goes beyond just addressing anxiety and uncertainties, which are an inherent feature of a new employee. Doidge, Hardwick and Wilkinson (1998) have identified the following as critical aspects constituting the importance of an education programme:

- Induction helps as the first phase of a career-long professional development.
- Induction reduces time taken for a new employee to become effective.
- It improves motivation and hence the individual's contribution to the institution, and it is likely to reduce the attrition rate.
- It provides the opportune moment to explain the organisation's mission and aims so that eventually the employee could have a sense of where the job fits in in the organisation.
- It develops working relationships with colleagues.

Wong (2005) defines an induction process as "a comprehensive process of sustained training and support for new teachers, a comprehensive, coherent, and sustained professional development process that is organized by a school district to train, support and retain new teachers, which then seamlessly progress them into a lifelong learning programme". Induction activities are designed to replace the historical "sink or swim" induction experience of new teachers with one that is focused on promoting their professional growth and integrating them more effectively into the school community (Bush and Oduro, 2006).

The literature study has revealed that beginner principals experience a great amount of frustration, anxiety, confusion, and a sense of being inadequately prepared for what they actually encounter on the job. New principals also feel unsure of the behavioural expectations from their districts. Waldron (2002) indicates the sources of stress for new principals as including role demands, task overload, communicating negative performance evaluation and district policies, and parental behaviour. As part of the process of socialisation, the induction period for new principals must be considered as an important area (Waldron, 2000).

The provisioning role that the Department of Education has to play encapsulates the provision of resources such as learning and teaching material, funding of school projects, recruitment and induction of principals and staff members (Nel *et al.*, 2008). Villani (2005) defines induction as "a multidimensional process that orients new principals to a school and

school system while strengthening their knowledge, skills and dispositions to be an educational leader".

According to Castetter (1992) and Lashway (2003), school principals are confronted with insurmountable problems of administration. For example, they have grappled with the intense, unrelenting stress of trying to adjust their textbook understanding of leadership to the world of reality. They are expected to master the technical skills, learn to handle a variety of constituencies and at the same time deal with issues of personal inadequacy. When school principals are adequately inducted on various aspects of school management and governance, the process most likely results in reducing labour turnout, translating the school environment into a centre of excellence through an effective and efficient teaching and learning process, thus reducing the exodus of both teachers and learners to more effectively run schools.

2.27 THE EVALUATION AND STUDY OF SUCCESSFUL LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES

The findings of the study by Notman and Henry (2011) in New Zealand indicate that successful principal leaders had a good mastery of the following seven leadership capacities: management, communication, consultation, knowing when to lead, decision-making, critical reflection, and interpersonal connectedness with members of the school community. Neophyte principals envisaged that successful leadership skills should comprise conflict resolution, team building, role modelling, vision building, fostering a successful environment, communication, and community leadership (Walker and Carr-Stewart, 2006). Evidence collected by Salfi (2011) revealed that successful school leaders developed colleagues to lead and distributed leadership responsibilities throughout the school, developed a common and shared school vision, involved various stakeholders in the process of decision-making, developed the professional development mechanism for teachers and involved parents and the community in the process of school improvement.

As principalship is a specialist position, many countries, especially those of developing contexts, are gradually embracing the idea of providing specific preparation programmes for APs and NAPs (Bush, 2008). The study by Lingam and Lingam (2014) in Fiji regarding a group of school leaders' perception of the leadership and management programme revealed that some areas such as financial management, context-specific training, adopting various strategies for programme delivery and field-based training were considered essential and needed to be strengthened in future training programmes. Lingam and Lingam propose to

undertake an investigation to determine the needs of APs and NAPs prior to offering any leadership training programmes for them.

In South Africa, a leadership preparation programme called 'Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE)' was introduced for APs in 2007 (Bush *et al*., 2011). The programme comprises five key areas: understanding school management in the South African context; managing teaching and learning; managing finances and physical resources; managing people and leadership; and managing education law and policy. Mentz, Webber and Van der Walt (2010) criticised that the focus of the programme was on 'managerialism' instead of on a critical exploration of 'leadership issues', whereas Bush *et al*., (2011) commented that it lacked constructive alignment to the work situation of many principals managing underprivileged schools in South Africa. Nevertheless, some responses demonstrated that the items of mentoring, networking and site-based assessment were regarded as positive among participants' feedback (Lingam and Lingam, 2014).

In the UK, the government in 1998 announced the setting up of the National College for School Leadership (NCSL) aimed at developing world-class school leaders, system leaders and future leaders in order to improve the life chances of all children. With reference to headship and four Educational Management Administration & Leadership programmes, leadership preparation and development in the last decade in the UK, Earley and Weindling (2004) and Walker and Dimmock (2006) revealed that heads found 'on-the-job learning activity' mostuseful and valuable, but they had concerns about the best way to deal with leadership preparation and development in a coherent way. In USA, since the ISLLC was established, many states across the country now adopt its standards to improve school leadership programmes (Young, Crow & Orr, 2005). The report of Levin (2005) revealed that there existed problems in many of the leadership development programmes with regard to irrelevant curricula and weak research which were found inappropriate to the needs of potential and serving school leaders.

However, the programmes offered by Stanford University, the Harvard Graduate School of Education, and the University of Wisconsin, for instance, do receive promising responses (Tucker and Codding, 2002). Reporting a comparative study on NAPs' perception of the development programmes between Canada and South Africa in a project entitled 'International Study of the Preparation of Principals (ISSP)', Mentz *et al*., (2010) found the following themes identified by the principals as most useful in the programmes: experiencing

relationships with students, parents, colleagues and administrators; mentor-mentee meetings; skills of conflict resolution; and connection with parents and the community.

2.28   PREPARING SCHOOL LEADERS FOR THE CHALLENGES OF TOMORROW

It is not surprising that leadership preparation and development has also become a major area of concern. Many countries have focused on providing appropriate training and professional development opportunities to aspiring and practising school leaders. Increasingly, international studies reveal a number of patterns or tendencies in providing school leadership development around the world. On the whole, it seems that those in charge of preparing professional development programmes are aware that schools are not static organisations that need to be administered but learning organisations that require continuous development.

Despite these contemporary trends, there are also countries (mostly developing ones) which, although moving in the right direction, are still lagging behind in providing adequate leadership development. Pheko (2008), referring to Botswana, remarks that there is no formal leadership training policy, while Bush and Oduro (2006) comment that leadership preparation and training are low on the agenda of most African countries in general.

In addition, it is important to point out that principals in many countries are appointed on the basis of irrelevant or insufficient criteria. For example, they are pointed on the basis of their teaching record rather than their leadership skills, on the basis of long service and experience without any higher academic qualifications (Oduro and MacBeath, 2003) and even on the basis of acquaintances (Lahui-Ako, 2001).

In view of the above, it is imperative to inquire continuously about the professional development needs of principals in order to determine the form and content of a curriculum for leadership development. Programmes should take into account research evidence on school leaders' needs and reflect the working context and the characteristics of each individual leader. In this way, principals can be prepared with relevant leadership knowledge, skills and attitudes in order to face the challenges of the role they have (Lahui-Ako, 2001).

Based on the existing body of literature on professional development needs of school principals, a number of relevant suggestions arise. For example, leadership development should be provided before appointment to the post (Bush and Heystek, 2005; Pashiardis and Heystek, 2007). The provision of adequate preparation prior to appointment may relieve the

principals from the shock of transition and facilitate their socialisation in the school environment under their new role. Professional development should also continue after appointment in order to support principals in facing the diverse challenges they may encounter at school. To this effect, there is a need to establish a training provision in relation to the different stages of leadership and after leaders have been evaluated in a formative way. Some specific training needs have been uncovered (Pashiardis and Brauckmann, 2008), for example, the professional development of new and experienced principals is not identical. With regard tocontent of leadership development, the most desired element brought up in most pieces of research concerns the practice of instructional leadership. According to Hale and Moorman (2003:19), "... policy and instructional leaders must remember that the business of schools is teaching and learning, that all education policies must support student achievement and that all preparation programmes must develop school leaders who can provide instructional leadership.

Experienced principals seem to need more training on instructional and strategic leadership skills, while inexperienced principals seem to also need training on technical issues, such as financial management. As aresult, differences related to the principals' career stage must also be accounted for in any training schemes. Other important aspects that need to be included concern school improvement, strategic practices, human resources, and financial management. To cater for these diverse needs, it is important to decentralise the provision of these programmes. According to a number of researchers (Bush and Glover, 2004; Pashiardis and Brauckmann, 2008), leadership development should take into account the local context within which leaders operate. Professional development can then be provided by awide array of sources, such as universities, professional associations, governmental agencies and other organisations. Partnership between various organisations may also enhance the training impact on school leaders. However, it is also necessary to have a central agency in charge of monitoring the quality of professional development programmes. As a result, central quality assurance in conjunction with decentralised provision of professional development is more likely to meet the needs of school principals.

The design of the programmes should also be taken into account. Structural features such as a clear purpose, curriculum coherence, instructional variety and differentiation should form part of any training programme (Peterson, 2002). Attractive funding arrangements should also be incorporated in order to encourage the participation of school principals. This structural design could then be accompanied by the development of a culture of openness,

collegiality and trust among the participants. This can be effectively achieved by introducing and embedding clear symbols, norms and ceremonies.

Nevertheless, Hale and Moorman (2003) maintain that the adoption of policy measures is not sufficient and that the implementation of any programme must be accompanied by supportive elements such as formal programme review, technical assistance and monitoring. The providers of both formal and informal programmes in South Africa (Bush and Heystek, 2006) made a number of suggestions related to supportive actions, namely:

- coordinating training more effectively
- providing post-training support to participants
- evaluating the quality of training programmes
- providing careful attention to knowledge transfer to the school

In general, there is a need to combine a number of methods in the delivery of professional development programmes. Traditional, course-based programmes tend to be too theoretical and therefore should be complemented by clinical training practices, such as problem-based learning, mentoring and coaching, and peer networking.

2.29   CHALLENGES FACED BY NEWLY APPOINTED PRINCIPALS IN THE 21ST CENTURY

With the widespread acceptance of the need for schools to improve, it is impossible to ignore the critical needs of school leaders to be more effective at their work. They must receive professional development aimed at helping them be more effective, knowledgeable and qualified to facilitate continuous improvement. Literature study has revealed that new principals experience a great amount of frustration, stress and confusion which result in most of them adopting a "trial-and-error" introductory approach (Elsberry and Bishop, 1996), and this often leads to increased anxiety in respect of fulfilment of their obligation. Waldron (2002) goes a step further to add that the sources of stress for these new principals also include the role's demands, administrative overload, communicating negative performance evaluation, external community and inadequate departmental support and guidance,and parental behaviour.

However, research findings done in the field of educational administration across the world indicate that entering the principalship is an emotional laden situation and that school

principals are the most powerful single determinants of the quality and the effectiveness of schools (Garry, 2004; Goldring, Andrew, Murphy, Eliot & Cravens, 2006; Leu and Bryner, 2005; Kitavi and Van der Westhuizen, 1997). Some of the functions of a school principal are instructional leadership, shaping an organisation that demands and supports excellent instruction and dedicated learning by students and staff, and to connect the outside world and its resources to the school and its work (Hale and Hunter, 2003; Wango, 2009).

Despite the enormous role and function of school principals, research done in some developed countries such as USA, the UK and Australia unravels challenges faced by beginning principals in management (Kitavi and Van der Westhuizen, 1997). For instance, they experience job-specific problems related to instructional programmes, students, personnel, financial resources, community relations and transportation (Hale and Hunter, 2003). In America, one of the core challenges newly appointed principals face is improvement of students' academic achievement (Goldring *et al.*, 2006). In Africa, new principals face several challenges, as they often work in poorly equipped buildings with inadequately trained staff. There is rarely any formal leadership training and principals are appointed on the basis of their teaching record rather than their leadership potential. Moreover, induction and support systems for newly appointed are usually limited (Bush and Oduro, 2006).

A study carried outin sub-Saharan African countries, namely, Ghana, Guinea, Ethiopia, Tanzania, Uganda and Madagascar indicates that new principals face serious problems with students who cannot pay fees, as parents are reluctant to do so and because of teacher shortage and inadequate teaching and learning resources (Leu and Bryen, 2005). In recent years, there has been an increased focus on the professional development of school principals; however, recent studies and reports show that the systems that prepare educational leaders are in trouble, since several areas such as an absence of collaboration between schools and universities and colleges, a lack of systematic professional development and lack of definition of good leadership have been identified (Hale and Hunter, 2003).

In 1991, the Zimbabwe Ministry of Education and the Commonwealth Secretariat Education Programme jointly organised a workshop on teacher management in Kadoma, Zimbabwe, where the focus was neither on challenges faced by new heads nor on skills they require to become effective and efficient managers (Kitavi and Van der Westhuizen, 1997). In 1988, the Government of Kenya established the Kenya Education Staff Institute to offer in-serving

training for the heads of educational institutions, including school principals (Republic of Kenya, 1988). As a result, in the 2005 Education Sector report, the Ministry of Education Science and Technology included, as one of the objectives, to enhance access, equity and quality in primary and secondary education through capacity building for 45000 education manager 2015 (Republic of Kenya, 2005). Sadly, the focus has been on practising principals; hence, not much has been achieved for the future of beginning ones. At a Kenya Secondary School Heads Annual General Meeting in July 2007, principals lobbied to be trained through the Kenya Education Staff Institute so as to make them effective managers (Lucheli, 2007). They further demanded that the position of school principalship be professionalised and a clear policy on identification, selection, appointment and training of headteachers be set (Otieno, 2010). Moreover, the vast expansion of education has further led to the appointment of principals who have little experience to fit them completely for the work that they are required to do (Ministry of Education, 1987), and this is a major cause of ineffective leadership in secondary schools (Griffin, 1996).

A survey study conducted in Kenya revealed that newly appointed and experienced principals face challenges such as failure by students to pay school fees and buy books, shortage of school equipment and physical facilities, lack of playgrounds and students travelling long distances to school (Kitavi and Van der Westhuizen, 1997). Likewise, principals are exposed to many challenges in financial management as the existing preparation measures and support for principals in financial management are basically weak and do not sufficiently prepare potential principals for responsibilities in financial management (Irungu, 2002). Some of these challenges that newly appointed principals face are therefore brought forth by the means which principals are identified, appointed and trained, which do not really prepare them to be effective managers. The dominant tradition for identification and appointment of these principals has been based on good classroom teaching, active participation in co-curriculum activities and teaching experience, which has resulted in ineffective leadership and subsequently a number of challenges in institutional management (Kamotho, 2008).

As Mosomi (2008) notes, their ill-preparedness for managerial duties prior to their appointment have made school principals vulnerable to making blunders which sponsors capitalise on to demand for their removal. In January 2010, as schools in Kenya reopened for the first term, shock hit the whole country as 11 secondary school principals in Nyanza province, Kenya, were demoted for ineffectiveness (The Standards Media Group, 2010),

something attributed to ill-preparedness prior to appointments and lack of commitment to their appointments.

2.30   LIMITATIONS OF LEADERSHIP PROGRAMMES AND CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS

Despite strong advocacy for leadership development of principals, critics in the US, including principals themselves, have raised numerous concerns about the quality and effectiveness of the leadership preparation programmes typically provided by university-based programmes and elsewhere.This section highlights the findings of research conducted in the US and serves as a warning to countries around the world of how provision can so easily become ineffective. However, it also reports on the findings of a study conducted by the Stanford Education Leadership Institute in order to examine how an exemplary preparation and professional development programme develop strong school leaders.

The findings of a four-year study and candid assessment of 28 of America's education schools revealed that education administration programmes are the weakest of all the programmes at the nation's education schools (Levine, 2005:13). The results showed that the mission of leadership programmes is unclear, their curricula are disconnected from the needs of leaders and their schools, the programmes pay insufficient attention to clinical education and mentorship by successful practitioners and their research is detached from practice. Although most schools had an internship or practical component that met state guidelines for a principal certificate, it was ineffective.

Eighty-nine per cent of principals who responded to the principal questionnaire said that schools of education programmes have an irrelevant curriculum and fail to adequately prepare their graduates to cope with classroom realities, complaining that there was too much theory and not enough practice. The programmes have low admission and graduation standards. Students appear more interested in earning credits and obtaining salary increases than in pursuing rigorous academic studies. Institutions were capitalising on the students' desire for 'ease of access and ease of programme'. Faculties in leadership programmes were found to be distressingly weak with very few faculty numbers having had experience as school administrators. Faculty involvement in school in their region is generally low, chiefly because of lack of time to get involved (Levine, 2005).

Levine (2005:61) concludes that the field of educational administration in the US is deeply troubled. "Its purposes are muddled and have been since its inception. In a search for greater acceptance within the university, it has turned away from professional education in favour of the arts and science model of graduate, education and it has attenuated its ties with practitioners and practice, hoping to win the approval of the scholarly community. The result is a field rooted neither in practice nor research, offering programmes that fail to prepare school leaders for their jobs, while producing research that is ignored by policy makers and practitioners and looked down on by academics both inside and outside of education schools."

A model in the US that was exemplary could not be found, hence the recommendation of England's National College for School Leadership as the most promising model, providing examples of good practice and programmes worthy of emulation (Levine, 2005:54). Despite the weaknesses, many schools of education in the US have continued to deny the problems and resist improvement (Levine, 2005:68). The resulting consequence has been the development of alternative routes for individuals to enter school leadership careers and new providers have sprung up, competing with universities and replacing university-based educational leadership programmes. As Levine (2005:68) points out, the irony is that university-based programmes have inherent advantages over the alternatives, in that they bring connections with key fields ranging from teacher education and child development to business and law. They have long-standing relationships with school systems and their leaders. In addition, it is unrealistic for alternative programmes to be able to provide for the extraordinary number of school administrators that are needed. Levine (2005:68) concludes that it would be best if education schools and their educational administration programmes took the lead in bringing about improvement.

2.31   EXEMPLARY LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES

A recent study in the US aimed at examining low exemplary preparations and professional development programmes develop strong school leaders was conducted over the past three years (2003-2007) by the Stanford Educational Leadership Institute (SELI) (Darling-Hammond *et al.*, 2007) uncovered other important programme components and facilitating conditions, especially the importance of recruitment and financial support (Darling-Hammond *et al*., 2007:5). The findings of the SELI study revealed that all the *pre-service* programmes shared the following elements:

94

- A comprehensive and coherent curriculum aligned with state and professional standards, which emphasised instructional leadership.

- A philosophy and curriculum emphasising leadership of instruction and school improvement.

- Active, student-centred instruction that integrated theory and practice and stimulated reflection.

- Instructional strategies include problem-based learning; action research; field-based project; and journal writing and portfolios that feature substantial use of feedback and assessment by peers, faculty and candidates themselves. While specific programme features can be important, but what is more important is how these features are integrated and how the programme reinforces a model of leadership.

- Faculty members who are knowledgeable in their subject areas, including both university professors and practitioners, and who are experienced in school leadership and administration.

- Social and professional support in the form of a cohort structure and formalised mentoring and advising by expert principals. The cohort groups became the basis of a peer network that principals relied on for social and professional support throughout their careers.

- Vigorous, targeted recruitment and selection to seek out expert teachers with leadership potential.

- Well-designed and supervised internships that allowed candidates to engage in leadership responsibilities for a substantial amount of time under the tutelage of expert veterans. All of the programmes worked hard to ensure that internships were productive and integrated with coursework. Two of the programmes even offered full-year, paid and financed tuition (Darling-Hammond *et al*., 2007:6).

The SELI study's findings revealed that the exemplary in-service programmes offered a well-connected and high-quality set of learning opportunities grounded in both theory and practice, with a clear focus on curriculum and instruction. The practices included developing shared, school-wide goals and direction, observing and providing feedback to teachers,

planning professional development and other learning experiences for teachers, using data to guide school improvement, and managing a change process. Furthermore, the programme offered support in the form of mentoring, participation in principals' networks and study groups, collegial school visits and peer coaching (Darling-Hammond *et al*., 2007:9).

Compared to a national random sample of principals' perception of their leadership preparation, the SELI study found that, on average, graduates from the exemplary programmes produced better leaders, and that the principals:

- felt significantly better prepared for virtually every aspect of principal practices, ranging from leading instruction and organisational learning to developing a school vision and engaging parents and the community;
- had a more positive attitude about the principalship;
- spent more time on instructionally focused work;
- were more likely to report that their school gained in organisational functioning and in teacher effectiveness engagement in the last year;
- reported more participation on a broader range of learning opportunities; and
- made developing and supporting their teachers a priority (Darling-Hammond *et al*., 2007:9).

This study highlighted three facilitating conditions in the exemplary programmes:

- The existence of dedicated programme champions and leaders, including district superintendents, college deans, university and district programme directors.

- The political will and capacity to build university-district partnerships. This collaboration helped prepare principals for specific district and regional contexts and ensured that leaders continue to receive relevant and consistent support and professional development.

- The provision of significant financial support for principals to attend the programme, although the amount of support varied widely across programmes (Darling-Hammond *et al.*, 2007:13).

2.32 DEVELOPMENT NEEDS OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

The comprehensive study undertaken during 2003-2004 to assess the extent, nature and quality of school management development and governor training in Gauteng includes a questionnaire survey of all school heads to identify the knowledge areas and skills required for an effective school principal and to ascertain the areas in which further personal development was needed. Although the response rate (27.5%) was disappointing, the information provided valuable insight into the starting point for constructing acurriculum for school management (Bush and Heystek, 2006:71-72).

The knowledge areas required for an effective school principal and the areas in which further personal development was needed are depicted in Table 2.4. Financial and human resource management were the two areas identified by the largest proportion of principals (71% and 69% respectively) as essential for the principalship role and for their own personal development (Bush and Heystek, 2006:68-69). The management of teaching and learning was mentioned by only 22% of respondents, suggesting that most principals were not conceptualising their role as "instructional leader" or 'leaders of learning' and that curriculum content and teaching methodology have been given a low priority (Bush and Heystek, 2006:69-74).

The principals were also asked to identify the skills required by principals, which are depicted in Table 2.4. Again, financial management was identified as a requirement for principalship and personal development training. Interestingly, 'handling conflict' was high on the list, relevant to the dynamic context of post-apartheid South Africa (Bush, 2004:11).

Table 2.4 highlights principals' rating of the content knowledge required by all principals and their own personal development. There was a total of 522 (20.9%) responses from principals (Bush *et al*., 2004:17-18).

Table 2.4: Principals' rating of the content knowledge required by all principals and their own personal development

Knowledge area	Required for all principals		Personal development need	
	No.	%	No.	%

Management of finance	370	71	302	58
Human resource management	362	69	301	58
Management of legal, policy or procedural issues	287	55	274	53
Strategic planning (development plans)	227	55	226	43
Learner management (discipline and curriculum)	213	41	179	34
Governance and community management	148	28	169	32
Management of teaching and learning	142	27	114	22
Administrative management	118	23	125	24
Time management	77	15	88	17
Management of physical facilities	64	12	56	11

Table 2.5 presents skills required by all principals and their personal development needs. There was a total of 522 (20.9%) responses from principals (Bush *et al.*, 2004).

Table 2.5: Skills required by all principals and their personal development needs

Skill	Required by all principals		Personal development need	
	No.	%	No.	%
Budgetary skills	365	70	311	60
Handling skills	257	49	230	44
Problem-solving skills	235	45	182	35
Interpersonal skills	228	44	157	30
Crisis management skills	208	40	192	37

Counselling and guidance skills	206	39	208	40
Communication skills	189	36	116	22
Delegation skills	148	28	142	27
Report writing skills	118	23	104	20
Presentation skills	73	14	86	16
Chairing meetings	63	12	57	11

Bush and Heystek (2006:70) indicated that as the principal's role shifted from a routine administrator to visionary leader and strategic manager, they needed much more. They also needed more effective training if they are to carry out their responsibilities successfully.

Mestry and Grobler (2002:22) reported that principals were perceived to lack the capacity to handle multifaceted tasks and basic managerial competencies. These include democratising school governance, building learning programmes, chairing meetings, handling bigger classes, controlling discipline, handling multilingual instructions, the establishment of effective communication, conflict management skills, dispute resolution and labour issues, and financial skills.

Today many schools in South Africa are still faced with severe contextual problems which would present a serious challenge even to fully trained principals and governors. These include:

- Lack of basic infrastructure and facilities, such as running water (11.5%), electricity (16%), and ablutions (5.24% have no toilets on-site).
- Insufficient classrooms.
- Limited learning equipment and learning materials such as textbooks, overheads, and desks.
- Lack of libraries (79%), laboratories (60%) and computer centres (68%).
- Lack of sports facilities.
- Undertrained and poorly motivated educators.
- Illiteracy amongst parents and school governors.

- The scourge of HIV and AIDS which is ravaging families, especially in poverty-stricken areas. Children are required to look after sick parents and assist with providing some income for the family by working part-time, many taking on increasing responsibilities as head of households.

Principals need to be adaptable and responsive to local circumstances, and this requires managers with new skills sets and styles of working.

In addition to the district or circuit office, principalsare accountable and answerable to a range of stakeholders including parents, SGB, learners and educators (Bush *et al.*, 2008:142). Many principals need to develop this understanding of accountability and the interpersonal skills and attributes to interact with communities both inside and outside the system.

During the research interviews, both the DoE and GDE mentioned lack of a professional ethic in many underperforming schools in the country, including frequent educator absenteeism, lack of punctuality, mismanagement of school funds, lack of discipline, lack of safe and secure environments, demotivated teaching staff, poor principal-staff relationships with a lack of respect and trust for the head, and immoral behaviour, as a key to resolving the consequence of poor and weak leadership by the principal. People-centred principals with a vision that has a moral purpose and value system built around respect, fairness, equality, integrity, honesty, and care for the well-being and development of the potential for their staff and students are needed.

Recent evidence from the baseline case studies of the ACE mid-term evaluation reinforced many of the above findings and revealed that the current intake of principals and aspiring principals have plenty of scope to improve their leadership and management practice, specifically in the following areas: ability to delegate to staff, ability to lead staff appropriately by inspiring them and modelling good leadership practice, moving beyond paper-based administration lead and managing school development, skills in addressing and resolving interpersonal conflicts, skills in the management of teaching and learning, and the ability to work closely with their communities and to lead community development (Bush *et al.*, 2008:14).

2.33 POLICY FRAMEWORK FOR EDUCATION MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Although the 1996 Task Team on Education Management Development made a number of recommendations, no national framework was in place to guide education management and leadership development in South Africa until the new draft policy framework was released in 2003. The fundamental objective of the DoE's draft policy framework on effective management and leadership development is the advancement of effective teaching and learning (DoE, 2004:3).

The policy framework sets out the DoE's broad strategy for capacity building in management and leadership in South African schools. The framework proposes the professionalisation of education managers and leaders, through the introduction of professional management and leadership qualifications and, ultimately, a national professional certification for principals (DoE, 2004:3). Integral to this policy framework is the role of national and provincial departments of education, supported by HEIs and services providers, in realising the vision of effective South African schools that are capably managing and governing themselves within their communities and supported by their cluster group, networks and districts (DoE, 2004:3).The policy framework, developed through substantial consultation with major stakeholder groupings in South African education, advocates that the emphasis in training and development must be on supporting and developing managers and leaders who can lead and manage the process of change to guide improvement, efficiency and effectiveness in their organisations and environment (DoE, 2004:5).

2.34 THE STAGES OF HEADSHIP

Studies suggest that principals move through a series of development stages as they experience a complex process of socialisation, which involves both experiential and formal learning (Weindling, 2003:10). A number of models have been developed to describe the various stages of school leadership development. The model of Weindling (1999) is based on empirical data from a 10-year longitudinal study of over 200 new secondary school headteachers. The model includes the following steps:

- Stage 0 – Preparation prior toheadship
- Stage 1–Entry and encounter (first months in post)
- Stage 2 – Taking hold (3 to 12 months)

- Stage 3 – Reshaping (second year)
- Stage 4 – Refinement (year 3 to 4)
- Stage 5 – Consolidation (year 5 to 7)
- Stage 6 – Plateau or regeneration   (years 8 and onwards)

The NCSL framework identifies five stages of school leadership:

- Emergent leadership: when a teacher takes on management and leadership responsibilities.

- Established leadership: experienced leaders such as assistants and deputy heads who do not intend to pursue headship.

- Entry to leadership: a teacher's preparation for and induction into a senior leadership post in the school.

- Advanced leadership: mature school leaders (after 3-4 years in the role).

- Consultant leadership: able and experienced leaders taking on the training, mentoring and coaching of other headteachers (NCSL, 2009:9).

These five stages present possible progression routes throughout the profession for teachers aspiring to headteacher posts, although the framework is not designed as a liner system (Hartle and Thomas, 2003:14). The NCSL maintains that there are still gaps and are evaluating whether they are offering the right provision and focus.

Stroud (2005:101) reports on the huge lack of literature relating to experienced headteachers in general, particularly with respect to their professional development. Through a qualitative research study of 14 long-serving headteachers, in a single region in the south west of England, Stroud (1995:100) makes a number of recommendations on how to professionally stimulate and update experienced headteachers. All headteachers interviewed thought there was a need for something different for experienced headteachers. They all thought they had been neglected, and most found other avenues for their professional stimulation.

The recommendations from the interviews and focus groups of Stroud (2005:100) include the following:

- Training providers should consider the development of a programme for experienced headteachers that would include ways of continually developing the head, staff and

school, with an understanding of improving relationships, curriculum and procedures from the point of view of maintenance rather than initial development.

- Providers should offer appropriate professional development, thus allowing experienced headteachers to choose their own direction.

- Universities may want to look at a course for experienced headteachers as part of a degree.

- Experienced headteachers want more coaching and mentoring and bespoke opportunities for professional.

- Headteachers need to provide input into the development of these courses.

- More personalised types of training and professional development catering for principals' varying needs should be offered.

- Facilitators of courses need to have experience in headship.

- Providers should offer more development in the area of strategic planning.

- Maintaining staff motivation and the school vision over an extended period is a potential area for course development, as well as the professional development of others.

- Breakfast courses are a more suitable time to be away from the office.

- National standards should differentiate between the competencies required by the new and experienced headteacher.

2.35 PRINCIPALSHIP AS AN OPPORTUNITY

Zaccaro (2007) brings out that some researchers point to a growing empirical base, indicating that an individual's attributes and traits can be important precursors of leadership and attribute maximally to leadership emergence. This perspective weighs heavily in favour of evolving and conceptualising leadership practices from purposeful intrinsic engagement learning processes. Crawford (2009:55), reflecting on this as the emotional intelligence of school leaders, points out, leadership is much more an art,a belief, a condition of the heart,

103

than a set of things to do. The visible signs (outward expression of the innate quality) of artful leadership are expressed, ultimately, in its practices.

By implication, it is the conceived perception of leadership that gives birth to practices of leadership as an expression of the innate self. The innate assets of the novice principals enable him or her to overcome personal and professional difficulties and overturn deeply rooted perceptions of the difficulties associated with being a novice principal (Crow *et al.*, 2008). Leithwood (2005) notes that internally generated learning catalyses rapid resourcefulness, improvisation and mental agility in the face of introductory school leadership problems which are augmented by a large number of global education realities defined by the legislative and policy frameworks mandating what schools do around the world.

Hargreaves (2003:142) presents the argument from the perspectives of questioning the efficacy of externally introduced capacity developing programmes. He postulates, "novice principals, inducted into performance training initiatives, tend to lose their capacity or desire to make professional leadership judgments, becoming more reflective over time". Fullan (2003) reasons that dependency on externally formulated workshops robs the novice principal the opportunityto take the initiative and progressively tailor the pieces of national education legislation and policies to the individual needs of their school. He indicates that innately developed or learned leadership motivates the newly promoted principals to be avid readers of global social, economic and educational trends in order to enable them to interpret where and how schools' energies should be deployed. Bush (2008) complements Fullan's statement by expressing that it is yet to be seen if the national leadership training initiatives produce more proficient novice principals. Informed by these arguments, MacBeath *et al.,* (2007) may be correct in deducting that prescribing what and how for newly promoted principals is counterproductive given the widely differing contexts. It may be reasonable tolet each maximisehis or her innate leadership potential through learning experiences afforded by the opportunity of becoming a new principal.

2.36   CHAPTER SUMMARY

From the foregoing discussion, it is clear that worldwide there is widespread recognition of the need for a pre-service qualification for principals' continuing professional development throughout their careers. The literature considered has shown various important aspects of professional development of principals in different countries. The arguments of various

authors have also shown that professional development cannot be limited to single orkshops; it should be a well-planned process which enables principals to play their vital role in bringing about school improvement and effectiveness. The discussion highlighted a number of crucial programmes in which principals are prepared and developed for school leadership. These include ACE, which is currently being introduced by the Department of Education as a pre-service qualification targeted at developing aspiring principals in South Africa.

To field-test whether South African ACE is similar to curricula offered by other schools of leadership and management around the world, numerous leadership development programmes in different countries were discussed. The final section of this chapter highlighted issues pertaining to theprovision of professional development of Gauteng principals, assessing the extent, nature and quality of school management development and governor training at MGSLG including a policy framework for education management and leadership development and its objectives.

In the next chapter, school leadership for school improvement with theaim of understanding its impact on school capacity and student learning will be presented. This is followed by the discussion of theoretical frameworks to guide school improvement.

CHAPTER 3: SCHOOL LEADRSHIP AND SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT: UNDERSTANDING THE IMPACT ON SCHOOL CAPACITY AND STUDENT LEARNING

3.1   INTRODUCTION

Over the past few years, there has been an expansion of leadership tasks and responsibilities within the schooling context, both globally and within the South African context. This has created increased demands and pressures on schools. It has therefore become necessary to actively and purposefully distribute leadership within a school, in order to deal with these pressures and demands and to ensure that leadership within schools is effective. Harris and Spillane (2008:31) maintain that leadership requires diverse expertise, and consequently, diverse forms of leadership are required to meet the demands and challenges that schools face. The old organisational structure that relied on the principals as the sole "expert" in the school will not be able to meet the needs of a changing school environment. On that account, new approaches to school leadership are necessary.

The preceding chapter dealt with literature relevant to this study. In this chapter, school improvement leadership focusing on the use of collaborative leadership practices in schools is presented. The chapter will first address collaborative leadership as an important school improvement leadership. This will be followed by a discussion on school improvement and its link to change, approaches to school improvement and change, and evaluation of school improvement. Finally, the chapter will highlight the school improvement within the South African context and the theoretical frameworks to guide school improvement.

3.2   COLLABORATIVE LEADERSHIP

Different forms of leadership are described in literature using adjectives such as "instructional", "distributed", "collaborative", "transformational", and "strategic". These labels primarily capture different stylistic and methodological approaches. Leithwood *et al.* (2004:6) caution that too often these adjectives mask the important underlying objectives of what they are all trying to accomplish, namely helping the organisation set directions and influencing members to move in those directions. Harris (2005:77), in a discussion of the dominant leadership theories in education, uses them as a framework to present and evaluate different leadership theories. She emphasises that they must be seen as artificial boundaries

that attempt to analyse and describe rather than categorise or constrain. A brief summary of collaborative leadership styles is provided below, with a more detailed discussion on how they contribute and link toschool improvement.

This period of stripped-down budgets is causing educators, community leaders, policymakers and other stakeholders to be more aware of the need to use scarce resources to maximise results (Blank, Jacobson, Melaville & Pearson, 2010). "Most schools, health and social service providers, youth development organisations, higher education institutions, public and private agencies and government officials work in isolated 'silos', concentrating on single issues. Experience teaches that these single issues overlap and diverse stakeholders are all, in fact, responsible for the same children, the same families and the same communities. But bureaucratic organisation and fragmented funding streams make it hard for their respective sectors to work together to better meet community and family needs."

Collaborative leadership and community school theories align with what is being addressed and examined in developing cross-section collaboration. The Connecticut State Board of Education (2002) adopted a position statement endorsing the requirement for 21st-century schools to initiate the type of leadership that can promote the changes essential to adequately prepare students for the world today and for the future. Research suggests that the underpinning for high academic achievement, more productive schools and students is strong collaborative leadership which includes community-based collaborative leaders.

Collaborative leadership is demonstrated by groups working together to solve agreed-upon issues. It uses supportive and inclusive methods to ensure that all people affected by a decision are part of the change process. For effective collaboration to take place, it is important for people to release their ego and participate honestly and openly in the process (Sergiovanni, 1994). A fact which cannot be disputed is that schools are facing increasingly complex situations, uncertainty, ambiguity, and high expectations for innovation and reform. Educational leaders, adopting more collaborative forms of leadership, which involve parents, teachers, students and other stakeholders in the process, could prove enriching and connective for all involved (Murphy and Hallinger, 1992). Working collaboratively is an unavoidable feature of the 21st-century school and a consistent part of government policy for the provision of services to children. Unfortunately, little research has been undertaken into the nature of leadership required to maximise the potential of such partnerships based on working within this context (Coleman, 2011).

New collaborative leadership models are different from more traditionally individualistic models of leadership (Senge and Kaeufer, 2001; Fletcher and Kaeufer, 2003; Fletcher, 2004). Although research in new leadership thinking details collective, collaborative and distributed forms of leadership as better leadership models for dealing with contemporary organisational challenges, the leadership development literature still focuses primarily on the individual leader. New conceptualisations of leadership are overlooked while continuing to focus on traditional skills (DeRue and Wellman, 2009).

School leaders will face challenges that seem to have no solution. Johansen (2009:3) states that interestingly, they will have to make tough decisions anyway. "Leaders will be buffeted, but they need not allow themselves to be overwhelmed, depressed or immobilized. Leaders must do more than just respond to the whirl of events, though respond they must. They must be positive change agents in the midst of chaos, creating the future. Some things can get better, even as other things get worse." To help create a better future, leaders must seek experiences and opportunities to learn and apply new leadership skills.

Over the past 50 years, scholars in Europe (Bell, Bolam & Cubillo, 2003; Krüger, Witziers & Sleegers, 2007; Southworth, 2002; Van de Grift, 1990; Witziers, Bosker & Krüger, 2003), North America (Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan & Lee, 1982; Gross and Herriott, 1965; Hallinger and Heck, 1996; Heck and Hallinger, 2009; Leithwood, Anderson, Mascall & Strauss, in press; Marks and Printy, 2003; Pounder, Ogawa & Adams, 1995; Wiley, 2001), and Asia-Pacific (Caldwell, 1998; Cheng, 1994; Mulford and Silins, 2009; Robinson, Lloyd & Rowe, 2008) have sought to understand if and how leadership contributes to school improvement and more specifically to student learning (Heck and Hallinger, 2005).This research generally supports the conclusion that leadership contributes to learning through the development of a set of structural and socio-cultural processes that define the school's capacity for academic improvement (Hallinger, Bickman & Davis, 1996; Hallinger and Heck, 1996; Heck, Larson & Marcoulides, 1990; Leithwood *et al.* in press; Robinson *et al.*, 2008; Southworth, 2002).

While this finding offers encouragement to policymakers and practitioners, this research has relied largely upon cross-sectional surveys of principal effectiveness and case studies of school improvement (Heck and Hallinger, 2005; Reynolds, Teddlie, Hopkins & Stringfield, 2000). Neither research design offers a satisfactory approach to understanding how. Thus, the authors assert that gaining deeper insight into this issue requires longitudinal data that describe changes in school processes and outcomes in a substantial number of schools over

time (Hallinger, 2003; Hallinger and Heck, 1996; Reynolds *et al.*, 2000; Southworth, 2002). Scholars have framed the 'elusive search' (Witziers *et al.*, 2003) for a link between leadership and learning through a variety of contrasting perspectives. In their study paper, they compare four conceptual perspectives or models:

- a direct effects model in which leadership is conceptualised as the primary driver for changes in student learning;
- a mediated effects model in which leadership drives growth in student learning by shaping and strengthening the school's capacity for improvement;
- a reversed mediated effects model in which the school's results,that is, changes in student learning outcomes drive changes in school improvement capacity and leadership; and
- reciprocal effects model in which leadership and school improvement capacity are conceptualised as a mutual influence process that contributes to growth in student learning.

3.3   SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT LEADERSHIP

Empirical research finds that successful school leadership creates conditions that support effective teaching and learning and builds capacity for professional learningand change (Fullan, 2001; Hallinger *et al.*, 1996; Hallinger and Heck, 1996; Heck *et al.*, 1990; Leithwood *et al.* in press; Marks and Printy, 2003; Mulford and Silins, 2009; Robinson *et al.*, 2008; Wiley, 2001). Over the past decade, there has been increased interest in exploring the sources, means and implications of viewing school leadership more broadly than that which is exercised by the principal (Gronn, 2002; Leithwood *et al.*, 2009; Ogawa and Bossert, 1995). Although scholars have proposed meaningful distinctions between terms such as distributed (Gronn, 2002; Spillane, 2006), shared (Marks and Printy, 2003; Pounder *et al.*, 1995), and collaborative (Hallinger and Heck, 1996) leadership, all three terms reflect a similar concern for broadening the sources of school leadership. They suggest that collaborative leadership focuses on strategic school-wide actions that are directed towards school improvement and shared among the principal, teachers, administrators and others. In the context of this study, collaborative leadership entailed the use of governance structures and organisational processes that empowered staff and students, encouraged broad participation in decision-making, and fostered shared accountability for student learning. They note that the state in which this study took place had been actively promoting the use of

school leadership teams as a means of fostering school improvement. Increasing the school's capacity for improvement represents a key target of leadership efforts designed to impact teacher practice and student learning (Fullan, 2001; Leithwood *et al.* in press; Heck and Hallinger, 2009; Robinson *et al*., 2008). In their research, they defined school improvement capacity as school conditions that support teaching and learning, enable the professional learning of the staff, and provide a means for implementing strategic actions aimed at continuous school improvement (Fullan, 2001; Heck and Hallinger, 2009; Hill and Rowe, 1996; Leithwood *et al.,* in press; Mulford and Silins, 2009; Stoll and Fink, 1996). They sought to develop a dynamic picture of school improvement in their study by measuring teachers' perceptions of their school's collective leadership and related school improvement processes at several points in time. This information was used to define an 'improvement trajectory' that portrayed change in these processes for each school over a four-year period of time.

3.4 GLOBAL PERSPECTIVES OF EFFECTIVE SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

Numerous research studies consider headship as a crucial factor in school effectiveness and the key to organisational success and improvement (Early and Weindling, 2004:3). Bush *et al.* (1999) and Murgatroyd and Morgan (1993, quoted in Botes, 2006:22) also accentuate the role of effective leadership in effective schooling. The stress, however, is on a firm, purposeful and participative approach and professionalism. Emphasising the importance of effective school leadership in the quality of a school, Dunford *et al.* (2000:1) state, effective leadership is one of the most important factors in the success of a school. There is a very high degree of correlation between the behaviours of the head and progress and achievements of people in the school.

Conversely, Kruchov, MacBeath and Riley (1998:xi) discuss how the school leadership in Australia, England, Denmark and Scotland shifted grounds due to new policy implementation. The emphasis on the development of performance indicators and parents as consumers brought new pressure to and expectations on school leadership, and created a need for development. Similarly, Fullan (1992:viii), Gunter (2001:25) and Dunford *et al.,* (2000:4) stress that the implementation of the Education Reform Act of 1988 in England and Wales changed the role of the school leadership. The management power shifted from the Local Management of Schools to the school governors. Dunford *et al.,* (2000:4) also discuss the

decentralisation of decision-making to schools in USA and New Zealand and the subsequent changes in school leadership roles and expectations.

Numerous studies on expectations of effective leadership (Dempster and Logan, 1998:84-92; Reeves, Moos & Forrest, 1998:52) emphasise that the shift in expectations of implementation created a change in the role of school leadership. The shift to school-based management and the decentralisation of responsibilities to schools created an expansion of the management power of the school leadership (Dempster and Logan, 1998:81-85).

Effective school leadership is defined around the concepts of strategic planning, empowering others, and managing the organisational culture and attention through vision (Paterson *et al.*, 1986; Block, 1987; Fullan, 1992:20-25). It seems that the managing and leading tasks of school leadership are complex and interrelated, and that there is no clearly defined, specific role for effective leadership. The current leadership is overloaded with a complex range of tasks and additional stress brought by the changed education system and globalisation. Subsequently, this increases dependency and ineffectiveness, and calls for redefinition of the leadership's role.

According to Fullan (1992:6), due to overload, the role of headship in Ontario was redefined explicitly to state that the head is expected to lead school-level implementation of policies and programmes. Huber (2004:671) observes that besides decentralisation, there are increasingly corresponding efforts to centralise and control. Huber refers to quality control through school inspection or external evaluation and assessing the implementation of the national curriculum with national standardised tests. In fact, the roles and functions of school leadership have changed globally. Consequently, school leaders are confronted with various challenges and demands. The deduction drawn, however, is that school leadership has become so challenging that those promoting the 'traditional' leadership concepts can hardly be effective school leaders. As a major concern is the learning and progress of pupils, there seems to be a need that the headship should move from being a 'gatekeeper' to being an instructional leader. This requires certain skills and competencies that a highly disturbing number of school leaders do not have. As effective schools literature stresses empowerment of leadership and leadership teams or effective school leadership (Dunford *et al.*, 2000:4), perhaps the central concern here should be the development of school leadership.

3.5 THE LANDSCAPE OF THEORY AND RESEARCH IN STUDIES OF SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

Recent studies on school leadership in South Africa have tended to draw, understandably so, on the research and theory that has burgeoned in USA, the UK and Australia in recent decades. At a time of globalisation and policy borrowing, this is not surprising. Three debates have been significant in shaping this broad landscape in recent decades: uncertainty about the nature of the field; discursive shifts; and the move towards school-based management.

3.5.1 Uncertainty about the field

In looking across literature on school administration, management and leadership, one of the striking features is a preoccupation with the nature of the field and its knowledge basis. Ribbins (2007), for example, notes a large number of special editions of journals in the United Kingdom and Australia that have reflected on the state of educational administration. He highlights a number of questions that have troubled theorists and researchers on this terrain. For example: Is it to be understood as a discipline, a field of knowledge, a domain of teaching and learning, a set of practices? What counts as knowledge, and how is it produced? Is research sufficiently related to theory, or is it largely a technical activity? Looking at work in the UK and Australia, Ribbins identifies two separate epistemic communities: first, policy studies; and, second, leadership, administration and management studies. Whereas, in his view, the latter has overemphasised 'how to do' and 'what works', the former has overemphasised 'what should be done' and 'how far is this being achieved'. This epistemic split, he argues, is to the detriment of both communities of scholarship. It is interesting to note that Ribbins airs these and other concerns in his contribution to a themed edition of the South African Journal of Education looking at educational leadership in South Africa.

There can be no doubt that the landscape of leadership, management and administration is methodologically diverse and its central concepts are by no means settled. Heck and Hallinger (2005), both of whom have strong publication records in the field, are not complimentary about its state. In their review of the field of educational leadership and management, Heck and Hallinger (2005:229) conclude that 'there is less agreement on the significant problems that scholars should address than in past years', that the field lacks methodological and scholarly criteria for judgments of value, and that there is too little sustained and rigorous empirical research in the field.

Interestingly, Harris (2007:107), in identifying the same 'crisis', frames this as an opportunity rather than a threat, celebrating the chance to move away from 'the traditional model of leadership that simply does not match the organisational complexity of twenty-first-century schooling'. This resonates with the views of scholars such as Thomson (2000) and Gunter (2001) who, in different ways, have urged the field to be more creative and diverse, as well as Blackmore (1999), whose work on gender has posed fundamental challenges to established 'malestream' assumptions in leadership and administration.

Uncertainty about the parameters of the field and, in particular, what counts as good researchwithin it, suggests that the proliferation of studies in recent years does not necessarily come with Christie: Landscapes of Leadership in South African Schools 697, a consolidation of research knowledge or good practice. This applies in South Africa as well as the UK and USA. Reviewing the existing research on management and leadership in South Africa, Bush *et al*. (2006) asserted that most of it was not conceptually rich and noted the need for a theory of research relevant to the South African context. Specifically, Bush *et al*. (2006:11) noted the limitations with regard to the management of teaching and learning, stating that 'they are not accounts of how school principals and other school managers exercise "instructional leadership" in their schools and seek to develop an effective culture of teaching and learning'. Similarly, when surveying the literature for a large-scale (but geographically limited) study of instructional leadership in South Africa in 2008. Hoadley and Ward (2008:11) comment that 'the South African leadership research base is very limited'. They note that studies on training and development for school managers 'dominate the field', and that much of the research that exists focuses on policy rather than on what principals actually do.To sum up, it is noteworthy that in South Africa as elsewhere, scholars in the field are not fully confident that the existing research base does justice to the nature of the field and the complexity of its central concepts, particularly in times of change.

3.5.2 Discursive shifts

A second theme that can be traced across the landscape of this area of work in US,UK and Australian literature is a shift in interest from 'administration' to 'management' to 'leadership'. In part, there are geographical differences: whereas 'administration' was the preferred term in USA from the 1950s onwards (and was the term used in pre-1994 South Africa), 'management' was favoured in the UK (with principals being designated 'headteachers' until the 1970s). Bush (2008) contends that the term 'management' in UK

research in the 1970s and 1980s indicated the prevalence of models drawn from business and industry. These included bureaucratic and rational models of management. These models were transferred with little reflection about the suitability of business models for schools. The shift to school-based management in the 1990s sharpened the notion of school principals as managers, requiring a repertoire of management skills to run their schools as organisations. At the same time, the term 'leadership' – again often imported from business literature – became fashionable. Having previously been viewed as a dimension of management, it came to eclipse management as the ascendant term.

In part, these differences in use of terms are semantic, reflecting conventions and fashions. Partly, however, they are also substantive. For as Foucault (1969) points out, discourse systematically and actively forms that about which it speaks. In a Foucauldian approach, discourses establish relationships between language, power, meaning and subjectivity. They demarcate what counts as knowledge, who the 'experts' are, and how 'problems' should be identified and understood. Thus, they provide shared social meanings.Where discourses are drawn from business and industry, their terminology and ways of understanding issues inevitably sets out particular understandings of the world, subject positions and relationships of power/knowledge. Thus, for example, teachers are reframed as 'human resources', parents and students become 'clients', and education a 'product' to be bought and sold on the market. Management dimensions of school organisationare placed in the foreground, and principals are framed as 'managers' to whom fashionable business approaches such as 'total quality management' and 'strategic planning' are offered as 'solutions' to problems of 'performance'. The shift to a discourse of leadership has tended to emphasise the principal as an individual, and the principal's work as influencing others in visionary if not 'transformational' ways. 'Instructional leadership' and 'leadership dispersal' have appeared as complementary terms,and no doubt new trends will emerge as the discourse extends. This is not to deny that management and leadership discourses may be useful for education. Rather, it is to suggest that if these discourses are unproblematically transferred from business and industry to education, they are likely to frame education issues in terms that do not necessarily reflect educational considerations or situations in schools. Conflation of the concepts of managementand leadership obscures the situation further, as does the tendency to view leadership in exclusively positive terms. Moreover, there is also the danger that a generic approach to management and/or leadership may mask the specific conditions that principals need to deal with on a day-to-day basis in running schools. As mentioned earlier,

singular or monolithic constructs cannot adequately address the historical, linguistic and political situatedness of schools and their management/leadership. Because of that, more fluid and inflected concepts and approaches are needed.

3.5.3 School based-management

One of the management approaches that has been introduced in educational contexts is that of performance management and the setting of 'standards' for principals and teachers, as part of a broader drive for accountability and performativity. These standards, often termed 'professional standards', provide codified descriptions of work, as well as expected values and behaviour, and criteria for achievement. Thus, they may operate as a regulative framework of accountability (Moller, 2009; Ozga, 2003), which is in conflict with traditional notions of professional accountability,where ethical codes and specialist knowledge provide the basis for discretionary action.

Turning then to explore the above-mentioned theme in the context of South Africa, it is interesting to note that discourses of leadership and management surfaced as the education system was being redesigned in the dying days of apartheid. Under apartheid, educational administration was characterised by a high degree of centralisation and was operated along bureaucratic administrative lines. Previously, principals had no budgetary authority or influence in their schools over the flow of resources such as textbooks, little or no influence over hiring and firing of staff, and almost no curriculum decision-making powers (Fleisch and Christie, 2004). The first initiative to address educational management in the post-apartheid period, termed Changing Management to Management Change (Department of Education, 1996), showed a marked switch in discourse as well as focus. The activity of principals was profiled as 'management', signifying their responsibility for running schools and, at the same time, highlighting their role in transformation to meet new constitutional principles of democracy and equality.

3.6   SCHOOL LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING FOR POLICY IMPLEMENTATION

Modern school leadership theories stress management as a shared responsibility. Such theories also place the school leaders as managers of change in the first place (Moss and Demster, 1998:105; Dunford *et al.*, 2000:4).

Studies on school improvement stress that strong leadership is essential in order for innovations to be effective and sustained. Whether innovations are initiated from outside the school or from within, they require the support and direction from the school leadership. According to Fullan (1992:12), there are very few cases where innovations were successfully implemented without the headship playing a leading role. Thus, there seems to be an international consensus about the important role of leadership in the implementation of any policy for the improvement of the quality of schools.

It is argued in leadership development literature that taking part in effective leadership development programmes enhances skills, competencies and abilities needed to implement a policy successfully and to manage effectively. Both Early and Weindling (2004:183) and Reeves and Dempster (1998:163) stress continuous support, capacity building and development of the leadership; they call for collective and integrated action at the national and regional levels. There is also an emphasis on the development of the management teams, as management is a distributed and shared responsibility.

Nonetheless, there are different international patterns and models for school leadership development and empowerment. Huber (2004:676) refers to a research project on school leadership development in 15 countries in Europe, Asia, Australia and North America to stress the emergence of a broad variety of school development approaches and models. Huber further discusses the current trends and paradigm shifts in qualifying school leaders and the aims of various development programmes. His emphasis seems to be on formal development programmes.

Dunford *et al.* (2000:6) stress the structured leadership programmes in England. On the other hand, Early and Weindling (2004:174-179), Van Wieringen (1992:1-21) and Solfronk (1992:93-99) discuss various models, strategies and programmes for leadership development in Europe.

Certainly, school leadership requires professional preparation and empowerment to implement any educational reform or policy. More importantly, if such reforms or policies are initiated from outside of the school, leadership development should include the management teams, the governing bodies and the staff. As Huber (2004:676) seems to stress, such development should be rigorously intensive. However, while training for policy implementation is stressed as important, successful implementation of an educational policy such as the national standards of education (NSE) may also require well-coordinated

continuous development programmes. Implementing a policy for continuous school improvement is seemingly not as easy and prestigious as drafting one.

3.7   UNDERSTANDING SCHOOL LEADERSHIP IN AFRICA

Africa is part of the seemingly growing global competitiveness and internationalisation of education. Therefore, education as a whole in Africa has been influenced by global 'factors'. Gunter (2001:28) observes that there is evidence in Africa of 'policy borrowing' that is influenced by global moves such as the operation of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank. However, it seems that education in Africa is faced with more problems than elsewhere in the world. However, it has been argued in literature that globalisation of education is heightening the inequalities further, especially between Africa and the developed countries.

Literature on effective leadership in Africa recognises successful leadership as a crucial factor to school effectiveness (Bush and Oduro, 2006:359; Mestry and Grobler, 2004:2). Nevertheless, such literature stresses that leadership in Africa should be understood in relation to the daunting challenges facing principals in Africa. According to Bush and Oduro (2006:359, 370), principals in Africa lead and manage their schools under very difficult circumstances. Often schools are poorly equipped with inadequately trained staff, and the learners may also be suffering the consequences of poverty and HIV and AIDS. Bush and Oduro (2006:370) note, "almost every country in Africa can be classified as 'developing', with severe economic, social, health and educational problems". Even South Africa, the most advanced country in Africa, has schools without power, water and sanitation. Quoting Kitavi and Van der Westhuizen (1997), Bush and Oduro (2006:359-360) refer to the problems experienced by the leadership in Kenya. The two authors discuss in detail various problems facing the African headship. The Commonwealth Secretariat (1996:7) also discusses challenges faced by heads in Africa including lack of support for articulated policies.

Research literature on leadership development in Africa notes that the school leadership in Africa is faced with various demands and challenges. Mestry and Grobler (2004:3) discuss various demands and challenges that South African principals face. This includes establishing a culture of learning and teaching, managing change and conflict, and coping with limited resources. Such a range of demands and challenges complicates the scope of the role of the headship in Africa. Mestry and Grobler (2004:3) explore further the external factors that complicate the principals' role. The pace of change and the need to be adaptable and

responsive to local circumstances require new skills and competences that can only be fostered through training and development.

Despite the fact that almost all heads in Africa operate under difficult circumstances, environments present diverse and unique demands and challenges. Thus, there are significant differences within countries and from one country to another. The demographic, political, resources and cultural dimensions seem to be emphasised as some of the major factors for ineffective schooling in most African countries.

Notwithstanding a complex range of problems facing heads and the growing realisation that there is a need for training and development for the headship in Africa, there is less leadership development and training (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1993:1; Mestry and Grobler, 2004:2). Consequently, the African leadership finds it difficult to cope due to lack of necessary skills, competences and attitudes needed to manage and lead schools effectively.

According to the Commonwealth Secretariat (1996:5), little attention is given to the training and support of heads in Africa. As a result, many African heads manage their schools by a trial-and-error approach. Hence, the need for training in Africa is far stronger than in developed countries. The Commonwealth Secretariat (1996:23-57) discusses and suggests various self-development, professional development and training programmes including professional associations, lectures and workshops.

Bush and Oduro (2006:370) emphasise that principals in Africa are appointed without specific preparation and receive little or no induction. Even after appointment, there is little or no access to suitable in-service training. The support from the regional bureaucracy is also inadequate. Quoting the Commonwealth Secretariat (1996), Bush and Oduro (2006:370) state that the need to train and develop the headship in Africa has been perceived, but to translate it into effective provision has been elusive. It is argued that many African countries see preparation of heads as a low priority. Further, those responsible for training and supporting headteachers lack the necessary capacity.

It seems evident that preparation and professional development for school leadership are inadequate throughout Africa, but it is highly needed (Bush and Oduro, 2006:371; Mestry and Grobler, 2004:3). There is however an emerging consensus about the content of the school leadership development programmes. Quoted in Gunter (2001:87), Coombe and White (1994) as well as Kitavi and Van der Westhuizen (1997) discuss various strategies of how

118

leadership skills and the knowledge of heads in Africa can be developed to help improve the quality of education. Mestry and Grobler (2004:8) underscore the need for development and training and suggest the competence and competency development models. Bush and Oduro (2006:371-372) emphasise training through coherent in-service programmes and certification in school leadership. There is reference to an Advanced Certificate in Education Management, which is under consideration in South Africa. Arguably, it seems research literature on school leadership and leadership training and development in Africa stresses the unique and diverse circumstances of education in Africa. According to Bush and Oduro (2006:370), Africa is so unique that even the policy prescriptions in Africa are not always fulfilled in practice.

3.8   EFFECTIVE PRINCIPAL LEADERSHIP AND STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT

Numerous research studies have been undertaken to investigate the relationship between principal leadership and student achievement. Hallinger and Heck (1998) in a review of empirical research conducted during 1980-1995 conclude that principals exercise a measurable, though indirect effect on school effectiveness and student achievement, supporting the general belief among educators that principals contribute to school effectiveness and improvement (Hallinger and Heck, 1998:157).

Later research focused on the means by which principals achieve an impact on school outcomes and how contextual forces influence the exercise of leadership in the school. Much of the school improvement focus in the United States and later in the United Kingdom has been onlow-performing schools facing challenging circumstances, although few empirical studies are available (Harris, 2002:160). An in-depth, qualitative analysis of 10 case studies of schools facing challenging circumstances and yet showing improved results revealed that headteachers adopt leadership approaches that match the particular stage of a school's development (Harris, 2002:17). The study revealed a number of common themes:

- Vision and values: Heads communicated their personal vision, built around core values of respect, fairness, equality, integrity, honesty and care for the well-being and development of the potential of their staff and students. Their vision and values primarilyhad a moral purpose.

- Distributed leadership: Heads used teams and individuals throughout the school in their management of change. They tried to bring out the best in staff, using formal development opportunities and involving them in professional autonomy.

- Investing in staff development: The heads were consistently concerned with maintaining staff morale and motivation and constantly promoted staff development through in-service training, visits to other schools or peer support schemes. The heads set high standards for teaching and teacher performance, with their main focus and emphasis being on improving teaching and learning.

- Relationships: The heads were all people-centred, developing and maintaining relationships with staff, students and the community. Human needs were placed above organisational ones, with an emphasis on cultural rather than structural change.

- Community building: All the schools displayed a climate of collaboration and commitment amongst colleagues to work together. The heads also emphasised the need to establish an 'interconnectedness of home, school and community'. Heads created opportunities for lengthy discussions, development and dialogue between those working with aschool as well as between staff and parents.

A study of principals from the state of Virginia in USA revealed that principal quality is linked statistically to student achievement (Kaplan, Owings & Nunnery, 2005:43). The researchers suggested that as principals are increasingly being held accountable for their school's performance, they need to be frequently evaluated and assessed for their own professional growth and school improvement.

3.9   EFFECTIVE PRINCIPAL LEADERSHIP

Using a multi-perspective methodology, Day, Harris and Hadfield (2001) defined effective leadership as being a values-led contingency model that is achievement-orientated and people-centred and is beyond transformational leadership. Successful leaders have the ability to be simultaneously people-centred while managing a number of tensions and dilemmas (Day *et al.,* 2001:36). The study showed that there are no neat solutions to situations which hold so many variables, that successful leadership is defined and driven by individual and collective value systems rather than instrumental, bureaucratic, managerial concerns. The

leaders were reflective, caring and highly principled people who emphasised the human dimension of management. They placed a high premium on personal values and were concerned more with cultural than structural change.

They had the ability to read and adjust to a particular context or set of circumstances they faced, such that their leadership behaviour was contingent on context and situation. The choices they made related directly to their own beliefs, values and leadership style. Centrally important in post-transformational leadership is the cooperation and alignment of others to the leaders' values and vision (Harris, 2005:80).

What then are the implications for the leadership training and development of aspiring and serving school leaders? Worldwide leadership development and training is the focus of most educational systems, underpinned by the widely recognised concept that leaders are 'made, not born'.

"If schools are to become 'knowledge creating' in which 'the knowledge of all the school's members and partners is recognised' and shared, (Hargreaves, 1998:2, cited in Day *et al*., 2001:37) if teachers are to continue to be committed to making a difference in the learning lives of their students through skilful teaching combined with the ethics of 'care, justice and

3.10   LEADERSHIP AND SCHOOL CONTEXT

Each school is unique, and the following contextual factors are likely to be significant in influencing approaches to leadership in schools: school size; level of schooling (elementary, primary, secondary, special); school location (urban, suburban, rural); socio-economic factors; governance, including the policy context, the nature and level of activity of the school management body, parents, the nature and level of activity of the parent body; staffing – the experience and commitment of teachers and other staff; school culture, that is, the way things are done, incorporating the values, beliefs and customs of the school. Limited evidence is available on the impact of each of these variables (Bush and Glover, 2003:29).

Bush and Glover (2003:29) propose that culture may be the most important variable, both at the societal and organisational level. Dimmock and Walker (2000:144) posit that as a result of globalisation, Western paradigms tend to be adopted uncritically and unquestioningly by academics and practitioners in societies and cultures that bear little similarity to those in which the theories originated. Somehow the imported policy gives it international legitimacy, with the result that it is often just implemented without reformulation for the context of the

host society. There is therefore a need to consider cultural sensitivity when borrowing policies and management concepts in education.

Hallinger and Liethwood (1998) developed a framework forcross-cultural study of educational leadership and highlight the need to understand the indigenous meaning of concepts and cultural concepts of principal leadership and school outcomes, which are intimately associated with the cultural norms that predominate within a given social culture. For example, Chinese principals are expected to play a strong instructional leadership role compared to American principals, and conflict management in Asian organisations is not a key skill required by their principals, in contrast to that in American schools. They also highlighted how school outcomes and the goals of a 'good' education vary across cultures. Student achievement is important in America but not in Canada. In China, student retention in school, teacher or parent satisfaction, student discipline or conduct are essential, while a sense of community is important in Malaysia.

Since context is important to the types of competencies and situational knowledge required of school leaders, generic leadership programmes are being replaced by more contextualised notions of leadership. Further research is required to understand how successful leaders create conditions which promote student learning in their schools. School-level factors other than leadership that explain variation in student achievement include the school mission and goals, culture, participation in decision-making, and relationships with parents and the wider community. These are variables over which school leaders have considerable potential influence, and more understanding must be developed around how successful leaders exercise this influence (Leithwood *et al.*, 2004:23).

3.11   DEFINING CONCEPTUAL MODELS OF LEADERSHIP AND LEARNING

It was only since the 1960s that scholars began to conceptualise and study school leadership as directed explicitly towards improvement in the quality of teaching (Gross and Herriott, 1965). Subsequently, this focus was expanded to include the effects of principal leadership on student learning (Bossert *et al.*, 1982; Hallinger and Heck, 1996). In 1988, Pitner proposed several conceptual models that sought to explain the means by which leadership could impact student learning (Pitner, 1988). A decade later, these models were elaborated on in a review of empirical research on principal leadership and student learning (Hallinger and Heck, 1996). In their study, Hallinger and Heck (1996) tested these models as a means of furthering people's understanding of how collaborative leadership contributes to school improvement

and student learning (see Figure 3.1). They note that in contrast to prior research in this domain, their proposed models are conceptualised as 'growth models' rather than 'static models'.

Model 1: Direct Effects where leadership drives change in learning
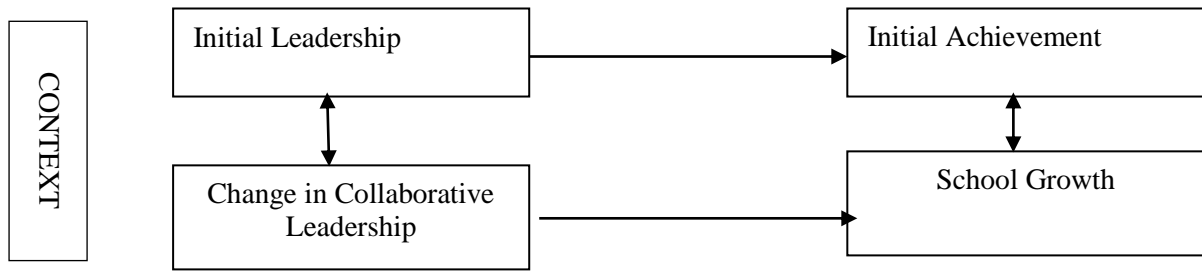
Model 2: Mediated Effects where leadership drives change in Improvement Capacity
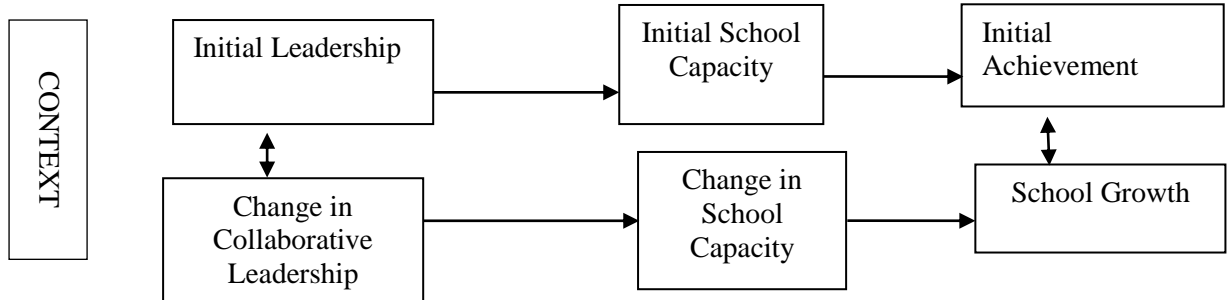
Model 3: Mediated Effects where School Growth is the Driver for Change
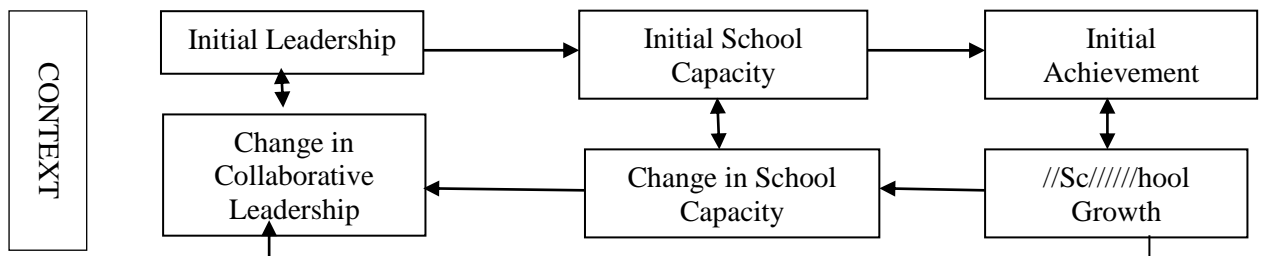
Model 4: Reciprocal Effects where Leadership is a Mutual Influence Process
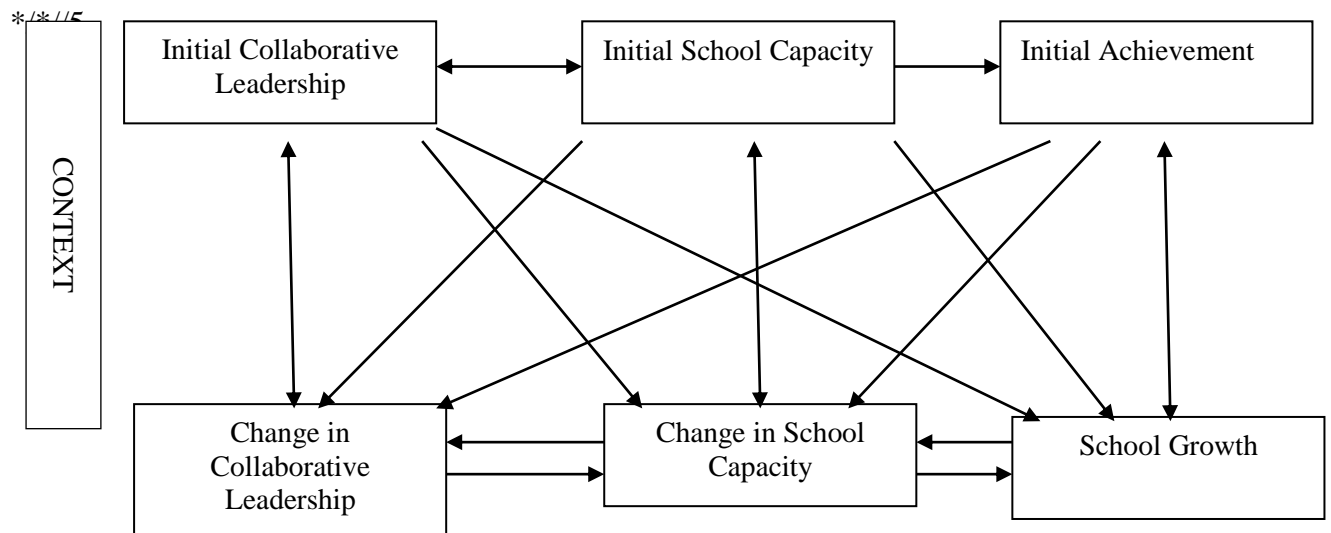
Figure 3.1: Conceptual models of leadership effects

124

3.11.1 Direct effects model (leadership as the driver for change in learning)

Early research in this field implicitly framed the relationship of principal leadership to learning as a direct effects model. Some have termed this a 'heroic leadership' model in that it seeks to explain student learning outcomes solely in terms of the principal's leadership. Typically, researchers employing this approach collected perceptions of principal leadership and student achievement across a set of schools and sought to determine if there were significant patterns in the relationship (Braughton and Riley, 1991; O'Day, 1983). In general, studies employing this type of model did not yield significant results, and scholars were subsequently discouraged from pursuing this path (Hallinger and Heck, 1996). In their analysis of this model, Hallinger and Heck (1996) proposed that change in collaborative leadership might be directly related to change in student achievement, controlling for context factors such as student composition.

3.11.2 Mediated effects model (leadership as the driver for change in capacity)

Given the disappointing results of the direct effects studies, scholars increasingly adopted models that conceptualised the relationship between leadership and learning as mediated by school-level organisational structures and processes that they have referred to as 'school improvement capacity' (Cheng, 1994; Hallinger *et al.*, 1996; Heck *et al.*, 1990; Leithwood and Jantzi, 1999; Marks and Printy, 2003; Wiley, 2001). While these studies continued to frame leadership as a driver for school effectiveness and improvement, they proposed indirect rather than direct effects of leadership on learning (see Model 2 in Figure 3.1). As noted earlier, these indirect effects of principal leadership on student learning are achieved through shaping the school's capacity for academic improvement (Bell*et al.*, 2003; Hallinger and Heck, 1996; Leithwood *et al.* in press; Robinson *et al.*, 2008; Southworth, 2002). This model assumes that changes in leadership and capacity for improvement which take place at the school level produce 'trickle-down' effects on teacher classroom behaviour and student learning (Hallinger and Heck in press; Leithwood *et al.* in press; Mulford and Silins, 2009).

3.11.3 Reversed mediated effects model (change in learning outcomes drives changes in capacity and leadership)

While virtually all mediated effects studies have explicitly framed leadership as the driver for school improvement, one could also conceptualise change in school results (improvement or decline) as providing the impetus for changes in school capacity and leadership as shown in

125

Model 3 (Heck and Hallinger, in press). It is noteworthy that explicit discussions of this mediated effects model are rare in leadership literature. However, Heck and Hallinger observed that scholars have tacitly acknowledged the possibility of this model when they have questioned the direction of the causal relationship between leadership and learning in cross-sectional studies of principal effects (Heck and Hallinger, 2005; Luyten, Visscher & Witziers, 2005; Witziers *et al.*, 2003). Given the interest in exploring all possible avenues of effects, the authors included this conceptual model in their own empirical analyses.

3.11.4 Reciprocal effects model (mutual influence creates paths to improvement in learning)

In their 1996 review of the principal effects literature, Hallinger and Heck (1996:19) noted,'To the extent that leadership is viewed as an adaptive process rather than as a unitary independent force, the reciprocal effects perspective takes on increased salience'. A reciprocal effects model implies that the variables (for example, leadership, school improvement capacity, student learning) *mutually influence one another overtime* (Marsh and Craven, 2006).

The type of reciprocal influence being discussed is shown in two ways in Model 4 (see Figure 3.1). First, the concept of a mutually reinforcing system suggests that the initial status of each variable will explain subsequent changes in the other two variables (see the arrows from the top static portion of the model to the lower growth portion). Secondly, they highlight an indirect feedback loop between the growth factors. This suggests first, as in Model 2, that changes in leadership are likely to influence capacity and growth in learning (indirectly) over time. However, it further proposes that the total or combined effects of collaborative leadership within the school actually increase (or decrease) as a function of changes occurring in improvement capacity and student achievement (see Heck and Hallinger, in press-a). Expressed differently, Heck and Hallinger propose that the interaction over time between leadership and capacity building will produce effects on learning beyond the separate effects of either construct observed at any arbitrary point in time. This formulation of Model 4 is consistent with the proposition of Ogawa and Bossert (1995) that leadership is an 'organisational property' that can increase (or decrease) in both strength and impact over time.

The work of school leaders at any given point in time is shaped by the culture of the school. As leaders initiate changes in work structures, management processes, curriculum,

community relations, and instructional practices, they do so with the constraints, resources, and opportunities afforded by the school's current capacity for improvement in mind. As these conditions that describe the school's academic capacity change over time, theories would suggest that effective leadership behaviour will adapt in response (Fiedler, 1967; Glover, Rainwater, Friedman & Jones, 2002; Hallinger and Heck, 1996; Kimberly and Miles, 1980; Ogawa and Bossert, 1995; Pitner, 1988). Their model suggests that the strength of leadership and its impact on learning will be further moderated by the changing conditions of the school, for better or for worse.

Reciprocal influence and related concepts of responsive adaptation, mutual influence, and leader-follower interaction are implied in various leadership theories (Bass and Avolio, 1994; Bridges, 1977; Fiedler, 1967). However, progress in testing conceptual models that imply reciprocal causation has been hindered by methodological challenges. Reciprocal effects models explicitly propose that behavioural adaptation unfolds over time (Bass and Avolio, 1994; Glover *et al.*, 2002; Hallinger and Heck, 1996; Kimberly and Miles, 1980; Marsh and Craven, 2006; Ogawa and Bossert, 1995). Suitable longitudinal data is, however, difficult to obtain, especially on a scale sufficient to assess the effects of leadership across comparable organisational units (Tate, 2008). Moreover, until recently, they lacked analytical tools capable of modelling reciprocal effects over time (Griffin, 1997; Heck and Hallinger, 2005; Marsh and Craven, 2006; Tate, 2008).

3.12   SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT AND CHANGE

The process of change needs to be properly planned, initiated, implemented and monitored. Some schools fail to improve their effectiveness because they have not carried out the change process thoroughly enough. Harris, Bennet and Preedy (1997) compare a school to a system with components that are dependent on one another. The inter-dependence between the components is necessary if the system is to function. Harris, Bennet and Preedy (1997) indicate that change initiated from the bottom upwards is more sustainable than change initiated from the top downwards because it is only the former type of change that involves those for whom change is intended. This point of view is shared by Mills (1990). MacBeath and Mortimore (2001:153-154) maintain that change towards school improvement has to be based on a profile of change, which is developed to guide the improvement of areas that require change the most. MacBeath and Mortimore (2001) consider the items listed below as crucial to the change profile:

- The learning school;

- High expectation of learner's achievement;

- Ownership of change;

- Widely accepted goals;

- Effective communication;

- Focus on learners' learning;

- Effective leadership;

- Real-school partnership;

- Mutual respect among individuals;

- Collaboration and partnership among stakeholders.

The list shows the factors essential for a school's effectiveness. These factors range from those stemming from management, those stemming for the curriculum, and those that have their source in social issues. Fullan (2004) maintains that the reason most schools struggle to improve is that change is often difficult to implement. Fullan (1999; 2009) points out that diversity, power relations and micro-politics often complicate the school's transition from the time before change has taken place to the time improvement has occurred. Fullan (1999) also states that change has to be a priority plan for the school community, so that objectives are clear and planning carefully done. Change should not be disturbed by an autocratic leadership that prohibits free engagement by those towards whom the desired change is directed (Engelbrecht and Green, 2001; Weber, 2007).

If change is to contribute to school effectiveness the way it is approached needs careful thought from management and leadership. The leadership and management philosophy at various schools are far from identical because of the disparate contexts and conditions. The approaches to change management as a component of management philosophy and attitudes have a telling influence on how change for improvement is initiated and implemented. The level of school effectiveness achieved is, therefore, closely linked to management's approach.

3.13   LEADERSHIP AND APPROACHES TO SCHOOL CHANGE AND IMPROVEMENT

Change and improvement are included in all definitions of leadership. The possible reason for this fact is that school improvement depends on school leaders having the ability to improve on the service they provide to learners. The strong relationship between leadership

and change exists because leaders need to effect change to bring about improvement at their institutions. The quality of change can be gauged by the extent to which improvement takes place. The school leader has a variety of approaches to change from which to choose. While there is no shortage of theories of change in the literature, the complexity and evolutionary change theory of Michael Fullan is relevant and appropriate. Fullan (1999:36) distinguishes between two approaches of educational change; these are the *complexity and evolutionary approaches*. The complexity approach is a more interactive approach towards change as part of which stakeholders interact to bring about stability. By contrast, the evolutionary approach assumes change will happen with time. The choice of either approach to change will depend on the circumstances and the context within which change takes place. The components of the school culture can all have a profound effect on how successful change is.. Supporting the complexity approach, Mittler (2000:134) proposes that successful change depends on all stake holders being aware of and thinking purposively about the change process (McCallion, 1998; Loreman, Deppeler & Harvey, 2005). Those involved in change should continually challenge their beliefs and notions about the process of change (Goodson, 2003). Similarly, other authors (Richards, Gallo & Renadya, 2001; Haney, Lumpe, Czerniak & Egan, 2002) argue that beliefs and attitudes are issues to be looked at closely if success is to be achieved.

The complexity approach to change is proposed by various authors (Mohr *et al.*, 2004; Richardson, 1998; Somekh, 2006; Ainscow, Booth & Dyson, 2006). It makes sense that those for whom change is intended collaborate about improving their own practice. Challenging the status quo and introducing new ideas are just two processes that require collaboration (Fullan and Hargreaves, 2002; Briscow, 1996; McTaggard, 1997; Hoban, 2002).

A particular school's culture, as mentioned earlier in this section, cannot be ignored in the change process. If the culture is driven by autocratic leadership, it is likely that those in authority will impose change on everyone. Such imposition could lead to *implementation dip* (Fullan, 2004:67), which, at its simplest, means that things do not go according to plan. Fullan's (2004:67), point is that autocracy will have to be transformed into cultural participation and collaboration and that these two features will need to be channelled into a map that alleviates the negative outcomes of autocracy and introduces the positive outcomes of working as a team.

Fullan (2001) calls this team a *professional learning community*. The community allows the stakeholders to learn together in a *community of practice* (Wenger, 1998; Hargreaves, 1997;

Fullan, 2001). A community of practice should probe its own practices with a view to improving them (Reason and Bradbury, 2006; Retallick, Cocklin & Coombe, 1999). The approaches to change and school improvement often direct the type of strategy the school will adopt for re-inforcing improvement. The section that follows briefly looks at some of the examples of such strategies.

3.14   STRATEGIES OF SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT

A number of strategies are applied for improving schools, but there are two main strategies: first, there is the belief that the school can improve when an outside body determines what standards the school should meet (for example, setting targets and benchmarks). Second, the school should continually review its progress and performance for service to improve – hence the idea of the school as a learning entity. A number of authors (McGilchrist, Myers & Reed, 1997; Senge *et al.*, 2000; Sun, Creemers, Bert & De Jong, 2007) highlight the significance of a school's continuous and ongoing efforts to bring about improved performance. These efforts are embedded in the school, articulating its vision, its continuous staff development, good leadership, its fostering of learning on behalf of the school community, and strengthenening community networks.

The school learns through a process of school development planning. Hargreaves and Hopkins (1991:3, 1994) believe that a school learns through planning its transition. These two authors define school development planning as the process of planning the improvement and then implementing the plans to create that improvement. A specified period will be chosen for that stretch from unimproved to impooved. School development planning must rely on performance indicators that facilitate monitoring of the progress (Hulpia and Valcke, 2004). School development planning, according to Hulpia and Valcke (2004), will allow the school to:

- Achieve its aims and objectives;
- Provide a comprehensive approach towards improvement;
- Capture its vision;
- Determine the pace of change;
- Stimulate innovation on the part of teachers;
- Improve the quality of staff development;
- Strengthen the partnership between the staff and schoolgoverning body; and

130

- Make reporting easier.

The continuous cyclic procedure of school-development planning allows the school to reflect on its effectiveness and plan for future improvement. Figure 3.2 shows an illustration of the cycle of school-development planning.
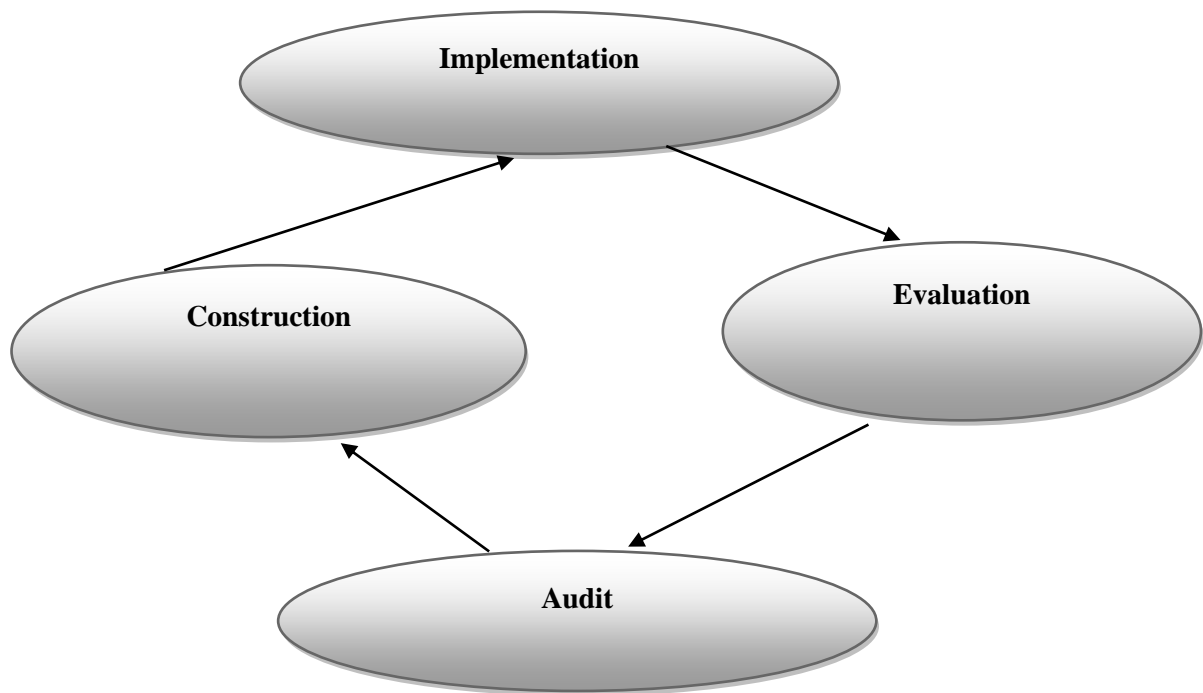
Figure 3.2: Cycle of school-development planning

Adapted from Hargreaves and Hopkins (1991:5)

Figure 3.2 shows that school-development planning is not linear but circular: one process leads to the next – for example, construction leads to implementation. School development planning is usually a collective effort on the part of the stakeholders at the school. It is a never-ending process aimed at achieving the vision of the school. Total Quality Management (TQM) is another improvement strategy suggested by Harris *et al.* (1997:263-268) and Motabodi (2009) that posit that improvement takes place in a cyclical process called TQM, defined as *continuously meeting agreed customer requirements at lowest cost.* TQM is a management approach geared towards developing an educational institution in totality and achieving school improvement and effectiveness. TQM groups employees together, identifies opportunities for improvement, and engages others in problem solving. TQM focuses on goal attainment by the school and how well the school is adapted to its routine. A clear focus on the internal conditions of the school must be kept, clear decisions about development and maintenance have to documented, and that external change is seen as adapted for internal purposes. Improvement should cut across all levels. Performance data should be used to plan future development, and change should be accepted to transform school culture. TQM looks

132

at the operation of the school in its wholeness, and it is further related to strategic management.

Middlewood and Lumby (1998) reflect on and single out strategic management within TQM as the component that increases the chances of improving effectiveness. The authors believe that being proactive and planning ahead strategically improves the quality of planning and, therefore, results in quality work. The authors define strategic management as an approach to managing that provides for the unexpected in the process of re-inforcing improvement. Strategic management is an important step that all school managers should embark on. According to Middlewood and Lumby (1998), if correctly practiced, strategic management entails:

- Being proactive;
- Maintaining consistency of purpose and mission;
- Being reflective;
- Utilising organisational capabilities;
- Being creative;
- Being effective in approach;
- Examining external environment; and
- Being accountable to stakeholders.

Strategic management has to develop a vision and mission and set clear objectives. This vision could be mounted in an organisational culture that is geared towards effectiveness and improvement. Strategic management has an effect on the marketability of the school both internally and externally. The strategic thrusts are usually contained in the school development plan. To achieve strategic development goals, managers have to ensure cooperation between all stakeholders in the school community and strategic governance with the school governing body. The school governing body is involved in planning, policymaking and the evaluation of the progress of general school development. Managers have to plan the anticipated change strategically. The phenomenon of strategic management is geared towards ensuring that the school is self-managing. Schools come to be self-managing when all activities are carefully planned and carried out. In their work, Caldwell and Spinks (1998) describe four dimensions of self-managing schools as follows:

***Strategic leadership*:** capacity to see the bigger picture and allow others to make a contribution

***Cultural leadership*:** changing the way things are done and introducing a culture of performance

***Educational leadership*:** developing a community of learning

***Responsive leadership*:** building a culture of accountability and responsibility

The concept of a self-managing school is clearly linked to the process of decentralisation of powers to schools, which is the notion of School-Based Management (SBM). According to Nenyod (2002), SBM originated in USA. SBM is a management philosophy that allows schools to manage themselves and take important decisions on their own.

Self-managing schools are more effective. While noting the impact of school development planning, TQM, SBM and strategic management on school improvement and effectiveness, Visscher and Coe (2002) highlight the significance of improvement through the use of external feedback by performance systems. External evaluation is thought to give a clearer understanding from a distance. Dissimilarly, some believe that change and improvement can only come about if schools work together. Waghid (2002:2) uses the term *deliberate schooling* for an emphasis on deliberation to consolidate and develop cooperation and participation in all schools. Such cooperation is necessary, especially between formerly advantaged and disadvantaged schools in South Africa.

Waghid's (2002) *deliberate schooling* seems is not too far from the components of mentoring. Love (1993:18) describes mentoring as known to strengthen the effectiveness of organisations because it occurs between people of different levels of experience and expertise. Mentoring incorporates interpersonal or psychological development and career or educational development. Mentoring involves two people and and goes through stages that affects the outcome of the process.

Mentoring is a widely used strategy in schools for strenthening school effectiveness. Mentors are role models that provide support to their protégés through coaching and assigning tasks that encourage the protégés' development. Mentors discuss with their protégés their schoolwork and dispel anxiety. Teachers at all levels of management at school could be mentored for the enhancement of their performance. Angelle (2002) indicates that mentoring newly appointed teachers could influence their work positively and in this way add to school improvement. Section 3.15 explains how school improvement is evaluated.

3.15 THE EVALUATION OF SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT

Change is implemented and institutionalised to become an effective component of the school culture. Coppieters (2005) warns that a school is a complex institution whose improvement depends on how well change is managed and how well the school is transformed into an institution of learning. School improvement is guided by the process of goal setting and the need to improve (Scheerens and Demeuse, 2005).

School improvement is an ongoing process that needs to be measured on how effective change has been. Learner attainment can be used as a yardstick and whole-school evaluation can be used, with specific indicators of change or improvement. Scollay and Everson (1995) warn against using student attainment as the unique criterion for evaluating school improvement. Crowley and Hauser (2007), though, while advocating whole-school evaluation as a reliable measurement, believe that evaluating strategies needs to be discussed frequently.

3.16 SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT

Section 3.16 summarises salient features of school improvement in South Africa from a legislative perspective. In the past, school improvement in South Africa was driven by NGO projects funded by corporate and international donors. After 1994, several projects were initiated and driven by the government. For this reason, the current literature on school improvement in South Africa is dominated by the actions that the Department of Education has taken to effect improvement at schools (Taylor, cited in Townsend, 2007). Such actions and projects include:

- The School Effectiveness in South African (SESA) project of 1992 initiated by *Advancing Basic Education and Literacy* and some members of the Education Department of the University of Witwatersrand.

- The Imbewu (Project 1998-2001) in the Eastern Cape that covered 523 rural schools. From 1994-2003, standard-based accountability was used when matriculation results declined. Improvement plans were designed to improve the situation at schools that had a pass rate of less than 20%.

- The Education Action Zone (EAZ) programme of 1999-2002 in Gauteng Province where 70 schools were identified and systemic intervention used. This intervention resulted in improved results.

- Numerous projects were implemented to align curriculum, teaching and assessment. These included the following:

  o The District Development and Support Project (DDSP) from 2000-2002 carried out at 453 rural primary schools and focused on improving the functionality of districts and schools.

  o The Quality Learning Projects (QLPs) from 2001-2004 at 524 high schools in nine provinces.

  o The Dinaledi Project (2001 and ongoing) at 12 dysfunctional high schools to improve their teaching of science and mathematics.

Analysis revealed that very little improvement had occurred at the schools that took part in the projects.

On the same topic, Rampa (2005) refers to the *Culture of Learning and Teaching Services (COLTS) campaign* as an attempt by the South African Government to resuscitate the schools damaged by the revolution against the Bantu Education Act. COLTS was a presidential project initiated in 1996. It was integrated with two other strategies (TQM and TIRISANO; (the latter word means 'working together') as an improvement strategy for transforming the cultures of schools into collaboration and team building (Rampa, 2005). Rampa (2005) was concerned that school productivity remained low despite the projects.

Following COLTS, projects were initiated to improve the quality of teaching and learning at schools; for example, Kanjee (2005) and Taylor and Prinsloo (2005) called their improvement intervention across all nine provinces the QLP. This project, sponsored by the Business Trust and the National Department of Education, was managed by Jet Education Services with its interventions predominantly managed by NGOs.

The QLP was based on a systemic model, which involved intervention at district, school and classroom level to improve:

- Teaching of mathematics, reading and writing skills at 542 schools;

- Governance and management of schools and
- Management in 17 districts.

The project resulted in very few improvements. The Dinaledi Project, which focused on the teaching of physical science and mathematics, was implemented at 102 schools. While slightly better results than the QLP, the overall improvement was not significantly high (Taylor and Prinsloo, 2005). While some improvements strategies focused on improving teaching and learning, others targeted the development of management and leadership.

According to Madasi (2004), a paradigm shift has occurred in management approach from the prescriptive approach to the development approach. Madasi (2004) states that developmental management practice is central for any school improvement process. Similarly, Hoadley, Christie and Ward (2009) state that schools need leadership that can lead improvement. Such leaders are transformational leaders, who can initiate and maintain change.

Several high-profile meetings have met to discuss how schools can be improved. In his work, Botha (2004) states that the following are important in a school leader:

- The important role of a professional leader;
- The involvement of evaluation and improvement processes;
- The ability to think strategically; and
- The ability to use and apply knowledge.

Schools with good principals will have a far more positive effect on school improvement than those with bad ones (Botha, 204). Botha (2006) conducted a study on the role of the principal in SBM, which is a system promoting decentralization of powers so that the school leader can take decisions. The study draws the conclusion that principals who are well informed and empowered to take decisions have a positive effect on the SBM, which could affect school improvement positively.

The trend in the school improvement literature is to adopt a more comprehensive approach that can complement both systemic and management dimensions; for example, the Eastern Cape Member of the Executive Council (MEC) of Education adopted an improvement plan called Master Plan 2010 (DoE, 2010), which focuses on the systematic, management and

137

resource needs of schools if improvement is to take place. By focusing on several needs the project demonstrates a comprehensive approach to school improvement.

The Honourable Minister of Basic Education, Ms Angie Motshekga, formed the National Education Evaluation and Development Unit (NEEDU) to monitor the administration of tests in numeracy and literacy (Govender, 2010). NEEDU intends to raise the quality of teaching and learning. However, raising of standards has its own problems. Jansen (2004) refers to deeply held perceptions of teachers that evaluation of their work could result in victimization. The historical relationship between the South African Democratic Teachers Union (SADTU) and the education department also hampers efforts to improve formerly disadvantaged schools.

Given the 2% decline in the matriculation results in 2009, the Minister of Basic Education has made several statements about improved education being urgent (Davies, 2010). The minister has identified the following as some of the shortcomings (Davies, 2010):

- Lack of participation by stakeholders in education;
- Lack of participation by some parents in the education of their children; and
- Learners' poor command of English as a language of instruction.

In an attempt to rectify the situation, the DoBE in 2008 and 2009 launched improvement strategies that include the following projects (Davies, 2010):

- The Quality Learning and Teaching Campaign (QLYC)
- The Teacher Development Project
- The Teacher Laptop Initiative (TLI)

The QLYC, which is partly funded by the Education and Labour Relations Council (ELRC), has secured a long-term commitment from different stakeholders to work together to improve the quality of education (Davies, 2010). The current situation is that the QLYC has not filtered through to the grassroots – that is, to school level. The DoBE is making efforts to roll out advocacy campaigns (Davies, 2010).

Because the role of teachers in school improvement is important, the Teacher Development Summit on 29 June 2009 (Davies, 2010) culminated in teachers issuing the following declaration on teacher development:

- South African teachers come with different historical qualifications and educational backgrounds, the majority of which were developed under apartheid structures that deliberately disadvantaged and underdeveloped large sections of the population.

- Teachers continue to work in different and unequal contexts and with different levels of resourcing and support, especially in rural schools (compared with urban schools).

- A large number of serving teachers are not fully qualified (in terms of current requirements) and unqualified teachers continue to be employed, especially at rural schools, which exacerbate the existing inequalities in the system.

- There is a shared commitment to improvingaccess to the quality of teacher development and promoting professionalism in teaching (Davies, 2010:4).

The declaration indicates that any improvement of teachers or a school will have to take note of the context in which teachers were trained. The focus of the Teacher Development Summit was to provide a platform to enhance institutional development, review the current teacher appraisal structure, establish structures that will ensure teacher development, and assess funding opportunities for teacher development.

3.17   THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS TO GUIDE SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT

In recent years, educational leaders have adopted and implemented practices designed to improve teaching and learning. Whether these efforts have been in response to US federal mandates such as *No Child Left Behind* legislation or to individual school communities, change efforts are ever recurring. Research-based education, standards-based instruction, brain-compatible instruction, authentic assessment, professional learning communities (PLCs), and multiple bits of intelligence are some of the initiatives. Unfortunately, many leaders do not link their planned organisational changes with an appropriate theory of change and, therefore, forfeit opportunities to create sustained improvement.

Fullan (2008b:1) notes that many school systems suffer from "initiativitis": the implementation of change effort after change effort without regard to how such efforts interact with one another.. Often, such efforts create confusion, exhaustion and minimal improvement. Spillane (2000) maintains that initiatives fail because the implementers of change are not fully au fait with the purpose of change. In addition, many school leaders lack an understanding of the underlying theoretical structures associated with successful change.

Leaders have to have a solid knowledge of the theory of change. Organisational change is influenced by theoretical frameworks; however, the focus of school reform has been on programmes that are independent of appropriate theories of change. In contrast. researchers and theorists have understood the importance of theory in relationship to planned organisational change. Four researchers have recognised the importance of theory to successful change. These researchers are Gagliardi (1986:38), Pallot (1992) and Greenwood and Hinings (1996:1041). They understand that an appropriate framework provides a platform to study complex interactions, key factors, and assumptions.

Despite the fact that using theories of change to guide organisational development has been ongoing for decades, a recent study of a large urban school district in the United States, (Evans, 2010) found that principals and district leaders relied more on individualistic approaches to change. Little use seems to have been of system-wide strategies based on a common, articulated framework. An individualistic implementation of change is bound to result in little organisational growth (Evans, Thornton & Usinger, 2010). A firm grounding in change theory can provide educational leaders with an opportunity to orchestrate meaningful organisational improvements. This study provides an opportunity for practising leaders to review four major theories of organisational change – Deming's (2000) continuous improvement model; Argyris and Schön's (1996) organisational learning; Senge's (2006), learning organisations; and Cooperrider's (2005). appreciative inquiry. These four theories can provide clear guidelines for successful organisational transformation and effective change management.

3.17.1 Deming's Continuous Improvement Model

Deming's (2000) continuous improvement model is based on his work with Japanese companies in a post-World War II environment and is based on application of 14 key principles. Since then, the theory of continuous improvement has spread its usefulness across social science fields (Kelemen, 2003).

Deming's (2000:23-24) 14 strategies support continuous improvement in an organisational setting. These are set out in the instructions: (1) create constancy and purpose towards improvement of product and services; (2) adopt a new philosophy; (3) cease dependence on inspection; (4) don't award business on the basis of price; (5) improve the system of production and service; (6) institute on-the-job training; (7) institute leadership; (8) drive away fear; (9) break down barriers between departments; (10) get rid of slogans and targets

for production; (11) ignore quotas and management by objectives; (12) remove barriers to pride in workmanship; (13) institute a programme of education; and (14) include everyone in the transformation of the organisation. Deming (2000:23-24) claimed that if these core values were applied consistently, they would evolve within the organisation. Several of Deming's principles are applicable in an educational context. Constancy of purpose requires leaders to be forward thinking and to let stakeholders imagine the possibilities for their organisation that will drive actions. The same holds true for school systems.

Another of Deming's (2000:29) principles is not to force quality through inspections. He states that quality derives from from improvement of the production and stakeholder involvement that encourages quality upfront. Teachers are the prime *quality control* agents, who analyse student outcomes and make adjustments to instruction so that it promotes individual student success. As teachers engage in collaborative inquiry driven by student work they are able to tailor their instruction and respond to unique challenges every school has (Militello, Rallis & Goldring, 2009).

In point (6) Deming (2000) points to the need for all employees to enjoy appropriate training so they can perform well. Educators have discovered that job-embedded professional development is related to improved student performance. Educators know the value of job-embedded professional development (Sparks, 1994:26). Such development occurs when teachers teach every day. Other approaches to professional development can apply adult learning theory (Knowles, 1980). Knowles posited that effective teaching of adults be problem centred. From such a base teachers often meet the needs of students more effectively.

In point (7) Deming asserts that managers must be skilled in leadership to build the capacity of their workers. Similarly, his point (13) encourages organisations to support the continuing education of their managers. Deming asserts that only through education can managers broaden and deepen their understanding of activities that add value and promote continuous improvement. In this way, leaders can support collaborative inquiry in their school systems by developing collaboration-supportive structures to support common formative assessments and build the capacity of new leaders (Reeves, 2010). Attention to experienced leaders' professional development remains an overlooked critical element in school improvement efforts.

Eliminating fear is another Deming's (2000) principle that can work for transforming organisations. Workplace fear takes many forms, which include fear of losing one's job, fear of reprisals for offering suggestions, and fear of making mistakes. Deming (2000) contends that effective leaders drive out fear. An effective principal would address the source of fears. For example, if fear were related to making a mistake, the teacher should develop methods to learn from mistakes, make improvements, and then reinforce a culture of learning from mistakes. The challenge for a principal is to develop a positive culture throughout the school by illustrating how data can be used to improve instruction. As principals help teachers take ownership of not only analysing data but also of designing and identifying data sources specific to their own students, the power of data-based decisions is transformative (Wellman and Lipton, 2004).

Breaking down barriers between departments can transform school systems. Leaders are often ignorant of the functions of and interconnectedness among departments (Deming, 2000) and need to develop teams that incorporate members from all departments. Cross-curricular and grade-level teaming, as well as inter-school and inter-district networks, can contribute to a greater cohesiveness throughout a school system, act as a catalyst for deep and lasting improvement, advance equity and innovation, and increase motivation throughout the educational community (Hargreaves and Shirley, 2009).

Finally, Deming (2000) promotes a transformation process for creating a shared vision of the organisation that will necessitate a deep understanding of the 14 points by all members of the organisation. Deming recommends an improvement cycle that is now referred to as the plan-do-study-act cycle (Kelemen, 2003). In this cycle, stakeholders expect continuous improvement through planned changes. Stakeholders enact the plan, which represents the "do" portion of the cycle. Once the change has been implemented teams take action to either improve the process or institutionalise the practice. Principals can use the plan-do-study-act cycle to promote the continuous improvement of instruction. To illustrate, a group of teachers could develop a plan to improve reading instruction for a small group of students. An implementation process would be designed, data would be collected and, finally, a data-based decision would be made on the next step. (See Figure 3.3.)
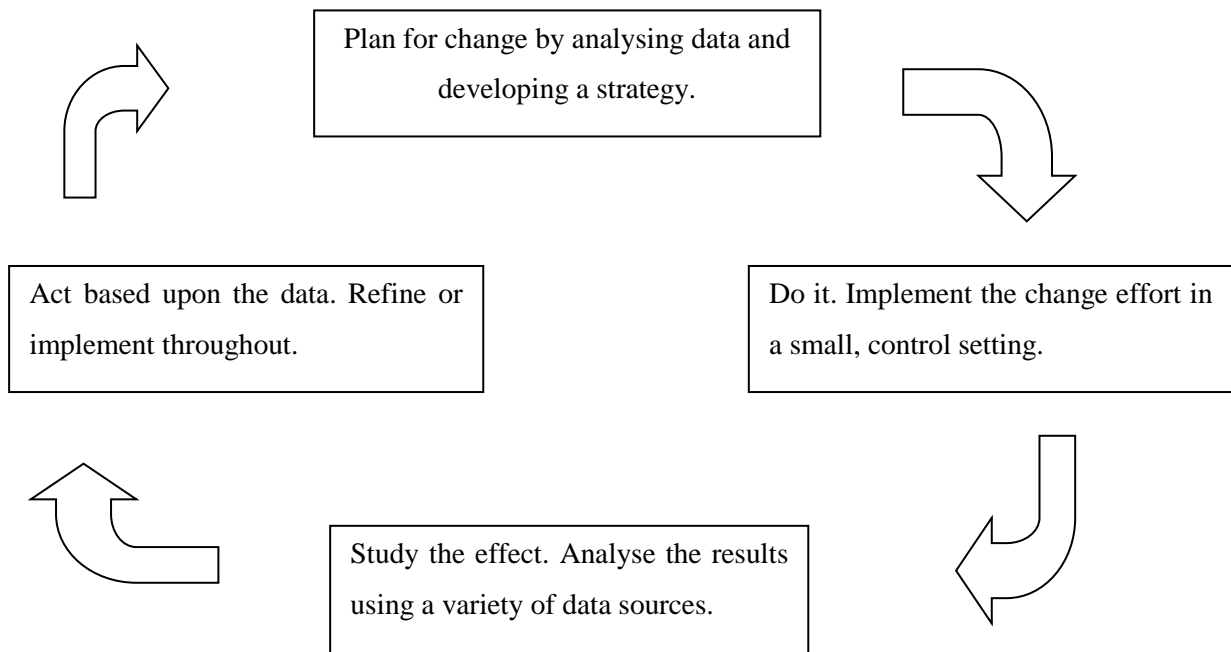
Figure 3.3: Deming cycle showing the plan-do-study-act process of continuous improvements

Organisational change theory has evolved since Deming first established the TQM. Deming's ideas foreshadowed many current practices in education, including job-embedded staff development. Numerous educational leaders have adopted TQM to guide the improvement process.

3.17.2 Argyris and Schön's Organisational Learning

In the 1970s, Argyris and Schön (1996) introduced a theory that organisations can learn and grow in ways that mirror the way a single person learns. Since its original introduction in 1978, the theory of organisational learning has evolved with the assistance of many theorists. According to Argyris and Schön (1996), for organisational learning to occur strategies are needed to systematically integrate individual and collective learning into skills and knowledge that will deeply affect the organisation. As an example, a teacher decides to implement a new questioning strategy in the classroom. The strategy is founded on the latest research in cognitive development. After learning more about the strategy the teacher determines that it has a positive impact in students. Did this teacher plan for change and implement it in a small, controlled setting? Did the teacher learn?
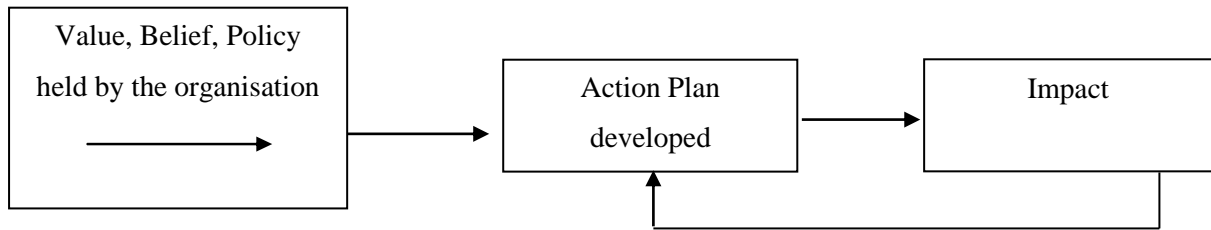
Figure 3.4: Single-loop learning

Indeed, the teacher questioned past practices and integrated new knowledge for the benefit of students. Argyris and Schön (1996) would argue that organisational learning did not occur because only one individual learned. However, this individual's learning could have impacted on the school if the latter had structures in place to promote organisational learning.

The principal must create an organisational culture where individual learning will be used to promote organisational learning. One approach is to get teachers who attend workshops that are aligned with school goals to help others develop skills and knowledge. In addition, principals could promote the practice of collaborative inquiry and PLCs to spread individual learning through the school system.

Argyris and Schön (1996) identified three types of organisational learning: single-loop learning, double-loop learning, and deutero-learning. Single-loop learning corrects errors within an organisation that do not impact on beliefs, values, and policies integral to the organisation. Schools commonly engage in single-loop learning. For example, a principal discovers that the night staff failed to set the alarm. The principal meets with the staff to explain how the safety of the school is maintained. The staff now has the information needed to follow the policy with regard to building security. In this illustration, no change to the organisation's core beliefs, values, or policies occurred. (See Figure 3.4.)

Double-loop learning, however, is a generative process that affects an organisation at its core. When double-loop learning occurs, the values, beliefs, and policies that guide the organisation shift. (See Figure 3.5 for a representation of double-loop learning.)

144

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┌─────────────────────┐        ┌─────────────────┐        ┌─────────────────┐
│ Value, Belief, Policy│        │   Action Plan   │        │     Impact      │
│ held by the organisation│     │                 │        │                 │
│   ──────────▶       │        │        ▲        │        │              │  │
└─────────────────────┘        └────────│────────┘        └──────────────│──┘
         ▲                              │                                │
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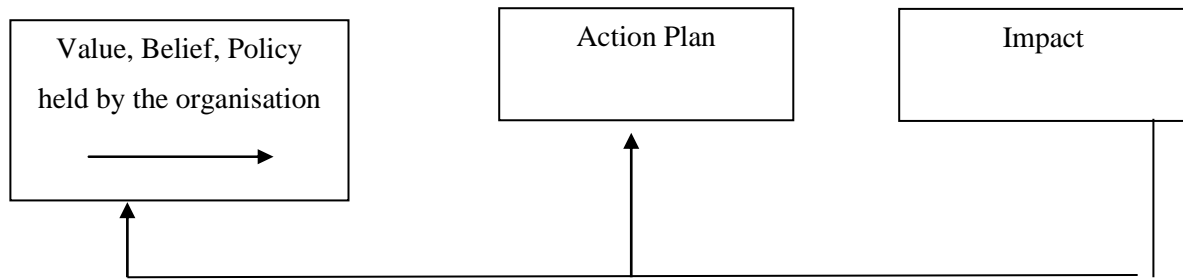
Reflection   Reflection

Figure 3.5: Double-loop learning

A school board, for example, might believe that the only way to prepare students for college and work is through attendance at a four-year comprehensive high school. Diplomas are only granted at four-year high schools and no alternative programmes receive funding.

However, the district's dropout rate reflects the high number of students who are not responding well to these policies. Several members of the administrative team believe that providing students with alternatives is the answer and that these alternatives be accepted by the board.. The administrators engage the board in discussions about the alternatives. Following these discussions the board adopts policies that promote and support alternative paths to graduation. In this case, the core values of the organisation changed as a result of the learning that occurred at the organisational level (double-looped learning).

Argyris and Schön (1996) describe deutero-learning as organisations learning how to learn. Committed leaders of organisations create structures for learning. Environmental factors Argyris and Schön (1996) that affect an organisation's ability to learn effectively include lines of communication, the physical environment, procedures for engaging in inquiry, and incentives. These structures either promote or inhibit organisational learning.

Theorists and practitioners in education have made excellent use of Argyris and Schön's theory of organisational learning. City, Elmore, Fiarman and Teitel (2010) addressed the need for district leadership to support effective instructional practices throughout an entire system. Fullan (2008b) also contends that organisational success depends on a system-wide approach to growth and learning and warned that improvement in student achievement will remain isolated unless school systems can effectively promote organisational learning.

3.17.3 Senge's Learning Organisation

In 1990, Peter Senge of the Sloan School of Management at Massachusett's Institute of Technology provided a theoretical framework for learning organisations. According to the framework, members of an organisation create structures that facilitate learning and are adaptable.
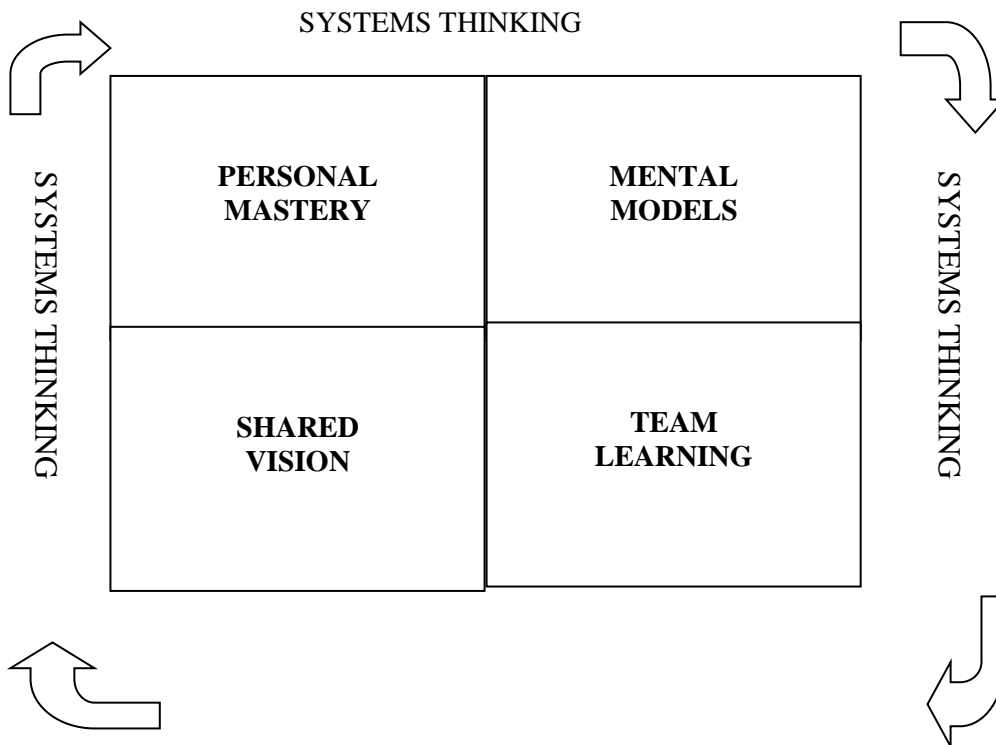
Figure 3.6: Components of the learning organisation

The first four components of learning organisations are personal mastery, mental models, shared vision, and team learning. The dashed lines (Figure 3.6) indicate that these components share elements with one another. The fifth component, systems thinking, is found in every part of the learning organisation. (2006). A learning organisation cannot exist without each component working in concert, creating a culture where individual learning and organisational learning happen together. In learning organisations, members are attuned to each of the elements and can respond to an ever-changing environment. Personal mastery represents the first domain of a learning organisation. In this domain leaders of the organisation support the personal development of all employees, who, afterwards, learn personal mastery and develop a personal vision.

This vision then becomes a roadmap to guide people towards their ideal state. Similarly, a clear, organisational vision offers opportnities for growth for all stakeholders. Those who practise personal mastery must also observe reality as it is. Senge (2006:144) explains that an accurate view of current reality is important, but can be challenging because biases, assumptions, and perceptions hide people from the truth. Organisational leaders can promote personal mastery by creating cultures that value truth, encourage individuals to challenge their non-productive mental models, and compare their vision with current reality. Senge (2006:144) states that no organisation can force anyone gain personal mastery; however, the leaders of any organisation can model personal mastery through their personal and professional behaviour.

Schools can also promote personal mastery. Supervisors can use teacher evaluation tools to assist teachers to develop their own long-term professional development. As principals continuously encourage their staff to grow, motivation for personal mastery is strengthened. These processes can be based on collaboration with principals and alignment with school goals and can prove to be powerful tools to develop mastery and expertise (Danielson and McGreal, 2000; Marzano, Frontier & Livingston, 2011).

School principals can support collaborative inquiry as a way of promoting truth seeking among their teachers. Reliable data must be used and be neutral. Data interpretation leads to examining perceptions, biases, and assumptions that all teachers have. Wellman and Lipton (2004:51) explain that forums for rich dialogue about the data illuminate frames of reference and bring assumptions to the surface, which creates space for ways of understanding that are new. Principals play crucial roles in establishing forums and norms of collaboration to ensure that personal mastery is nurtured.

Leaders can nurture personal mastery in their staff by acting as role models. A principal's constant thirst for new knowledge and perspectives is an inspiration to others. As Fullan (2008a:76) maintains: "learning is the work". The quest for knowledge builds mastery and transformation in principals, which they strongly communicate to all they serve.

Mental models, Senge (2006:189) suggests, shape the manner in which organisations view reality. When stakeholders' mental models are misaligned with organisational goals the organisation is stagnant. Mental models that go unchallenged can cripple an organisation's capacity to visualise a new future.

Senge (2006:189) contends that both inquiry and reflection are critical skills for exploring individual and organisational mental models. Senge emphasises the importance of revealing mental models in his belief that world views should be seen as assumptions to be challenged and not facts. If an organisation has no clear understanding of mental models, people are bound to misperceive the essence of system thinking.

By providing staff with opportunities to engage in professional dialogues about student learning, principals can create an environment by which mental models are openly explored and create an environment to air deeply held beliefs and expose possible flaws. As mentioned in both Deming's model of continuous improvement and Argyris and Schön's model of organisational learning, establishing a shared vision of an organisation is critical for effective change.

Senge (2006:203-204) states that individuals range in their response towards the vision of an organisation from "commitment" to "apathy". Principals aware of this continuum of responses can monitor their staff, enrolling those deeply committed to the vision into key positions of distributed leadership. At the same time, principals can find ways to communicate the vision of the school with those staff members at the other end of the continuum.

For team learning, the fourth component of learning organisations, individuals deeply inquire into the organisation to create a positive impact. Senge claims that most decisions made by organisations are made by teams. Individual learning has little impact on an organisation as a whole, whereas the impact of team learning is great. Teams that are able to function well together and align their efforts towards the shared vision and capitalise on the strengths of each member often produce positive systemic change within the organisation.

Senge (2006) identified three conditions that promote team learning. The first condition requires teams to think deeply about complex issues that face the organisation. Second, effective coordination among team members has to be present before team learning can occur. Finally, team members integrate into other teams within the organisation. Teams existing in isolation make efforts that remain outside the context of the greater organisation. However, the organisation benefits when teams integrate and coordinate their efforts.

Monthly staff meetings devoted to professional development is one vehicle for integrating the learning of various teams. Online technology is another tool for integrating the learning of

teams into the entire system. As people post their questions, data, and reflections, others can join the conversation and spread team learning to a wider audience (Schrum and Levin, 2009).

Senge (2006) holds that as conditions in the world become more complex, the need for systems thinking becomes greater. As systems thinking develops, members of an organisation frame decisions in light of possible impacts on the rest of the system. Educators question their way through several systems including schools, districts, states and provinces. Systems also exist in relationships between teacher-student, teacher-teacher, and teacher-principal.

Principals have opportunities to promote engaged decision-making and to invite broader views. For example, English language learners (ELLs) interface with many different systems. If the education of an ELL student is in the hands of only one teacher, some system interaction is lost. However,staff members can group themselves into interdisciplinary teams to support ELLs. Such a systems approach is more likely to provide ELLs with appropriate, timely, and relevant interventions (Hamayan, Marler, Sanchez-Lopez & Damico, 2007).

3.17.4 Cooperrider'sAppreciative Inquiry

Appreciative inquiry (AI)postulates that organisations change in the direction from which they inquire. If members of an organisation inquire into problems, then they will always find problems. However, if members inquire into the strengths of an organisation, they will likely find more of those qualities (Hammond, 1998). Cooperrider, Whitney and Stavros (2005:3) state that every organisation has something that works well and this strength can be the starting point for creating positive change.

Five principles of human systems and change guide appreciative inquiry: (a) the constructionist principle; (b) the principle of simultaneity; (c) the poetic principle; (d) the anticipatory principle; and (e) the positive principle (Cooperrider and Whitney, 2007:83-84). The first of these holds that social knowledge and its construction are wovening to organisational change. Appreciative inquiry integrates imagination and reasoning to construct knowledge that is dissimilar to traditional change strategies. Cooperrider *et al*. (2005) posits that the nature of inquiry directly impacts on the change efforts organisations choose. These authors state that the source of change is the things people discover and learn and the things that inform dialogue between colleagues.

In addition, the poetic principle sees the organisation itself becoming a source of inspiration and the organisation's past, present, and future guiding the inquiry process. Members of organisations choose to focus on problems and rarely on strengths and abundance, which, if it were done, would create the future that was desired by the group. Discussion and inquiry are tools that help an organisation develop and sustain an effective shared vision.

The positive principle emphasises the importance of promoting joy within an organisation. Positive inquiries lead to positive outcomes. Positive outcomes, in their turn, promote creativity, and joy within an organisation. Cooperrider *et al.* (2005:9) refer to positive effects such associal bonding, good attitudes like hope and inspiration, and the joy of creating with other members of the group.

Cooperrider *et al.* (2005:9) defined four stages of appreciative inquiry that guide organisations on a transformative journey. The first stage is *discovery*, during which members of an organisation uncover and articulate the areas they excel in and value.


```
        ┌─────────────────────┐
        │      Discovery      │
        │  "What gives Life?" │
        │    APPRECIATING     │
        └─────────────────────┘

┌──────────────────┐          ┌──────────────────┐
│     Destiny      │          │      Dream       │
│ "How to empower  │          │ "What Might be?" │
│   and adjust?"   │          │   ENVISIONING    │
│   SUSTAINING     │          │      IMPACT      │
└──────────────────┘          └──────────────────┘

        ┌──────────────────────────┐
        │          Design          │
        │ "What should be the ideal?" │
        │     CO-CONSTRUCTING      │
        └──────────────────────────┘
```
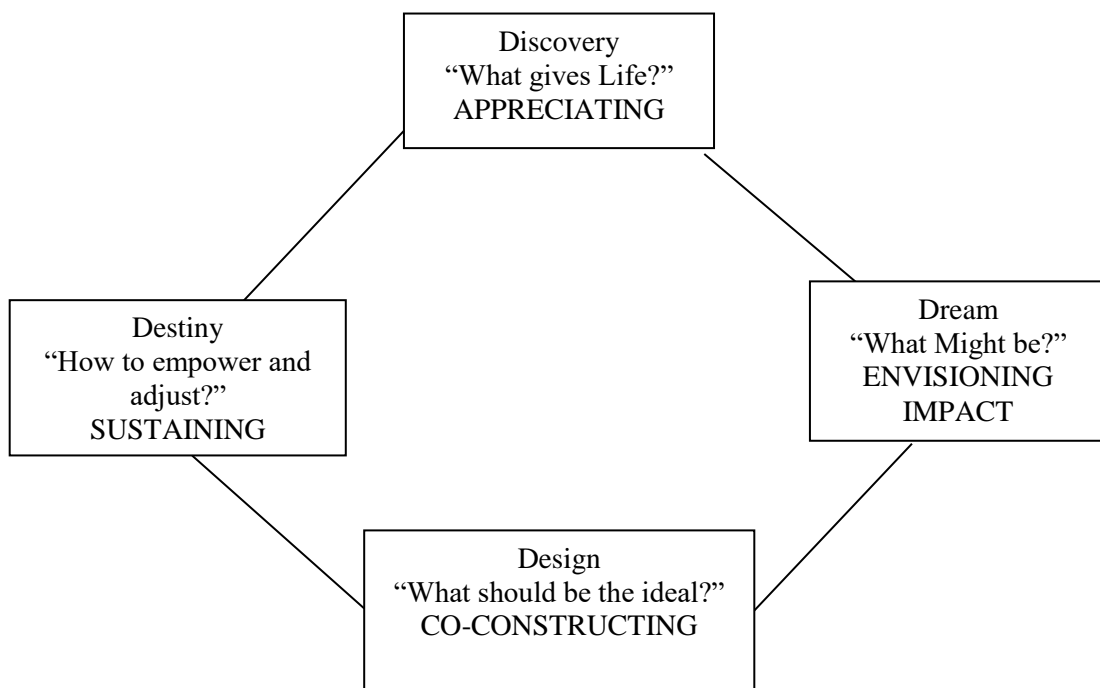
Figure 3.7: Stages of appreciative inquiry

Stories are told and artefacts are displayed that highlight the past accomplishments of the organisation. Members of an organisation reflect on all the strengths of the organisation as they answer the question, "What do we do well?" Cooperrider *etal.*(2005) explain that during *discovery,* stakeholders identify the organisation's positive core, as this core will become the

platform from which further inquiry occurs. Cooperrider *et al*. (2005:30) state that the positive core can be realised in several ways,which include accomplishments, assets, and innovations. After *discovery* comes *dreaming*, a phase during which stakeholders imagine possibilities based on values and successes identified in the *discovery* phase. In addition to dreaming about possibilities, individuals challenge current reality and build a shared vision for the future. As people dream about the possibilities for their organisation, they set the *discovery* phase ("What gives life?") stage for implementation. Cooperrider *et al*. (2005) do not follow traditionalchange theories. Organisations imagine ways theycan impact on the world. This creative process provides the framework for finding the organisation's purpose and its highest potential.

As stakeholders of an organisation or community move from *dream* to *design* they learn the power of intention and the relationship between intention and manifestation Whitney (2004:143). During this stage, members of an organisation determine structures the organisation requires to reach the shared vision and the quality of those structures. For example, an organisation's members may decide that to show their dream, strong, shared leadership is necessary.

Destiny represents the fourth stage of appreciative inquiry and stakeholders collaborate and discuss contributions each can make to the vision previously created. Commitment to action is made as the organisation views everything through the appreciative inquiry lens. The creativity from the dreaming stage isput into action. Integral to this stage is sustainability, as appreciative inquiry needs to be supported. Factors that offer support are the structure of meetings, interconnectedness between all facets of the organisation, and language that employees use.

Principals and school staff members start with strengths then move to possibilities. As staff members move more deeply into collaborative inquiry models, they should explore students' strengths and excellence in instruction first. The principal can then invite the team to explore how to create and implement the school community vision.

3.18   LEADERSHIP EVALUATION AND ASSESSMENT FRAMEWORKS

The main challenge facing many schools, especially urban schools, is improving student achievement and decreasing the achievement gap, Such challenges can be overcome if teaching practice is improved. Evidence exists that schools that cultivate rigorous academic

standards, high-quality instruction, and collective responsibility for students' academic success are best able to meet the needs of all students (Bryk and Driscoll, 1985; Newmann and Wehlage, 1995; Purkey and Smith, 1983).Transformational leadership is widely recognised as promoting these in-school processes and conditions (Lieberman, Falk & Alexander, 1994; Louis, Marks & Kruse, 1996; Rosenholtz, 1989; Sheppard, 1996). For this reason meeting excellence and equity challenge in urban schools depends on leaders who guide instructional improvement (Barth, 1986; Leithwood, 1994).

Because a principal's role is complex, the main difficulty in leadership assessment is identifying the dimensions that should be assessed (Glasman and Heck, 1992; Hart, 1992; Marcoulides, Larsen & Heck, 1995; Oyinlade, 2006). Debates in several countries highlight the attempts made by policymakers to identify the most appropriate framework to use forassessing school leaders. Outcome-orientated evaluation is selectedas an assessment method by some countries. For example, in the state of Victoria, Australia, principals are evaluated by their supervisors and receive bonuses in percentage points, depending on the extent to which they have achieved objectives agreed onat the start of the school year (Zbar & Australian Principals Associations Professional Development Council, 1994). In the United Kingdom, outcome-orientated accountability is carried out by the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED).Schools are inspected regularly and these inspections concentrate on individual teachers and headteachers in their efforts to raise educational standards in the U.K (Broadbent, Jacobs & Laughlin, 1999:346).

To help school leaders prepare their schools according to legislative regulations and to improve school performance, tools have been developed for school principals to link self-review to the external standardsBeyond the difficulties of"what to assess" is the challenge of establishing anappropriate assessment process and making valid comments aboutprincipal performance. Several studies have provided glimpsesatprincipal evaluation (Lashway, 2003). For example, a survey of 800 principals in Ontario, Canada, Leithwood and Montgomery (1986) found the problems in appraisal practices.There was no specific policy for the process; the standards of performance were not well publicised; and the practices set down in policies were not followed.

Another study examined policies and practices for evaluating school principals in the province of Alberta, Canada (Thomas, Holdaway & Ward, 2000). This study found that principals' roles were modified as a result of changing societal expectations and the increased

emphasis on principals' responsibilityto evaluate teachers. The ways of evaluating principals were largely determined by each school district, whose procedures differed Apart from developed countries, there is considerable interest in finding ways to assess principal effectiveness incountries that are at the beginning stage of school leadership development.

Studying leadership assessment in these countries has two deficiencies: first, there are limited theoretical frameworks that link the objectives of education with leadership standards. Second, no assessment systems exist that have been developed with empirical research evidence (Chu, 2003).

.Since 1994, a majority of Chinese studiesdo not recount the needs and issues in school leadership development. A review of policies and practices in China highlights inadequacies in the standards for principal effectiveness and tools for how standards could be used by schools to carry out assessment (Zhao and Wang, 2007).

In many districts in the United States, the primary purpose of leadership assessment is to meet contractual obligations. Formative assessments are also used by some districts to identify areas of improvement needed inleadership practice. Whatever the purpose, summative or formative, the current state of leadership assessment is seen as lacking. In their comprehensive review of principal evaluation, Ginsberg and Berry (1990:212) state that policymakers have little to guide them in the assessment of school principals. In addition, the development of effective school leadershas been significantly hampered by the limited technically sound tools for assessing leadership performance. Finding practical ways to assess and develop leaders can have an important impact on both the quality of leadership and the quality of education. (Glasman and Heck, 1992; Thomas *et al.*, 2000). Leadership evaluation has the possibility to improve leadership practices and to provide information on accountability (Reeves, 2005; Waters and Grubb, 2003).

3.19   AN EXPLORATORY STUDY ON PRINCIPALS' CONCEPTIONS ABOUT THEIR ROLE AS SCHOOL LEADERS

There is no simple recipe for successful school leadership. Nevertheless, much research has focused on school leadership. Since the 1980s, literature on educational administration has made an inventory of the characteristics of successful principals. Behavioural descriptions were made to distinguish between more and less effective principals (Bossert *et al.*, 1982; Hallinger, 2003; Hallinger, Leithwood & Murphy, 1993; Sweeney, 1982). The main models

in this research are instructional and transformational leadership (Hallinger, 2003; Heck and Hallinger, 1999). From the early to the late 1980s, literature was dominated by instructional leadership. This body of research saw effective leadership as *strong, directive leadership focused on curriculum and instruction from the principal* (Edmonds, 1979; Leithwood and Montgomery, 1982).

Since the 1990s, researchers have shifted their attention to transformational leadership (Bass, 1997; Leithwood and Jantzi, 2000; Silins and Mulford, 2002). Transformational leadership seeks to enable schools to select their purposes and supports the development of changes to practices of teaching and learning (Hallinger, 2003). The hope for finding an effective school leader model, however, has diminished with the negative findings of several meta-analyses (Hallinger and Heck, 1996; Witziers *et al.*, 2003). The immediate effects of educational leadership on school performance appear to be marginal. In the 1980s, Bossert *et al.* (1982) suggested an alternative approach that views leadership as having an indirect influence through its effect on school climate.

Several studies have analysed the indirect effects of leadership (Witziers *et al.*, 2003). They have indicated that educational leadership is related to school organisation and school climate (Krüger, Witziers & Sleegers, 2007). However, little is known about how educational leaders influence school climate. In most studies, the principals' vision impacts strongly on behaviour. Just the same, it remains unknown how cognitive and behavioural aspects of principals are related. Cognitive processes are important for understanding the difference that school leaders can make. Through interaction with others, these cognitive structures result in understanding one's social context, which understanding acts as a guidefor present and future leadership behaviour (Spillane *et al.*, 2001; Weick, 1995). Insight into principals' thinking processes will promote an understanding of the actions they take.

According to Leithwood (1995:115), the cognitive perspective has the potential to make several contributions to school leadership. This perspective adds to the understanding of the knowledge base needed for exercising effective leadership.Thus far, literature on the cognitive perspective of educational administration has mainly focused on principals' thinking about practical problems and has summarised findings on how novices and experts display their knowledge in the school context (Hallinger, Leithwood & Murphy, 1993; Leithwood and Steinbach, 1992, 1995; Stager and Leithwood, 1989). More recent studies (Wassink, Sleegers & Imants, 2003; Krüger *et al.*, 2007) have analysed the impact of

principals' vision and tacit knowledge. Such knowledge leads to activities that play a salient role in shaping the school climate.

Several authors have attempted to define leadership in terms of a portfolio of roles (Mintzberg, 1973; Yukl, 1981). Dension, Hooijberg and Quinn have formulated a framework of leadership that explores competing roles (Dension, Hooijberg & Quinn, 1995; Quinn, 1984). These authors used the competing values model of organisational effectiveness (Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983) to to learn more aboutthe two underlying dimensions of stability andf lexibility and internal focus versus external focus. Witziers *et al.* (2003) have suggested Quinn's model as an interesting approach for further research on educational leadership and its relation with context and school climate. These authors gave three reasons for the use of this model in future research. First, the model has succeeded in distinguishing different school cultures with different consequences for student outcomes (Maslowski, 2001). According to Witziers *et al.* (2003), the framework assumes a correlation between certain leadership behaviours on the one hand and the existence of a specific school culture on the other. Second, the model focuses on the relationship between values and behaviours. A third advantage is the possible use of multiple outcomes. This last advantage is a challenge to educational leadership studies, which have often been criticised for concentrating only on cognitive student outcomes.

The competing values framework comprises four quadrants, each of which represents a broad domain of valued outcomes. Each quadrant groups several leadership roles. The explicit and tacit knowledge of principals shapes how they conceive of their roles as school leaders and their vision. Role conceptions, in turn, direct actions, strategies, and routine behaviours. Effective leadership behaviour transforms the leader into a role model for his or her team members (Leithwood and Jantzi, 1999). Theoretical models of transformational (Leithwood and Jantzi, 1999) and instructional (Hallinger and Murphy, 1985) leadership provide many different leadership actions that have an impact on the school organisation. In all of these models, school leaders must provide direction and support for their team members. At the same time, they must also set standards, raise high expectations, and make known what is expected of the teachers. Leaders must be flexible on the one hand and provide structure on the other hand (Hoy and Tarter, 1997).

Overall, the literature suggests that school leaders are committed and motivating and play a key role in developing strong and effective school climates. Effective leaders are able to

create and maintain conditions necessary for the building of professional learning communities within schools (Barker, 2001; Fernandez, 2000; Flores, 2004). Several dimensions have been identified as characteristics of effective and strong school climates (Devos, Verhoeven, Stassen & Warmoes, 2004; Hoy and Tarter, 1997; Maslowski, 2001; Staessens, 1990; Valentine, Cockrell, Herndon & Solomon, 2006). The first dimension, *goal-orientatedness,* reflects the extent to which the school vision is shared by the school members. The second dimension, *participative decision making,* reflects the extent to which teachers play a role in decision-making processes. The third dimension, *innovativeness,* reflects school members' ability to adapt to change and have an open attitude towards educational innovations. Finally, *cooperation between teachers* reflects both formal and informal relationships between teachers.

3.20   CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presented a series of related quantitative studies on school leadership in order to gain deeper insight on how leadership contributes to school capacity for improvement and learning. Literature reveals that there are no generic attributes of effective leadership. Contextual factors are very essential to effective leadership. The notion of effective leadership differs from one context to another. However, there is an agreement that leadership is contingent upon pedagogic outcomes. There is a global awareness that effective school leadership requires empowerment and that there are various patterns and models of leadership development and training. However, literature shows there is less school leadership training and development, especially in Africa, and particularly in South Africa.

In this instance, collaborative school leadership was discussed by defining conceptual models of leadership and learning. Furthermore, the following were discussed: school improvement and change, approaches to school change and improvement, strategies of school improvement as well as evaluation of school improvement, various theoretical frameworks to guide school improvement and leadership evaluation, and assessment frameworks. Lastly, an exploratory study on principals' conceptions about their role as school leaders was highlighted.

The next chapter will present the research design and methodology of this study.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1   INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter focused on understanding the impact on school capacity and student learning from the viewpoint of school leadership and school improvement. This chapter describes the research design and methodology used in this study. The focus is mainly on the discussion of the research design, followed by a description of the methods adopted for this study including the procedure for development of the data collection instrument, namely the questionnaire; the study population and sampling methods; as well as ethical considerations. Finally, this chapter describes the data analysis procedure and how findings are validated.

4.1.1   PHILOSOPHICAL STANCE: RESEARCH PARADIGM

The purpose of the study aims to explore the effectiveness of state-funded development programmes of school principals with specific reference to Soshanguve secondary schools. The central research question of this study is: *How can the capacitation of principals through state-supported development programmes be used to improve the quality of leadership in South African public high schools?* It is essential to explore the most suitable research methods for this study. The philosophical stance as well as the ontological and epistemological perspectives (Lincoln and Guba, 1985), are important to the selection of research methodology. In fact, it is necessarily required to question the guiding principles or research paradigms of a study. As emphasized by Guba and Lincoln (1994:105), 'questions of method are secondary to questions of paradigms.' These very important issues have to be sorted out and digested before the start of the research. In the literature, it is noted that understanding research paradigms guides us to be reflective in what, how and why we do the research. Thus the following will be a presentation of the research paradigms as followed by a discussion of research approaches and methods for guiding this study.

4.1.2 Positivist paradigm

Paradigms are models, perspectives or conceptual frameworks for guiding the organization of thoughts, beliefs, views and practices into a logical whole and eventually inform research design (Basit, 2010:14). There are two dominant research paradigms in educational research: the positivist paradigm and the interpretive paradigm. The positivist paradigm, also known as normative paradigm, takes a more traditional view of educational research. It is similar to

natural sciences, holding the view that truth can only seen to be discovered by observing, experimenting on, or interrogating a large number of subjects, resulting in findings that can be statistically analysed, and are therefore believed to be generalizable' (Basit, 2010:14). Lincoln and Guba (1985) argue that positivism can be defined as a philosophy characterized by a positive evaluation of science and the scientific method. That means, the method of study is expected to be more scientific and objective to formulate a hypothesis to test its validity in the real world (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Anderson, 2000). The approach is inherently quantitative with the emphasis on the measurement of behaviour, prediction of future measurements and patterns and explanation of a reality predicated. (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Maykut and Morehouse, 1994; Anderson, 2000). However, with the assumption that methods of natural science could be applied to social sciences (Lincoln and Guba, 1985), the positivist paradigm has been criticized for being unable to observe something in human behaviours, for example, intentions and feelings (Anderson, 2000). On this point, Hesse (1980, cited in Lincoln and Guba, 1985) further criticizes positivism according to the three most important assumptions-naïve realism, belief in a universal scientific language, and a correspondence theory of truth. According to these assumptions, there is an external world, which can be described, in scientific language. There is one-to-one relation to facts so that the scientist can capture external facts of the world. However, in social sciences 'one-to-one' relationship between variables is not always evident.

In spite of the scientific enterprise's proven success, especially in the field of natural science, its ontological and epistemological bases have been the focus of sustained and sometimes vehement criticism from some quarters. Beginning in the second half of the nineteenth century, the revolt against positivism occurred on a broad front. Cohen and Manion (1994) argued against the world picture projected by science's mechanistic and reductionist view of nature which excludes notions of choice, freedom and individuality. Lincoln and Guba (1985), however, state that post-positivism – that is the interpretive paradigm – could be seen.

Two dominant research paradigms, positivist and interpretive paradigms, exist in the field of social sciences (Cohen and Manion, 1994). The philosophical underpinnings, as well as the features, assumptions and criticisms of these two paradigms will be first discussed in the following section in order to provide a better understanding about the choice of the research design and methods in this study.

4.1.3 Positivist epistemological underpinnings

Epistemology concerns itself with "… the very bases of knowledge, its nature and forms, how it may be acquired, and how communicated to other human beings" (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000:6). Positivists initially believed that the inquirer (researcher) and the people being inquired (participants) were independent of each other, meaning that they did not influence each other. Modifying this belief, positivists now acknowledge that the hypotheses, theories and background knowledge held by the researcher can influence what is observed (Mertens, 1998). Moreover, they hold that the goal of research is to derive universal laws, and they argue that the researcher should remain neutral in order to prevent their values and biases from influencing their studies (Martens, 1998).

4.1.4 Ontology

Ontology relates to "… the very nature or essence of the social phenomena being investigated" (Cohen *et al*., 2000:5). Positivists hold to the notion that there is only reality that exists, and it is the responsibility of the researcher to discover that reality. Furthermore, they believe that the world is ordered and operates according to scientific laws (Robson, 2002; Mertens, 1998). Positivistic researchers believe that one reality exists but can only be imperfectly known and that the truth may be discovered within the confines of probability (Mertens, 1998). In this study, the ontology of effective school leadership was explored in order to gain a balanced view of its meaning and also to optimise the professional development of principals in schools.

4.1.5 Research design

According to Henning and Van Rensburg (2004:63), a research design is a programme used to guide the researcher in collecting, analysing and interpreting observed facts. Research design refers to a plan for selecting subjects, research sites, and data collection procedures to answer research questions (McMillan and Schumacher, 2006:117). Polit and Beck (2004:211) describe a research design as "a blueprint or outline, for conducting a study in such a way that maximum control will be exercised over factors that could interfere with the validity of research results".

In this study, a quantitative research design was deemed most suitable because the design enables the researcher to statistically analyse the data collected in order to provide solutions to the problem being investigated. Burns and Grove (2001:26) refer to quantitative research

as "a formal, objective, and systematic process in which numerical data is used to obtain information about the phenomenon under study". These authors point out that a quantitative study seeks to describe variables, examine the relationship among variables, and determine cause-effect interactions between variables. One of the major reasons for choosing this approach is that the researcher obtains first-hand information because it is easy to encourage the participants to be as honest and sincere as possible.

Since the study is designed to be descriptive, a descriptive method as a non-experimental quantitative research design was used. Its purpose was to describe the collection of data in order to test questions about the current state of affairs under study, which are the professional development programmes of school principals in Soshanguve. Descriptive research presents a picture of the specific details of a situation, social setting or relationship and focuses on the"why" and "how" questions (Neuman, 2000:22). A researcher therefore begins with a well-defined subject and conducts research to describe it accurately (De Vos, 2001:109).

4.1.6 Distinction between qualitative research and quantitative research paradigm

Qualitative and quantitative research represent two distinct approaches to understanding the world or the phenomenon under study. Table 4.1 summarises the major distinctions between the two research paradigms.

Table 4.1: Major distinctions between qualitative and quantitative research paradigms

Qualitative research paradigm	Quantitative research paradigm
Uses an inductive form reasoning: developing concepts, insights and understanding from patterns in the data.	Uses deductive reasoning: collects data to assess preconceived models, hypotheses and theories.
Derives meaning from the subject's perspective.	The meaning is determined by the researcher.
Is idiographic: aims to understand the meaning that attaches to everyday life.	Is nomothetic: aims to objectively measure the social world, test hypotheses and to predict and control human behaviour.
Sees reality as subjectivity.	Sees reality as objectivity.
Captures and discovers meaning once the researcher becomes immersed in data.	Tests hypotheses that the researcher starts off with.
Concepts are in the form of themes and categories.	Concepts are in the form of distinct variables.
Seeks to understand phenomena.	Seeks to control phenomena.
Observations are determined by information richness of settings and types of observations used are modified to enrich understanding.	Observations are systematically undertaken in a standardised manner.
The research design is flexible and unique and evolves throughout the process.	The research design is standardised according to fixed procedures and can be replicated.
Data is analysed by extracting themes.	Data is undertaken by means of standardised statistical procedures.
The unit of analysis is holistic, concentrating on the relationships between elements and contexts.	The unit of analysis arevariables which are atomistic (elements that form part of the whole).

Source: Schurink (1998:242-243)

Bryman (2002:20) identifies the following characteristics of quantitative research:

- it entails adeductive approach to determine the relationship between theory and research;
- it has incorporated the practices and norms of the natural scientific model; and
- it embodies a view of social reality as an external, objective reality.

4.2   POPULATION AND SAMPLING

Polit and Beck (2004:50) define a population as "the totality of all subjects that conform to a set of specifications, comprising the entire subjects group of persons that is of interest to the researcher and from whom the results can be generalized". A population is a group of people who share common attributes of interest to the researcher, from whom a sample will be drawn and to whom the findings will be generalised (Burns and Groove, 2001:83).

The population of this study is made up of 25 secondary schools in Soshanguve. Out of the 25 secondary schools, 10 secondary schools were randomly selected (with the exception of the four secondary schools that were used in the pretest of the questionnaire). To avoid bias in a sample, the random sampling method was used to select schools.

Sampling is "the process of selecting participants from a population" (Babbie and Mouton, 2001:164). A sample therefore refers to a subset of participants drawn from a population to represent the whole population (Melville and Goddard, 1996:29). To ensure that all participants had an equal chance of selection, the researcher used simple random sampling to select two HoDs and 10 educators from each school. These samples were chosen because they were likely to be knowledgeable and informed about the problem the researcher is investigating. Table 4.2 provides the proposed minimum sample size for this study.

Table 4.2: Proposed minimum sample size for this study

Participants	Numbers
HoDs	20
Educators	100
Total	120

4.3 DATA COLLECTION

Burns and Grove (2001:43) define data collection as "… the precise, systematic gathering of information relevant to specific research objectives or questions". According to these authors, data may be collected in several ways, depending on the study, and by utilising a variety of methods.

4.3.1 Data collection instrument

Data collection instrument refers to devices used to collect data such as questionnaires, tests and structured interviews. Data for this study was collected using a structured questionnaire, which is a written schedule that respondents complete themselves (Polit and Beck, 2004:349). A questionnaire was selected because it was less costly and required less time (Polit and Beck, 2004:350). Its advantage is that the respondents respond to questions with confidence that their responses remain anonymous (Leedy, 2001:198). Wilkinson (2000:42) concurs that a questionnaire is a useful tool for collecting data from a large number of respondents. Krathwohl (1998:361) adds that a questionnaire could be advantageous in that much information could be obtained and confidentiality is guaranteed.

There are two types of questionnaires, namely, structured and unstructured. A structured questionnaire calls for short, check-mark responses. The respondent only makes ticks. With anunstructured questionnaire, the respondents write their answers in their own words. The first type of questionnaire does not require a long concentration span. It was for this reason that it was chosen as the best option in this study. The following are some of the advantages of a questionnaire as used in this study (Neuman, 2000:271-272; Xaba, 1999:165-166; Keeves, 1997:422; Weeto, 1997:66-67):

- The respondent is often clearer about the meaning of the question.
- The chances for irrelevant answers are limited to the minimum because appropriate answer categories are provided.
- The answers are much easier to code and analyse.
- Answers are standard and can be compared between respondents.

Despite its merits, a structured questionnaire has its own shortcomings. However, such limitations cannot do away with its value as a research instrument in this study. The following are some of the disadvantages of a questionnaire as a research instrument (Keeves,

1997:422-426; Bennet *et al.*, 1994:248; Mouton, 1996:144; Neuman, 2000:271-272; Gall, Borg & Gall, 1996:291-298):

- Items may be personalised and frustrate the respondents;
- Little can be done to rectify wrongly interpreted questions;
- Incomplete questionnaires can also cause serious problems.

4.3.2   Construction of the questionnaire

The questionnaire used in this study was carefully constructed to keep the interest of the respondents very high. Everything was done to make the questionnaire of this study an ideal one. The content of the questionnaire was informed by the identified gaps in the literature studied in Chapter 2. The questionnaire was constructed to target questions that would maximise the cooperation of respondents. Many hints were considered such as the ones formulated by Best and Khan (1993:237-237) and Gall *et al.* (1996:291-298):

- keeping the questionnaire as short as possible;
- organising items so that they are to be read and be to completed;
- including brief, clear instructions, printed in bold type and upper and lower case;
- organising questions in a logical sequence;
- avoiding questions that will make too many demands on the part of the respondent's time;
- having a questionnaire which is easy to tabulate and to interpret;
- having objective questions with no leading questions;
- having its appearance neatly arranged and clearly printed.

A great deal of help was received during the planning and construction of this questionnaire. Different questionnaires were studied and scrutinised. Items of this questionnaire were submitted to the supervisor and experts for criticism and inputs. This was done to reduce faults in the questionnaire such as not wording the questionnaire clearly. Questionnaire development began in this study with visits to sampled secondary schools. During each visit, professional development of principals in Soshanguve was discussed. These discussions expanded considerably on the topic under investigation. After an in-depth literature review, the researcher designed one questionnaire to be completed by HoDs and educators.

4.3.3   Content of the questionnaire

The questionnaire for this study is made of four sections. Prior to these sections is the preliminary part of the questionnaire which comprised the introduction and instructions to inform the respondents what is expected of them in completing the questionnaire (Araoye, 2003:134; Babbie and Mouton, 2001:243).

In *section A,* respondents were requested to indicate their biographical data, school enrolment, school size, as well as the location of the schools where they teach. *Section* **B** consisted of question items based on the participation of school principals in state-sponsored leadership development programmes. In this section, respondents were requested to record their responses using yes or no questions, mainly because respondents are clearer about the meaning of these questions. In addition, quantification and analysis of the results became easy and effective. The respondents were further requested to indicate the extent of impact these programmes had on their principals' professional development during the last 18 months.

In *section C,* the aim of the researcher was to test whether the respondents are aware of the principals' development needs. In this regard, respondents were requested to use an evaluation scale, Likert four-point scale (high-level need, low-level need, no need at all), to record their views. The purpose of using this scale is that it keeps the respondents focused on the topic and is relatively objective, easy to complete and tabulate for statistical analysis (Best and Khan, 1993:231). In *section D,* the researcher sought to ascertain the knowledge of respondents on the challenges faced by newly appointed principals in managing their schools. To respond to these question items, they were requested to use a Likert four-point scale. In the last section (*section E*) of this questionnaire, the purpose of the researcher was to test the background knowledge of the respondents relating the role the Department of Education plays in ensuring that principals are professionally developed.

4.3.4   Distribution of questionnaire

This study followed the ideal method of questionnaire administration. The researcher delivered the questionnaires personally to schools. In some schools, the researcher was allowed to hand out questionnaires personally to respondents. In this way, it became easy to clarify ambiguous instructions to respondents. It also became quite easy to retrieve the

completed questionnaires. This method of questionnaire distribution has remarkable advantages such as the following:

- It has a good probability of a high response.
- It offers a maximum means of encouraging the respondents to complete the questionnaire.
- It offers an economic way of making follow-ups.

4.3.5 The response rate

A total of 120 questionnaires were distributed to 10 HoDs and 100 educators. The response rate was therefore 99.2%, which indicates that 119 of the respondents responded to the request. This is a favourable response rate. It is adequate to provide the required information for the purpose of data analysis. Only one respondent did not respond to the request of the researcher. This constitutes only 1.6% of the questionnaires issued. Mulusa (1998) indicates that a 50% return rate is adequate, 60% is good and 70% is very good. The reasons for non-response may be associated with the following factors:

- lack of interest
- pure reluctance

Table 4.3 summarises the response rate of the respondents.

Table 4.3: Response rate of the respondents

Respondent category	Number in the sample	Number of responses	Responses by percentage
HoDs	20	20	17%
Educators	100	99	81.6%
Total	120	119	98.6%

4.4 PRETESTING OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001:244), pre-testing the questionnaire is the surest protection against errors in the instrument. The purpose of pre-testing the research instrument is to determine whether questions were understood by the respondents. In addition, the

exercise assisted in the determination of whether there is a need to revise the format of the questionnaire with regard to sequence and wording of questions, and the need for additional instruction (Araoye, 2003:69-70).

Guided by the suggestions of Babbie and Mouton (2001:244-5), 10 participants with different backgrounds from schools not in the study undertook the pretesting of the questionnaire. This was to ensure that mistakes were rectified immediately before the questionnaire could be finalised.

4.5   STATISTICAL SOUNDNESS

Descriptive statistical analysis was done by computing means scores, standard deviations, correlations, t-test, frequency tables, pie charts and histograms for data presentation and analysis. This provided possibilities for the researcher to identify answer patterns that emerged from a group of respondents answering the same research questions with given response alternatives.

4.6   ITEM TESTING

Item testing was done on the questionnaire used for the study to determine its reliability. More specifically, the Cronbach'salpha coefficient was calculated in order to establish a measurement of internal consistency. Reliability/item testing was done separately for each section of the questionnaire. The statistical software programme IBM SPSS Statistics (version 23.0) was used for this purpose. A Cronbach'salpha value of 0.696 indicates that the reliability of the questionnaire is acceptable. Since the value of the Cronbach'salpha is very close to 0.70, it can be considered as an indicator of good reliability.

4.7   VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Validity is the degree to which results obtained from the analysis of data actually represent the phenomenon under study (Cohen and Manion, 1989). To enhance validity of the questionnaire, the researcher tested both face and content validity. Face validity refers to the likelihood that a question can be misunderstood or misinterpreted. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (1999), pretestinga survey is a good way of increasing the likelihood of face validity. The researcher used a pilot (pretest) to identify those items that could be misunderstood, and such items will be modified accordingly, hence increasing face validity. Content validity, on the other hand, refers to whether an instrument provides adequate

167

coverage of a topic. Before visiting the schools for data collection, the researcher pretested the questionnaires using four secondary schools; in this case, five HoDs and five teachers from each school were randomly sampled for the pilot study. Best and Kahn (1993) state that the content validity of research instruments is enhanced through expert judgment. The researcher consulted university lecturers and his supervisor who are experts in the area of educational management.

A test is reliable to the extent that it measures whatever it is supposed to be measuring consistently (Best and Kahn, 1998). To establish reliability of the research instruments, test-retest technique was used, whereby the researcher administered the questionnaires to the pilot study respondents at an interval of two weeks. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (1999), a correlation coefficient of r=0.7 is considered appropriate. The formula for determining r is given below.

Where

x   is the score on test 1
y   is the score on test 2
n   is the number of pairs of data
Σ   is the sum of the 29 values

The study achieved a reliability coefficient of 0.88 for the HoDs and teachers questionnaire, which confirmed that the instruments used yielded reliable information. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (1999), a coefficient of 0.80 or more simply shows that there is high reliability of data. High reliability means that items tend to be related to one another. For example, respondents who indicated "strong agree" for a specific question/item are likely to answer the questions also with "strongly agree". If parallel questionnaires were developed by using similar items, the relative responses would be the same.

4.8   ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Burns and Grove (2001:83) emphasise that to be ethical in research means that the rights of the researcher and participants are protected. De Vos (2001:24) points out ethical guidelines serve as a basis upon which researchers can evaluate their conduct. Accordingly, the researcher observed the ethical principles that follow during the study.

- **Permission to conduct the research**

In order to conduct the research at an institution such as a school or university, approval for conducting such research should be obtained before any data is collected (McMillan and Schumacher, 1993:195). In this study, the researcher first sought permission from the Gauteng Department of Education (GDE) before collecting data in the targeted secondary schools. Again, ethical clearance, which indicates if the study complies with ethical codes of the institution, was sought from University of South Africa (UNISA).

- **Informed consent**

Participants should be given enough information pertaining to the study before data collection (Schulze, 2002:17). In this, the participants were given adequate information on the purpose of the study, procedure to be followed and the way in which results were to be used. This enabled participants to make an informed decision whether to participate or not. No form of deception was used to ensure participation of participants (De Vos *et al.*, 1998:27).

- **Confidentiality and anonymity**

A researcher has to be at all times vigilant, mindful and sensitive to human dignity (Gay, 1996:85). This is supported by McMillan and Schumacher (1997:197) who stress that information from participants should be regarded as confidential unless otherwise agreed upon through informed consent. In this study, participants' confidentialities were not comprised, as their names were not used in the collection of data. No secret information was divulged, as the right to confidentiality was respected (Huysamen, 1994:134). Research findings were therefore presented anonymously.

4.9   DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis is the process of summarising the collected data and putting it together so that the researcher can meaningfully organise, categorise and synthesise information from a data collecting instrument. Data analysis refers to "… techniques to reduce, organise and give meaning to data" (Burns and Grove, 2005:41). Polit and Beck (2004:452-453) define it as the process of organising data in order to provide structure and elicit meaning.

Data obtained in this study was quantitatively analysed. SPSS, which contains a comprehensive set of procedures for organising, transforming and analysing quantitative data,

was used to analyse data. According to Magolego (2011:35), the advantage of SPSS is that any information can be analysed and interpreted perfectly in a short period of time.

Descriptive statistical analysis was done by computing mean scores, standard deviations, correlations, t-test, frequency tables, pie charts and histograms for data presentation analysis. This method is relevant when describing situations and events (Magolego, 2011:35). Tables, pie chart percentages and graphs were used to present quantitative descriptions in a manageable form, such as describing single variables and describing associations that connect one variable with another.

4.10   CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has described the research methodology and design used in the current study. The quantitative data collection method was discussed, and substantiation was given for choosing this particular data collection method. The process of data analysis, the philosophical assumptions on which this study is based, as well as ethical considerations were discussed.

The next chapter will deal with the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the collected data.

CHAPTER 5: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

5.1   INTRODUCTION

The foregoing chapter provided a detailed description of the research design and methodology employed to investigate the research problem. The aim of this chapter is to analyse and interpret the data collected by means of questionnaires. The chapter presents the results which are in relation to the research aims and research problems with consideration of relevant literature. The study had five objectives. The first objective is to describe the principals' experiences in partnership with the Gauteng Department of Education respecting the quality of leadership in South African public high schools.The second is to describe the core professional development needs of school principals. Thirdly, it is to identify the challenges faced by the newly appointed principals in performing their duties efficiently and effectively. Fourthly, the objective is to identify the role the National Department of Basic Education should play in ensuring that school principals are professionally developed.The final objective is to suggest and recommend context-free strategies and training models that can be used with regard to improving professional development of secondary school principals with special reference to Soshanguve. A total of 120 questionnaires were distributed to 10 sampled schools in April 2015. As mentioned, 119 questionnaires were returned and used to analyse data, as one questionnaire was not returned.

5.2   STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

SPSS version 23 was used to analyse the data. The reliability and validity of the instrument were measured using Cronbach's alpha and exploratory factor analysis. There were no items that had low reliability and thus all items were used in the analysis. Descriptive statistics in the form of frequencies, proportions, means, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis were used to determine the patterns and trends in the data using frequencies. Composite variables were created. The level of participation score was created by giving a one (1) to those who indicated a yes and a zero (0) to those who had a no, and the score was obtained by summing up the ones(1). Composite variables using the average were created for the Likert-type of questions on the impact of participation in state-sponsored leadership development programmes, professional development needs, challenges faced by newly appointed principals and education's role in developing principals. High scores indicated high levels of participation in leadership development programmes, and low scores indicated high

professional development needs, challenges faced and education's role in developing principals. Since the sample size was large, the central limit theorem was applied and independent t-tests and ANOVA were then used to determine whether there was a difference in the composite variables by biographical information of the respondents. Lastly, the correlation analysis was used to determine the extent of the relationship between the composite variables. The statistical analysis is presented in the next sections.

5.3 RELIABILITY

Cronbach's alpha was used to measure the internal consistency of the instrument. The degree of the reliability was assessed using the guidelines provided by Revelle and Zinbarg (2009) where the rules of thumb that follow were used. The reliability was excellent if $\geq$ .9, good $\geq$ .8, acceptable $\geq$ .7, questionable $\geq$ .6, poor $\geq$ .5 and < 0.5 unacceptable. The general agreed lower limit is .7, and according to Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson (2014), it may decrease to .6 in exploratory research. In this research, .6 was used as an acceptable level, and the reliability of the instrument is shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Reliability results of the dimensions

Aspect	No. of items	Cronbach's alpha	Acceptable level
Level of participation	8	.689	Acceptable
Level of impact	8	.762	Acceptable
Professional development needs	13	.941	Excellent
Challenges faced	7	.622	Acceptable
Department role in developing principals	5	.734	Acceptable
Total	*41*	*.911*	*Excellent*

As mentioned earlier on, a Cronbach's alpha of .6 or more depicts a reliable scale. All dimensions achieved the minimum threshold as proposed by Hair *et al.* (2014). The overall reliability of the instrument was .911, which is excellent, and as such, the instrument was deemed to be very reliable.

5.4   CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

A total of 119 educators participated in the study out of a total of 120 giving a response rate of 99.2%. According to Baruch (1999), the average response rate is 55.6% (Standard deviation (SD)=19.7). In this case, the response rate is far above the average and is thus deemed acceptable. The profile of their biographical information is indicated in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2: Biographical information of the characteristics of the sample

Variable	Category	Frequency	%
Gender	Male	52	44.1%
	Female	66	55.9%
	Total	**118**	**100%**
Age	20-30 years	1	0.8%
	31-40 years	26	21.8%
	41-50 years	92	77.3%
	Total	**119**	**100%**
Highest academic Qualification	Diploma	24	20.2%
	Bachelor's degree	56	47.1%
	Honours degree	38	31.9%
	Master's degree	1	.8%
	Total	**119**	**100%**
Teaching rank	Educator	95	79.8%
	HoD	21	17.6%
	Deputy principal	4	2.5%
	Total	**119**	**100%**
Current school Enrolment	500-999 pupils	46	38.7%
	1 000-1 999 pupils	68	57.1%
	2 000 pupils and above	5	4.2%
	Total	**119**	**100%**
School location	Township	116	98.3%
	City	2	1.7%
	Total	118	100%

Respondents that were selected as samples represented both males and females. The findings in Table 5.2 are that the majority of respondents (55.9%; n=66) are females, and 44.1% (n=52) are males. This situation could be attributed to the explanation expressed by Dekker and Lemmer (1993:14) that most school teachers worldwide are females.

All respondents in this research are above the age of 18 as shown in Table 5.2. This is the age of adulthood in terms of Section 28 of the South African Constitution. According to the findings in the figure above, the majority 77.3% (n=92) of the respondents who responded to the questionnaire are between 31-40 years of age, and the second largest group (21.8%; n=26) are between the ages of 41-50 years. There are only .8% (n=1) of respondents in this research who are between the ages of 20-30 years.

In terms of highest academic qualification, of the respondents, 20.2% (n=24) had a three-year post-secondary school diploma, 47.1% (n=56) possessed a bachelor's degree in education, 31.9% (n=38) had attained an honours degree, while only .8% (n=1) had a master's degree. The conclusion which can be drawn from these findings is that in the region of Soshanguve, very few educators possess a master's degree. This means that in-service training programmes need to be put in place to enable the majority of educators to further their studies through part-time studies.

Regarding teaching rank, frequency analysis shows that the majority of the respondents (79.8%; n=95) were still occupying post level, while a small portion of the respondents (17.6%; n=21) were post level two or three. From this information, it may be concluded that promotional opportunities are still limited within the education sector.

The respondents were asked to indicate their years of teaching experience. The distribution of the years of teaching experience is shown in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3: Summary statistics of years of teaching experience

Summary Statistics	Years of experience
Mean	14.75
Median	14
Mode	14
Standard deviation	3.314
Skewness	1.727
Kurtosis	6.998
Maximum	30
Minimum	6
Range	24
Coefficient of variation	22.47%

The teaching experience ranged from 6 to 30 years. The average years of experiences had a mean of 14.75 years with a standard deviation of 3.314 years. Thus, 68% of the respondents had years of teaching experience that range from 11.44 to 18.06 years (± one standard deviation from the mean). Thus, on the average, the respondents had 15 years of teaching experience. This indicates that the majority of the respondents had a great deal of experience. The coefficient of variation was 22.47%. Thus, the ratio of the standard deviation to the mean is almost 1 is to 5, indicating that there was not much variability, since it is close to zero. It can be noted that the modal value was 14 years as shown by the high-peaked histogram in Figure 5.1.
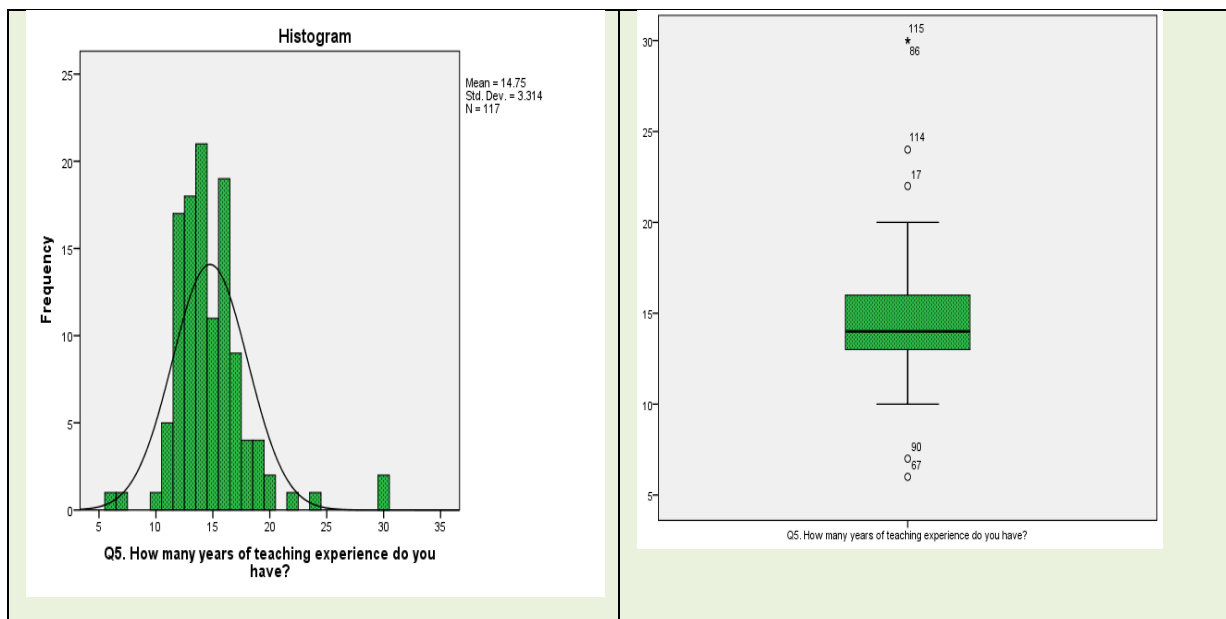
Figure 5.1: Histogram and boxplot showing years of teaching experience

The histogram and the boxplot in Figure 5.1 show that the data is positively skewed. The majority of the respondents have at least 14 years of teaching experience. Looking at the boxplot, it can be observed that there are outliers on both sides of the distribution. Very few people had more than 20 years and less than 10 years of teaching experience. A test of normality was done using the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality. The test gave a p-value of .000, thus indicating that the data was not normally distributed, since the p-value is less than.05. It was highly significant. In conclusion, one can agree that the respondents were experienced. The ages were categorised, and it was observed that the respondents with experience between 6-10 years were 2.6% (n=3), between 11-15 years were 61.5% (n=72), between 16-20 years were 32.5% (n=38) and above 20 years were 3.4% (n=4). The conclusion which can be drawn from this finding is that there are more experienced educators in the field than newly trained ones.

As indicated in Table 5.2, a large number of respondents (57.1%; n=68) reported that they worked in schools with learners between 1000 and1999, and 38.7% (n=46) indicated that their school size is between 500 and 999. Only 4.2% (n=5) of the respondents had a school enrolment of more than 2000 learners.

The findings in Table 5.2 clearly indicate that the majority of the respondents, that is, 98.3% (n=116), who responded to this questionnaire were working in schools that are located in townships, while 1.7% (n=2) were working in the city.

177

5.5 VIEWS ON THE EFFECTIVENESS OF DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES

The respondents were asked questions regarding participation of principals and the impact of state-sponsored leadership development programmes, professional development needs of school principals, challenges faced by newly appointed principals and the Department of Education's role in the development of principals. The findings of the aspects are discussed in the next subsections.

5.5.1 Participation of principals in state-sponsored leadership development programmes

Table 5.4 shows the responses relating to the participation of principals in state-sponsored development programmes. To test whether principals participated in any of the kinds of professional activities, the respondents were asked questions to indicate whether they participated in any of the professional development programmes during the last 18 months. There were eight programmes, and the findings are shown in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4: Participation in state-sponsored leadership development programmes

Statement	Level of participation		Rank
	Yes	No	
Participating in workshop-based training for professional development of principals	83.6% (97)	16.4% (19)	1
Participating in a principals networking cluster organised by your district for professional development	65.5% (76)	34.5% (40)	2
Peer observation organised by your district in which you have an opportunity to visit other principal(s) for sharing practice	51.7% (60)	48.3% (56)	3
Mentoring/coaching by an experienced principal, as a form of arrangement that is supported by your district	39.7% (46)	60.3% (70)	4
Seminars related to your role as a principal	37.1% (43)	62.9% (73)	5
Collaborative exchanges with other schools to improve your own work as a principal	18.1% (21)	81.9% (95)	6
Facilitating workshops for professional development in your school	13.8% (16)	86.2% (100)	7
Participating in collaborative research on community of practice for principals	7.8% (9)	92.2% (106)	8

The findings to the items in Table 5.4 clearly indicate that professional development of secondary school principals in Soshanguve has not been given any serious attention. This is confirmed by 92.2% (n=106) of the respondents disagreeing that school principals in their schools participated in collaborative research on community of practice for principals, with 86.2% (n=100) of the respondents also denying that they facilitated workshops for professional development in their school. This data was also supported by 81.9% (n=95) of the respondents disagreeing that principals in Soshanguve secondary schools did not participate in collaborative exchanges with other schools to improve their own work as a principal. The study demonstrated that the majority of the respondents disagreed that principals were involved in seminars related to their role as a principal (62.95; n=73) and mentoring/coaching by an experienced principal, as a form of arrangement that is supported by their district (60.3%; n=70). Against the information given above, the conclusion that can

179

be drawn is that there is a dire need to train and develop both existing and newly appointed principals so that an improvement in the quality of teaching and learning takes place.

Furthermore, the study found that workshops and seminars seemed to be the most preferred professional development programme by the majority of school principals (83.6%; n=97). In addition, the majority of the principals (65.5%; n=76) agreed that they participated in a principals networking cluster organised by their district for professional development and also in peer observation organised by their district, network clusters for professional development (51.7%; n=60).

As mentioned earlier, regarding responses of the participants, a yes was given a one (1) and a no a zero (0). The composite variable was created by summing up the items to obtain a score for *level of participation*. There were eight programmes or activities; thus, the level of participation had a minimum value of 0 and a maximum value of 8. The distribution of the scores is shown in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5: Summary statistics of level of participation

Summary Statistics	Score
Mean	3.172
Median	3
Mode	2
Standard deviation	1.889
Skewness	.361
Kurtosis	-.349
Maximum	8
Minimum	0
Range	8
Coefficient of variation	59.55%

As highlighted in Table 5.5, the level of participation score ranged from 0 to 8. The average score was 3.172 with a standard deviation of 1.889, giving a coefficient of variation of 59.55%. It can be observed that on the average, the level of participation of the respondents in the activities was 3 and thus 68% of the respondents obtained a level of participation score between 1.283 and 5.061 (±one standard deviation from the mean). The ratio of the standard deviation to the mean was 1:60, indicating large variability. The modal value was 2 as evidenced by the highest peak at 2, shown in Figure 5.2.

181

Figure 5.2: Histogram and boxplot showing level of participation in state-sponsored development leadership programme
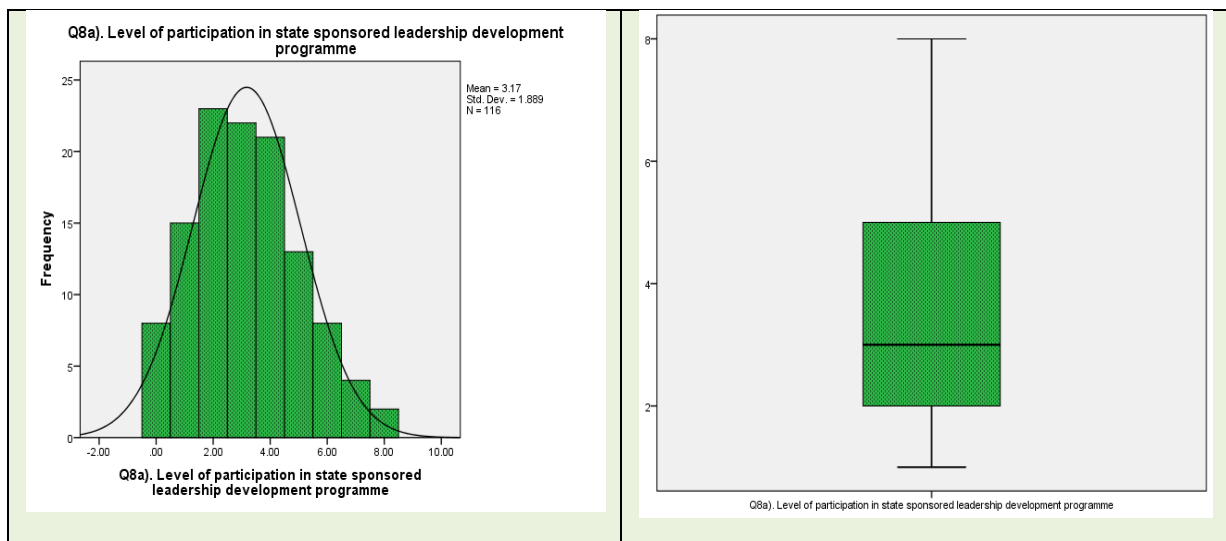
The histogram and the boxplot in Figure 5.2 illustrate that the data is positively skewed. Looking at the histogram, it can be noted that the majority of the respondents had a level of participation of not more than 4. This is also supported by the boxplot as evidenced by a median of 3. Thus, at least 50% of the respondents had a score of 3 or less out of 8. It can also be observed that 25% got a score of not more than 2 and at least 25% got a mark of 5. Thus, one can conclude that the majority of the principals did not attend more than four programmes or activities. The Shapiro-Wilk test was done to test whether the data was normally distributed. The Shapiro-Wilk test gave a p-value of .000, leading to the rejection of the null hypothesis of normality, since the p-value is less than.05. Therefore, it was highly significant. In conclusion, one can concur that the majority of the respondents had lower levels of participation. Thus, the majority of the principals in the sample were not participating in the state-sponsored leadership development programmes.

5.5.2 Impact of participation of principals in state-sponsored leadership development programmes

In this case, the respondents were asked to indicate the impact those activities had on their development in leadership as principals. The ranking was done using those with the largest proportion of large impact. Table 5.6 shows the summarised responses.

Table 5.6: Impact of participation in state-sponsored leadership development programmes

Statement	Level of impact			Mean	Rank
	Large impact	Small impact	No impact		
Facilitating workshops for professional development in your school	33.3% (5)	40% (6)	26.7% (4)	2.07	1
Participating in collaborative research on community of practice for principals	25% (2)	37.5% (3)	37.5% (3)	1.87	2
Seminars related to your role as a principal	11.6% (5)	41.9% (18)	46.5% (20)	1.65	3
Collaborative exchanges with other schools to improve your own work as a principal	9.5% (2)	42.9% (9)	47.6% (10)	1.62	4
Mentoring/coaching by an experienced principal, as a form of arrangement that is supported by your district	6.5% (3)	54.3% (25)	39.1% (18)	1.67	5
Participating in workshop-based training for professional development of principals	4.2% (4)	45.8% (44)	50% (48)	1.54	6
Participating in a principals networking cluster organised by your district for professional development	3.9% (3)	36.8% (28)	59.2% (45)	1.45	7
Peer observation organised by your district in which you have an opportunity to visit other principal(s) for sharing	3.3% (2)	26.7% (16)	70% (42)	1.33	78

The findings in Table 5.6 indicated that professional development of secondary principals in Soshanguve has not been given any serious attention. This is confirmed by the majority of the respondents indicating that the activities "*peer observation organised by your district in*

which you have an opportunity to visit other principal(s) for sharing", "*participating in a principals networking cluster organised by your district for professional development*" and "*participating in workshop-based training for professional development of principals*" had no impact. These three activities were the activities where the majority of the principals had participated. It can be concluded that the workshops and seminars seemed to be the most preferred professional development programme by the majority of school principals, but they seem not to be having a large impact. Thus, although some of the principals are attending the state-sponsored leadership development activities, they seem not to be having any impact on the principals. No activity had the majority of the respondents indicating that it had a large impact.

A composite variable was created by finding an average of the items. The Likert scale ranged from 1 to 3, where 1 was no impact, and 3 was alarge impact. Further analysis of the results revealed that the mean was 1.47, and the distribution of the means is shown in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7: Summary statistics of the impact of participation in state-sponsored leadership development programmes

Summary Statistics	Score
Mean	1.470
Median	1.333
Mode	1
Standard deviation	.475
Skewness	.914
Kurtosis	.296
Maximum	3
Minimum	1
Range	2
Coefficient of variation	32.31%

Table 5.7 demonstrates that the respondents were more inclined to choose one (1), that is, no impact. The standard deviation was .475 with a coefficient of variation of 32.31%, thus indicating not much variability, since it is close to 0%. Looking at the histogram in Figure 5.3, the highest peak was at 1, indicating that the largest proportion indicated no impact. Both plots showed that the data was positively skewed as shown in Figure 5.3.

Figure 5.3: Histogram and boxplot showing the impact of level of participation in state-sponsored leadership development programmes
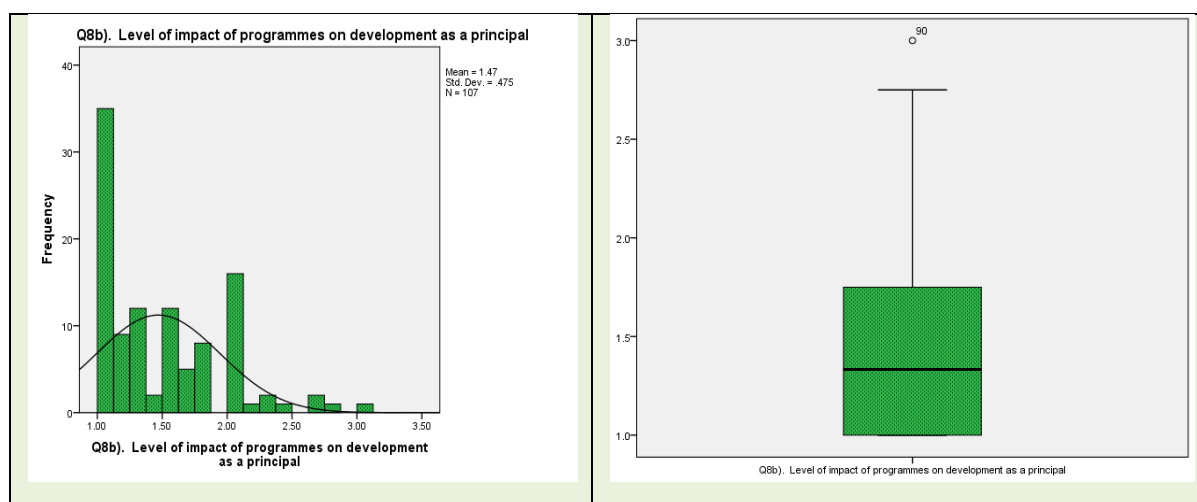
Looking at the histogram in Figure 5.3, few respondents indicated that it had a small impact or large impact. The boxplot showed that more than 50% indicated a rating of 1.5 or less. The Shapiro-Wilk test was used to test whether data was normally distributed, and ap-value of .000 was obtained. Since the p-value is less than.05, the null hypothesis of normality was rejected. Thus, data is not normally distributed.The bulk of the respondents got scores of less than 2. One can conclude that when it comes to level of impact, the majority of the respondents indicated that the state-sponsored programmes had a low impact.

5.5.3 Professional development needs of school principals

Table 5.8 shows the responses pertaining to the professional development needs of school principals. There were 13 items measuring the extent to which the respondents needed a particular skill. The rank was done using those with a high level of needs as the most ranked. Their responses were summarised in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8: Professional development needs of school principals

Statement	Level of need			Mean	Rank
	High level of need	**Low level of need**	**No need at all**		
Skills and knowledge in financial management	91.3% (105)	6.1% (7)	2.6% (3)	2.89	1

Developing and implementing strategic action plans	88% (103)	8.5% (10)	3.4% (4)	2.85	2
Setting goals and determining outcomes	87.9% (101)	8.7% (10)	3.5% (4)	2.85	3
Facilitating professional development/development of others	87.8% (101)	7.8% (9)	4.3% (5)	2.83	4
Sustaining and motivating for continuous improvement	86.7% (98)	9.7% (11)	3.5% (4)	2.83	5
Developing the school organisation using systems thinking	86.3% (101)	9.4% (11)	4.3% (5)	2.82	6
Facilitating the change process	85.2% (98)	10.4% (12)	4.3% (5)	2.81	7
Building team commitment	84.2% (96)	14% (16)	1.8% (2)	2.83	8
Understanding student development and learning	83.2% (94)	13.3% (15)	3.5% (4)	2.80	9
Defining the core values and beliefs of education	82.6% (95)	13% (15)	4.3% (5)	2.78	10

	80.3%	17.9%	1.7%		11
Building community involvement	(94)	(21)	(2)	2.79	
Developing the vision and mission of the school	77.4% (89)	18.3% (21)	4.3% (5)	2.73	12
Solving problems and making decisions	76.9% (90)	19.7% (23)	3.4% (4)	2.74	13

Responses to the questions relating to the professional development needs of school principals in Table 5.8 clearly indicate that the majority of the respondents who participated in this study identified all areas as areas of needs. The top most areas indicated by 85% of the respondents were skills and knowledge in financial management, developing and implementing strategic action plans, setting goals and determining outcomes, facilitating professional development/development of others, sustaining and motivating for continuous improvement, developing the school organisation using systems thinking, and facilitating the change process as the high level of need for professional development of secondary school principals in the Soshanguve region. Only a small portion of respondents identified the professional needs of school principals as no need and low level of need.

Based on the aforementioned findings, it is important to mention that the majority of principals (particularly Soshanguve secondary school principals) need continuous opportunities to upgrade their knowledge and skills in order to meet the challenges of increased public demands. This means that the provision of adequate preparation before the appointment may relieve the principals from the diverse challenges they may encounter at school.

The composite variable was calculated using the average to determine the level of need. Thus, high levels indicate that the respondents were in need of professional development in that area. The summary statistics of the variable are shown in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9: Summary statistics of professional development needs for school principals

Summary Statistics	Value
Mean	2.808
Median	3
Mode	3
Standard deviation	.356
Skewness	-2.909
Kurtosis	9.659
Maximum	3
Minimum	1
Range	2
Coefficient of variation	12.68%

Table 5.9 indicates an average mean of 2.808 with a median of 3 and a mode of 3. Therefore, the majority of the areas had respondents indicating them as areas of high need. The standard deviation was .356, giving a coefficient of variation of 12.68%, which is closer to zero. Hence, there was not much variability. The data was negatively skewed as shown by the histogram and boxplot in Figure 5.4.

Figure 5.4: Histogram and boxplot showing the level of need for professional development
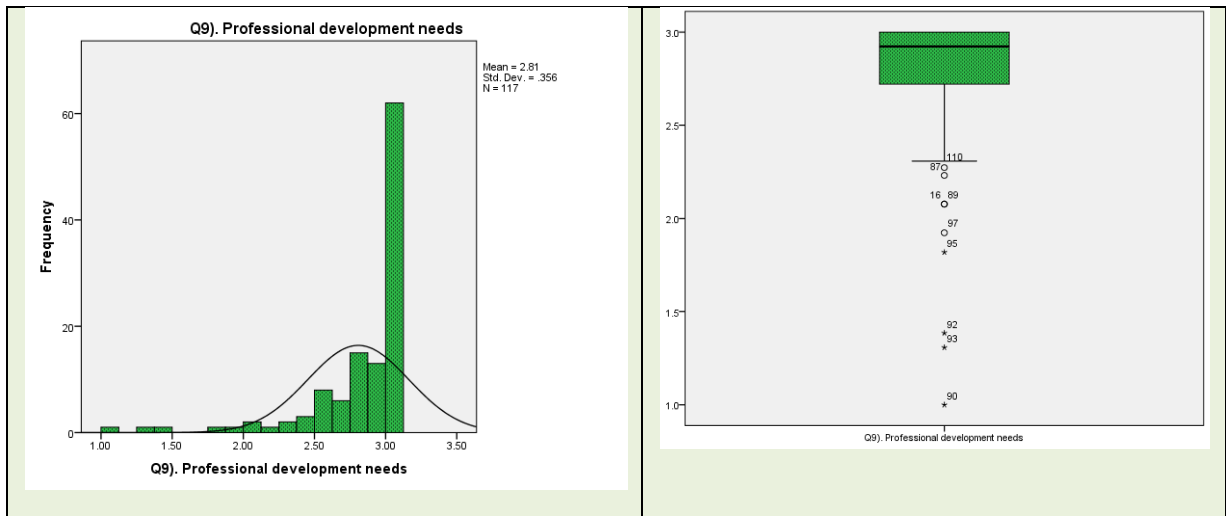
The histogram in Figure 5.4 has a high peak at 3, indicating that the largest proportion revealed that they were in need of being professionally developed in the specific areas. The boxplot highlights that at least 75% of the respondents gave a rating of 2.5 and above. The test of normality gave a p-value of .000, indicating that the data was not normally distributed. One can conclude that the school principals are in desperate need of professional development.

5.5.4   Challenges facing newly appointed principals

Table 5.10 shows the responses of respondents pertaining to the challenges facing newly appointed principals. For the purpose of analysis, the 'strongly agree' and 'agree' and 'strongly disagree' and 'disagree' were combined into agree and disagree.

189

Table 5.10: Challenges facing newly appointed principals

Statement	Level of agreement		Mean	Rank
	Agree	**Disagree**		
Lack of formal leadership training for new principals	92.9% (105)	7.1% (8)	1.38	1
Ongoing violent behaviour incidences in schools	92.9% (105)	7.1% (8)	1.42	1
Inadequate departmental support and guidance	86.4% (102)	13.6% (16)	1.72	3
Poor morale among teachers	84.7% (100)	15.3% (18)	1.56	4
Lack of parent involvement and support	75.4% (89)	24.6% (29)	1.90	5
Lack of physical resources, teaching and learning support materials	75.4% (89)	24.6% (29)	2.05	5
Limited funding for school improvement	69.5% (82)	30.5% (36)	2.18	7

Looking at Table 5.10, from the analysis of challenges faced by newly appointed principals, the responses on the question of violent behaviour incidences in schools showed that the majority of the respondents (92.9%) agreed that violence in schools is aserious challenge for newly appointed principals. This challenge has a negative impact on these principals, as they fail to bring order and stability in their schools. Only a minority of the respondents (7.1%) did not agree with the statement.

Recent studies and reports show that preparation of educational leaders is basically weak, since several problem areas have been identified such an absence of collaboration between school districts and university, a lack of systematic professional development and lack of definition of good educational leadership (Hale and Hunter, 2003). This was confirmed by the majority of the respondents (92.9%) who maintain that there is lack of any formal leadership training for new principals in Soshanguve, with a small number of respondents (7.1%) disagreeing with the statement.

The majority of the respondents (86.4%) agreed that there is inadequate departmental support and guidance for newly appointed principals. Only (13.6%) of the respondents indicated in their responses that the Department of Education is doing enough in supporting and guiding newly appointed principals.

According to the findings in Table 5.10, it is clear that newly appointed principals are still experiencing insurmountable challenges in managing their schools effectively due to poor morale among teachers. This is affirmed by a large number of respondents (84.7%) agreeing with the statement. There were only a small number of respondents (15.3%) who did not agree with the assertion.

Most of the respondents (75.4%), on the question of lack of physical resources, teaching and learning support materials indicated that newly appointed principals are adversely affected by this challenge, as it compromises the culture of teaching and learning. A small number of respondents (25.6%) disagreed with the assertion.

According to the responses on the question of lack of parental involvement and support, about 75.4% of the respondents agreed that there is a lack of community support. In contrast, only a small number of respondents (25.6%) disagreed with the statement.

The frequency analysis on the question of limited funding for school improvement indicates that the majority of the respondents (69.5%) agreed with the statement that many schools in South Africa are still faced with severe contextual problems, which would present serious challenges for both experienced and newly appointed principals. This is countered by only 30.5% of the respondents.

A composite variable of the dimension was calculated by taking the average of the items. The mean score ranged from 1 to 5, giving a range of 4 as shown in Table 5.11.

Table 5.11: Summary statistics of challenges faced by newly appointed principals

Summary Statistics	Value
Mean	1.746
Median	1.643
Mode	1.29
Standard deviation	.503
Skewness	1.012
Kurtosis	1.572
Maximum	3.71
Minimum	1
Range	2.71
Coefficient of variation	28.81%

It is revealed in Table 5.11 that the average was 1.746 with a standard deviation of .503. Thus, 68% of the respondents had means ranging from 1.243 to 2.249 (one standard deviation from the mean). The average was close to 2, indicating that most of the respondents were in agreement that the newly appointed principals experienced challenges. The data was positively skewed as shown by the histogram and boxplot in Figure 5.5.

Figure 5.5: Histogram and boxplot showing challenges faced by newly appointed principals
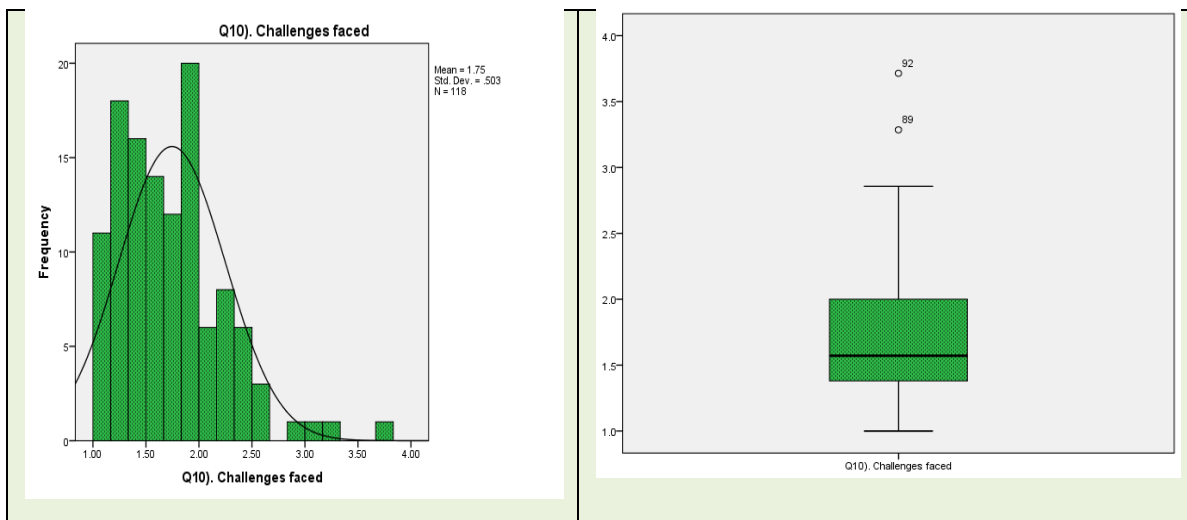
Looking at the histogram and boxplot in Figure 5.5, one can conclude that more than 75% had a mean of not more than 2. The Shapiro-Wilk test of normality gave a p-value of .000, leading to the rejection of the null hypothesis of normality. Thus, data was not normally distributed. One can make the conclusion that when it comes to challenges the majority of the

respondents were in agreement that the newly appointed principals were facing these challenges.

5.5.5 The role of the Department of Basic Education in developing school principals

Table 5.12 presents the analysis of responses relating to the Department of Basic Education's role in developing principals. Their responses were as summarised in the table that follows.

Table 5.12: Role of the Department of Basic Education in developing school principals

Statement	Level of agreement		Mean	Rank
	Agree	**Disagree**		
The in-service training programmes provided by the Department of Education benefits teachers through continuous principals' development	16.7% (19)	83.3% (95)	3.09	1
Department of Education provides principals with opportunities and support to actively participate in professional development activities	14% (16)	86% (98)	3.10	2
Continuous principals' development provided by the Department of Education equips school principals with skills to deal with challenges of school-based management	14% (16)	86% (98)	3.15	2
Department of Education provides the National Development Plan to monitor the implementation of professional development of principals	14% (16)	86% (98)	3.08	2
Department of Education plays a vital role in promoting effective educational leadership	10.6% (12)	89.4% (101)	3.27	5

The responses in Table 5.12 bring out that the majority of the respondents (89.4%) did not agree that the Department of Education plays a vital role in promoting effective educational leadership, while a small portion of the respondents (10.6%) agreed with the statement. Of the respondents who participated in this study, (86%) disagreed with the statement that the Department of Education provides principals with opportunities to actively participate in

professional development activities. There were only (14%) of respondents who agreed with the statement.

According to the findings in Table 5.12, it is evident that continuous principals' development initiated by the Department of Education does not equip school principals with skills. This is confirmed by the majority of the respondents (86.4%), with a small number of respondents (14%) agreeing with the statement. With reference to the in-service training programmes provided by the Department of Education, the respondents were divided: 16.7% agreed, whereas 83.3% disagreed. The frequency analysis according to the Table 5.12 shows that the Department of Education did not do enough in providing the National Development Plan to monitor the implementation of the professional development of principals. This is corroborated by the majority of the respondents (86%), with a small number of the respondents (14%) disagreeing with the statement.

Further analysis of the results revealed that the composite variable on the role of the Department of Basic Education in developing school principals ranged from 1.6 to 4, giving a range of 2.4 as shown in Table 5.13.

Table 5.13: Summary statistics of the role of the Department of Basic Education in developing school principals

Summary Statistics	Value
Mean	3.136
Median	3.2
Mode	3.4
Standard deviation	.484
Skewness	-1.267
Kurtosis	1.696
Maximum	4
Minimum	1.6
Range	2.4
Coefficient of variation	15.43%

The mean, median and mode were 3.136, 3.2 and 3.4 respectively. Thus, the average is approximately 3, indicating that the respondents were in disagreement about the role of the Department in developing principals. The ratio of the standard deviation to the mean is 1:7,

indicating that there is not much variability. The data was negatively skewed as shown by the histogram and boxplot in Figure 5.6.

Figure 5.6: Histogram and boxplot showing the role of the Department of Basic Education in developing school principals
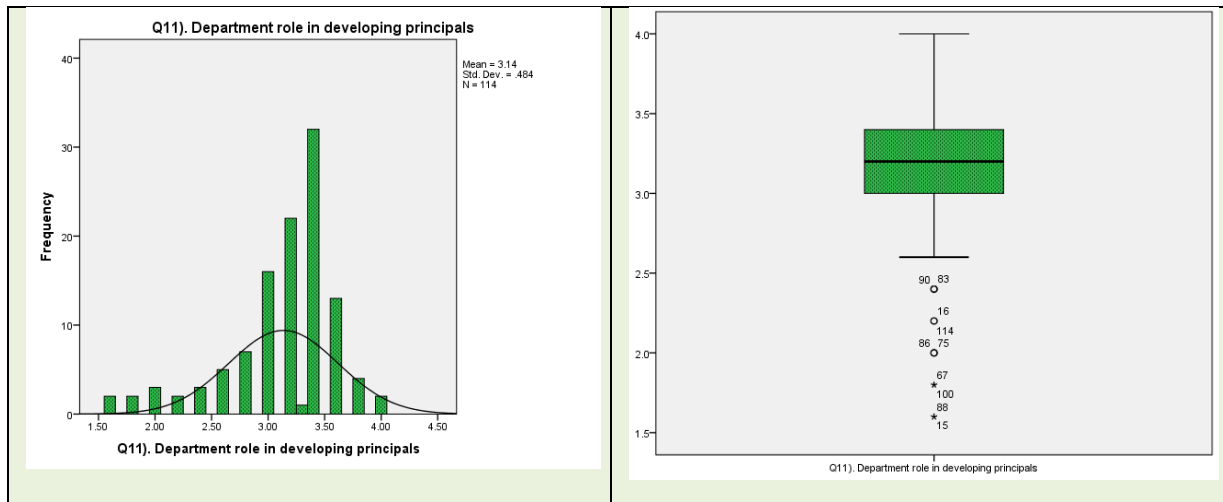
The boxplot in Figure 5.6 had outliers to the left indicating negative skewness. Looking at the histogram and boxplot, one can deduce that more than 50% had a mean rating above 3. The test of normality gave a p-value of .000, which is less than .05, indicating that the data was not normally distributed. One can draw the conclusion that when it comes to the role of the Department of Basic Education in developing school principals, the respondents felt that the Department was not playing any significant role.

5.5.6 Other issues concerning development of principals

The respondents were asked to give any further details concerning the development of principals in their school. The following issues were raised:

- the Department should empower principals;
- lack of development;
- development for structures to empower;
- lack of initiative from department for development and monitoring;
- need for continuous monitoring, assessment and development;
- creation of principal forum;
- principal forum to share ideas;
- appointment of principals based on level of education;

195

- lack of support;

- the Department to provide resources;

- the Department to minimise administration work;

- create platform for sharing;

- the Department to do the work;

- visible continuous assessment of principals;

- monitoring of implementation of educational leadership.

The respondents pointed out that there was lack of development of principals around this area, lack of initiative on the side of the department to further develop and monitor such if there are any, and that the Department should develop structures whereby principals would be empowered with skills and knowledge to face today's challenges. One of the respondents was quoted as saying: "*this can be achieved if there will be continuous monitoring, assessment and development that would be linked to a forum of principals whereby their challenges are shared*". They further indicated that they think that if principals could be appointed based on their level of education, especially postgraduate education, this could secure principals who have knowledge and skill and understanding on how important the implementation phase is. The respondents said that principals need to be supported and developed so that they can perform their work effectively, the Department of Education must provide leadership and management courses to the principals, the Department must give the principals resources so that they can be able to work and improve, and if the Department of Education can try to minimise the administration work.

5.6   USE OF EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS IN DETERMINING VALIDITY OF INSTRUMENT

According to Hair *et al.* (2014:92), factor analysis is an interdependence technique whose primary purpose is to define the underlying structure among the variables in the analysis. There are two types of factor analysis: exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis. In this case, exploratory factor analysis was used to give insight into the structure of the data set and also to reduce its dimensionality. Variables that are highly intercorrelated were grouped into distinct factors. The principal component analysis method was used with a varimax rotation.

The number of factors to be retained was done using the latent root criterion. It is the most commonly used method where all factors with an eigenvalue of more than 1 are retained. The latent root (eigenvalue) is the column sum of squared loadings for a factor, and it represents the amount of variance accounted for by a factor (Hair *et al.*, 2014).

Factor analysis is applicable if the correlation of the data matrix is sufficient.The appropriateness of the factor analysis was determined using the measure of sampling adequacy called Kaiser-Meyer Olkin (KMO) and the Bartlett Test of Sphericity. The Bartlett Test of Sphericity examines the entire correlation matrix by measuring whether there is sufficient correlation to proceed with the factor analysis. The null hypothesis of lack of sufficient correlation is rejected if the p-value is less than .05.In terms of the KMO, a value of .50 and above is considered suitable for factor analysis (Hair *et al.*, 2014).

The communality is the total amount of variance an original variable shares with all other variables included in the analysis. The communalities should be above .5, or most of the variables should have communalities above .6 (Hair *et al.*, 2014). The factor solution is robust if the amount of variance explained is at least 50% (Pallant, 2007).

5.6.1 Exploratory factor analysis on level of participation

A factor analysis was done to determine which items in terms of the level of participation are highly correlated. The factor analysis resulted in a KMO of .645 and a Bartlett Test of Sphericity with a p-value of .000. Since the KMO was above .5 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant, the data was appropriate for factor analysis. All items had communalities above .5 except one with a communality of .498. However, all items were retained, since the majority of the communalities were above .6. The factor solution resulted in a three-factor solution as shown in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14: Factor solution for level of participation

Factors and observedvariables	Loadings	Eigenvalues	% of variance
Factor 1: Participation in state-sponsored leadership programmes		1.893	23.66%
- Facilitating workshops for professional development in your school	.905		
- Participating in collaborative research on community of practice for principals	.863		
Factor 2: Participation in state-sponsored leadership programmes		1.798	22.48%
- Participating in principal networking clusters organised by your district for professional development	.796		
- Peer observation organised by your district in which you have an opportunity to visit other principal(s) for sharing practice	.752		
- Participating in workshop-based training for professional development of principals	.691		
Factor 3: Participation in state-sponsored leadership programmes		1.622	20.27%
- Collaborative exchanges with other schools to improve your own work as a principal	.858		
- Mentoring/coaching by an experienced principal, as a form of arrangement that is supported by your district	.676		
- Seminars related to your role as a principal	.598		
Total variance explained			**66.41%**

The first factor in Table 5.14 had two items and was named *participation in state-sponsored leadership programmes*, with an eigenvalue of 1.893; it accounted for 23.66% of the total variation. The second factor consisted of three items and was named *participation in state-sponsored leadership programmes*; it had an eigenvalue of 1.798 and accounted for 22.48% of the total variation. The last factor had three items and was named *participation in state-sponsored leadership programmes*; it had an eigenvalue of 1.622 and explained 66.41% of the total variance. The factor solution was robust, since the amount of variability accounted for was 81.83%.

5.6.2 Exploratory factor analysis on professional development needs

In terms of developmental needs, one variable was dropped from the analysis. The variable "*building community involvement*" had a low communality below .4.

The factor solution gave a KMO measure of sampling adequacy of .874, indicating that the correlations were adequate for factor analysis. The Bartlett's test made it possible to reject the null hypothesis of lack of sufficient correlation between variables, since the p-value= .000 (< .05) and thus the factor analysis was appropriate. The principal component analysis with varimax rotation resulted in a one-factor solution. The lowest communality was .485, and the majority of the communalities were above .6. The factor solution is shown in Table 5.15.

Table 5.15: Factor solution for professional development needs

Factors and observedvariables	Loadings	Eigenvalues	% of variance
Factor 1:Professional development needs		7.530	62.75%
- Setting goals and determining outcomes	.911		
- Facilitating the change process	.863		
- Sustaining and motivating for continuous improvement	.846		
- Developing and implementing strategic actions plans	.820		
- Developing the school organisation using systems thinking	.806		
- Facilitating professional development/development of others	.791		
- Understanding student development and learning	.783		
- Solving problems and making decisions	.770		
- Developing the vision and mission of the school	.757		
- Defining the core values and beliefs of education	.725		
- Building team commitment	.707		
- Skills and knowledge in financial management	.697		
Total variance explained			**62.75%**

The factor in Table 5.15 had an eigenvalue of 7.530 and accounted for 62.75% of the total. Thus, the solution is robust, since it accounts for at least 50% of the variance. Accordingly, all the aspects on professional development needs of principals were confirmed to be highly correlated to one another.

5.6.3 Exploratory factor analysis on challenges faced

The factor solution yielded three factors with a KMO measure of sampling adequacy of .569, indicating that the correlations were adequate for factor analysis. The Bartlett's test had a *p-value = .000*, leading to the rejection of the null hypothesis because of lack of sufficient correlation between variables. Therefore, the data was appropriate for factor analysis. All communalities were above .5. Table 5.16 gives the factor solution.

Table 5.16: Factor solution for challenges faced by newly appointed principals

Factors and observed variables	Loadings	Eigenvalues	% of variance
Factor 1: Challenges faced by newly appointed principals		1.718	24.54%
- Lack of parent involvement and support	.835		
- Limited funding for school improvement	.764		
- Poor morale among teachers	.621		
Factor 2: Challenges faced by newly appointed principals		1.641	23.44%
- Lack of formal leadership training for new principals	.841		
- Ongoing violent behaviour incidences in schools	.827		
Factor 3: Challenges faced by newly appointed principals		1.513	21.61%
- Inadequate departmental support and guidance	.860		
- Lack of physical resources, teaching and learning support materials	.848		
Total variance explained			**69.59%**

The first, second and third factors in Table 5.16 had eigenvalues of 1.718, 1.641 and 1.513 respectively and accounted for 24.54%, 23.44% and 21.61% of the total variance

respectively. All in all, the factors accounted for 69.59% of the variance. Thus, the solution is robust, since it accounts for at least 50% of the variance.

5.6.4   Exploratory factor analysis on role of department in developing principals

The variable "*Department of Education plays a vital role in promoting effective educational leadership*" had communality below .4 and was removed from the analysis. The factor solution resulted in a 1factor. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity had a chi-square value = 101.137 with a p-value =.000, leading to the rejection of the null hypothesis due to lack of sufficient correlation between variables. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was .611, indicating that the correlations are adequate for factor analysis. The factor solution is shown in Table 5.17.

Table 5.17: Factor solution for role of the Department in developing principals

Factors and observed variables	Loadings	Eigenvalues	% of variance
Factor 1:The roles of the Department		2.173	54.33%
- Continuous principals' development provided by the Department of Education equips school principals with skills to deal with challenges of school-based management	.762		
- Department of Education provides principals with opportunities and support to actively participate in professional development activities	.753		
- The in-service training programmes provided by the Department of Education benefits teachers through continuous principals' development	.730		
- Department of Education provides the National Development Plan to monitor the implementation of professional development of principals	.702		
Total variance explained			**54.33%**

The factor in Table 5.17 was named "*department's roles*" with an eigenvalue of 2.173, contributing 54.33% of the total variance. All the aspects had levels of disagreements of more

than 85%. These are the items the respondents were in disagreement with in the participation of the Department of Education in developing principals.

5.7 TWO-SAMPLE T-TESTS TO DETERMINE DIFFERENCES IN MEANS BETWEEN VARIABLES

The aim of this section is to determine whether the perceptions or views of respondents differ due to their biographic information. According to Davis, Pecar and Santana (2014:347), two populations are said to be independent if the measured values of the items observed in one population do not affect the measured values of the items observed in the other population. In this case, a comparative analysis was done to determine whether there was equality of means between two groups using a two-sample t-test normally called an independent t-test. A two-sample t-test is used to test the difference between two population means when a sample is randomly selected from each population. The independent t-tests have three assumptions. The assumptions are that the samples must be randomly selected, independent and each population should have a normal distribution.

In this case, the participants were randomly selected and were independent of each other. Since all of the composite variables were not normally distributed, the central limit theorem was applied.The central limit theorem states that *the sampling distribution of the mean of a random sample drawn from any population is approximately normal for a sufficiently large sample size. The larger the sample size, the more closely the sampling distribution of mean will resemble a normal distribution* (Keller and Gaciu, 2015:253).

The variables with two groups were gender, age, teaching rank, teaching experience and enrolment. The 5% level of significance was used to determine the difference between the two groups, and the null hypothesis to be tested was:

H_o: $\mu_1 = \mu_2$ (The means are the same)

H_1: $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$ (The means differ)

The p-value approach was used, and a p-value less than .05 resulted in the rejection of the null hypothesis of equal means. Only significant tests will be discussed in detail.

5.7.1 Independent t-test to determine difference by gender

There was no difference in means in all dimensions by gender, since all the p-values were greater than .05. Thus, there was homogeneity with respect to level of participation in state-sponsored leadership development programmes, level of impact of programmes on development as a principal, professional's development needs, challenges faced, and department role in developing principals. Therefore, gender did not affect the views of the respondents.

5.7.2 Independent t-test to determine difference by age

The age was divided into two groups, at most 30 years and 31-40 years. There was no difference in views between the two age groups as evidenced by all p-values being greater than .05. Thus, age did not impact on the ratings with regard to level of participation in state-sponsored leadership development programmes, level of impact of programmes on development as principal's professional development needs, challenges faced, and department role in developing principals.

5.7.3 Independent t-test to determine difference by teaching rank

In terms of teaching rank, there were two groups. The respondents were divided into educators who do not have an administrative post and those who had posts, in this case, HoDs and deputy principals. All p-values were greater than .05 except the aspect "*level of participation in state-sponsored leadership development programme*", which had a p-value of .048 as shown in Table 5.18.

Table 5.18: Independent t-test to determine difference by teaching rank

Dimension	Group	Mean	T-test value	p-value	Decision
Q8a). Level of participation in state-sponsored leadership development programme	Educator	3.000	-2.002[*]	.048	Reject the null hypothesis
	HoD/ Deputy principal	3.870			
[*] *p<.05 and* [**] *p<.01*					

Considering Table 5.18, in terms of the dimension "*level of participation in state-sponsored leadership development programme*", the t-value was -2.002 with a p-value of .048, which leads to the rejection of the null hypothesis of equal means. The mean for the educators was 3, while the mean for the HoDs/deputy principals was 3.87. The confidence interval error bars are shown in Figure 5.7.

Figure 5.7: Confidence interval error bar to determine difference on level of participation in state-sponsored leadership by teaching rank

As depicted in Figure 5.7, the HoD had an average close to 4, indicating that they participated in four out of the eight development programmes. One can make the deduction that the HoDs

or deputy principals tend to participate more in the professional development activities than the educators.

5.7.4   Independent t-test to determine difference by teaching experience

The teaching experience was divided into two groups, which are 6-15 years and above 15 years. There was no difference in means in all dimensions by teaching experience, since all the p-values were greater than .05. That being the case, there was homogeneity with respect tolevel of participation in state-sponsored leadership development programmes, level of impact of programmes on development as principal, professional development needs, challenges faced, and department role in developing principals with respect to teaching experience.

5.7.5   Independent t-test to determine difference by enrolment

The enrolment was divided into 500-999 learners and 1000 learners and more. There was no difference in views between the two groups, since all p-values were greater than .05. Thus, learners' enrolment did not impact on the ratings with respect tolevel of participation in state-sponsored leadership development programmes, level of impact of programmes on development as principal, professional development needs, challenges faced, and department role in developing principals.

5.8   ANOVA TESTS TO DETERMINE DIFFERENCE IN MEANS OF VARIABLES WITH MORE THAN TWO CATEGORIES

The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine whether differences exist between biographic variables with more than two groups. The one-way ANOVA is a hypothesis-testing technique that is used to compare the means of three or more populations (Larson and Farber, 2013:574). The ANOVA has three assumptions: each sample must be randomly selected from a normal or approximately normal population; the samples must be independent of each other; and each population must have the same variance (homogeneity of variance). The respondents were randomly selected and independent from one another, and the central limit theorem was applied to achieve normality.

Post hoc analysis was used to determine where differences lie when the test was significant. The test to be used depended on whether the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met. The Tukey B post hoc analysis was used where homogeneity of variance was met, and

the Games-Howell test was used where it was violated. The Games-Howell test (GH test) is designed for unequal variances and unequal sample sizes (De Muth, 2014). According to De Muth (2014), the Games-Howell test is a pairwise procedure based on the q-distribution and is an extension of the Tukey-Kramer test and is recommended when sample sizes are greater than five.

The ANOVA test was used to determine whether differences existed by highest academic qualification achieved. The ANOVA test was done at the 5% level of significance, and only significant tests will be presented in detail. The null hypothesis to be tested was:

H_o: $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3 = \ldots\ldots = \mu_k$ (All population means are equal)

H_1: At least one mean is different from the others

A p-value of less than .05 would lead to the rejection of the null hypothesis of equal means, and this would indicate that at least one mean is different from the others.

5.8.1 ANOVA test to determine differences in means by highest academic qualification

The highest academic qualification was divided into three categories, which were diploma, bachelor's degree and postgraduate degree. All dimensions had p-values less than .05 except "*challenges faced*" with a p-value of .218. The significant tests are shown in Table 5.19.

Table 5.19: ANOVA test to determine difference between means by highest academic qualification

Dimension	Group	Mean	F-value	p-value	Decision
Level of participation in state-sponsored leadership development programme	Diploma	3.875	3.767*	.026	Reject the null hypothesis
	Bachelor's degree	2.709			
	Postgraduate degree	3.405			
Level of impact of programmes on development as a principal	Diploma	1.804	8.463**	.000	Reject the null hypothesis
	Bachelor's degree	1.354			
	Postgraduate degree	1.413			
Professional development needs	Diploma	2.508	13.927**	.000	Reject the null hypothesis
	Bachelor's degree	2.920			
	Postgraduate degree	2.836			
Department role in developing principals	Diploma	2.933	4.631*	.012	Reject the null hypothesis
	Bachelor's degree	3.268			
	Postgraduate degree	3.077			
* $p<.05$ and ** $p<.01$					

In Table 5.19, in terms of the dimension "*level of participation in state-sponsored leadership development programme*", the F-value was 3.767 with a p-value of .026. Since .026 was less than .05, the null hypothesis of equal means was rejected. The test of homogeneity of variance gave a p-value of .500, indicating that the variances were equal among the groups. The Tukey B test was used as a post hoc analysis to determine where the differences lie. Two homogeneous groups were obtained as shown in Table 5.20.

Table 5.20: Homogeneous groups for level of participation in state-sponsored leadership development programme by highest academic qualification

	Q3. What is your highest academic qualification?	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
			1	2
Tukey B[a,b]	Bachelor's degree	55	2.7091	
	Postgraduate degree	37	3.4054	3.4054
	Diploma	24		3.8750

The lowest mean in Table 5.20 was 2.7091 from those with a bachelor's degree, and the highest mean was 3.8750 from those with diplomas. The diploma holders are the ones who participated in more professional development activities. The confidence interval error bars are shown in Figure 5.8.

Figure 5.8: Confidence interval error bars to determine difference on level of participation in state-sponsored leadership development programme by highest academic qualification
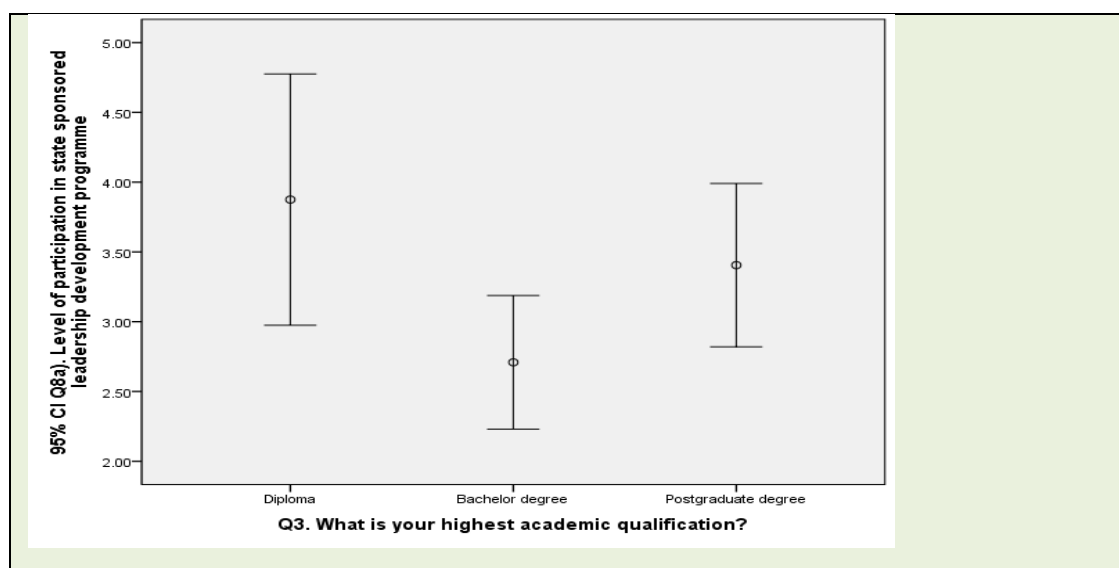
In Figure 5.8, there is a slight overlap between those with a bachelor's degree and those with diplomas. The diploma holders participated in almost half of the professional development activities, while degree holders participated in three of the eight activities.

The dimension "*level of impact of programmes on development as a principal*" had an F-value=8.463 with a p-value = .000, leading to the rejection of the null hypothesis of equal means. It was highly significant, since it is less than .01. The test of homogeneity of variance

was violated as evidenced by a p-value of .001. Since the variance of the groups was not equal, the Games-Howellpost hoc analysis test was used, and it showed that the major difference was between diploma and bachelor's degree (p=value = .01) and diploma and postgraduate degree (p-value = .033). Thus, diploma holders were significantly different from degree holders, resulting in two homogeneous groups as shown in Table 5.21.

Table 5.21: Homogeneous groups for level of impact of programmes on development as a principal by highest academic qualification

	Q3. What is your highest academic qualification?	N	Subset for alpha =.05	
			1	2
Games-Howell test	Bachelor's degree	50	1.3540	
	Postgraduate degree	34	1.4131	
	Diploma	23		1.8039

The lowest mean in Table 5.21 was of those with a bachelor's degree, with a mean of 1.35, while the highest mean was 1.8039 from those with diplomas. Thus, those with diplomas indicated that the impact had a small effect, whereas those with degrees tend to feel that it had no impact. The confidence interval error bars are shown in Figure 5.9.

Figure 5.9: Confidence interval error bars to determine difference on level of impact of programmes on development as a principal by highest academic qualification
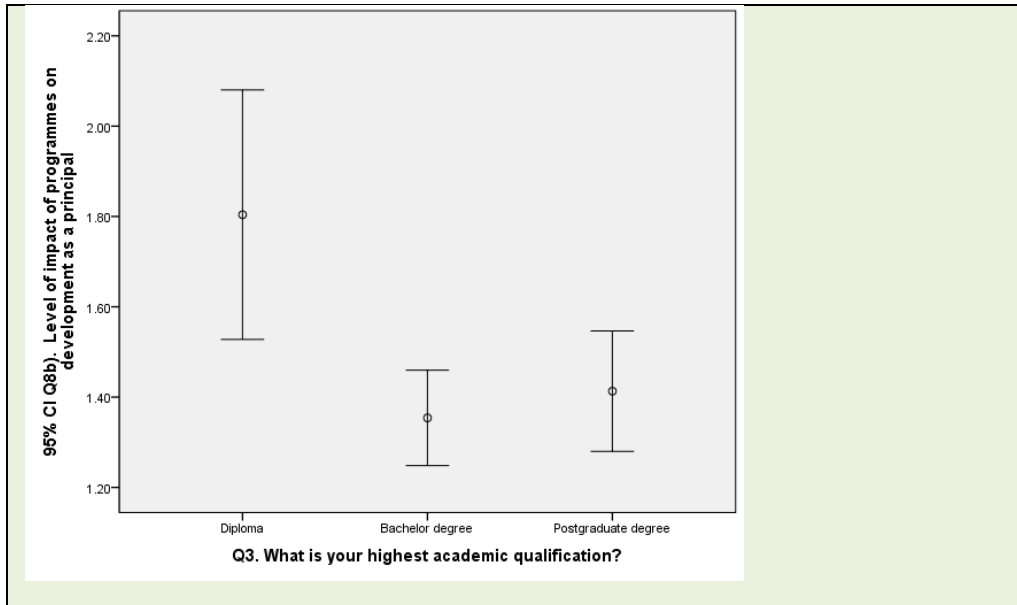
Looking at Figure 5.9, there is no overlap between those with diplomas and other groups. Therefore, those with degrees felt that the professional development activities did not have an impact as evidenced by a mean close to 1 (no impact). However, in conclusion, it can be noted that the professional development activities are not having an effect.

An F-value of 13.927 with a p-value of .000 was obtained on the dimension "*professional development needs*". Since it was highly significant, that is, less than .01, the null hypothesis of equal means was rejected. The assumption of homogeneity of variance was violated as evidenced by a p-value of .000. Thus, the Games-Howell post hoc analysis was used to determine where the differences lie. The test showed that there was a difference between a diploma and bachelor's degree (p=value = .009) and a diploma and postgraduate degree (p-value = .046). Thus, diploma holders were significantly different from degree holders. Hence, two homogeneous groups were derived as shown in Table 5.22.

Table 5.22: Homogeneous groups for professional development needs by highest academic qualification

	Q3. What is your highest academic qualification?	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
			1	2
Games-Howell test	Diploma	24	2.5076	
	Postgraduate degree	38		2.8360
	Bachelor's degree	55		2.9196

The diploma holders in Table 5.22 had the lowest mean of 2.51, while the bachelor's degree holders had the highest mean of 2.92. There was no overlap of error bars between the diploma holders and those with degrees as shown in Figure 5.11.

Figure 5.10: Confidence interval error bars to determine difference on professional development needs by highest academic qualification
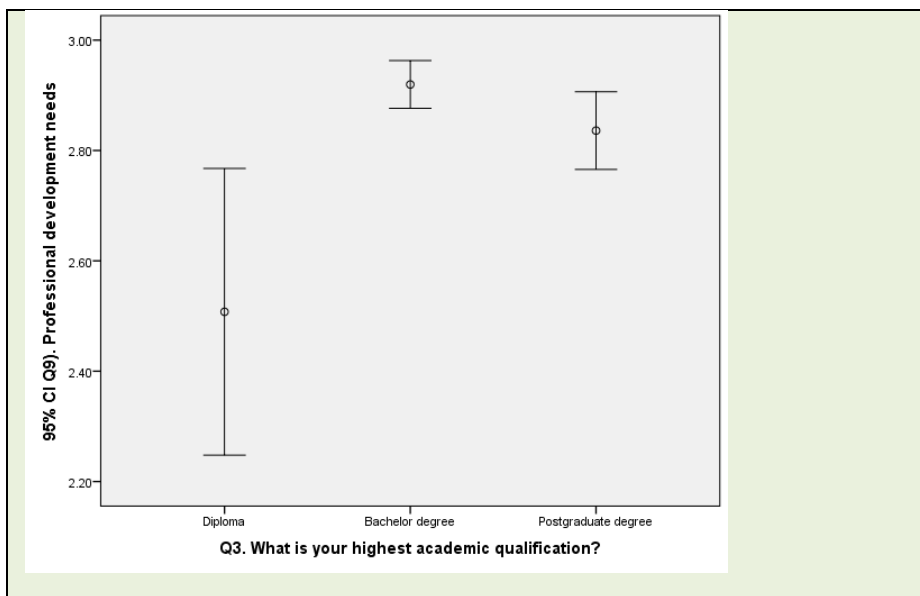
Looking at the error bars in Figure 5.10, there is large variability between diploma holders as evidenced by the longer length of the bar. All means were close to three, indicating that the respondents found the development areas as areas of high level of need. However, the degree holders'level of need was more than that of diploma holders.

The dimension "*department role in developing principals*" gave a p-value of .012 with an F-value = 4.631. The null hypothesis of equal means was rejected. The test of homogeneity gave a p-value of .001 and thus the variances were not equal. The major difference was

between those with diplomas and those with a bachelor's degree. Those with postgraduate degrees belonged to both groups. Therefore, Games-Howell post hoc analysis test resulted in two groups as shown in Table 5.23.

Table 5.23: Homogeneous groups for department role in developing principals by highest academic qualification

	Q3. What is your highest academic qualification?	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
			1	2
Games-Howell test	Diploma	24	2.9333	
	Postgraduate degree	37	3.0770	3.0770
	Bachelor's degree	53		3.2679

As indicated in Table 5.23, the lowest mean was 2.39 for diploma holders, and the highest mean was 3.27 for bachelor's degree holders.The confidence interval error bars are shown in Figure 5.11.

Figure 5.11: Confidence interval error bars to determine difference on department role in developing principals by highest academic qualification
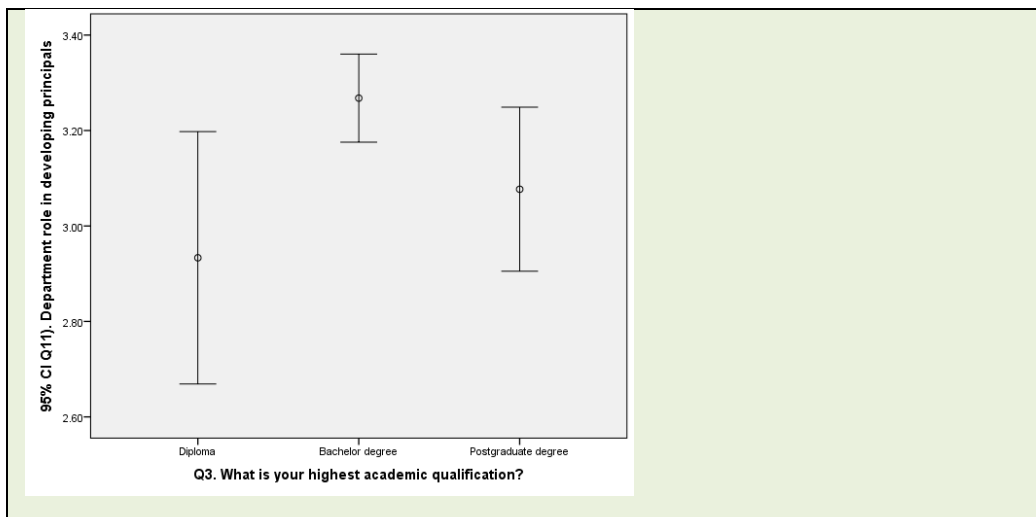
Figure 5.11 illustrates that the degree holders tend to disagree more that the Department is playing a role in developing principals. Thus, the respondents tend to agree that the Department is not playinga role in developing principals, with the level of agreement more enhanced by those with degrees.

5.9 DETERMINING THE STRENGTH OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DIMENSIONS

The last part of the analysis was to determine how the composite variables were related. According to Larson and Farber (2012), the correlation coefficient is a measure of the strength of the direction of the linear relationship between two variables and is denoted by *r*. The Pearson correlation coefficient was used to determine the extent of the relationship between the variables. According to Hair *et al*., (2014), a correlation coefficient indicates the strength of the association between two metric variables where a + or – indicates the direction of the relationship. The value ranges from -1 to 1.

The guidelines provided by Cohen (1988) were used to determine the magnitude of the correlation. The rule of thumb provided was that $r = .10 - .29$ has a low effect (low correlation); $r = .30 - .49$ has a medium effect (moderate correlation); and $r = .50 - .29$ has a large effect (strong correlation). The 5% level of significance was used. The hypothesis to be tested is shown in Table 5.24.

Table 5.24: Hypothesis testing correlation between dimensions

Table 5.24: Hypothesis testing correlation between dimensions	
H0:	There is no statistically significant correlation between *"level of participation in state-sponsored leadership development programme"*, *"level of impact of programmes on development as a principal"*, *"professional development needs"*, *"score for usage of tools"*, *"challenges faced"* and *"department's role in developing principals"*.
H1:	There is a statistically significant correlation between *"level of participation in state-sponsored leadership development programme"*, *"level of impact of programmes on development as a principal"*, *"professional development needs"*, *"score for usage of tools"*, *"challenges faced"* and *"department's role in developing principals"*.

Taking Table 5.24 into account, a *p-value* of less than .05 lead to the rejection of the null hypothesis and to conclude that there is a significant relationship. A *p-value* of less than 0.01 would signify a highly significant relationship. The results of the correlations are shown in Table 5.25.

Table 5.25: Correlation coefficients of the dimensions using Pearson correlation coefficient

Item	1	2	3	4	5
1. Level of participation in state-sponsored leadership development programme	-				
2. Level of impact of programmes on development as a principal	.334**	-			
3. Professional development needs	-.332**	-.520**	-		
4. Challenges faced	.127	.187	-.303**	-	
5. Department role in developing principals	-.349**	-.306**	.332**	-.303**	-

In view of Table 5.25, the dimension level of participation in state-sponsored leadership development programme had a moderate positive significant relationship with a level of impact of programmes on development $(r = .334; p < .001)$, a moderate negative

significant relationship with professional development needs ($r = -.332$; $p < .001$) and a moderate negative significant relationship with department role in developing principals ($r = -.349$; $p < .001$). Therefore, those who participated in development activities tend to indicate high levels of impact and are in agreement that they need the professional development activities and also tend to agree that the Department is not playing a role in developing principals.

Level of impact of programmes on development as a principal had a strong negative significant relationship with professional development needs ($r = -.520$; $p < .001$)and a moderate statistically significant negative relationship with department role in developing principals ($r = -.306$; $p = .002$). Thus, those who indicated high levels of impact were in agreement that they need the professional development activities and also tend to agree that the Department is not playing a role in developing principals.

Professional development activities had a moderate negative significant relationship with challenges faced ($r = -.303$; $p = .001$) and a moderate positive significant relationship with department role in developing principals ($r = .332$; $p < .001$). Those who are in need of professional development tend to concur that challenges are being faced by newly appointed principals and that the Department is not playing a role in developing principals.

Challenges faced had a moderate negative significant relationship with department role in developing principals ($r = -.303$; $p = .001$). Those who tend to agree that the challenges are being faced by newly appointed principals also concur that the Department is not playing a role in developing principals.

5.10   DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

- **State-funded leadership development programmes**

Over the years, heads of secondary schools in Soshanguve have been accused of various lapses and offences. They were said to be inefficient and accused of failing to provide direction and adequate leadership for their schools. All these lapses and ineptitude on the part of secondary school principals in Soshanguve are often attributed to their lack of professional training, as they do not possess the necessary managerial qualifications and skills to administer their schools.

The above situation about Soshanguve was further confirmed by the majority of the respondents (99.7%) who indicated that during the last 18 months, their principals did not participate in (1) network clusters for professional development, (2) mentoring workshops, (3) peer observation organised by the district, and (4) collaborative research on community of practice for principals. However, survey results show that principals had only participated in workshop-based training and seminars in the last 18 months. Of those who participated in those activities, the study found that their participation did not have a positive impact on their development as principals.

The conclusion one can make from these findings is that professional training of secondary school principals in Soshanguve is unsystematic and inadequate, and principals are not appropriately been prepared to meet the demands posed by the changing nature of their duties. Unlike in most developed countries such as America, England, Sweden and Australia, preparation and development of principals is formally institutionalised with colleges offering training for principals before and after appointment to school headship. Preparation and development of principals in these contexts is mandatory and is a requirement for anybody wishing to be a principal. The NCSL in England is an example of such an institution where aspiring principals are prepared through the NPQH programme (Fink, 2005) and are inducted through an EHP on ascension to principalship, and those in service are continuously developed through an HftF programme (Brundrett and De Cuevas, 2007).

- **Professional development needs of school principals**

Leadership today requires the ability to mobilise constituents to do important but difficult work under conditions of constant change, overload and fragmentation. This requires ongoing professional development opportunities to help principals to update their leadership knowledge and skills on a continuing basis. From the research findings on the professional development needs of school principals in the Soshanguve region, it is evident that the professional development needs of school principals were rated as most important in all areas of leadership development. As Table 5.5 shows, these needs were considered to be especially important training needs by most respondents. Allen (2003) discovered that all principals, regardless of their length of service (novice/experienced) or school context (urban/non-urban), had significant professional development needs related to educational leadership in all areas.

- **Challenges facing newly appointed principals**

Literature study has revealed that new principals experience a great amount of frustration, stress and confusion which result in most of them adopting a "trial-and-error" introductory approach (Elsberry and Bishop, 1996). Sadly, this often leads to increased anxiety in respect of fulfilment of their obligation. Waldron (2002) goes a step further to add that the sources of stress for these new principals also include the role demands, administrative overload, communicating negative performance evaluation, external community and inadequate departmental support, and guidance and parental behaviour.

However, the research findings indicate that the majority of the respondents sampled for this study agreed that newly appointed Soshanguve secondary school principals are indeed confronted by insurmountable challenges ranging from lack of departmental support and guidance (86.4%), lack of physical resources (75.4%), ongoing violent behaviour incidences (92.9%), lack of formal leadership training for new principals (92.9%), poor morale amongst teachers (84.7%), lack of parental involvement and support (75.4%) to limited funding for school improvement (69.5%).

A study conducted in sub-Saharan African countries, namely, Ghana, Guinea, Ethiopia, Uganda and Madagascar indicate that new principals face serious problems with students who cannot pay fees, as parents are reluctant to do so; teacher shortage; and inadequate teaching and learning resources (Leu and Bryen, 2005). This finding was further corroborated by Hale and Hunter (2003) who found that new principals experience job-specific problems related to instructional programmes, students, personnel, financial resources and community relations.

- **Department of Education's role in developing principals**

In 2003, the National Department of Basic Education released a draft policy framework proposing the professionalisation of education managers and leaders by introducing a national principalship qualification for aspiring principals (DoE, 2003). In addition, the National Department of Education in collaboration with 14 universities, unions and the Professional Association of Principals developed an Advanced Certificate in Education with the aim of creating a pool of trained school managers.

However, the results of this study showed that the majority of the respondents maintain that despite calls by various bodies and scholars for professional training of school principals

(Arikewuyo, 1997) and new professional development initiatives for principals and aspiring principals now in the Policy Framework for Leadership Education and Management Development (PFLMD) in South Africa, the Department of Basic Education has failed to provide necessary support and opportunities for school principals to enhance their leadership skills before appointment. The frequency analysis also showed that the DoBE's initiatives to improve principals' ability to perform their primary duties as instructional leaders for continuous school improvement have yielded poor results.

5.11   CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has presented the analysis and interpretation of the data. The respondents' responses were very significant. Although the responses ranged from agreements to disagreements, such responses greatly confirmed that the training of school principals on leadership and management has not effectively impacted on their leadership and management of schools.

Apart from being faced with various challenges and being promoted to principalship without the necessary leadership experience, principals are left on their own to leadand manage their schools. Principals have to rely on trial-and-error experienceand common sense in leading and managing their schools. Given the leadership challenges and demands of the day, however, leadership and management cannot be left to trial-and-error experience and common sense alone. School principals need to be prepared before appointment and then developed continuously to enhance their performance of duties as school leaders after appointment.

Guided by the research questions and the literature reviewed, the results of the study show that the Department of Basic Education does not seem to make pre-appointment leadership training of principals a priority. According to the results, no efforts were being made to ensure that principals are professionally developed. The study further discovered that the majority of school principals in Soshanguve have a high level of need of being professionally developed in some specific areas. It goes without saying, however, that there is a need to develop programmes for pre-appointment leadership training and development so as to lead to the improvement of effective leadership.

To explain all elements that are essential in the development of principals, descriptive statistical analysis was done by computing means scores, standard deviations, correlations, t-

test, frequency tables and histograms for data presentation and analysis. Percentages were also used to present quantitative descriptions in a manageable form, such as describing single variables and describing associations that connect one variable with another.

The next chapter will present a discussion on the summary, conclusions, guidelines and recommendations of this study.

CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1   INTRODUCTION

The penultimate chapter presented an analysis and interpretation of the data in this study. This chapter deals with the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study. The general objective of the study was to investigate the nature of state-funded principal development programmes, with specific reference to 10 secondary schools in Soshanguve. This was done concerning the aims and objectives of the study outlined in Section 1.5.

6.2   SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to examine state-funded principal development programmes on public secondary school principals. Four research objectives were developed from which research questions were drawn to be answered by the study. Related literature to principals' professional development within secondary schools was reviewed. A theoretical framework was provided. The study targeted 10 public secondary schools in the Sohanguve area. The study employed simple random sampling method to get 100 teachers and 20 HoDs as respondents. One questionnaire set was used to collect the required information. The return rate was 99% for teachers and 58% for HoDs, which was found to be adequate. Data was analysed using SPSS to process the frequencies, percentages and descriptive statistics which were used to discuss the findings. Pearson's correlation coefficients, chi-square, and ANOVA statistical procedures were used to ascertain the significance of the findings. The section that follows presents the summary of findings drawn from the empirical study.

6.3   SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

In exploring the problem being investigated, it was established that principals in Soshanguve secondary schools did not participate satisfactorily in state-funded development programmes. On the other hand, the study found that attending workshop-based training and seminars seemed to be the most preferred development programme by the majority of principals. Nonetheless, according to the results, these activities seem not to be having a large impact on the principals. Regarding the professional development needs of school principals, it was established that Soshanguve secondary school principals had a high level of needs in all areas of leadership development, which implies that continuous intervention strategies need to be

put in place to improve their knowledge and skills in order to meet the challenges of increased public demands. From the analysis pertaining to the challenges facing newly appointed principals, the study found that the majority of newly appointed school principals in the Soshanguve region were still confronted by insurmountable challenges. Some of these challenges have a negative impact on them, as they fail to bring order and stability in their respective schools. The frequency analysis on the question of the role the Department of Basic Education plays in developing principals indicates that principals are not adequately provided with opportunities and support to actively participate in professional development activities.

6.4   CONCLUSION

The appointment of principals with poor leadership and management skills has created an array of problem issues, criticisms, and expectations, thus making schools more difficult to lead. Introducing the national ACE programme was a bold and imaginative decision, recognising the pivotal role of principals in leading and managing schools. This is part of an international trend to provide specific leadership preparation for current and aspiring principals (Lumby *et al*., 2008; Van der Westhuizen and Van Vuuren, 2007). International research shows that new principals experience great difficulty in adapting to the demands of the role. The process of professional and organisational socialisation is often uncomfortable as leaders adapt to the requirements of their new post. Developing the knowledge, attributes and skills required to lead effectively requires systematic preparation. There is a growing body of evidence that effective preparation makes a difference to the quality of leadership and to school and pupil outcomes (Bush, 2008; Lumby *et al*., 2008).

While the need for effective leadership preparation is widely accepted, the extent and nature of such provision vary substantially across continents. The flexibility and initiative required to lead and manage schools in periods of rapid change suggests that preparation should go beyond training principals to implement the requirements of the hierarchy to developing rounded and confident leaders who can engage all school stakeholders in the process of school improvement for the benefit of learners and their communities. As Brundrett, Fitzgerald and Sommfeldt (2006:101) argue, "educational programmes are required that develop the kind of reflective knowing and higher order cognitive abilities that will undoubtedly be required by leaders in the increasingly complex world of educational leadership in the 21st century".

In light of the preceding discussion, it is imperative to enquire continuously about the professional development needs of principals in order to determine the form and content for leadership development.

6.5   RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of the study, the recommendations that follow are made.

6.5.1   For secondary school principals

Principals should know that self-development is a more effective professional development method. A continuous quest for learning should motivate such development. Learning is never final.

Secondary school principals should plan for their professional development. Their school plans, goals and mission statements should reflect their professional development. Their professional development should not be left to chance, but it should be made a priority. Effective principalship is the key. Even hard-to-resolve challenges can be addressed easily when principals have improved their performance.

Secondary school principals should engage in independent reading. In addition to government policy documents, principals should read books and journals to increase and update their knowledge. They should not only read about those ideas that they believe in, but they should also acquire information on ideas that challenge their beliefs. Many principals take reading for granted. Reading is an art. It requires certain skills. Some of the reading skills are as follows:

- Readers should make meanings of what they read. They should be able to use personal and background knowledge to make connections, make inferences and ask questions; they should decide how to use the text and the meanings they gain from the text; and they should analyse the text to identify the author's purpose and point of view and decide whether to accept or resist the author's implied message.

- Secondary school principals should, individually and in groups, make time to reflect on what they do and how they can improve on what they do. A learning team should challenge each team member's thinking in the spirit of teamwork and collegiality.

- Secondary school principals should establish learning organisations in their respective schools where principals should learn from stakeholders and vice versa. Principals should not only be headmasters and headmistresses, but they must, above all, be head learners. If the main aim of principal professional development is to improve learning and teaching and if one of the best educational leadership strategies is role modelling, then instructional leaders should not only show the way, but they should also go the way, meaning they should model learn.

6.5.2 For developers or facilitators

The main role of developers should be to facilitate learning. They should not be players but coaches of players in the learning process. They should not act as "sages on the stage" but "guides on the side". The following should be some of their critical roles:

- Developers should involve principals more in the planning, implementation and evaluation of their professional development. They should build development exercises around the principals' world of work.

- More and varied resource people and developers should be involved in the professional development of secondary school principals. However, their contributions should be coordinated.

- Professional development of principals should focus more on the core function of principals, namely, instructional leadership rather than administrative work.

- University-based developers need to conduct rigorous, comprehensive research studies in the area of professional development of secondary school principals. Research reports are useful in two ways – to inform future professional development exercises and to serve as reading material for principals. Moreover, research evidence helps university developers to review their curricula and development strategies.

- All three areas of development should be developed. Modification of attitudes and bridging the gap between theory and practice are more difficult than developing knowledge and skills. Modifying an attitude and improving practice require empathic, constant and close support, counselling and coaching. To ensure stable conception, new ideas should not substitute old ideas such as local knowledge and cultural values but should be integrated into old ideas. However, developers of principals should help

principals modify obsolete cultural values, local knowledge and old ideas that impede the conception of needed new ideas and information.

- Professional development of principals should focus more on actions and behaviours, that is, principals should learn more about how to put into action the learned knowledge. University-based developers and developers in the field (such as inspectors of education and consultants) should collaborate in bridging the gap between theory and practice.

- For them to be able to swim and not sink, newly appointed school principals should be given intensive induction. Newly appointed principals are faced with overwhelming challenges as experienced principals. Challenges do not discriminate. Therefore, newly appointed principals should be given more support in the process of learning how to cope in their new positions and their new work.

- There should be follow-ups to see whether principals try out the new knowledge they have learned.

- Professional development of secondary school principals should be continuous.

- There should be different types of professional development programmes for various types of principals, for example, experienced principals and inexperienced principals, and secondary and primary school principals.

- Principals should be taught how to learn so that they can take care of their development with minimum or no support from developers.

- Developers should be people who are familiar with and sensitive to the principals' local lore. The implications for this knowledge are twofold. First, knowledge of local lore enables the developers to understand the principals' cognitive dissonance when they acquire new knowledge and do something to modify aspects in local knowledge that impede the compatibility between the local knowledge and the new knowledge or to bring the new knowledge in line with local knowledge. Second, developers can derive apt development approaches and strategies from local knowledge. For example, if the principals are from a community where communalism is the norm, then development strategies that require them to share ideas may be more effective than others. Coincidentally, sharing is a favoured strategy in today's professional

development of principals whereby principals have to learn from one another and even from family and community members.

6.5.3 For policymakers, Department of Basic Education and universities

The main role of policymakers should be to create an enabling learning environment through attending to the following:

- Since most of the professional development takes place at cluster and school levels, secondary school principals should be given enough opportunities for development. For example, funds should be made available to stock cluster centre libraries with the necessary resources such as books and journals on educational management and computers linked to the Internet. There should be interlibrary loans between the cluster centre libraries and the regional teacher resource centre and other libraries in the country. Provisions should be made for secondary school principals to visit one another's schools to learn from one another through coaching, mentoring, observing and feedback. To reduce isolation of principals, opportunities should be created and encouraged for formal and informal professional cooperation among secondary school principals.

- Professional development of secondary school principals provided by governmental and non-governmental organisations should be coordinated.

- In-service professional development of secondary school principals should not only be done on an ad hoc basis but should be planned for. Further, it should be a lifelong process, starting with induction and continuing with continuous in-service professional development. Principals need to learn, on a regular basis, how to handle ever-changing management challenges.

- Secondary school principals should be supported and encouraged to establish regional and national secondary school principals' associations, where principals could learn from one another and request experts of their choice to talk to them.

- Conditions of services for secondary school principals should be improved. These include the provision of resources (adequate physical facilities and teaching and learning materials) to secondary schools. Difficult working conditions such as overloading can frustrate the principals and adversely affect their learning process.

- The work of inspectors of education, which includes advising principals about issues related to school management and leadership, should be clearly defined. A policy on inspectorate should be developed, adopted and implemented. The policy should address issues such as the work of inspectors with regard to the professional development of principals of secondary schools.

- A policy on a school cluster system should be developed, adopted and implemented. The policy should, among other matters, stipulate the work and incentives of cluster centre heads and professional development of secondary school principals.

- Preparation and development of school leaders should be systematic from the heads of departments to deputy principals and eventually to principals. For example, courses for heads of departments should induct them into how to run a department and at the same time be geared towards preparing them for deputy headship, whereas courses for deputy headship should induct them into deputyship while preparing them for headship. Subsequently, principals should be continuously and systematically prepared and developed through induction immediately after appointment and continuously developed afterwards. ACE programmes should be decentralised to district level, and if possible, a mechanism should be put in place to decentralise it further to the school level. Schools can be used as leadership preparation grounds where principals should be able to prepare teachers for school leadership. This will enable training to reach as many potential principals as possible. This is because most of the preparation and development of principals are mainly within their schools as established by this study. ACE programmes should take longer than two weeks rather than the current exhaustive training which is seen as crush programmes by participants. As a result, not much learning and understanding takes place to enable principals to apply lessons learned in their schools because so much is covered within a short space of time. Making ACE Certificate in Educational Management a mandatory requirement for appointment and deployment as a principal (GoK, 1997) is not enough. ACE courses themselves should be made mandatory for principals by the government to enable as many principals as possible to be prepared and developed for school leadership.

- The DoBE needs to look into ways of subsidising the training of school principals. The DoBE should also find ways of formally incorporating more of the private sector

and non-governmental organisations to help in preparation and development of principals for school leadership by allowing them to offer in-service courses for potential principals and serving principals. A link should be established between the ministry of education and other institutions such as public universities which should be encouraged to come up with courses in leadership preparation and development for principals in the country. For example, universities could develop and offer a postgraduate diploma in school leadership to be undertaken during school holidays.

- Principals should be encouraged to take personal responsibility and initiative in preparing and developing themselves for school leadership through self-study, reading literature, attending seminars and workshops out of their own personal volition. Newly appointed principals can be attached to experienced and successful principals in their neighborhood for induction and mentoring. The universities should liaise with the DoBE and make conferences for principals mandatory for principals because they provide a good forum in which principals can be developed for school leadership. Universities should also make their induction programmes for newly appointed principals compulsory and regular. They should also find ways of having sessions for deputy principals in a bid to help prepare them for school leadership.

6.6   SUGGESTING THE MODEL FOR DEVELOPING PRINCIPALS

Reports after reports have come in indicating that secondary school principals are unable to bring about improved learner learning. Workshops and *ad hoc* courses have not been doing them any significant service. Based on the current body of knowledge in the area of professional development of principals discussed in Chapter 2 and the findings presented in Chapter 5, the researcher would like to suggest a model for continuous in-service development of serving secondary school principals. The diagram below illustrates the model of in-service development of serving secondary school principals as suggested by the researcher.

PLANNING STAGE

Assessing Needs:
Identifying, Analyse, Define

Formulate Objectives

IMPLEMENTATION STAGE

| Developing knowledge & skills. | Modifying attitudes & beliefs. | Improving actions & behaviours. |

| Indipendent reading, sharing information & knowledge. | Reflecting reading & sharing infor, eg. challenging each others beliefs & views. | Action research, coaching,mentoring, problem-based learning. |

| Practice, continuous monitoring & feedback. | Practice, continuous monitoring & feedback. | Practice, continuous monitoring & feedback. |

EVALUATION STAGE

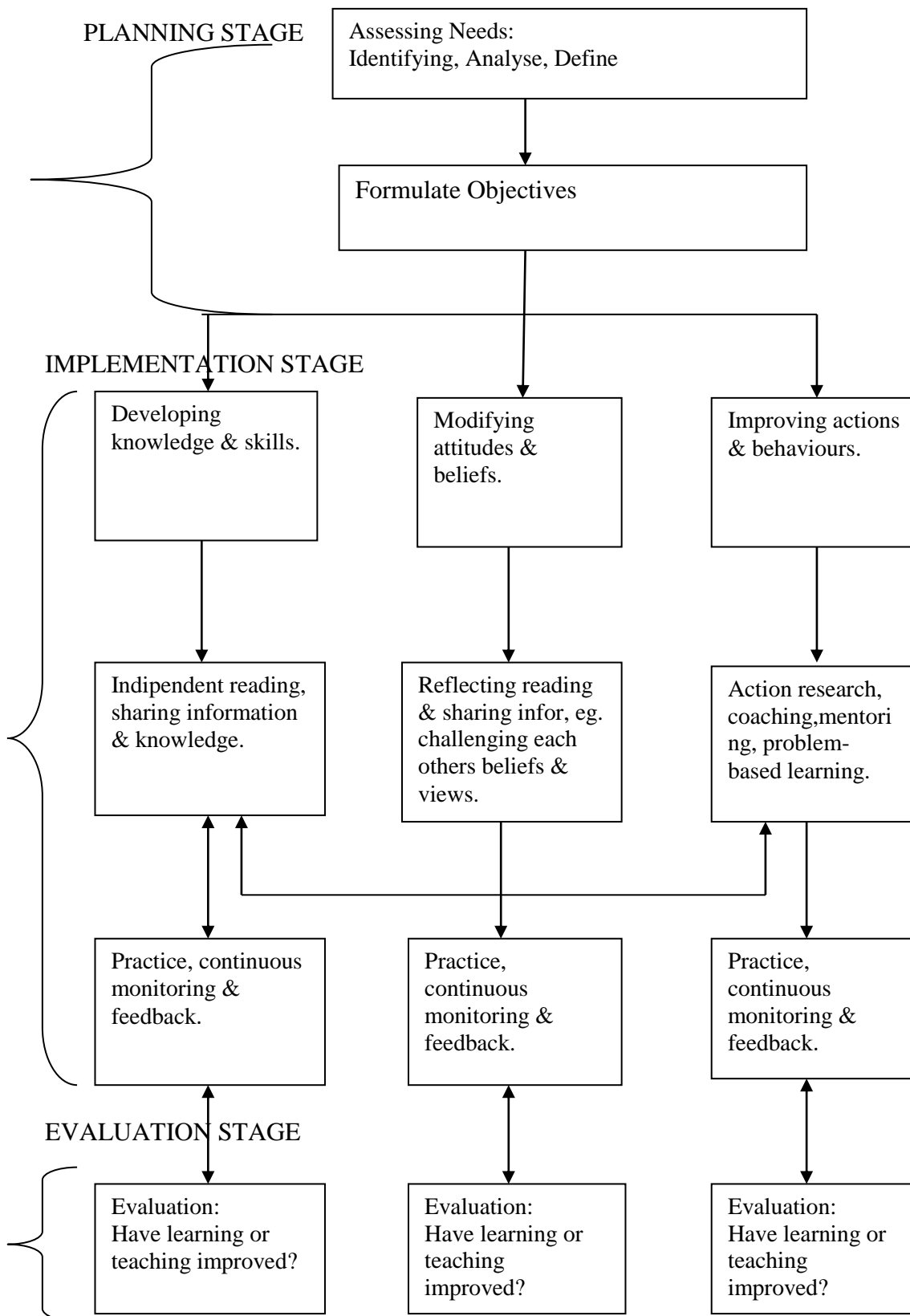| Evaluation: Have learning or teaching improved? | Evaluation: Have learning or teaching improved? | Evaluation: Have learning or teaching improved? |

Figure 6.1 model for developing school principals

229

The model shows, among others, the following features:

• The professional development is ongoing. New challenges crop up continually and old ones ferment constantly. In order for the principals to remain abreast of challenges, they should keep on learning. The reality is that no matter how much they learn, there is always more to learn;

• The model starts with a needs assessment. Any professional development exercise that is not preceded by a needs assessment is akin to a medical doctor prescribing medicine to patients without prior thorough diagnosis of their diseases. Such a professional development exercise is likely not to have any impact;

• The objectives determine what is to be learned and how it should be learned;

• The model uses a variety of professional development approaches and strategies, so that they complement each other and cater for individual principals' preferred learning styles;

• While strategies intended for each area of development are best suited to achieving objectives in that individual area, all strategies can be employed in all areas. In other words, for example, while action research is best suited to help principals to apply knowledge, the same strategy can, to some extent, help principals to modify their beliefs and attitudes or to acquire more knowledge and skills. Increased knowledge and skills and modified beliefs and values have an impact on actions and behaviours and vice versa. Thus, the strategies are interrelated, interdependent and complementary to each other;

• The separation of professional development into three areas does not imply that the areas should be developed separately. The development of principals, using this model, focuses on all areas of development, with special emphasis on the area that needs more development;

• The learned skills and knowledge should be applied in a real working environment and the application should be monitored and evaluated; and

• The model suggests that every professional development exercise should end with an evaluation. Improved learning and teaching are important indicators of effective professional development.

In conclusion, the model is simple, user friendly and cost-effective, so even an individual principal or learning organization can implement it unassisted. The proposed model is a design that can be modified and adjusted to suit any programme of development.

6.7   SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Based on the findings of the study, further research is suggested on the following topics:

- professional development needs of secondary school principals
- evaluation of the content of the current in-service professional development for secondary school principals in South Africa
- evaluation of the effectiveness of the professional development strategies employed currently in the development of secondary school principals
- the training and development of principals to manage schools effectively using a competence approach
- evaluation of development programmes for new principals

6.8   CONCLUDING REMARKS

From all indications in this study, it has been discovered that experience alone cannot provide the necessary yardstick for the appointment of principals. The popular belief in many African countries is that an "experienced" teacher who has been teaching in the school for about 10 years or more is competent to administer the school. This argument is no longer tenable. Mathibe (2005) notes that in South Africa, unlike in the United Kingdom and the United States of America, any educator can be appointed to the office of principalship irrespective of the fact that he or she had a school management/leadership qualification. Bush and Oduro (2006:362) reached the same conclusion that 'throughout Africa, there is no formal requirement for principals to be trained as school managers. They are often appointed on the basis of a successful record as teachers with the implicit assumption that this provides a sufficient starting point for school leadership.

Various countries have been making efforts at giving professional training to teachers who wish to make a career in school headship. Outcomes from the reviewed countries indicate that years of experience and seniority no longer account for all that is needed to appoint people into administrative responsibilities. In the United Kingdom, the New Version

programme was developed to meet leadership development needs of principals in the first three years of school principalship (Bush, 2003).

It is clear from the background of the preceding discussion that there is a need for school principals to be appropriately skilled and trained for school management and leadership. Providing principals with the necessary knowledge and skills will undoubtedly enable them to thrive on change so as to lead schools towards their chosen destination.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: LETTER TO GAUTENG DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION TO REQUEST PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH STUDY

<div align="right">

1352 Block K

Soshanguve

0152

2015 January 05

</div>

Office of the Chief Director

Information and Knowledge Management

P.O Box 7710

Johannesburg

2000

Sir/Madam

Request for permission to conduct research study

This letter serves to inform you that I am registered Doctoral student at UNISA and request your permission to conduct a research in the schools under your jurisdiction. The title of my thesis is: The state's capacitation of school principals: A positivist reflection on the effectiveness of development programmes in Soshanguve secondary schools, Gauteng province and the purpose of my study is to explore the effectiveness of development programmes of school principals in Soshanguve secondary schools.

Please be informed that the study involves no invasion of individual rights or privacy, nor will it apply any procedures which may be found ethically objectionable. No personal information regarding those participating in the research will be made known. The researcher undertakes to share the outcomes of the study with the Office of the Chief Director.

Attached please find the following for your perusal:

- A copy of research proposal
- Acopy of the questionnaire for HoDs and teachers

Your anticipated positive response in this regard is highly appreciated.

Any question about this request, please feel free to contact me at 0823980411.

Yours faithfully

M.H. Maphoto (Researcher)

APPENDIX B: STRUCTURED QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HODS AND EDUCATORS

THE STATE'S CAPACITATION OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS: A POSITIVIST REFLECTION ON THE EFFECTIVENESS OF DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES IN SOSHANGUVE SECONDARY SCHOOLS, GAUTENG PROVINCE

A: INTRODUCTION

A review of South African literature reveals that a focus on the professional development of educational leaders and managers have been slow to emerge in South Africa compared to developed countries across the world. It was only in 2003, that the National Development of Education released a draft policy framework, proposing the professionalisation of education mangers and leaders by introducing a national principalship qualification for aspiring principals (DOE, 2004:3).

The purpose of this study is to explore the nature of principal development programmes in South African context in order to assess whether they are contributing to the formation of leaders who can transform school and improve teaching and learning for all learners. By completing this questionnaire, you will be contributing to the body of knowledge available to the recognition of the need for specific preparation for aspiring and practising school leaders, in order to improve school effectiveness.

B: SPECIAL INSTRUCTIONS

This questionnaire consists of *FIVE* sections, and each section has a number of questions with multiple choice answers. For each question that has a column for the response, please mark with an "X" inside the column that corresponds to the answer of your own choice. Please ensure that the mark stays within the boundaries of the column. To avoid any misunderstanding, it could be helpful if you read this questionnaire through before you completing it. Guidelines for answering the questions are typed in italics. If you are in doubt about any aspect of the questionnaire, you can reach the researcher by phone at the following numbers: 0823980411

Be assured that any information obtained from you in connection with this study will be strictly confidential. Your responses to this questionnaire will remain anonymous. Following the completion of this survey and the statistical analysis of the data, I undertake to share the

outcomes of the study with you. This will be made available to you during the process of piloting findings.

Your cooperation in the completion and early return of this questionnaire will be very much appreciated. Thank you for your time and participation.

M.H MAPHOTO (Researcher)   **Prof J. Nyoni (Promoter)**

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION OF RESPONDENTS

1. What is your gender?

Male	
Female	

2. What is your age in years?

20yrs-30yrs	
31yrs-40yrs	
41yrs-50yrs	
51yrs and above	

3. What is your highest academic qualification?

Diploma	
Bachelor's degree	
Honors Degree	
Master's degree	

4. What is your teaching Rank?

Educator	
HoD	
Deputy Principal	
Principal	

5. How many years of teaching experience do you have? ☐

6. What is the current school enrolment where you teach?

500-999	
1 000-1 900	
2 000-2 900	

7. Which best describe the community in which your school is located?

Township	
City	
Suburb	

SECTION B: PARTICIPATION OF PRINCIPALS IN STATE SPONSERED LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES

1. *During the last 18 months, did yourprincipal participate in any of the following kinds of professional development activities, and what was the impact of these activities on his or her development as a principal?For each question below, please mark one choice in Part A.If your answer is "YES" in part "A", then please mark one choice in Part "B" to indicate how much impact it had upon his or her development.*

2.

	'A' Participation		'B' Impact		
	Yes	No	Noimpact	Small impact	Large impact
a. University courses(s) related to your role as a principal					
b. Visits to other schools designed to improve yourown work as a principal					
c. Mentoring/coaching by an experienced principal, as part of a formal arrangement that is supported by your district					
d. Peer observation organised by district in which you have an opportunity to visit other principal(s) for sharing practice					
e. Participating in a principal networking organised by your district specifically for professional development					
f. Engaging in workshop – based training with other principals in which issues related to professional development are discussed					
g. Engaging in collaborative research on a topic of interest to you professionally					
h. Participate in professional development with teacher from your school					

SECTION C: PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT NEEDS OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

1. *Thinking of your principals' professional development needs, please indicate the extent to which he or she has such needs in each of the areas listed below.Please mark one choice each*row.

	High level of need	Low level of need	No need at all
a. Solving problems and making decisions			
b. Facilitating professional development/development of others			
c. Developing the vision and mission			
d. Building community involvement			
e. Developing the school organisation using systems thinking			
f. Developing and implementing strategic actions plans			
g. Understanding student development and learning			
h. Facilitating the change process			
i. Sustaining and motivating for continuous improvement			
j. Defining the core values and beliefs of education			
k. Building team commitment			
l. Setting goals and determining outcomes			
m. Skills and knowledge in financial management			

SECTION D:CHALLENGES FACED BY NEWLY APPOINTED PRINCIPALS IN THE 21st CENTURY

1. How strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements about the challenges faced by newly appointedprincipals?Please indicate your choice by making use of the following scale:

1	Strongly agree
2	Agree
3	Disagree
4	Strongly disagree

1.1 Inadequate departmental support and guidance

1	2	3	4

1.2　Lack of physical resources, teaching and learning support materials

1	2	3	4

1.3 Ongoing violent behaviour incidences in schools

1	2	3	4

1.4Lack of formal leadership training for new principals

1	2	3	4

1.5Limited funding for school improvement

1	2	3	4

1.6Lack of parent involvement and support

1	2	3	4

1.7Poor morale among teachers

290

1	2	3	4

SECTION E: DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION'S ROLE IN DEVELOPING PRINCIPALS

How strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements?Please indicate your choice by making use of the following scale:

1	Strongly agree
2	Agree
3	Disagree
4	Strongly disagree

1. Department of Educationplays an increasingly active role in promoting effective educational leadership.

1	2	3	4

2. Department of Education provides principals with opportunities and support to actively participate in professional development activities.

1	2	3	4

3. Continuous principals' development provided by the Department equips school principals to deal with challenges of school-based management.

1	2	3	4

4. The in-service training programmes offered by the Department of Education benefits teachers and auxiliary staff members through continuous principals' development.

1	2	3	4

5. Education department has drafted the National Development Plan to monitor the implementation professional development of principals.

1	2	3	4

APPENDIX C: LETTER TO PRINCIALS TO REQUEST PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

<div align="center">

1352 Block K

SOSHANGUVE

0152

2015 January 20

</div>

The Principal

.... Secondary school

Dear Sir/Madam

REQUEST FOR YOUR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH PROJECT

I am a registered Doctoral student at the University of South Africa. Iam currently engaged in a research project aimed at exploring the effectiveness of development programmes of school principals and also to ascertain the extent to which principals training meets the schools' and principals'needs given the changed conditions that exist in the country. The title of my thesis is: **The state's capacitation of school principals: a positivist reflection on the effectiveness of development programmes in Soshanguve secondary schools, Gauteng.**

This research is partial fulfilment of DEd (Education Management) carried out at the University of South Africa under the supervision of Prof J. Nyoni. To satisfy the requirements of the degree, I kindly request permission to conduct research at your school. Permission to conduct this study at your institution was granted by Gauteng Department of Education (GDE).

All information that is collected in this study will be treated confidentially. Youare also guaranteed that neither you or your institution nor its personnel will be identified in any report of the results of this study. Participation in this study is voluntary, and any individual may withdraw at any time. Please take note that there will be no financial benefits that your institution may accrue as a result of its participation in this research project.

For further information on this research, please feel free to contact me using the following details: Cell 082 3980 411, e-mail: maphotoh@gmail.com./harold.m@webmail.co.za

Your anticipated positive response in this regard is highly appreciated.

Yours faithfully

M.H Maphoto (Researcher)

APPENDIX D: CONSENT OF LETTER TO PARTICIPANTS

<div align="right">

1352 Block K

Soshanguve

0152

2015 January 20

</div>

Dear Participant

Re: REQUEST FOR YOUR CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE RESEARCH STUDY

Iam registered Doctoral student at the University of South Africa and currently engaged in a research project exploring the effectiveness of development programmes of school principals. The title of my thesis is: **The state's capacitation of school principals: a positivist reflection on the effectiveness of development programmes in Soshanguve secondary schools, Gauteng province**. I therefore request your voluntary participation in this study. Your role as participant in this study will be to complete the questionnaire as objectively as possible. Permission to conduct this study was granted by the Gauteng Department of Education.

Any information that you disclose will be strictly confidential and will be used purely for research purposes. Confidentiality will be assured through the use of fictitious names. All data obtained will be destroyed after completion of the research. You have the right to withdraw at any time without incurring any negative or undesirable consequences on your part. There are no foreseeable risks in participating in this study. You will not receive any type of payment for participating in this study.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may reject to participate in this study or withdraw from participating at anytime. Withdrawal or refusal to participate will not affect in any way. Similarly,you can agree to participate now and change your mind later without penalty.

If you have any questions about the study, please feel free to contact me or my supervisor (Doctor J.Nyoni) using the contact details provided below. To give consent for participation in this study, your are kindly requested to sign this letter to indicate that you have read the

information provided above. My contact details are: <mark>cell:08239 80411</mark>, e-mail maphotoh@gmail.com/harold.m@webmail.co.zaMy supervisor's contact details are 012-4294474.

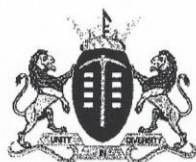Your positive response in this regard will always be appreciated.

Participant'ssignature...................................... Date............................

Researcher'ssignature...................................... Date............................

Yours faithfully

M.H Maphoto (Researcher)

APPENDIX E: APPROVAL LETTER FROM THE GAUTENG DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

GAUTENG PROVINCE
Department: Education
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

For administrative use:
Reference no. D2015 / 376 A

GDE AMENDED RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER

Date:	15 January 2015
Validity of Research Approval:	9 February 2015 to 2 October 2015
Previous GDE Research Approval letter reference number	D2015/227 dated 25 July 2014
Name of Researcher:	Maphoto M.H.
Address of Researcher:	1352 Block 'K'; Soshanguve; 0152
Telephone / Fax Number/s:	012 720 5061; 082 398 0411
Email address:	maphotoh@gmail.com; harold.m@webmail.co.za
Research Topic:	State's capacitation of school Principals: A positivist reflection on the effectiveness of development programmes in Soshanguve Secondary Schools, Gauteng Province
Number and type of schools:	TEN Secondary Schools
District/s/HO	Tshwane North

Re: Approval in Respect of Request to Conduct Research

This letter serves to indicate that approval is hereby granted to the above-mentioned researcher to proceed with research in respect of the study indicated above. The onus rests with the researcher to negotiate appropriate and relevant time schedules with the school/s and/or offices involved. A separate copy of this letter must be presented to the Principal, SGB and the relevant District/Head Office Senior Manager confirming that permission has been granted for the research to be conducted. However participation is VOLUNTARY.

The following conditions apply to GDE research. The researcher has agreed to and may proceed with the above study subject to the conditions listed below being met. Approval may be withdrawn should any of the conditions listed below be flouted:

2015/01/16

CONDITIONS FOR CONDUCTING RESEARCH IN GDE

1

Making education a societal priority

Office of the Director: Knowledge Management and Research
9th Floor, 111 Commissioner Street, Johannesburg, 2001
P.O. Box 7710, Johannesburg, 2000 Tel: (011) 355 0506
Email: David.Makhado@gauteng.gov.za
Website: www.education.gpg.gov.za

APPENDIX F: APPROVAL LETTER FROM THE RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

UNISA | college of education
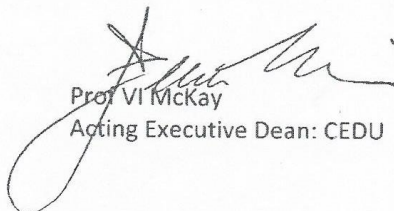
Research Ethics Clearance Certificate

This is to certify that the application for ethical clearance submitted by
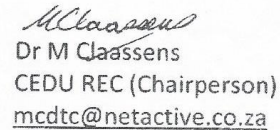
MH Maphoto [30421144]

For a D Ed study entitled

State's capacitation of school principals: A positivist reflection on the effectiveness of development programmes in Soshanguve secondary schools, Gauteng province

has met the ethical requirements as specified by the University of South Africa College of Education Research Ethics Committee. This certificate is valid for two years from the date of issue.

Prof VI McKay
Acting Executive Dean: CEDU

Dr M Claassens
CEDU REC (Chairperson)
mcdtc@netactive.co.za

Reference number: 2015 February /**30421144**/MC   18 February 2015

UNISA
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
2015 -02- 2 4
Office of the Deputy Executive Dean
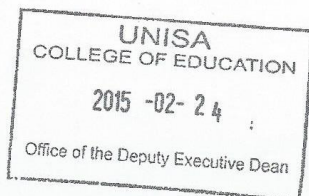
APPENDIX G: EDITOR'S DECLARATION

DECLARATION BY LANGUAGE EDITOR

03 March 2016

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

DECLARATION: LANGUAGE EDITING of DEd Thesis

I hereby declare that I have edited the Doctor of Education (in Education Management) thesis of MOSIBUDI HAROLD MAPHOTO entitled *"STATE'S CAPACITATION OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS: A POSITIVIST REFLECTION ON THE EFFECTIVENESS OF DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES IN SOSHANGUVE SECONDARY SCHOOLS, GAUTENG PROVINCE"* and found the written work to be free of ambiguity and obvious errors. It is the responsibility of the student to address any comments from the editor or supervisor. Additionally, it is the final responsibility of the student to make sure of the correctness of the thesis.

Khomotso Bopape

Full Member of the Professional Editors' Guild

Professional
EDITORS
Guild