

## Chapter 2

### Educational leadership

#### 2.1 Introduction

Few would argue that schools can work well without the presence of competent management, but too often school officials, at both state and local levels, provide little else. Too many schools are over-managed and under-led. This condition leads to an undue emphasis on doing things right, rather than doing the right things. In searching for the proper balance between management and leadership, H. Ross Perot, the founder of Electronic Data Systems Corporation, puts it this way, "Our country needs strong effective leaders willing to sacrifice to make this country strong. We need to stop managing and start leading" (Sergiovanni, 1990:17).

Bolman & Deal (1994:77) said, "Leadership is needed to foster purpose, passion and imagination. Particularly in times of crisis or rapid change, we look to leaders and not to managers for hope, inspiration and a pathway to somewhere more desirable."

Good management is an essential aspect of any education service, but its central goal is the promotion of effective teaching and learning in schools.

#### 2.2 What is effective leadership?

Bolman & Deal (1994:78-79) said that trying to pinpoint the ingredients or characteristics of successful leadership is a slippery, hotly contested enterprise.

Steman & Deal (1984: 80) believe that the education system requires  
 There is consensus around several issues:

- The difference between leadership and management
- The distinction between position and leadership
- The importance of political and symbolic dimensions of leadership
- The deeper human qualities that effective leadership requires

### 2.2.1 Leadership and Management are different

To capture the essence of leadership requires burrowing behind popular misconceptions. One of these is the notion that leaders are god-like heroes. There is a misconception that the leader has all the answers and is going to take us to the Promised Land. A big problem for leadership today is when nobody has an answer, and where the essence of good leadership lies in the ability to be great enough to consult with others.

A second misconception takes us to the other extreme, by equating leadership with management. The two concepts are not mutually exclusive because good leaders can be good managers, or vice versa.

**Can a great manager also become a great leader?** There are managers who don't have the capacity to become great leaders, but there are managers who do have the capacity to become great leaders. And then there are leaders who have no capacity to be managers, but are great leaders.

Effective leadership and effective management can be exercised by the same individual, but with each of them addressing a different set of issues in an organization.

**Management** is basically an authority structure with the function of making the trains run on time and by making sure we are on time and on budget. If it is a good system, managers need to make sure that the system functions well.

Bolman & Deal (1994: 80) believe that the education system requires both management and leadership because both are extremely important, though different. Part of being able to manage and lead in a complex environment, is the requirement that you take advantage of all of the leadership potential of the people around you.

### 2.2.2 Leadership and position are not synonymous

Another misconception is when leadership is equalized to the position in which someone has officially been appointed as a manager. Bolman & Deal (1994: 81) hold the belief that, in order for wisdom to prevail, leaders are “often the individuals who borrow the ideas of others, package them effectively, and then communicate them powerfully. They are not usually the creative genius. In many ways they are almost always the implementor or constructor.”

Even though it is the officially appointed leaders who often receive official credit or blame in an organization, leadership can be exercised anywhere in a less a hierarchical structure.

### 2.2.3 Leadership is inevitably political

Bolman and Deal (1994:82-83) said that the current conception of leadership focusses typically on authority by emphasizing the qualities of decisiveness and command. “Figure out the right thing to do, tell people what it is, and assume it will be done”, is one of the most formidable of all contemporary leadership traps. This misconception assumes that leadership is a rational activity, when in reality it is essentially political.

Leadership is not necessarily confined to authority, position or by obtaining power, but to get things done!

Leadership is strongly linked to conflict, and that’s one of the reasons why people don’t want to be leaders.



To recognize the political dimension of leadership, Bolman & Deal (1994:83) feel the need to review and renew the importance of power, conflict, and building coalitions in the public school sector. They feel the school leader has to be a political coalition builder, a political negotiator and a political architect, dealing with forces and constituencies of much greater power.

#### 2.2.4 Leadership is inherently symbolic

Effective leadership requires a supportive culture, but creating a positive culture requires leadership. Leaders must be able to identify cultural themes, values and dreams that people may have.

Leaders organize and communicate values through vision. If you don't know where you're going, it doesn't matter how you proceed. The clearer your vision of the kind of culture you are trying to create, and the more people that see and become convinced that it is the proper goal, the higher the probability that you as leader can actually succeed.

Bolman & Deal (1994:84) said that whatever the source of a vision may be, one of the most important aspects of leadership is communicating the vision to others. Effective leadership involves an "incredible ability to touch the heart with words that bring out the best values."

#### 2.2.5 Leadership calls primarily on intangible human qualities

Leadership styles, leadership skills and personal characteristics are identified and linked to important and desired outcomes. Bolman & Deal (1994:85) call attention to leadership qualities such as ethical commitment, risk taking, self-knowledge, character, courage and a long-term vision.

- Charismatic leaders are willing to take **personal risks** and to make sacrifices. They are willing to take risks that may harm them personally.
- Leaders' **self-confidence** comes from the fact that they have overcome the egocentric worry of how people perceive them. They are really more concerned to help others and/or to expand knowledge. When they are criticized, they don't worry whether or not they look bad; their only concern is whether others can benefit. Self-confidence is acquired through getting rid of, rather than focussing on the self.
- A leader, in order to be effective, must clearly have **integrity**. It does not matter how well a person communicates, or how inspirational that person is, over a period of time the lack of integrity will ultimately be his/her downfall.
- Leaders have **passion**. They know how to present things in a compelling way, without necessarily rising to something great such as producing a news flash of the greatest and latest theories.
- The opposite of fear is **courage**, by taking heart, and dealing with change.

### **2.3 Managerial roles and leadership roles (Mintzberg)**

The task of management, at all levels in the education system, is ultimately to create and support conditions under which teachers and their students are able to achieve learning.

Mintzberg (1973:56) said that managerial activities could be divided into three groups:

- Those that are primarily concerned with interpersonal relationships
- Those that deal primarily with the transfer of information
- Those that essentially involve decision-making

It is for this reason that the ten roles are divided into three groups: three **interpersonal roles**, three **informational roles** and four **decisional roles**.

- The manager was previously defined as the person that is formally in charge of an organization. From formal authority and status thus come the three **interpersonal roles**. First and most simple is the role of *figurehead*. The manager has the duty of representing his organization in all formal matters. The educational leader is the ceremonial head of the school. Status also enables the manager to play the *liaison* role in which he interacts with his peers and other people outside his organization to gain favours and information. This role links the school to its environment. The third interpersonal role of *leader* defines the manager's relationships with his subordinates, like motivation and all other issues related to the staff. One of his tasks as a leader is to integrate individual needs and organizational objectives.

The interpersonal roles place the manager in a unique position to get information. His external contacts bring special outside information and his leadership activities serve to make him a focal point for organizational information. The result is that the manager emerges as the nerve center of a special kind of organizational information.

- Of the three **informational** roles, the first role of *monitor* identifies the manager as receiver and collector of information, enabling him to develop a thorough understanding of his organization. The second role, termed



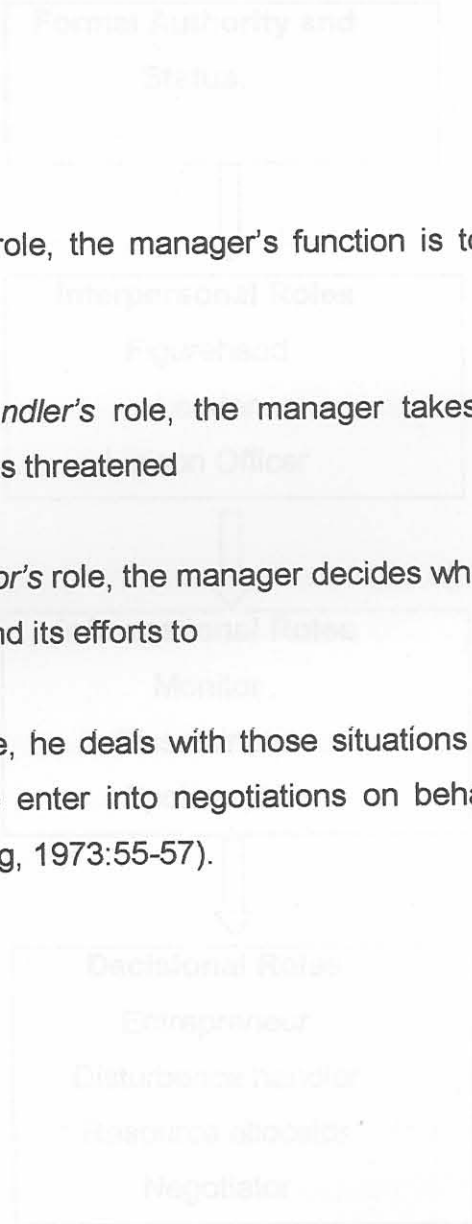
*disseminator*, involves the transmission by the manager of special information into his organization. The third, the *spokesman* role, involves the dissemination of the organization's information into its environment.

Tylen Tom Mintzberg (1973: 50) Fig. 2.1

- The manager's unique access to information and his special status and authority places him at the central point in the system by which strategic organizational **decisions** are made.

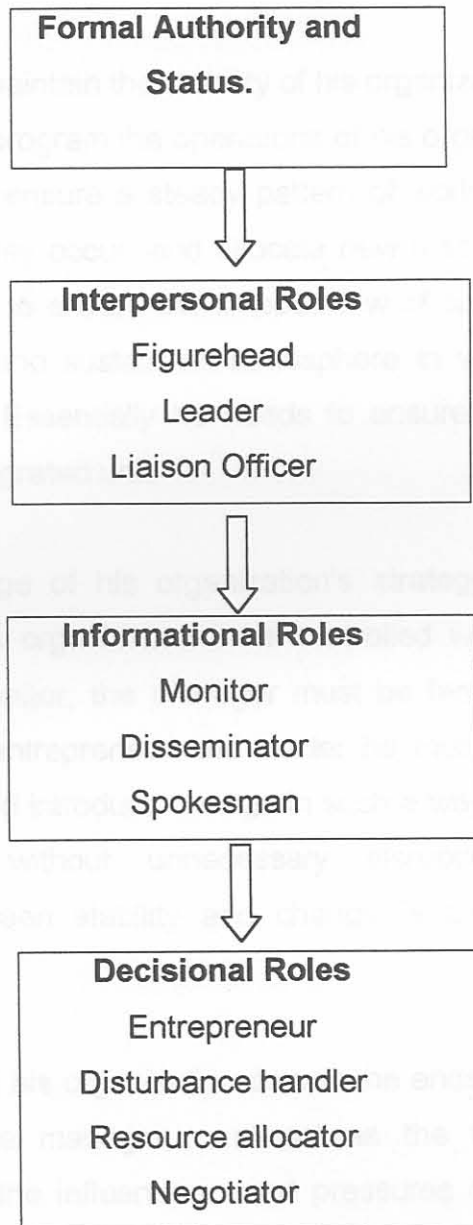
Four roles may be delineated here:

- In the *entrepreneur's* role, the manager's function is to initiate change
- In the *disturbance handler's* role, the manager takes charge when his organization is threatened
- In the *resource allocator's* role, the manager decides where his organization will expand its efforts to
- In the *negotiator's* role, he deals with those situations in which he feels compelled to enter into negotiations on behalf of his organization (Mintzberg, 1973:55-57).



## The manager's roles

Taken from Mintzberg (1973: 59) Fig. 2.1





Mintzberg (1973:95) gives **five** basic reasons why organizations need managers:

1. The prime purpose of a manager is to ensure that his organization serves its basic purpose – the efficient production of specific goods or services. This gives rise to the next two purposes of the manager.
2. The manager must design and maintain the stability of his organization's operations. The manager must program the operations of his organization and monitor these programs to ensure a steady pattern of workflow. He must correct deviations when they occur, and allocate new resources as they become available, in order to ensure the smooth flow of operations. As a leader he must develop and sustain an atmosphere in which the necessary work will get done. Essentially he needs to ensure that the organization functions as an integrated unit.
3. The manager must take charge of his organization's strategy-making system, and therein adapt his organization in a controlled way to its changing environment. As monitor, the manager must be familiar with environmental trends and as entrepreneur and leader he must provide direction for his organization and introduce change in such a way that the organization adapts to it without unnecessary disruption. The maintenance of balance between stability and change is among the manager's most difficult tasks.
4. The manager must ensure that his organization serves the ends of those persons who control it. The manager must act as the focus for organizational values, and as the influencers exert pressures on him to have the organization serve their ends, the manager must interpret the values of each influencer. He need to combine it all in order to determine

- the true power system, and then inform his subordinates of this in the form of organizational preferences to guide them in their decision-making.
2. 5. The manager must serve as the key informational link between his organization and its environment. Only the manager, because of his formal authority, is capable of creating that vital link between certain special sources of information and his organization. He must serve as nerve center for this kind of information. As liaison officer the manager creates the link, as monitor he receives the information, and as disseminator he transmits it to his subordinates. The manager is obliged to create the link in the opposite direction by sending organizational information to the environment in his roles as spokesman and negotiator.

To be able to manage and organize a school, the school management must have certain leadership qualities. But how, or under which conditions, can such qualities be taught or encouraged?

#### **2.4 How can leadership be encouraged ?**

Bolman & Deal (1994:86) said that billions of dollars are invested each year in developing American's leadership capital. Businesses, universities, schools, hospitals and military organizations spend significant amounts of money to encourage the leadership abilities of those people in key positions. They say that efforts often aim at the wrong targets in the wrong way. Most training methods prepare potential leaders for managerial roles, not for the leadership challenges they are going to be confronted with. To improve current programs, the panel stressed several guidelines: leadership is learned mostly from experience; leadership can be learned from reflection, observation and dialogue; leadership can be learned from exemplary

practices; and leadership can be taught – but only in programs far different from those that exist today.

#### 2.4.1 Leadership is learned mainly from experience

It is often assumed that leaders are born, not made, but that's not true. Leadership is cultivated or nurtured primarily through experience. To develop leaders involves the structuring of careers in such a way that emerging novices have ample opportunities to learn from the rough and tumble and give and take of working in an organization. Career experiences nurture leadership. People need an opportunity for some real challenges early in their careers where they are exposed to situations where they can actually really try to lead. They also need opportunities to work for some bosses who are either terrific leaders or awful leaders. The lessons taught when one learns to lead are derived from both positive and negative experiences. Leaders learn as much from their failures as from their triumphs or successes. Bolman & Deal (1994:87) said that if we look at the histories of many leaders, we would often find early career failures. Failure becomes, in many ways, a test of those who ultimately go on to become leaders.

One of the major differences between effective and ineffective leadership is whether or not people learn from early failures. Not all the learning need to be gleaned from firsthand experiences. People learn secondhand from examples set by others. Such opportunities can be provided in formal mentor programs where emerging leaders are assigned to a mentor. Learning to lead ultimately involves trying one's wings in a challenging situation – usually at a young age (Bolman & Deal, 1994:88).



#### 2.4.2 Reflection and dialogue with others also help people learn to lead

Whereas most leadership lessons are learned in the daily give and take of organizations, the lessons of experience are not always obvious. Many managers or leaders learn too little – or learn the wrong things – from what happens to them. Effective learning often requires individual reflections or peer discussions to distill important lessons from life experiences. Bolman & Deal (1994:89) said that when people do not know what to do, they often do more of what they know. The result is that they become inordinately busy while their effectiveness continues to decline.

To some panel members in this article, reflection is an individual process of taking stock, of trying to see oneself in an instant replay. Beth Jander-moa, a principal that was part of this panel, said, “Leadership is a discovery, a self-discovery. It’s an opportunity to have some experiences, on the job or not, to develop insights about your own abilities, how to be with other people, and what happens in some interactions with people. More opportunities provide a kind of reflection, a mirror in which I can begin to discover myself, and my potential as a leader” (Bolman & Deal, 1994:89).

Self-reflection can be enhanced by feedback from others. Superiors, subordinates, and peers often have a different view of a leader’s strengths and weaknesses, and often these diverse viewpoints can converge into some recurring patterns. Another panel member, Walter Ulmer, president of the center for Creative Leadership, said, “The older we get and the higher we rise, the less open we are to looking at our own strengths and weaknesses – particularly the latter. If we are serious about changing a leadership group within any organization we have to develop a system that provides assessment, feedback and insight. That

is something we are fundamentally not open to.” Elsa Porter, another panel member, put it elegantly. She said, “Good leadership is an elegant conversation, you have to know what you’re talking about and have a rapport with the person or people that you’re talking with.” This article of Bolman & Deal shows that top executives and top managers share the same problems in any organization. There is a definite need for all managers to get together and talk about these problems. Elsa Porter said in the article of Bolman & Deal (1994:91) that it was very difficult to have a conversation because these issues were often taboo subjects.

However, after a period of about four or five months these managers established a sense of trust with one another and they really began to have an elegant conversation. Their conversations had to do with their loneliness and with the moral stresses that they experienced in their jobs. In the end they told the panel that the most important outcome was that they were encouraged. They understood that other people were facing the same issues. They didn’t leave with specific resolutions for these issues, but they were personally encouraged and they felt they had support - they were not alone.

Elegant conversations do not have to be a one-time experience. Such opportunities can be structured into formal leadership development programs or become an ongoing forum for dialogue in specific organizations. A very important fact is that managers and leaders should think about various conceptions of the future and ways to frame the underlying values to help constituents hold together rather than to fly apart.

### 2.4.3 Leadership can be taught – but not the way we currently teach it

Universities, military academies, and other institutions purposely seek to prepare the leaders of tomorrow. Even after one assumes a leadership position, training of one kind or another needs to continue.

For both pre-service and in-service experience we need to ask:

- a) How well does the current leadership training programs work?
- b) How might we try to develop leaders in new ways?

The panel concluded that across the board, we are doing very little to develop leaders. A panel member, Jay Conger who is a professor at McGill University, said, “ A lot of training that currently goes on is what I call management training, not leadership training. That’s an important distinction. I think a lot of programs are teaching people to be good administrators, and they label that leadership” (Bolman & Deal, 1994:92). Developing leadership requires a shift in emphasis. We do more than enough about issues of control, planning, budgeting, performance and appraisal – but far too little on the human and spiritual dimensions. Leaders set the right direction, establish vision and strategies, get people aligned (itself a horrendous communication task), get commitment and inspire people to action so that they are willing to overcome all obstacles, according to John Kotter a professor at Harvard Business School.

Over and again the panel stressed the importance of values in leadership. We need to see leaders as defenders of values and as educators or creators of inspired and motivated cultures. This implies that leaders need to master the symbolic side of organizations and to learn how to create organizations that encourage learning. Leaders redefine the role of manager from one of control, to one of empowerment or of teaching and



coaching. They create a learning organization in the sense that they celebrate successes (often small successes), reinforce the culture, and also create an opportunity for people to learn from their successes and failures (Bolman & Deal, 1994:93).

The collective wisdom of the panel was that businesses are complex organizations in a pluralistic society and so are educational institutions. The panel suggested that leadership needed to be refined in more human, moral and spiritual terms. They said that we need to rethink and restructure our school systems in order to encourage the kind of leadership that can help transform schools from past practices or patterns to those that will be needed to shape a successful future. The need is acute and the time frame for an effective response is short:

*“If you boil water in a beaker over a Bunsen burner and drop a frog into it, the frog will jump right out. But if you put a frog in cold water and slowly turn up the heat, by the time the frog feels pain, it’s lost its capacity for jumping. Many schools get into the same position. If it were a real crisis, they would jump out of the beaker. But if the crisis sneaks up slowly they will lose their vital capabilities.”*

For schools, the time to jump may be now (Bolman & Deal, 1994:95).

The question that one can ask is what the specific principal behaviors associated with successful school improvement efforts are. Thomas, J. Sergiovanni conducted a research at the Research and Development Center for Teacher Education at the University of Texas, at Austin. The investigators were able to group principal leadership behaviors into three general change facilitator styles.

## 2.5 Leadership for school improvement

The three facilitator styles are that of Responder, Manager and Initiator. These three styles can be described as follows:

### 2.5.1 Responders

Responders place heavy emphasis on allowing teachers and others the opportunity to take the lead. They believe their primary role is to maintain a smooth-running school by focussing on traditional administrative tasks, keeping teachers content and treating students well. Teachers are viewed as strong professionals who are able to carry out their instructional role with little guidance. Responders emphasize the personal side of their relationships with teachers and others. Before they make decisions they often give everyone an opportunity to have an input so as to weigh their feelings or to allow others to make the decision. A related characteristic is the tendency toward making decisions in terms of immediate circumstances, rather than in terms of long-range instructional or school goals. This seems to be in part due to their desire to please others and in part to their limited vision of how their school and staff should change in the future.

### 2.5.2 Managers

Managers represent a broader range of behaviours. They demonstrate both responsive behaviors in answer to situations or people and they also initiate actions in support of the change effort. Managers work without fanfare to provide basic support to facilitate teachers' use of the innovation. They keep teachers informed about decisions and are sensitive to teachers' needs. They will defend their teachers from what are perceived as excessive demands. When they, however, learn that

the central office wants something done in their schools, they become very involved with their teachers in making it happen. Yet, they do not typically initiate attempts to move beyond the basics of what is imposed.

### 2.5.3 Initiators

Initiators have clear, decisive, long-range policies and goals that not only transcend, but also include implementation of the current innovation. They tend to have very strong beliefs about what good schools and teaching should be like and work intensively to attain this vision. Decisions are made in relation to their goals for the school and in terms of what they believe to be best for students, which is based on current knowledge of classroom practices. Initiators have strong expectations for the students, the teachers and themselves. They convey and monitor these expectations through frequent contact with the teachers and give a clear explication of how the school is to operate and how teachers are to teach. When they feel it is in the best interest of their school, particularly the students, Initiators will seek changes in district programs or policies or they will reinterpret them to suit the needs of the school. Initiators will be adamant, but not unkind, and they will solicit input from the staff. Their decisions are made in terms of the goals of the school, even if some of the staff members may be ruffled by their directness and high expectations (Sergiovanni, 1991:285-286).

Harold Geneen (1984:105) made a valuable statement when he provided his formula for administrative success: "Manage, manage, manage, and lead, lead, lead."



## 2.6 Leadership according to different models of Educational Management

Tony Bush (1995:43) identified six major models of Educational Management. The six models are:

- formal
- collegial
- political
- subjective
- ambiguity
- cultural

In each of the above-mentioned models Bush described the specific style of leadership that applies to a specific model.

### 2.6.1 Leadership in a formal model

Within formal models leadership is ascribed to the person at the apex of the hierarchy. It is assumed that this individual sets the tone of the organization and establishes the major official objectives. The leader is expected to play a key role in policy-making and adoption of innovations is assumed to follow. The possibility of opposition, or indifference, to change is not acknowledged. It is believed that implementation is unproblematic. Official bodies and individuals behave as if the head or principal is the fount of all knowledge and authority (Bush, 1995:44).

### 2.6.2 Leadership in a collegial model

In collegial models the style of leadership not only influences, but is also influenced by the nature of the decision-making process. Policy is determined within a participative framework where the principal is expected to adopt strategies which acknowledge that issues may emerge from different parts of the organization and may be resolved in a complex

interactive process. The collegial leader is at most a first among equals in an academic organization. The basic idea of the collegial leader is less to command than to listen, less to lead than to gather expert judgements, less to manage than to facilitate, less to order than to persuade and negotiate. The collegial leader is not so much a star, standing alone, as the developer of consensus among the professionals who must share the burden of the decision.

The collegial theorists tend to ascribe the following qualities to leaders in schools:

- They are responsive to the needs and wishes of their professional colleagues. Principals acknowledge the expertise and skills of their teachers.
- Collegial principals seek to create formal and informal opportunities for the testing and elaboration of policy initiatives. The principal perceives his role as being that of a democrat.
- Collegial models emphasize the authority of expertise rather than official authority. The principal also allows and encourages heads of departments to become co-leaders.

In collegial models the principal is typified as the facilitator of an essentially participative process. The picture of a good principal emerged from the teachers' comments as a person to whom they could talk and with whom they could discuss, who did not dictate, who was effectively a part of the staff group and whose philosophy was clear and shared by colleagues (Bush, 1995:65).

### 2.6.3 Leadership in a political model

There are two central facets of leadership within the political arena. In the first place principals are seen as the key participants in the process of bargaining and negotiation. Leaders each have their own values, interests and policy objectives which they seek to advance as appropriate at meetings of committees and in informal settings. Principals have substantial reserves of power that can be deployed in support of their personal and institutional goals. Leaders also have a significant impact on the nature of the internal decision-making process and they can exercise a controlling influence on the proceedings of committees.

The second facet of leadership concerns the principals' responsibility to sustain the viability of the organization and to develop the framework within which policies can be tested and, ultimately, receive the endorsement of the various interest groups. To achieve acceptable outcomes, leaders become mediators who attempt to build coalitions in support of policies. There is a recurring pattern of discussion with representatives of power blocks to secure a measure of agreement. This may involve concessions and compromises in order for the more powerful groups to achieve benefits in exchange for their support (Bush, 1995: 88).

### 2.6.4 Leadership in a subjective model

The concept of leadership fits rather uneasily within the framework of subjective models. Individuals place different meanings on events and this applies to all members, whatever their formal position in the organization. People who occupy leadership roles have their own values, beliefs and goals. All participants, including leaders, pursue their own interests. A significant difference, however, is that leaders of organizations may be in a position to impose their interpretations of events on other members of their institution. Management may be seen



as a form of control with heads and principals elevating their meanings to the status of the school policy. These leaders may use their resources of power to require compliance with these interpretations, even where other staff members do not share those meanings (Bush, 1995:104).

#### 2.6.5 Leadership in an ambiguity model

In a climate of ambiguity, the traditional notions of leadership require modification. According to Cohan & March (1986:195-203) leaders face four fundamental ambiguities:

1. There is an ambiguity of purpose because the goals of the organization are unclear. As there are no clear goals for leaders, there exist an inadequate basis for assessing the actions and achievements of the institution.
2. There is an ambiguity of power because it is difficult to make a clear assessment of the power of leaders. Principals do possess the authority though that arises from their position as the formal leaders of their institutions. However, in an unpredictable setting, formal authority is an uncertain guide to the power of leaders.
3. There is an ambiguity of experience because, in conditions of uncertainty, leaders may not be able to learn from the consequences of their actions. In conditions of ambiguity, outcomes depend on factors other than the behaviour of the leaders. External changes occur and distort the situation in such a way that the experience becomes an unreliable guide to future action.
4. There is an ambiguity of success because it is difficult to measure the achievements of leaders. Principals are usually appointed to these

posts after they had good careers as teachers and middle managers. The ambiguities of purpose, power and experience make it difficult for leaders to distinguish between success and failure.

Cohen & March (1986:218) suggest the following approaches for the management of uncertainty:

- Leaders should be ready to devote **time** to the process of decision-making. By taking the trouble to participate fully, leaders are likely to be present when issues are finally resolved and will have the opportunity to influence the decision.
- Leaders should be prepared to **persist** with those proposals that do not gain the initial support of groups within the institution. Issues are likely to surface at several forums and a negative reception at one setting may be reversed on another occasion when there may be different participants.
- Leaders should facilitate the **participation of opponents** of leader's proposals. The inclusion of opponents at appropriate forums may lead to the modification, or withdrawal, of alternative ideas and thus allow the leader's plans to prosper.
- Leaders should **overload the system** with ideas to ensure the success of some of the initiatives. When the organization has to cope with a surfeit of issues, it is likely that some of the proposals will succeed even if others fall by the wayside.

These strategies may be appropriate for periods of high ambiguity, as the tension, inherent in turbulent organizations, may be very stressful for principals who have to absorb these pressures, both to facilitate institutional development and to foster personal survival and growth.

Successful principals have a high tolerance of ambiguity. Principals whose personal needs for structuring, continuity and stability are high may find frequent change and constant uncertainty a potent source of frustration and tension (Bush, 1995:125).

#### 2.6.6 Leadership in a cultural model

The leader of the organization has the main responsibility for developing and sustaining its culture. Principals have their own values and beliefs arising from many years of successful professional practice. They are also expected to embody the culture of the school. The principal, because of his formal authority, represents and symbolizes the school both to people inside and to the members of the community. The symbolic dimension of leadership and the central role of principals are defining the school culture. Leaders have the main responsibility for generating and sustaining the culture and to communicate its core values and beliefs both within the organization and to external stakeholders.

Maintenance of the culture is regarded as a central feature of effective leadership (Bush, 1995:138). Sergiovanni (1984:9) claims that the cultural aspect is the most important dimension of leadership. Within his "leadership forces hierarchy", the cultural element is more significant than the technical, human and educational aspects of leadership:

"The net effect of the cultural force of leadership is to bond together students, teachers, and others as believers in the work of the school. As persons become members of this strong and binding culture, they are provided with opportunities for enjoying a special sense of personal importance and significance."



## 2.7 New leadership values

A number of leadership values are embodied in the ideas presented in the book of Thomas, J Sergiovanni – *The principalship: A reflective practice perspective*. They stem from “the clockworks gone awry mindscape” of how schools actually operate and from the necessity to rely on cultural, as well as bureaucratic linkages, in bringing about co-ordinated action. These values are also revealed by characteristics and actions found to be common among leaders of highly successful organizations. They are summarized below:

### 2.7.1 Leadership by purpose

Successful leaders practice leadership by purpose. Purposing derives its power from the needs of people at work in order to have some sense of what is important and what is of value. All of us, in both our work and personal lives, want to know what is of value. We desire a sense of order and direction and enjoy sharing this sense with others. At work, people respond to these conditions with increased motivation and commitment. The leader’s behavioral style is less important in reflecting the value of leadership by purposing. Instead, what the leaders stand for and communicate to others, is emphasized. The object of purposing is the stirring of human consciousness, the enhancing of meaning, the spelling out of key cultural strands that provide both excitement and significance to one’s work life (Sergiovanni, 1991:340).

### 2.7.2 Leadership by empowerment

Highly successful leaders have a capital view of power and authority. They spend it to increase it. They have learned the great **leadership secret** of power invested: the more you distribute power among others,

the more you get in return. But their view of power invested is a sophisticated one for they know that it is not power over people and events that count, but rather, power over accomplishment and the achievement of organizational purposes. Teachers need to be empowered to act – to be given the necessary responsibilities that release their potential and make their actions and decisions count.

Except for the most routine jobs, the major problem facing management in America, and the researcher believes the same is applicable for South Africa today, is the gap that exists between ability and authority. Those who have the authority to act, typically, don't have the necessary technical ability, and those with the ability to act, typically do not have the necessary authority. Leadership by empowerment can remedy this situation by lending to those with ability the necessary authority to act.

Empowerment without purposing is not what is intended by this value. The two must go hand in hand. When directed and enriched by purposing and fueled by empowerment, teachers and others respond not only with increased motivation and commitment, but with surprising ability as well. They become smarter, use their talents more fully and grow on the job.

### 2.7.3 Leadership as power to accomplish

Successful leaders know the difference between “power **over**” and “power **to**”. There is a link between leadership and power, and indeed leadership is a special form of power: the power to influence. There are, however, two conceptions of power: “power over” and “power to”. “Power over” is to control and it is concerned with “how can I control people and events so that things turn out the way I want?” “Power over” is concerned with dominance, control and the hierarchy to exercise power over. One

needs to have access to rewards and punishments, “carrots” and “bully” sticks. In reality most principals don’t have very many carrots or very many bully sticks. Further, people don’t like carrots or bully sticks and resist power over leadership both formally and informally. This approach is thus rarely effective. The concept of “power over” raises certain ethical questions relating to dominance and manipulation.

“Power to”, on the other hand, is not instrumental but facilitative. It is power to do something, to accomplish something, and to help others accomplish something that they think is important. In “power to” far less emphasis is given to what people are doing and far more emphasis is given to what they are accomplishing.

#### 2.7.4 Leadership density

To see every employee as a possible manager is a goal common to highly successful leaders, because they recognize the importance of leadership density and its relationship to organizational effectiveness. Leadership density does not refer to the number of administrators and supervisors in schools, but to the extent leadership roles are shared and the extent to which leadership is broadly exercised. In highly successful schools the line between principal and teacher is not drawn very tightly, and indeed, effective principals view themselves as principal-teachers.

Teachers, in turn, assume a great deal of responsibility for what is going on in the school – they exercise leadership freely. Every teacher as a leader and every principal as a teacher suggest the spirit of the value of leadership density.



### 2.7.5 Leadership and quality control

On no other issue might ordinary and highly successful leaders differ more than in their beliefs about, and concepts of, quality control. To ordinary leaders quality control is considered to be a management problem, solvable by using the right controls such as scheduling, prescribing, programming, testing and checking. Though successful leaders recognize that such managerial conceptions of quality control have their place, they are likely to view the problem of quality control as being primarily cultural, rather than managerial.

Quality control, they have come to learn, is the minds and hearts of people at work. It has to do with what teachers and other school employees believe, their commitment to quality, their sense of pride, the extent to which they identify with their work, the ownership they feel for what they are doing and the intrinsic satisfaction they derive from the work itself.

It is for this reason that quality control is not viewed so much as planning, organizing, scheduling and controlling as it is purposing, empowerment, and leadership density as a means to build identity and commitment.

### 2.7.6 Leadership by simplicity

Highly successful principals believe in lean, action-oriented, uncomplicated, organizational structures. To them "small is beautiful" and "simple is better." Simplicity is action oriented and to the point. It places emphasis on what needs to be accomplished and how best to do it without undue emphasis on protocol and procedural matters (Sergiovanni, 1991: 341-343).

## 2.8 Communication and leadership

In essence leading has to do with influencing others through communication. Leadership is based on communication. Puth (1994:146) said that the style and substance of communication distinguish dynamic leadership from traditional management. Leaders communicate not only information but also attitudes and assumptions. To understand the communication implication of dynamic leadership it is necessary to distinguish between management and leadership.

### 2.8.1 Management and leadership

Leadership differs from management, but not for the reasons most people think. Leadership is not mystical and mysterious and it does not necessarily have to do with charisma or other exotic personality traits. Leadership is neither necessarily better than management, nor an absolute replacement for it.

Leadership and management are two distinct and complementary systems of action. Each has its own function and characteristic activity. Both are necessary for success in an increasingly complex and volatile environment:

- Management is concerned with coping with complexity. Good management brings a degree of order and consistency to key aspects, such as quality.
- Leadership is concerned with coping with change. Part of the reason it has become so important in recent years is that the world has become more competitive and more volatile with the result that doing what was

done yesterday, or doing it 5% better, is no longer a formula for success.

People attach different values to leadership. They see it as the ability to inspire followers to take action and to set a good example. It is also seen as the ability to influence people to attain goals rather than simply ordering them to do it. Most successful leaders make their sense of purpose clear to those around them, not by force, coercion or formal authority, but by their sincere devotion to people and purpose and their patient perseverance in the face of all obstacles (Puth, 1994:146-147).

## **2.9 Successful communication for school leadership**

No management can take place without communication. Educational leaders spend the better part of their daily task on communicating, thus the importance of good communication can hardly be overemphasised (Van der Westhuizen, 1995:205).

Wentz (1998:112) said that attention to the communication skills and techniques that emphasizes strategies used by outstanding educational leaders, could mean success for those already working in school leadership positions, as well as for those who aspire to such work.

Effective communication includes written, verbal and nonverbal communication, listening skills and methods of evaluation whether the communications are effective or not.

Hughes & Ubben (1994:47) have said, "The effective principal is to be a communication center for the education hub of the future."



Puth (1994:40) said that communication is the lifeblood of any organization.

Henry Mintzberg found that managers are almost constantly communicating. Mintzberg calculated that verbal interaction accounted for 78% of managers' time and 67% of their activities, according to Puth (1994:40).

Communication is what managers do: it is the essence of managerial work. According to Rasberry & Lemoine (1986:59) there are three basic types of managerial skills that are important to accomplish namely: technical, social and conceptual.

- Technical skills are the means by which a manager accomplishes a specialized activity. This may include methods, processes, techniques and procedures.
- Social or human skills involve the ability to work interpersonally with groups or organizational members. Social skills include, for example, self-knowledge, the ability to interact and relate with others, empathy and understanding. Managers too have to develop social skills.
- Conceptual skills may be defined as the ability to identify and analyze problems and to implement effective decisions. Conceptual skills include skills with the ability to be perceptive, to be creative, to be able to co-ordinate and to integrate in order to lead the organization toward a common goal.

In our awe of communication science, let us not ignore one sombre, but compelling thought. Quantity, speed and coverage are not the only requirements for communication. It is also imperative that we

communicate clearly and precisely. Progress toward greater understandability has come much slower than the technological improvements. It is still quite possible for persons to fail to understand one another, even though they speak the "same" language (Haney, 1992:49).

Much of the daily communication between managers and employees misses the mark. Even more alarming is that most of the time managers and employees are unaware that their messages are being misunderstood. There are a number of barriers or obstacles that can hinder and limit the development of effective managerial communication.

Puth (1994:49) said that there are three major barriers found in all organizations, namely: differences in perceptions, differences in meaning and the effects of organizational structures. There are also a number of smaller, day-to-day barriers in the way, together with mistakes that are made from time to time by virtually everybody.

### 2.9.1 General characteristics of communication barriers

Barriers can be diagnostic tools. Fisher (1981: 78) pointed out that barriers to effective communication could be useful diagnostic tools. Perhaps the major advantage is that a barrier, once identified, helps to suggest its corrective approach.

Barriers tend to occur in clusters. When one barrier has been identified, there will most likely be others associated with it. Constant, serious differences in meaning or with interpretation in an organization are likely to be associated with the barriers of one-way communication or a lack of feedback. It is essential to identify the nature of the multiple barriers and to deal with the whole cluster.

## 2.9.2 The major management communication barriers

Organizations are put together by its people, and whatever the magnitude of its physical and financial resources, should the people leave, the organization would cease to exist. If it is assumed that it is the people who form the organization, it should also be accepted that the human strengths and weaknesses of those people would characterize the organization.

There are three major barriers that are characteristic of all organizations. The first barrier is that different people perceive the same object, person, message or incident differently. Secondly it happens that different people also ascribe different meanings to the mentioned elements. The third barrier is one where the messages among people in an organization are influenced by the structures and processes within the organization.

### 2.9.2.1 Differences in perception

The first major potential barrier: **perception**, is the filter through which we take in stimuli and understand the world. Perception is one person's view of reality. Because people perceive the same phenomenon in different ways, different people prescribe different meanings to the same stimulus.

- Perception influences communication

Understanding perceptual behaviour is the first step on the way to becoming an effective communicator. Perception is defined as the way we take in information about our world, and because each person gathers information differently, problems arise in the way in which each individual perceives people and things. Many of the differences between people can be explained by the psychological



and social programming and training that occurs during the formative stages of childhood and adolescence. Other differences occur because wants and needs vary from person to person.

- Cultural differences

Cultural issues may affect the meaning people ascribe to communication, and eventually determine the effectiveness of communication. There are, for example, cultural differences in the norms determining the appropriate distance between people in interpersonal space. To ensure effective communication, the communicating manager must acknowledge cultural differences and try to see the situation from the perspective of the other person's culture.

- Stereotyping

Stereotyping involves categorizing people or events according to their perceived similarities. Stereotyping consists of three steps:

1. People are classified according to a certain category, for example nationality, sex or age.
2. Attributes are then associated with those categories such as intelligence, musical ability or punctuality.
3. It is inferred that all people in a certain category show the attributes ascribe to that group. All Orientals are intelligent, Germans all sing well and Africans are always late for appointments.

Stereotyping is often inaccurate, and to cling to stereotypes will affect communication in the workplace negatively, rather than to contribute to affective communication (Puth, 1994:51-52).

- The halo effect

The halo effect almost represents the inverse of stereotyping. The halo effect refers to judging a person, place, object or event on the basis of a single trait or experience. This overall impression, positive or negative, will certainly prejudice any further interaction with the person or object. At times people's behaviour is based on a snap judgement as positive or negative. If this first impression is faulty, it can take considerable effort to concede this fact and break the halo effect.

The manager with the somewhat chaotic desk is seen as less competent, the well-dressed man is seen as a womanizer and the assertive secretary as pushy. As in the case of stereotyping, the halo effect can have a severely detrimental effect on communication and interaction.

### 2.9.2.2 Differences in meaning

Meaning is another potential major barrier to communication. Humans are unique because they can share meaning by using formalized verbal language that consists of symbols that stand in reference for items and events within society. Symbols, however, can become a barrier to effective communication among people who do not share the same meaning to a certain symbol.

- Denotative and connotative meaning

Language affects perception, communication patterns and interpersonal behaviour. Using words is the foundation for accurate communication, because words are the primary symbols used by people. Every word has a denotative (or dictionary) meaning as well as connotative (personal experience) meaning. People mostly communicate by using connotative language based on their personal experience. This is why it is often said that meaning (connotative) is in people, and not in words (denotative).

Major communication conflicts can result from the way we use words. The choice of words, as well as the language in which a person encodes a message, influences the quality of communication as language is a symbolic representation of concrete things. There is room for different interpretations or distortions of meaning.

### 2.9.2.3 Organizational structure

The third of the potential major barriers is organizational structure. The climate in which, as well as the networks and channels through which communication takes place in an organization, help either to facilitate or to hinder management communication. A number of factors associated with organizational structures can become barriers to effective communication:

- **Patterns of information flow**

An organization's communication network defines the flow of messages in formal patterns (downwards, upwards, and horizontally) and in informal patterns (the grapevine). Each pattern of information flow in an organization has a distinctive effect on the overall communication quality.

- **Degree of centralization**

Organizations have various degrees of centralization. Some organizational members may have access to more information than others, and because of centralization, some people know more than others, or have different information. The potential for misunderstanding between various levels and functional units of the organization is increased by centralization, mainly because centralization tends to discourage shared information.



- Level and direction of communication

Almost all organizations are, to a lesser or greater extent, hierarchies: they include both superiors (managers) and subordinates (employees). Certain communication barriers are associated with the direction in which messages are sent in hierarchical structures. Downward communication is the flow of communication from manager to employee in the organizational hierarchy. Upward communication refers to messages sent from employee to managers. Lateral communication is the horizontal communication flow between peers. Each is essential to effective organizational functioning, but each also has its specific problems. Downward communication is often filtered by employees' mistrust of their managers, or the fact that such messages may have been tailored to motivate the employees, rather than to provide them with information. The effectiveness of upward communication may suffer from employees' unwillingness to say anything other than what they think the manager wants to hear. These deficiencies in vertical communication flow are often referred to as the "sponge layer" where information from higher and lower levels is absorbed, but it is not let through.

Managers must continuously assess and understand the communication structures and networks within their organization, and then use or modify them as effectively as possible (Puth, 1994:54-55). School management can promote staff development through communication. Effective staff development requires principals to help people make the best use of the strengths they have at whatever point in their careers they found themselves, although this sometimes means helping them to face up to unpalatable choices.

## 2.10 Conclusion

### Chapter 3

Effective leadership is very important in every school. Leadership is not necessarily confined to authority or position or to obtain power, but rather to get things done. Leaders organize and communicate values through a specific vision. The clearer the vision, the more people become convinced that it is the proper goal to strive for. Highly successful leaders have learned the great leadership secret of power invested: the more you distribute power among others, the more you get in return.

The following chapter will address Capacity Building and components of capacity building in more detail.