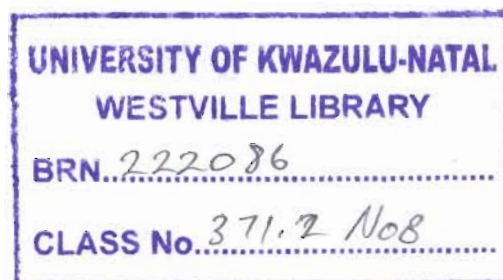


AN ANALYSIS OF THE THEORY AND PRACTICE OF
LEADERSHIP IN EDUCATION WITH PARTICULAR
REFERENCE TO SUPERINTENDENTS OF EDUCATION
(MANAGEMENT) IN THE eTHEKWINI REGION OF
KWAZULU-NATAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION



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**Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of
Administration in the Faculty of Commerce and Management
Sciences (School of Public Administration and
Development Management)
UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
(Westville Campus)**

2004

PROMOTER: PF

DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I hereby declare that the whole of this thesis, unless specifically indicated to the contrary in the text, is my own original work and that it has not been submitted for any degree in any other university.

B.E. NOBIN

FEBRUARY 2004

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The researcher is indebted to a great number of people in the course of this study. The researcher greatly appreciates the assistance of Professor D. Sing both for inspiring the idea for the study in the first place, and for keeping the researcher abreast of developments in the field of Public Administration. The impetus, emotional support and intellectual stimulus came from this renowned academic. His pioneering spirit in the field of Public Administration and its transmission thereof, has been an oasis of inspiration to me. I wish to thank him most sincerely for undertaking the supervision of this thesis. Academics of his calibre are rare, and I have had the good fortune of drawing extensively on his vast experience and expertise.

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Whilst I know that my late father, Raymond, no more graces the portals of my home, I do believe that his spirit was ever present during the period of my research. *Requiescet in pace!*

Finally, I wish to thank my wife Peggy, my son Roland, and my daughter Railene for their concern, understanding and patience during the protracted period of research. May God bless them.

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ABSTRACT

Approaches to management have varied radically in their purposes and have altered significantly over time. Hierarchies of authority, divisions of labour, adherence to rules and spans of control are now regarded as denying the flexibility and responsiveness that provide the necessary conditions for effective leadership. In the past, some theorists viewed leadership as a fixed set of skills and techniques, often aimed at controlling subordinates' behaviour. In the recent past, however, leadership theory tends to emphasize the need for leaders to reflect on themselves, their subordinates' needs, different modalities and approaches, at different times. One such theoretical model, which can begin the process of explaining variations in systems of management and leadership, is the situational theory.

An important step in the evolution of knowledge about leadership was the creation of the contingency or situational theory. According to this theory of leadership, the situation determines the best style. The four most influential contingency models of leadership used in this study are Fiedler's contingency model, Hersey and Blanchard's situational model, House's path-goal model, and the Vroom-Yetton-Jago leader-participation model. In this study, the four situational models were used to ascertain whether superintendents of education (management) in the eThekweni Region can and do use different leadership styles in different situations. The researcher identified three variables in the work situation that help determine which leadership style will be effective, namely leader-subordinate relations, task structure and the leader's position power. As the researcher gathered more data from a variety of survey methods such as participant observation, an attitudinal questionnaire, and semi-structured interviews, it was found that effective superintendents not only managed downward but were also effective in lateral relationships with subordinates. The aim of the study, therefore, was to discover whether the participants were adept at recognizing the requirements of the situation and the needs of their subordinates, and then adjusting their own leadership style accordingly.

A basic feature of the situational or contingency theory of leadership, envisaged in this study, is that it seeks to emancipate superintendents from their dependency on practices that are the product of precedent, habit and tradition by developing modes of analysis and enquiry that are aimed at exposing and examining the beliefs, values and assumptions implicit in the

theoretical framework through which superintendents organize their experiences. The study shows that it is only by challenging the adequacy of conventional theories of leadership practice that the observations, interpretations and judgments of superintendents will become more rational and coherent and their practices will be conducted in effective ways. By subjecting the beliefs and justifications of existing and ongoing practical traditions to rational analysis, theory transforms practice by transforming the ways in which practice is experienced and understood.

Superintendents of Education (Management) based in the eThekweni Region are operating in one of the most dynamic and complex educational environments in KwaZulu-Natal, one where many variables have an enormous influence on their main task, namely to achieve the goals and objectives of the Education Department. In this context, a whole new vista of leadership can be explored. Leadership is fundamentally the task of these superintendents to direct the activities and performance of subordinates, such as principals of schools, so that the objectives of the Department can be attained. In its simplest form, leadership is the relationship and interaction between the superintendent and his or her subordinate. In setting up the study, the researcher provided for the participation of superintendents and principals.

The new political dispensation in South Africa is characterized by a host of variables that can be classified under what is known as 'transformation'. In an educational landscape that is undergoing fundamental change, superintendents no longer have the luxury of relying on generic administrative approaches, technical skills, and management functions. To this end, this study makes the point that the success of the current education system is not necessarily due to the superintendents' competence as managers but rather to their ability as leaders. Turning superintendents into educational leaders so that they can become better managers is one of the underlying principles behind this study. The real challenge facing superintendents is to combine strong leadership and strong management and use each to balance the other.

Research on leadership is moving in many directions and new lines of enquiry are opening up in an effort to construct the ultimate leadership model. International research shows that high-impact leaders do not rely solely on the structural approach. These leaders consciously reflect on, study and develop their leadership practices to meet the demands of today's evolving education environment. Recent studies suggest that effective superintendents take time and

effort to manage their relationships with their subordinates. For multiple leadership roles to work together, the actions of superintendents must be carefully coordinated by strategies that differ from those coordinating traditional management roles. Such strategies, the researcher believes, help create a corporate culture where superintendents value strong leadership and strive to create it. Institutionalizing a leadership-centred culture is the ultimate act of leadership.

The researcher believes that this study has the potential to challenge superintendents to play a more meaningful and appropriate role in the transformation of educational leadership. It was with this in mind that an analysis of the theory and practice of leadership in education with a particular reference to superintendents of education (management) in the eThekweni Region of KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education and Culture was visited by the researcher.

CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW OF STUDY

1.0 Introduction

The topic of leadership has become the subject of increased study and discussion over the past few decades. Equally, leadership has become a field of study in its own right. In this chapter, the researcher takes an overview of some contextual issues in Public Administration, the issue of transformation and change in the public sector, the challenge of leadership in the 'new' public institutions, policy implementation and new legislation, the paradigmatic debate in South African Public Administration and theoretical issues in leadership.

1.1 Contextual Issues in Public Administration

Public Administration is a distinctive field of activity that focuses, *inter alia*, on public services managers and consists of all the basic managerial functions undertaken by officials in public institutions. There is no doubt that public management is one of the leading themes or approaches in Public Administration. Wessels and Pauw (1999:7) affirm that the fundamental issues regarding the state, viewed from a Public Administration context, relate to social contract, justice, and service rendering. It is important to point out, at this juncture, that this study does not accord great weight to generic administrative and management functions. It focuses, rather, on what Shue (1980: 36) calls "the right to social participation", what Birch (1995:123) refers to as "the right to equal treatment, and the right to respect for human dignity", as well as the view of Schwella, in Wessels and Pauw (1999:8), that "public management is one of the critical themes or approaches in Public Administration". Public human resource management, as a genus of Public Administration, is also a very important theme in the education system. Schwella (1996:5) states that public management and public human resource management are disciplines within Public Administration. Du Toit *et al* (1998:196) state that the scope and nature of public resource management is in a constant state of change and is becoming increasingly more complex as societal issues arise.

In the 1990s, the pursuance of transformation in the South African public sector appears to have been driven by a paradigmatic shift from a bureaucratic public administration to a new

and unique South African public management paradigm. The related question is whether the previous dominant paradigm has been sufficiently challenged by new emerging paradigms. Schwella, in Wessels and Pauw (1999:342) avers that, if new paradigms are neither systematically stronger nor shared by a substantive group of professionals and academics, their potential to influence the current reality is limited.

Managing in the public services domain is increasingly a complex activity where a range of different types of organization and resources is involved in the delivery of public services. Lawton (1998:147) states that managing in the public services is characterized by ambiguity in terms of objectives, goals, responsibilities, functions or relationships. Public services managers in South Africa have had to develop new skills and adopt new perspectives in order to respond to the rise in needs and expectations from stakeholders. The management task becomes one of managing ambiguity in an ever-changing environment. Schwella, in Wessels and Pauw (1999:344), states that Public Administration as a system is managed by people, and hopefully provides relevant policies and services for people. Groups of people, therefore, direct and manage the actions of the public administration system. This professional activity should be geared towards the philosophical ideal of striving for the values of the good society through effective, efficient, and productive action.

Since public administration is an important human endeavour for the benefit of people, it is also the focus of academic research and education. This research addresses, *inter alia*, key issues in managing educational institutions and contributes to the debates concerning the appropriate role for managers as leaders in the education sector. Through the use of original and international research and commentaries on theoretical models and approaches, the researcher is hopeful that the contents of this research will be relevant to educational managers, specifically superintendents of education (management), and to educational institutions in the eThekweni Region. An underlying theme of this research is the inescapable intertwining of public administration theory and practice such that theory will be tested out and reflected upon in practice, and practice, in turn, will be grounded in theory. Theoretical assumptions, beliefs, concepts and models need to be made relevant for the superintendent but at the same time good leadership practice will need to be analyzed, tested against the theoretical models, and disseminated. The research aims to examine the concepts and assumptions that inform education management and change. Drawing upon a range of key

educational and epistemological texts, this research proceeds to locate leadership and systemic change in the context of democracy and assesses the impact of new social forces on the changing nature and purposes of educational leadership. In this way, the research will fulfill its commitments to both an academic and practitioner audience.

1.2 Transformation and Change in the Public Sector: Issues for Consideration

Public services management is aimed at the effective performance of functional activities. It is also aimed at directing an institution towards its predetermined objectives. The South African public sector is perceived as being characterized by a hierarchical culture, which comes closest to the traditional model of bureaucracy, with strong emphasis on controls and on formal rules and procedures. Research conducted by *EDUPOL* (1994) indicates that while there may be pockets of a more open style of management in the education system in South Africa, in general the system is characterized by authoritarian, hierarchical, non-consultative, and non-participative ethos, which may permeate new institutional arrangements and prevent the development of effective education and training management practices. As South Africa emerges from the years of struggle against apartheid, its officials face the challenge of transforming a society weakened and corrupted by misrule, mismanagement and exploitation into a vibrant and successful democracy. The education system is no exception. Far-reaching change is required to address the strong bureaucratic controls over the educational system. The research will consider recent educational policy within the context of the recent history of South Africa. The overall goals of transformational leadership will be examined and related to the changes introduced since 1994. It will also pay particular attention to the very practical issues of effecting proposed changes at the Regional level. Issues of capacity development and the need for increasing professional leadership will also be considered.

Because of the crucial role that public service managers play in the successful management of public institutions, leadership can be viewed as one of the most important functions of the management process. The synergistic links that are forged from relationships between people who work as a cohesive unit are important for growth and development in an organization. Covey (1990:102) sums up this synergy in a poignant way, when he states that efficient management without effective leadership is, as one individual has phrased it, 'like straightening deck chairs on the Titanic'. Covey (1990) also alludes to the important fact that

no management success can compensate for failure in leadership. Van der Waldt and Du Toit (1997:196) state that irrespective of the style of leadership, it is the manager who creates the environment in which people work and who determines whether they are happy, productive and motivated.

People are an organization's greatest asset, yet effective leadership is, arguably, one of the scarcest resources of any organization. People comprise a strategic component in any public institution, and people are probably also the most complex resource in the organization. Directing this complex human resource of the organization and guiding the behaviour of the subordinates require a key management activity, namely leadership. If people are going to implement the values and the objectives of an organization, they must be implicit in the belief that the organization also has their personal well being at heart. Most literature, reviewed by the researcher, indicates that effective leadership is not about position power in the organizational hierarchy but about personal power that enables public services managers to create their own future as well as the substantive rights of significant others. For the purposes of this research, a superintendent of education (management) is defined as 'a person in a formal position involving some responsibility for the work of other people and for other resources' (Ackroyd *et al*, 2000:182).

1.3 Challenge of Leadership in Public Institutions

The challenge of leadership faces every person in every public institution in society. An organization's ability to survive is directly dependant on the growth and development of its leaders, and this involves putting the 'humanity' back into organizations. More importantly, the organization's ability, skill, and commitment to enable and empower its human resources will be its only source of competitive advantage in the future. Organizations have to ensure that leaders, who have vision, enthusiasm, passion and consistency, drive them. Senge (1990:141) believes that managers should undergo personal mastery, which goes beyond mere technical competence and skills. Personal mastery in this context means approaching one's life as a creative work, living life from a creative, as opposed to a reactive, viewpoint. It also means a special level of proficiency in every aspect of life – personal, interpersonal and professional.

More recently, both in the public and private service and the corporate sectors, we hear of concepts such as 'Batho Pele', 'Tirisano', 'quality service', 'customer focuses', 'equal opportunity employer', and 'being the best leaders in our field'. Whilst the best intentions are inherent in all of these concepts, the researcher argues that one of the most daunting challenges facing any person in a leadership position is having to translate these intentions into purposeful actions, and sustaining them. The challenge that South Africa faces at the dawning of a democratic society is "to create an education and training system that will ensure that the human resources and potential in our society are developed to the full" (African National Congress, 1994:2). Of particular concern to the researcher, is the state's commitment to the principles of democracy, partnerships and co-operation. The researcher contends that South Africa's vision for a reconstructed and democratic education system will depend largely on having effective, efficient and responsive educational leaders.

Public sector organizations, such as the education department, experience a multitude of restraining factors that erodes even the best-developed organizational goals. Effective leadership offers a fundamental advantage point for organizational change and growth. Bennis (1998:23) states that leadership deficiency is a global disease. Bennis (1998) also noted that the quality of life is dependant on the quality of leaders. Leadership is, therefore, the fundamental difference between average and excellent organizations worldwide.

Smit *et al* (1997:11) state that 'leading' refers to directing human resources of the organization and motivating them in such ways that their actions accord with previously formulated goals and plans. Robbins *et al* (1995:322) endorse this philosophy when they assert that leadership is the ability to influence a group towards the achievement of goals. The Stanford Research Institute in the United States found in a study that twelve percent of leadership comprises knowledge and job specific skills, and eighty-eight percent of leadership is dealing appropriately with people (Chibber, 1993:14). After the determination of the specific goals of an organization, the manager has the responsibility of directing the efforts of his or her subordinates towards the achievement of these goals. Neagley *et al* (1969:13) conclude that all the meanings of the term *leadership* imply that 'to lead' is to take some responsibility for getting a group or organization from one place to another, one point of view to another, from one state of being to another, or from one course of action to another. Leadership also means

having skill in assuming responsibility for getting a group to take some sort of purposeful action. The point is stressed that each leadership challenge offers the superintendent the opportunity to bring direction, clarity, hope and creative change into the situation.

1.4 Policy Initiatives and New Legislation

The 'new' Department of Education radically shifted the direction and vision of the education system after 1994 with a series of policy initiatives and new legislation. These national policy frameworks contain clear implications for planning and effective management in the education system. The provisions of the Department of Education's White Paper 1 (1995), the National Education Policy Act, 27 of 1996, the South African Schools Act, 84 of 1996, White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service (1997), White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (1995), White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (1997), as well as provincial legislation and policy documents, all point South Africa firmly towards a democratic system of education management. The Bill of Rights and the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996), and other pieces of legislation challenge managers to change from apartheid-laden values to the democratic values embedded in the Constitution. Underlying all these policy frameworks and the new legislation is a fundamental shift in understanding the concept of governance in education. By governance, the writer means a process by which authority is mediated in the system, from the level of the national ministry to the individual sites of learning.

In South Africa, the concept of public administration is used in Chapter 10 of the Constitution, Act 108 of 1996 (Republic of South Africa). Section 195 of the Constitution deals with basic values and principles governing public administration and includes, *inter alia*, the following principles:

195. (1) Public Administration must be governed by the democratic values and principles enshrined in the Constitution, including the following principles:

- (a) A high standard of professional ethics must be promoted and maintained.

(b) Efficient, economic and effective use of resources must be promoted.

(c) Public administration must be development-oriented.

....

(h) Good human-resource management and career-development practices, to maximize human potential, must be cultivated.

(2) The above principles apply to –

(a) administration in every sphere of government;

(b) organs of state; and

(c) public enterprises.

The White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service (1997) comments on the importance of the Public Service in achieving democratic and social goals, and points out the need for transforming human resource management practice in this regard as follows:

Transforming the Public Service into an instrument capable of fulfilling its role depends on many things but, above all, depends on the commitment and effectiveness of its employees, which in turn depend on the way those employees are managed... Transforming the way human resources are managed is, therefore, the catalyst for the transformation of the Public Service itself.

It will also be recalled, that the White Paper on Public Service Training and Education (1997) identified as key to the transformation:

a change in mind-set – ‘a shift from administering personnel to managing people’

(3.1.2);

and,

Human resource practitioners will develop a more professional role, providing advice and guidance to management... (3.1.7).

Public human resource management is also a matter of considerable interest to public institutions, in general, and education departments, in particular, since the performance of every manager appointed in this public enterprise reflects the effectiveness of the education enterprise. The new education policies require educational leaders to work in democratic and participatory ways to build relationships and ensure efficient and effective delivery of quality education. The new departments of education have inherited complex organizational structures and outmoded management styles from the apartheid public administration system. Public administration was, in the pre-democratic era, characterized by an approach that led to a rule-driven, secretive and hierarchical management structure, infused with authoritarian and non-consultative management styles and cultures. Prior to the enforcement of the 1993 Interim Constitution in South Africa, there was no dedicated statutory instrument protecting human rights. On the contrary, the 1983 Republic of South African Interim Constitution was regarded as a serious infringement of human rights. The study also looks at the new education policies in terms of the implementation gap between policy objectives and their outcomes in practice, arguing that what happens when these policies are put into action depend crucially on those who have to carry them out.

1.5 Paradigmatic Debate in South African Public Administration

The broad context of Public Service Management, a genus of Public Administration, intersects with the educational leadership context – an approach which, according to Wessels and Pauw (1999:71), is undergoing massive transformation from one grounded in the apartheid paradigm of ‘this-is-the-way-we’ve-always-done-it’ to a new paradigm grounded in ‘what-is-the-best-way’ approach. The apartheid education system was based on a top-down management and leadership style. To this end, the superintendent of education (management) was more of an administrator, involved in the execution of policies, procedures and arrangements unilaterally formulated by higher authorities, rather than an educational manager or educational leader.

Ranson and Stewart (1994:157) state that effective public management requires a framework for organizational guidance, that is neither the frustration of direct control as it happens nor reliance on professional control alone. The crucial point made here is that organizations have a way of life beyond the requirements of formal rules or the command of hierarchy. Effective public management in the public domain must use that quality to achieve public service

delivery. This, according to Ranson and Stewart (1994:157), requires not direct control but setting the terms within which organizational capacity can develop. Dyk *et al* (2001:148) posit that if it is borne in mind that every manager appointed in the enterprise is appointed solely for aspiring towards its objectives, one may conclude that considerable demands are made on management.

To better understand the paradigmatic shift from public administration to public management, the researcher delved into one of the earliest views on management. Fayol's contribution to the traditional generic administrative process approach is discussed briefly. Henry Fayol (1841-1925), a French industrialist, credited his success to the methods he used, rather than to his personal qualities. Fayol, cited in Hellriegel *et al* (2001:56), felt strongly that to be successful, managers had only to understand the basic managerial functions, namely, planning, organizing, guiding, and controlling, and apply certain management principles to them. On the contrary, Wessels and Pauw (1999:18-19) take the view that public administration includes the *real* functions of public officials, and the job of leaders in public administration is to understand people and issues, not mere generic administrative processes. Fayol's school of management theory, not the bedrock of this research, embodies the no-nonsense structural approach. Reddin (1970:61-65) gives a more detailed classification and periodisation of the developments in management thought:

Table 1.1 Classification and Periodisation of the Development of Management Thought

Emphasis	Those Involved	School of Thought	Dating
Technology	Worker – work	Scientific management	1920
Subordinate	Work climate	Human relations	1930
Collaborator	Manager – group	Group dynamics	1949
Controller	Manager – worker	Management styles	1959
Organization	Manager – organization	Organizational theory	1960
Situation	Manager - situation	Situational management	later

The point of departure in this research is the higher value placed on the human being, but the premise is that the principles of proper leadership can be found and that these principles could

be utilized to inspire subordinates to take up new challenges and to achieve goals. Foster-Pedley (*Sunday Times*, 19 October 2003) captures the essence of leadership when he states that good leadership means letting go of old models and, once one moves away from a rigid, baked-in view of leadership, it becomes easier to see it as a set of qualities that can be developed in others. The researcher believes that educational leaders, specifically superintendents, need to reflect on their own personality, values, behaviour and leadership styles, as it is their own character that is critical in influencing others to implement organizational plans despite difficulties, challenges, and setbacks. Leaders, the researcher maintains, are the custodians of selected values, beliefs and principles that ought to guide their organization's culture.

The theory and practice of South African Public Administration is inevitably influenced by the changes in the South African political, social and educational context. The dominant generic administrative process approach, which was in full swing for many years in the pre-democratic South Africa, has been severely criticized extensively for its lack of relevance that impeded it from leading public administration, in general, and public management, in particular, along new ways. New paradigmatic approaches to the discipline of Public Administration have been suggested in South Africa recently. Some hopeful indications are emerging in the form of an open systems approach to public administration in some quarters. The open systems approach, which incorporates the contingency or situational approach, explicitly rejects the idea of the existence of so-called 'principles of management' and the search for the 'one best way' supposedly universally applicable to all situations. Management should be properly conceptualized in terms of its organizational settings. Wessels and Pauw (1999:79-80) contend that the open systems approach, which invariably includes the situational or contingency school, is generally accepted as the most valid theoretical approach to the study of management. Schwella, in Wessels and Pauw (1999:344), postulates the validity of the theory of public administration as a system managed by people, with people, and for people. Simply put, people direct and manage the effective, efficient, and productive actions of the public administration system. Different situations, and different people, require different styles of leadership. To this end, the situational or contingency theory sees leadership in the context of the environment (time, place and event). The emphasis here is on a fluid view of leadership that sees leaders as negotiators of change and understands that leaders may be called upon to lead in different situations.

1.6 Theoretical Issues in Leadership

A problem in education that has concerned many contemporary theorists is the problem of the relationship between theory and practice in leadership. Houston and Delevan (1990:678) state that public administration research is engaged in relatively little theory testing. At present, theoretical interest in the concepts of leadership 'theory' and 'practice' is expressed in ways that do not fully acknowledge their mutual interdependence and so allow their discussions of the theory of leadership to proceed in virtual isolation from discussions on the practice of leadership. Despite the fact that not much has been written on the relationship between theoretical statements and practical principles in educational leadership, it would seem that educationists continue to cling to an image of theory as incomprehensible 'jargon' that has nothing to do with their everyday problems and concerns. The view of theory held by many professional practitioners in the field of public management is well captured by Caiden (1982:209), who writes:

Practitioners claim they have no use for theory. They say they can perform just as well, and perhaps better, without their heads being filled with theory, conceptual frameworks, ideal models, and verifiable hypotheses. Theirs is the real world of crucial problems that cannot wait, of important social activities that must be carried out that cannot wait...

The approach taken to the study of leadership in this research is driven by a need to demystify the concept 'leadership' by bridging the gap between theory and practice. It sets out to address this misconception by exposing the unique interrelationship of theory and practice of leadership as enunciated in different theoretical frameworks that impact on education, so that educational leaders, specifically superintendents of education (management), may acquire a critical disposition in addressing problems and situations that they encounter in educational leadership.

Marais (1993:118) states that it is possible to focus on theories, models, concepts and other constructs that are used in the subject, Public Administration, to get a grip on the practice of public administration. Superintendents of education (management) are, to all intents and purposes, public administrators who are at the heart of the education system. They are often

referred to as the “foot soldiers” of the department. It is imperative that the superintendent is professionally competent to deal with the challenges and problems facing him or her.

According to Jos and Tompkins (1995:214), the requisite competence involves more than mere technical abilities and knowledge; it also presupposes the ability to manage contextual complexities resourcefully. This assertion is premised on the fact that the profusion of diverse issues, which faces the public manager, demands a radical change of management practices, processes and techniques. According to Mbigi (1994:15), the new management practices will need a firm theoretical base. Advantages that accrue from the knowledge of situational theories are discussed in Chapter Five and Chapter Eight respectively.

It is hoped, therefore, that this research would provide some information with regard to the theory and practice of leadership with particular reference to superintendents of education (management) in the eThekweni Education Region - an area in which very little information on this topic is currently available. This research into the theory and practice of educational leadership has been undertaken at a time when changes in public administration in South Africa make it imperative to align leadership competence with the organization’s strategic agenda and performance. The symbiotic relationship between individual and organizational development within the context of the education system is a central concern of this research. Through a study of leadership theory and the principles of organizational behaviour, the existence of a causal relationship and an effective framework of organizational support, is examined. While drawing upon international perspectives in management and leadership theory, the study is grounded firmly in the contextual realities and exigencies of superintendents who operate in the eThekweni Region.

Moreover, as the management environment in the education sector, and indeed the public sector as a whole, is becoming increasingly complex and dynamic, it is hoped that this research would advance the superintendent’s theoretical, conceptual and practical understanding of leadership. The approach to education management, which the research proposes, is an integrative and collaborative one: ‘collaborative’ in that it involves managers and their subordinates, and ‘integrative’ in so far as it informs all management processes and outcomes in an educational setting. Decisions related to concerns such as public human resource management, derive from premises founded on commonly agreed principles. In this

approach, management is shifted from being an expedient and value-free response towards being a value-driven approach, founded upon consent, interaction and consensus.

The topic was chosen to study, *inter alia*, situational or contingency leadership theories, which stress that to be effective a leader should adopt the leadership style most appropriate to a particular situation and to the subordinates' needs. Every situation in which a superintendent of education (management) is called on to play a leadership role is unique. As a leader in education, the superintendent will often need to work with a range of people in many contexts. The superintendent is, therefore, responsible for the efforts of individuals and groups of people who share a goal and access to resources that they can use in pursuing their goals. An important responsibility of superintendents, however, is to ensure that their subordinates understand their goals and how the achievement of those goals is related to the success of the organization.

1.7 Content Organization

In this study, the researcher offers a theoretical framework for understanding processes of leadership in organizations with particular reference to the education sector. The theoretical framework of this research is developed, by integrating various research perspectives, conjectures, assumptions, and suppositions within an envelope of the 'situational or contingency' theory. The research focuses on an analysis of the actions and self-perceived leadership styles of superintendents of education (management). The study is an attempt, therefore, to respond to the need defined by West and Farr (1990:3-13) for more research into the ways in which people express themselves in the workplace.

In attempting to provide a working context for the chapters that follow, attention will be directed at an introductory consideration of the concepts *theory* and *practice*, the locus of educational leadership in the broad discipline of Public Administration, as well as at an analysis of different approaches to situational or contingency theory and the view of the theory-practice relationship that each sustains.

Chapter 2 debates the presuppositions of education management, and some distinctions and links are made between the concepts *administration*, *management* and *leadership*.

In Chapter 3, an indication is given of the way in which leadership theories and practices, both local and international, have developed during the recent past and their influence on the development of educational leadership. The purpose is to examine different leadership models in an effort to throw more light on the real essence of leadership.

Chapter 4 examines the *hard* and *soft* management tasks that the superintendent has to carry out in terms of the Personnel Administration Measures (PAM) document, the Education Labour Relations Council's (ELRC) collective agreements, the Employment of Educators Act, 76 of 1998, KwaZulu-Natal Circular 134 of 2003, and Regional and Provincial policies. The *hard* aspects of management listed are such aspects as planning, organizing, communicating and controlling. The *soft* aspects are the people-oriented aspects such as leadership style, skills, and personal objectives. The researcher discusses the current approach to management as one, which places too much emphasis on the *hard* components of management, whereas the *soft* components receive too little attention. The point made here is that aspects such as leadership and interpersonal relationships are just as essential in good management as planning, organizing, and controlling.

In Chapter 5, the researcher expounds in detail various contemporary theories that were developed against the background of the situational approach to leadership, the most prominent being Fiedler's contingency model, Hersey and Blanchard's life-cycle model of leadership, the Vroom-Yetton-Jago model, and House's path-goal model of leadership. These models are examined to show the direction in which leadership ought to be moving.

In Chapter 6, the researcher used a broad theoretical framework or paradigm to build the knowledge base of educational leadership. The researcher focused on theories, models, concepts and other constructs that are used in the subject Public Administration to get a grip on the practice of educational leadership. The categories of units of analysis fall into Mouton's (1992:50) taxonomy, which include individuals or collectives, social events and organizational processes. The researcher believed that these categories were useful ways of classifying reality, especially for methodological purposes. These units of analysis were described and

explained by using qualitative and participatory research paradigms. This implied different sources of data, data collecting methods and techniques, as well as different assumptions and values regarding their use. Also, in order to understand the roles and functions of superintendents within the South African context, the discipline of historiography was used to expound on the expectations of a superintendent prior to and after 1994. According to Wessels and Pauw (1999:372), that, due to the different units of analysis, a researcher in Public Administration ought to be able to use a variety of sources, methods, and skills in order to produce valid knowledge about the object of enquiry.

In Chapter 7, the researcher provides an analysis of findings and conclusions reached in the investigation. Interpretation is used in social sciences, generally, and in Public Administration, in particular.

The recommendations made in Chapter 8 are based on the knowledge produced by the study as a whole. The recommendations were informed by the results and the relevant literature, which the researcher believed would contribute to the field of knowledge of educational leadership with particular regard to the way superintendents understand subordinates and situations, and respond appropriately and meaningfully. The research also makes practical strategic proposals for improving education leadership capacity in the eThekweni Region, and for deepening the capacity of superintendents to lead effectively within the educational context.

CHAPTER TWO

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, LEADERSHIP, AND MANAGEMENT
WITH PARTICULAR REFERENCE TO EDUCATION2.0 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the relationship between administration, leadership and management. In light of this, a clear distinction between *administration*, *management*, and *leadership* needs to be drawn.

Wessels *et al* (1999:17-19) state that management as a task in public administration is very important, and the job of leaders in public administration is to understand people and issues, and not processes. Following from this introductory remark, management can be defined as the process of planning, organizing, leading and controlling the resources of the enterprise to achieve stated organizational goals as efficiently as possible. Management, however, is certainly not the whole of public administration. Smit *et al* (1992:11) aver that 'leading' refers to directing the human resources and motivating them in such ways that their actions accord with previously formulated goals and plans. Brech, in Eyre and Pettinger (1999:1), emphasizes the difficulty that occurs when one is required to define 'administration'. According to Brech, the problem is that the word 'administration' is used both to describe the activity of implementing policy decisions and to describe the narrower activity of regulating the day-to-day operations of an organization. In this context, it can be said that management or more specifically, human resource management, is part of administration.

Administration is certainly very much concerned with the implementation of policy, but its freedom of action will be limited by the decisions of policy laid down by those charged with directional responsibilities. Cloete (1997:1) explains the nature of the genus 'administration' as co-operative action. According to Cloete, administration should not be confused with the substance or object of the activity in which the people concerned may be engaged. On the other hand, Van der Westhuizen (1991:32) states that the term 'educational administration' is used throughout in American literature, meaning both administration and management. An analysis of the various definitions of the term 'administration' shows that they can be divided into three categories, the structural and the functional views of administration, and the

view of administration as administrative work. The following definitions indicate that the term 'education administration' has several nuances of meaning:

Metzger *et al* (1968:52) state that structurally, education is a social process concerned with creating, maintaining, stimulating, controlling and unifying, formally and informally, the organized human and material energy within a unified system designed to accomplish predetermined (educational) objectives. According to this view, administration is the totality of structures that are established to make education possible.

Other authors link together the structural and functional views. Owens (1981:127), for instance, states that administration involves the process that helps the organization operate its mechanisms for achieving its goals. Campbell *et al* (1977:102) state that the central purpose of administration in any organization is that of coordinating the efforts of people towards the achievements of its goals. Paulsen (1977:1378) maintains that educational administration is concerned with directing and managing human energy in order to accomplish educational objectives that have been formulated by government authority and expressed in policies. Sergiovanni *et al* (1980:5) aver that administration, as a science, is concerned with describing, explaining, analyzing and predicting organizational phenomena and human behaviour as they relate to the accomplishment of organizational goals. Van Schalkwyk (1981:147) holds the view that in order to create that situation which makes effective education possible, a large number of processes are required which function in conjunction with each other, which are known as educational administration. 'Administration' can also mean that which supports the execution of a task (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:36). In this sense, administration is seen as the more formal and regulative execution of a policy already formulated by higher authority, and is accompanied by procedure arrangements and their execution. Nell (1977:365) warns, however, that it is completely nonsensical to view the field of educational administration as consisting solely of routine administrative tasks such as departmental forms, official returns, and so forth.

On the grounds of the aforementioned statements that education administration consists of the structural and functional aspects of the education system, it can be inferred that the education system itself is a far wider and all-encompassing concept. In the current climate of growing public interest in public administration, it is considered necessary to consider that education administration, too, would include the policy, the controls, the laws and the functioning of the

education system. For the purpose of this study, and based on the information and arguments set out above, it is accepted that educational administration consists of the structural and functional aspects of the education system.

The field of educational leadership is not new, and has long been a part of the broader field of education management or education administration. In South Africa, some people make a distinction between education leadership and education management, but, in this research, these terms will be used interchangeably. For the purpose of what follows, the research will equate an educational leader with an education manager, when speaking of the superintendent of education (management).

2.1 Education Policy Context in South Africa

Since the 1994 elections, the idea of what it meant to be an education leader has changed. The education system in KwaZulu-Natal, like all provinces in South Africa, is undergoing massive changes at all levels. The new South African government and the National Department of Education (NDOE) have introduced new policies and laws to redefine the roles of leading and managing. The South African Schools Act, 84 of 1996, the National Education Policy Act, 27 of 1996, the Employment of Educators Act, 76 of 1998, and other relevant legislation create a whole, new approach to leading and managing schools.

The new approach to leadership and management challenges education leaders to change from apartheid values to the values enshrined in the new Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996. The challenge is to move from the more autocratic, rule-bound approaches that the previous government foisted on civil servants and society generally, to more democratic, accountable and equitable forms of leadership.

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996, requires public sector personnel, including those in the education sector, to operate with values such as:

- democracy
- equality
- human dignity
- freedom, and

- justice.

The above-mentioned Constitution assigns the national government exclusive legislative jurisdiction over both the national and provincial “Public Administration” and “Public Service” (s 197(1)), including all employment related matters (s 197(2)). As a result, the relevant legal parameters are found in both national and provincial education legislation and in national legislation for human resource matters.

2.2 Education Transformation in South Africa

No discussion of policy context in South Africa can ignore the overriding context of transformation both in society, generally, and education, in particular. Smith (1997:126) states that the policy context in South Africa is a system undergoing massive transformation from one grounded in the apartheid paradigm to a new paradigm grounded in the equality of opportunity. Education is a human resource intensive enterprise and consequently transformation quickly translates into human resource-management policy issues. Changing the education system is only possible if there is harmony between the vision for transformation and the day-to-day realities of those working in the system.

To transform educational institutions, one must transform the people working in, and associated with them. This, in turn, means adopting more democratic and participatory forms of management. Mc Lennan (1997:39) writes:

In general, the various systems have been managed in ways that exclude major stakeholders. This problem was one of the root causes of the education crisis. Developing the appropriate practices, norms and procedures to mediate participation will take time and careful planning. Sharing of responsibility has not been a major feature of the old system and establishing partnerships and joint responsibility implies a different means of managing at the institutional level. It also implies the development of new skills and capacities for managing this process both in the Public Service and civil society, at schools, and in training institutions.

The policy direction of transformation has been set forth in various policy papers concerning the public services and education. However, more importantly, this direction has formed the

basis of the new Constitution and the legislation that sets the parameters within which all policy questions, such as educational leadership, must be considered.

2.3 Interrelationships between and Definition of leadership and Management

In reality, leadership and management work together. The researcher contends that, in education, leadership and management are inseparable. The research findings stated (*vide*: Chapter 7) show that a good superintendent will combine the skills of good leadership and management. Leading is about guiding and inspiring, and managing is about getting things done efficiently and effectively. Over the recent past, the nature of management has been transformed in both concept and approach. This is leading, in turn, to the increased professionalization of management. This prevailing view has shifted from technical expertise as the prerequisite to being an effective leader and manager, and towards recognition that there is distinctive expertise required by those who manage, direct and supervise. While it remains true that technical understanding is essential, especially for functional activities, there is a distinctive body of skills, knowledge, attributes, behaviour and expertise that are both distinctive and which should be held by all those who choose management as an occupation.

2.3.1 Public Management Functions

The importance of public managers, as a distinctive occupational category for organizational activities, has long been recognized. However, despite the increasing centrality of public managers in the co-ordination of complex organizational activities, and the enhanced visibility of their tasks and functions, it has not been easy to answer the question: 'What is management?' Part of the difficulty, according to Ackroyd *et al* (2000:26), lies in the ambiguity inherent in the term 'management'. For example, they ask: "Does management designate a collective institutional process or simply a set of individuals distinguished by the activities they carry out?" Morgan (1996: 95) and Poole *et al* (1989: 637) assert that management is a highly complex phenomenon and to hope that a unifying grand theory will explain all its aspects is futile.

2.3.2 Perspectives on Management

Different perspectives on management are shown to apply at different layers. According to Ackroyd *et al* (2000:30-31), there have been three schools of thought that have made use of

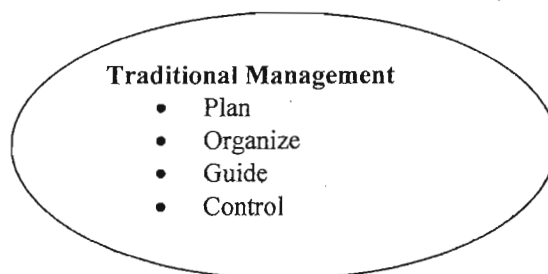
the concept of management functions: the classical school, the systems approach and the historical approach. These three schools of thought are discussed briefly:

2.3.2.1 The Classical School of Management

The classical school of management has sought to define the essence of management in the form of universal fundamental functions. The classical approach, the dominant paradigm in South African Public Administration in the apartheid era, has its roots in scientific administrative management and bureaucratic theory, and represents a search for the 'one best way' and universally applicable principles. This approach has characterized public administration in South Africa for the past thirty years. Officials are seen as implementers of policy formulated by elected politicians. This approach dominated the public service during the apartheid years and infuses current thinking on education management. It is the guiding principle behind the restructuring of many provincial education departments and is characterized by a concern with order and control.

This classical approach focuses on internal efficiency and does not give significance to the environment, to role players in the environment, and to other environmental factors. Ackroyd *et al* (2000:31) state that this perspective on management would form the cognitive basis for a set of relevant skills to be acquired by all would-be managers through formal education. Management functions were rarely derived from theoretical reflection or empirical research, but were very often based on a codification of work experiences of the individuals concerned or on common sense descriptions of management practices. Traditionally, it has been accepted that the essence of management can be summarized in terms of the following four functions: planning, organizing, guiding, and controlling, in a rather pre-set order. Figure 1.1, below, illustrates this point graphically:

Figure 1.1: Traditional Management



Ackroyd *et al* (2000:31), conclude that the classical school or system has not sought to relate explicitly these functions to particular purposes, requirements or functions of organizational subsystems; personal experience or experience of others was the basis for delineating the necessary management functions.

The classical approach, as mentioned previously, has characterized public administration in South Africa for the past thirty years. It focuses on technical administrative functions such as planning, organizing, guiding and controlling. The Task Team on Education Management (1996:20-21) sums up the classical or traditional situation approach to management by reporting that there is little recognition that the education environment is one characterized by a dynamic continuum of change; rather, the public administration legacy treats processes in education as being fragmented and static, with little interrelationship between the different levels of activities.

Officials are seen as implementers of policy formulated by elected politicians. People in leadership positions in education, during the apartheid years, were trained in rigid, bureaucratic management skills, with a primary agenda of keeping schools "under control". Often, people were promoted not for their leadership potential but because they were willing to co-operate in implementing apartheid policies in schools. This approach dominated the public service during the apartheid years and infused much of the current thinking on education management. The legacy of this approach to leadership still lives on within South African educational institutions. It is the guiding principle behind the restructuring of many provincial education departments and is characterized by a concern with order and control. In their attempts to deal with the chaos of transition, many managers in the education system as a whole are focussing strongly on issues such as professionalism, the development of regulatory frameworks and the clarification of roles and functions. This way of thinking focuses on administrative process and generates an approach to management development that emphasises structure. It is largely concerned with defining job descriptions, powers, functions and management relationships.

2.3.2.2 The Open Systems Theory Approach

Building on the classical school, writers in the systems approach have developed the

experience-based descriptions of management functions by grounding the latter on certain objective organizational requirements. According to Carroll *et al* (1987:38-51), organizations have been thought of as consisting of subsystems having their own requirements for survival and effectiveness. The systems approach comprises several authors, such as Robbins (1995) and Hersey & Blanchard (1988), whose contributions range from offering neat and simple frameworks to putting forward highly abstract and theoretically, sophisticated models usually derived from organismic analogies.

The open systems theory, the theory of choice in this research, incorporates the contingency or situational approaches, the preferred paradigm of this study. The researcher contends that management should be conceptualized in terms of its organizational setting. Wessels and Pauw (1999:79-80) assert that the open systems approach, including the situational school, is the most valid theoretical approach to the study of management.

This open systems approach attempts to reduce the emphasis on administrative process. The contingency or situational approach emphasizes the management and leadership functions of managers in the system as a whole. It is concerned with people development, and with the establishment of management systems that support education delivery. The notion of a management team that leads and facilitates change is central to this approach. It depends on management practices that emphasize the devolution of power, mission building, human resource development and education effectiveness. It would develop leadership and technical management skills to ensure effective and efficient delivery within educational institutions as well as government departments. This approach features strongly in the new education policy framework. It implies an emphasis on relationship building, stakeholder participation, the management of diversity, and development.

If South Africa is to break decisively with its past and implement its vision for a new education system, it would be necessary to develop structures and systems appropriate to devolved decision-making within the context of new policy legislation. It would be necessary to draw on approaches that develop the leadership skills to manage people, lead change and support the process of transformation, and develop individual and team competencies especially, the understanding, knowledge, skills and attitudes appropriate to the day-to-day management of education.

2.3.2.3 The Historical Approach

The historical approach traces back the development of management and, thus, seeks to derive the functions of management from a historical perspective. As this approach is primarily located in the development of capitalist economies and investments paradigm, it has little relevance to the research topic.

From the preceding analyses, it is evident that the classical and open systems approaches to management share the assumption that the essence of management can be distilled to a number of functions which need to be carried out in all formal organizations (see Table 1.2), although how they are carried out may differ. The functions of management can be empirically verified by recording observable management practices and type casting them in terms of super-ordinate organizational functions that they theoretically fulfill.

Table 1.2: Management functions *vis-à-vis* organizational requirements (Ackroyd *et al*, 2000:32):

Management functions, organizational requirements	Co-ordination	Internal and now	External and future	Identity and legitimacy
Planning			Innovative function; administrative function	
Organizing	Production function	Production function		
Leading				Institutional Function
Controlling		Production function		

2.3.3 LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

Sterling and Davidoff (2000:12) are of the view that, in reality, leadership and management work together. They are two sides of the same coin. The person in a leadership position cannot be an effective leader if he or she is an incompetent manager. At a practical level, it would not be possible for a leader to guide his or her subordinates towards realizing the goals

of education, if the day-to-day management functions are not there to give structure and support. Thus, leaders need both leadership and management skills to work effectively.

There are, however, differences between management and leadership. The following leadership table (Sterling & Davidoff, 2000:13) lists the kinds of words usually associated with leadership and with management:

LEADERSHIP

guides
 motivates
 initiates
 anticipates
 builds visions
 creates
 moves forward
 inspires
 breaks boundaries

MANAGEMENT

co-ordinates
 organizes
 maintains
 stabilizes
 realizes
 structures
 establishes parameters
 handles
 sets boundaries

The functions of leadership and management are inseparable. They support each other. Functions such as strategic planning, vision building, liaison with subordinates, and staff development can be identified as leadership functions. It is the management of institutions where teaching and learning takes place. Educational management is seen as a process of striving towards the goal of effective teaching and learning. The central purpose of educational management, therefore, is to support, improve and enhance teaching and learning. As well as good leadership, institutions also need good management. Chibber (1993:9) has the following to say about educational leadership and management:

Management has a bottom line focus; that is how best to accomplish a particular goal. However, leadership deals with the top line; that is what goals should be accomplished. Management is doing things right, leadership is doing the right things.

The following table illustrates a comparison between leadership and management (Lois & Miles, 1990):

Table 1.3: Comparison Between Leadership and Management

LEADERSHIP	MANAGEMENT
Leaders set the course for the organization.	Managers make sure the course is followed.
Leaders make strategic plans.	Managers design and oversee the way that plans are carried out.
Leaders stimulate and inspire.	Managers use their influence and authority to get people to work proactively.
Leaders make new things happen.	Managers keep things on track and headed in the direction that has been set.

2.3.4 PRINCIPLES OF LEADERSHIP

According to Sterling and Davidoff (2000: 14-20), there are at least ten principles of leadership that offer a framework for the approaches and values of a leader. These are:

2.3.4.1 Leadership: A Holistic Perspective

When a leader understands the organization holistically, he or she will see the bigger picture. In other words, a leader will see the different aspects which make up the whole: the people who work within the organization, the direction and purpose of the organization, its internal culture, the structures and procedures which keep the organization running from day to day, and the long-term vision for the organization. A leader would understand that the organization operates systematically: each component contributes to the organization functioning effectively and creatively as a whole. By holding this overall perspective, a leader is able to identify aspects of his or her organization that need strengthening, in order to develop the organization in a holistic way.

In the same way, one would view his or her leadership from a holistic perspective. How one sees the world, and how one filters one's experience of it, is closely connected with how one understands and experiences oneself. As one deepens one's understanding of oneself – one's strengths and talents as well as one's fears and weaknesses – one opens up to new ways of seeing and engaging with the world. In other words, one's capacity as a leader increases in step with one's personal growth as a human being.

The organizational and personal aspects of holistic leadership work together. As one develops one's own leadership capacity, one is more able to lead effectively within the organization. As

the organization grows and develops, a manager is offered more challenging opportunities to practise and develop his or her leadership.

2.3.4.2 Leadership: Core Values

There are central or core values that are important to leadership. Values like accountability, equality, fairness, dedication and respect for one another are signposts for leaders. A leader must ensure that these core values are nurtured and brought to life in every aspect of the organization. Often it is small but constant actions and attitudes that help to solidify these core values. A leader should take care to treat each subordinate as a valued human being, with something to offer the organization. Leaders, who create the space for subordinates to offer solutions to problems and to raise new ideas and suggestions, will help to entrench the value of personal responsibility in his or her organization.

2.3.4.3 Leadership: Building a Learning Organization

The essence of building a learning organization is to focus on developing three skills: the ability to be proactive, (to anticipate what is coming and prepare to respond appropriately); the ability to learn through experience (reflection), and the ability to understand that all managers need to learn and develop in what is a life-long process. Sterling and Davidoff (2000:16) are of the view that when a manager sees his or her institution as a dynamic, living, growing organization, he or she begins to build it as a learning organization. This means bringing new idea into the life of the institution, to inspire reflection, growth and change. When a manager understands him/herself, and reflects on how he or she can grow and develop in an ongoing way, he or she opens the way for subordinates to reflect on themselves in the same way.

2.3.4.4 Leadership: Encouraging a Vision

Good leadership requires imagination. Sterling and Davidoff (2000:16) aver that a leader needs to be able to dream and to imagine different solutions to problems. The process of building a vision is fundamental to effective leadership. By encouraging subordinates to work together, a leader encourages them to create an inspirational goal to work towards. A leader also offers a road map of what individuals need to do in the present to realize the vision of the

future. In essence, a leader will need to constantly re-energize the idea of a vision and to keep his or her subordinates on track towards realizing the vision.

2.3.4.5 Leadership: Understanding and Acknowledging the Needs and Contributions of Subordinates

A manager does not take on the responsibility of leadership on his own or her own, in isolation from other people. Good leadership means working together with the people who make up the institution: taking time to understand them, to recognize their needs, to acknowledge their contributions, and to encourage them to fulfill their potentials.

Good leadership means being sensitive to each person within his or her jurisdiction. Sterling and Davidoff (2000:17) are of the opinion that this principle of leadership involves being able to observe who, among one's subordinates, struggles with responsibility and who thrives on it. This also involves being able to get to know each subordinates as a unique individual who has something to contribute to the creative life of the institution. In this way, a leader can draw on each individual's strengths and offer encouragement and support, thereby helping each person to take on new challenges and overcome self-imposed limitations.

2.3.4.6 Leadership: Flexible Quality

According to Sterling and Davidoff (2000:17), there is no fixed or correct way of leadership. They maintain that as a holistic leader, one needs to accept that there is no blueprint to define precisely what one needs to do. Each leadership challenge is unique and requires a unique intervention from a leader. Managers practise a wide range of techniques and leadership responses that he or she can draw on as the need arises. It is this growing leadership capacity, this journey into wholeness, which enables a manager to lead in a flexible way.

As a manager feels more confident about his or her ability to discern which leadership response is appropriate in each situation, he or she will find that he or she no longer wants fixed guidelines to help him or her lead effectively. This flexible quality of leadership also frees subordinates to take on new challenges without fear of failure and judgment.

2.3.4.7 Leadership: Balance, Rhythm and Flow

A leader will coordinate many activities and oversee many different projects. Within each activity or project, a leader needs to encourage balance, rhythm and flow. A leader will need to discern when to allow the process to unfold naturally, when to encourage subordinates to take more responsibility, when to provide direction, when to set boundaries and when to push forward. Each task will have different components: conceptualizing, planning, acting and evaluating. As a leader, one needs to balance the energy that one spends on each stage, from conceptualizing to completion.

2.3.4.8 Leadership: Acknowledging Creative Complexity and Controversy

The situations a leader faces are seldom simple or straightforward. The real-life experience of education is alive and vibrant, full of complexities, conflicts and contradictions that make up the human experience. A leader needs to encourage the hidden, difficult and uncomfortable aspects to emerge, rather than pretend they are not there. When a leader acknowledges the complexity and controversy within the education system, he or she will find that he or she is able to get to the root of things. By acknowledging the difficult, by refusing to ignore problems, thoughts or feelings that exist below the surface, the leader allows subordinates to be open and honest. This, according to Sterling and Davidoff (2000:19), will help a leader to find creative ways of working from out of the difficult and complex.

2.3.4.9 Leadership: Path of Integrity

A leader's task is often to identify the path, which is the right one. Another way to describe it is the path of integrity. This means discerning the path that a leader knows must be followed. It may, perhaps, not be the most obvious or logical path.

When a manager leads with integrity, he or she stays close to the qualities of leadership which he or she values. In this way, the leader chooses growth both for himself or herself and his or her subordinates, rather than choosing what suits the leader best. The leader chooses transparency and accountability, rather than forming cliques to support the leader. This entails staying with the core of the educational purpose, rather than opting for quick-fix solutions.

It can be hard to choose the path of integrity, because it is often more difficult. A leader may need to put himself or herself 'on the line' to defend his or her subordinates' points of view.

There are, however, rich rewards. Integrity will be established as a core value within the working relationship. Subordinates will be encouraged to make clear and strong choices. As a result of this relationship, a leader and his or her subordinates will offer an expression of integrity in an educational context that sometimes seems to have lost its way.

2.3.4.10 Leadership: Modeling the Way

Subordinates look to a leader for clarity and direction. That is why, as a leader, one needs to model the way. This, however, does not mean that the leader must be perfect or always doing everything just right. Modeling the way means that what a leader thinks and believes in is in agreement with what a leader says and does. For example, if a leader wants his or her subordinates to bring the core value of honesty to life, he or she would need to embody honesty in everything he or she does. Should a leader wish to encourage subordinates to work towards a vision, he or she would personally need to believe in and constantly affirm that vision. In this way, the leader acts as an inspiration to his or her subordinates and, consequently, provides an example that subordinates can follow.

An analysis of these ten guiding principles of leadership proffered by Sterling and Davidoff (2000) provides a means to understand the ethos of leadership. To this end, leadership is not a set of quick-fix skills or techniques that a leader can learn and apply. Rather, it is a process of inner and outer development. The qualities of leadership develop in an ongoing way. As they develop, they change the way the leader acts towards his or her subordinates.

The expansion of leadership qualities through personal and organizational development is a lifelong process. The ten principles provide a framework for organizing thinking around leadership. Harding (1988:23) is also supportive of the view that leadership requires the use of different abilities, qualities and ways of leading in different situations. He describes leadership qualities in the following way:

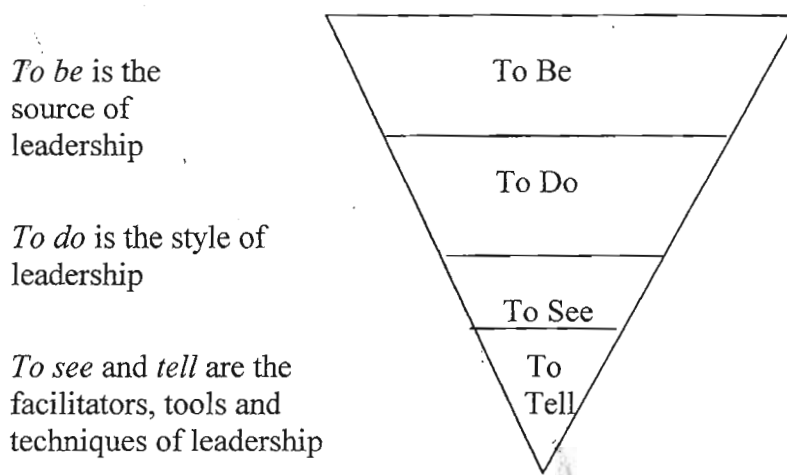
Leadership calls for different parts of oneself, different modalities and approaches, at different times. Organizations and communities develop, grow and change, people differ, and circumstances vary. The leader should be able to tap different parts of him/herself appropriate to "the time and the place", so to speak. These are some of the parts one is expected to play: nurturing, challenging, supporting, confronting, strategizing, evaluating, visioning, facilitating, structuring, managing, freeing, encouraging, and so on. We have an

orchestra inside ourselves, and we need to learn to play all of the instruments rather than just a few; and we need to be able to conduct, to allow all of the different parts of ourselves to play as one whole. To gain mastery of oneself – if one wants to lead others.

2.4 Leadership Model

The following model, adapted from Chibber (1993: 17-19)) explains the role of the leader's character (Figure 1.2)

Figure 1.2: Chibber's Leadership Model



The diagram highlights the concept of holistic leadership. What is evident is that leadership is a process by which educational leaders direct and influence subordinates to perform educational tasks. In order to achieve these tasks, educational leaders must create and establish an enabling and supportive environment. Leadership is about dealing appropriately with subordinates. Leaders need to reflect on their own personality, values, behaviour and leadership styles.

To be represents a person's values, qualities, personality and knowledge. These are key factors in influencing followers. For this reason, the *to be* aspect is depicted as the largest component in the diagram. *To be* represents the sum total of the leader's character.

To do indicates that the best style of leadership is to lead by personal example. Leadership by example is considered the most powerful technique of influencing subordinates, and Chibber (1993) calls leadership by example the method of silent persuasion.

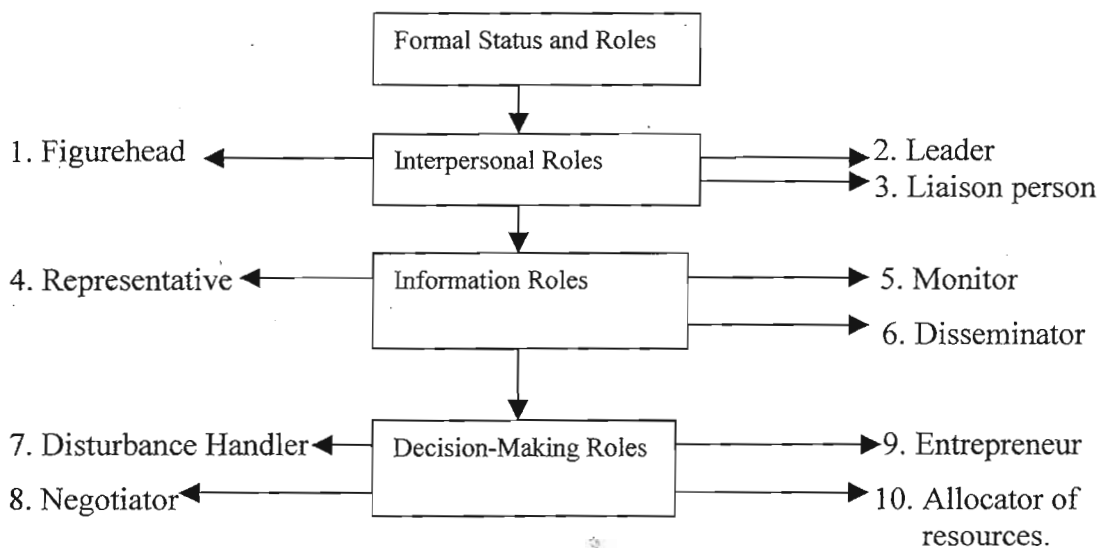
To see implies that leaders must be fully aware of the environment in which they operate and they must have all the relevant information at hand. Only then, can leaders evaluate options, engage constructively in solving problems and make sound decisions. This is important for critical leadership, that is, leaders can review and reflect on practices and make the necessary adjustments. *To tell* means conveying to subordinates what leaders want them to do. Telling is effective if instructions are clearly communicated. Chibber (1993) believes that if leaders have good qualities and sound knowledge, and they lead by personal example, then very few words are necessary to convey what they want to be done.

2.5 Management Roles

In his study of managerial work, Mintzberg (1973:27-37) criticized the classical school of management for offering universal prescriptions of what managers ought to do, but bearing little relationship to what managers actually do. His empirical study, which follows, sought to redress this imbalance.

Mintzberg (1973:27-37) concluded that managers' jobs could be analyzed in terms of ten interrelated roles, namely in terms of ten different sets of behaviours that are attributed to managerial positions (*vide* Figure 1.3). These ten roles were further grouped into three major categories: interpersonal, informational and decisional roles. Similar studies have described various types of roles – not too different from those of Mintzberg – that managers perform in the execution of their tasks. Mintzberg's assumption seems to have been that management is whatever managers do.

Figure 1.3: Ten Management Roles According to Mintzberg (1973:59):



The analysis of management roles, namely the analysis of organized sets of behaviour identified with managerial positions, attempts to deal with directly observable practices of superintendents of education (management) in carrying out their duties. This type of analysis is certainly valuable in offering a picture of what superintendents do, and research at this layer will have to deal with essentially contingency or situational questions: what are the contingencies or situations which are systematically associated with how the superintendent's managerial roles emerge, demise or gain importance? It seems plausible to assume that it is at this layer that management will be most fluid, and context dependant.

Two distinctive perspectives on management roles have been presented briefly. Each one of them refers to only certain aspects of management. The management roles perspective focuses on the observable practices of managers and attempts to offer a typology of the various management roles, as well as to link the latter to various task, organizational, and environmental contingencies. Mintzberg's role description is a representation of the

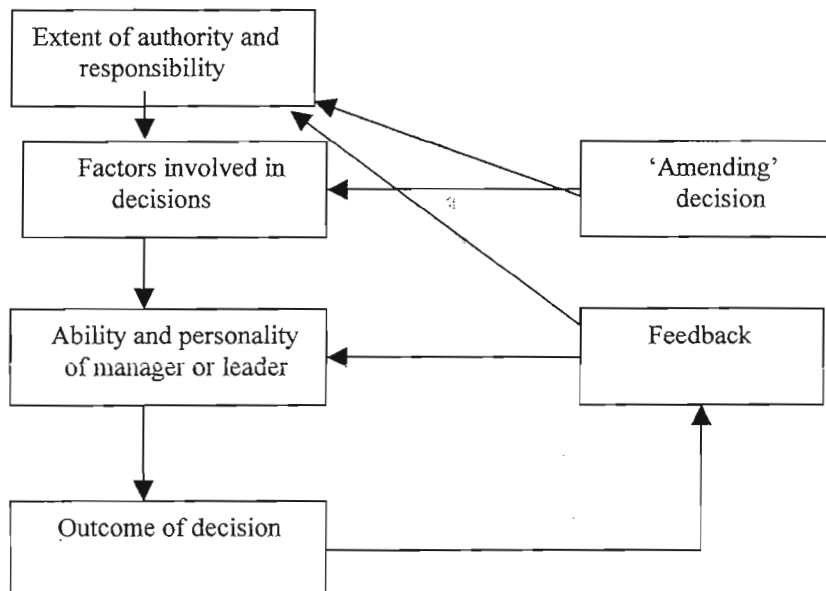
manager's task as an integrated whole and the organized set of expectations which determines functioning of the office of the manager (Van Buuren, 1979:54). Moolman (1978:55) found that the educational leader's management roles fit into Mintzberg's model. The authority also provides him or her with a certain status that leads to interpersonal contact and relationships. This authority also gives the manager access to certain information. By means of this information, he or she has to make certain decisions. This authority also gives the manager access to certain information. By means of this information, he or she has to make certain decisions.

Mintzberg's (1973) analysis and description of ten management roles convincingly demonstrated to the researcher the importance of interpersonal activities, and consequently of interpersonal skills in management, and it is apparent that an educational leader fills these management roles. Hersey *et al* (1988:171) refer to this aspect of leadership as relationship-behaviour. Mintzberg provides an idea of the management tasks of an educational leader. His management roles approach gives a clear description of the formal and official tasks of a manager and a description of what a manager has to do. Hersey *et al* (1988:171) refer to this task behaviour.

The management roles perspectives focus on the observable practices of managers and attempt to offer a typology of the various management roles, as well as to link the latter to various task, organizational, and environmental contingencies. The management task characteristics perspective outlines the dominant features of management tasks, while the management functions perspectives delineate the functions managers need to carry out in response to given organizational requirements. The rationale behind the conceptualization of management as a layered structure has been the following. For a particular set of management roles (i.e. what managers actually do) to be possible, management tasks (i.e. what managers have to do given the organizational nature of their activities) must possess certain characteristics. Leadership can only occur when there is more than one person involved in a project; that is, in order to have a leader there must be followers. Leadership seeks to bring about a change in the persons being led – that is, leaders endeavour to alter the perceptions and behaviour of their subordinates either by coercion or persuasion. Similarly, for management tasks to have the features that they do, certain management functions need to be carried out. Finally, for management functions to be what they are, managers must have a certain nature that endows management with a theoretically necessary way of acting.

Of particular significance to this study, is the comment by Eyre and Pettinger (1999:176) that the qualities that make a good leader will be determined to a large extent by the circumstances under which the leadership has to be exercised; or rather the attributes that are actually brought into play will be so determined. In other words, different situations will require the display of different qualities from the same individual. Eyre and Pettinger (1999:176) underscore the point that being a manager also entails being a leader, and equally a leader needs to be a manager. He asserts that in management studies, “it is unnecessary and pointless to draw a distinction between the two”. Eyre and Pettinger (1999:176) describe the steps, they believe, are involved in the exercise of management or leadership. This is illustrated below.

Figure 1.4: The Exercise of Management or Leadership (Eyre and Pettinger, 1999:176)



Within these confines, it is possible for the researcher to infer that authoritarian management and leadership rarely works. Within all situations, and given the vagaries of public sector management, there must be a guiding set of core principles on which the management and leadership style are based. Eyre and Pettinger (1999) believe that participative management exists where everyone involved is kept informed of decisions and progress. People, therefore, understand why those responsible for long-term future and success of the organization have taken the decisions that they have taken. It also becomes very much easier to understand

why those responsible for long-term future and success of the organization have taken the decisions that they have taken. It also becomes very much easier to understand unpleasant decisions, even on the part of those directly involved. Research in the field of 'changing management to manage change' by Fullan (1998), Leithwood *et al.* (1996), and others, signifies that the participative style is the most effective vehicle for change, and this is of especial value in the current state of the management world. The participative, democratic and consultative approaches feature prominently in this research.

From the above definitions, there appears to be a measure of consensus among the various authors that leadership involves influencing subordinates to act towards the attainment of goals. Moreover, they concur that leadership is based on interpersonal relationships and not merely on generic administrative activities and directives. Leadership can be exercised throughout an organization, and often the best organizations comprise effective leaders at all levels. Successful leadership depends on the leader establishing trust, clarifying the direction in which subordinates should be headed, communicating so that subordinates feel confident that they can make the right decisions, encouraging others to take risks and finally, leaders must have a source of power.

Both Mintzberg's and Eyre and Pettinger's lists of attributes or qualities are important to this study. The researcher bases his assumption on the premise that qualities or attributes of leadership enable a manager to exert a positive influence over the task and relationship behaviours of his or her subordinates. Further to this, the researcher postulates that the qualities or attributes that contribute to effective leadership will be determined to a large extent by the circumstances, contexts and contingencies, which that leadership has to exercise; or rather the attributes that are actually brought into play will be so determined. In other words, the researcher contends that different situations will require the display of different qualities or attributes from the same leader. Very generally, the qualities that a leader needs to possess are those described by Chibber (1993), Mintzberg (1990), and Eyre and Pettinger (1993), above for a manager because, to all intents and purposes, being a manager also entails being a leader, and equally a leader needs to be a manager. In point of fact, in the literature reviewed by the researcher, it appears pointless to draw any major distinction or separation between the two.

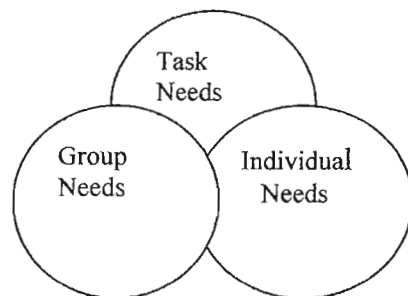
2.6. Definitions of Leadership

A review of literature indicates that there are several definitions for 'leadership'. Each emphasizes a different aspect of leadership. It is useful to highlight the views of Glueck and Jauch (1984) and Rothwell and Kazanas (1994), cited in Dyk *et al* (2001:115). They contend that, if there is one thing that can make or break successful implementation of any strategy – whether for any organization, human resources, staffing activities, or human resource development – it may well be the leadership of the strategy. According to these authors, successful implementation depends on appropriate leadership, because strategy is a human manifestation requiring human guidance.

Sterling *et al* (2000:12-13) provide an important dimension of leadership. They state that in reality, leadership and management work together. They are two sides of the same coin. The researcher has indicated in the section on the interrelationships (*cf.* 1.4) that educational leaders need both leadership and management skills to work effectively and efficiently. By inference, then, a superintendent of education in an education leadership position cannot be an effective leader if he or she is an incompetent manager.

According to Stogdill (1974), as quoted in the *Sacred Heart College Research and Development Unit* manual (1999:9), leadership involves a process of influencing group activities, setting goals and achieving these goals. Eyre *et al* (1999:176) define leadership as the quality that enables a manager to exert a positive influence over the behaviour of subordinates. Thomson (1993:90) provided the researcher with a useful way of looking at leadership, by using a simple diagram of interlocking circles.

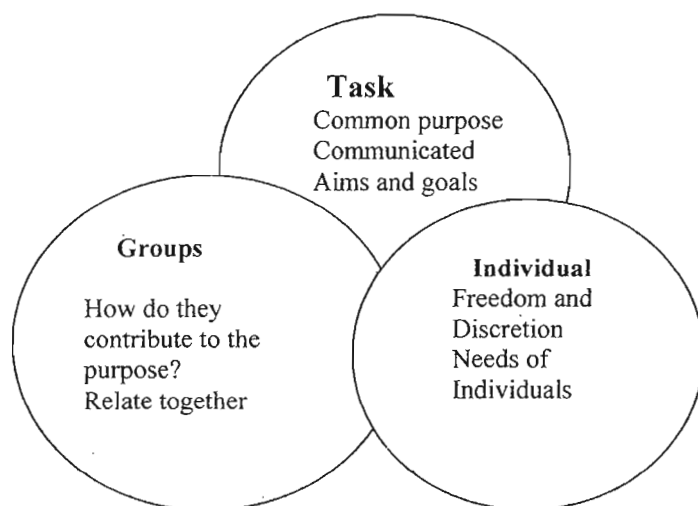
Figure 1.5: The Three-Circle Model: Thomson (1993:90)



According to the Thomson's (1990) three-circle model, the leader of the team needs to be related to the task that is being carried out, the needs of the team, and the needs of

individuals in the team. Adair (1983:90-91) offered a more expansive model (*vide*: Figure 1.6) in which he suggests a number of questions that a leader might consider in each of the areas identified in Figure 1.5.

Figure 1.6: Development of the Three-circle Model of Leadership (Adair, 1983)



It would appear that both Thomson and Adair's three-circle models of leadership imply that a leader has to be all things to all people – a tall order indeed. For this research, the implication is that a leader is expected to balance the interrelated demands of the task and the team as well as those needs of individual members. What this would mean to superintendents, as leaders, is that they would need to be directive when it is necessary, give constructive feedback when subordinates need it, and ensure that everyone and everything is operating to its full potential. Leadership, according to Du Toit *et al* (1998:181), goes beyond the influence a person acquires with the formal authority he or she gets as the result of an appointment to a formal position. It is important, however, that not all managers are good leaders (Du Toit *et al*, 1998:181). This assumption is borne out by the findings in Chapter 6, which revealed that, while some superintendents may be able to plan and make sound decisions, they may not have the ability to motivate and lead their subordinates.

Ivancevich *et al* (1994:389) define leadership as the process of exercising influence over other individuals. Hellriegel and Slocum (1988:465) describe leadership as the capacity to influence, inspire and direct the actions of an individual or group in order to reach predetermined goals. Lundstedt, cited in Gortner (1981:165), defines leadership as the

ability to influence the behaviour of others in a group or organization, set goals for a group, formulate paths to the goals, and create some social norms in the group. These definitions, like the ones before them, emphasize the centrality of competent leadership to every public service organization. Gortner (1981:164) suggests a potential outcome of failure in leadership behaviour on the part of the public manager. He is convinced that, even the work performance of the most competent and highly motivated subordinates, can be inhibited by a weak leader. By the same token, this would apply to a leader who pursues the wrong goals or the wrong paths to the right goals, or a leader who fosters behavioural norms that are inconsistent with the expectations of the subordinates he or she is supposed to be leading. The researcher supports the view of Clapper (1981:164), that leadership should seek to bring about a change in the persons being led, and simultaneously contribute to a change in the perceptions and behaviour of the leaders themselves.

Very generally, then, the qualities that a leader needs to possess are those illustrated graphically in Figures 1.2 to 1.5, namely Chibber's leadership model, Eyre and Pettinger's exercise of management of leadership, Mintzberg's ten management roles, and Thomson's three-circle model of leadership. In addition to these, Smit and Cronje (1997:279) provide practical examples of what a leader should do. They expand on the definitions given above to include activities such as transmitting information to subordinates; formulating the organization's mission, objectives and plans and explaining these to subordinates; giving orders and instructions to subordinates; taking steps to improve the performance of subordinates; sanctioning subordinates, and dealing with conflicts. For the researcher, both task-related and relationship-oriented dimensions constitute what may be described as the crucible of leadership. Consolidating the definitions of all of the above authors, the researcher concluded that, in its simplest form, leadership is seen as the relationship and interaction between 'superior' and 'subordinate'. It is, ultimately, the influence of a leader on his or her subordinates and, conversely, the influence of a subordinate on a leader. Against the backdrop of the nature of leadership and, to chart the way forward for this study, leadership can now be defined from a management perspective as that which influences and directs the behaviour of individuals and groups in such ways that they work willingly to pursue the goals and objectives of the organization.

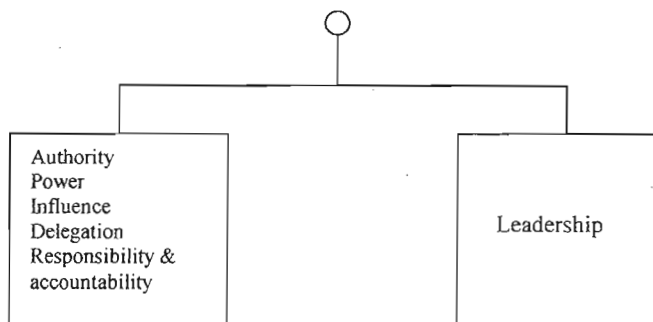
2.7 The Components of Leadership

Against the preceding overview of leadership, it is clear that leadership is a complex management function and the definitions formulated above are merely an attempt to give direction to the numerous perspectives on the concept. Smit and Cronje (1997:280) state that there are at least five components of leadership, namely, authority, power, influence, delegation, responsibility and accountability.

Smit and Cronje (1997:280-281) draw a distinction on the use of these components of leadership. According to them, authority is the right of a leader to give orders and demand action from subordinates. Power, however, refers to the ability of a leader to influence the behaviour of others without necessarily using this authority. Influence is the ability to apply authority and power in such a way that followers take action. At times, the task of a leader might also involve passing his or her authority on to a subordinate to do something on his or her behalf. This is known as delegation and entails subdividing a task and passing a smaller part of it on to a subordinate together with the necessary authority to execute it. The final component of leadership is accepting responsibility and accountability. Leaders have the responsibility of performing a task according to orders, and have a duty to account for their actions.

Figure 1.7 below, depicts the five components of leadership according to Smit and Cronje (1997:281). They contend that, for the sake of good leadership and the effective management of the organization, the delicate balance of the different leadership components should be maintained. It may be deduced, therefore, that excessive authority may mean an autocratic leadership style, which could *undermine* the motivation of subordinates.

Figure 1.7: Five Components of Leadership (Smit and Cronje, 1997:281)



Similarly, a subordinate can accept responsibility for a task and account for himself or herself only if a manager delegates enough of the right sort of authority to him or her. It could be added, further, that knowledge of the interaction and maintenance of the balance of the components of leadership is important to an understanding of the concept of leadership.

7.1 Authority and Leadership

On occasion, every leader is also a manager who has to ensure that his or her subordinates work together to attain the objectives of the organization. Without authority, a manager cannot manage; he or she cannot set the management process in motion and keep it going. Authority, therefore, entails having the right to perform certain actions according to specific guidelines, the right to say who must do what, and the right to expect people to do their duty.

Delegation is in a certain sense the source of authority, and managers delegate authority to subordinates so that they, in turn, can perform certain functions. Managers in the public service do not wear visible signs of their recognized authority, but authority is assigned to a specific position or rank in the organization in the same way (Smit & Cronje 1997:282). The right to expect others to act, however, is allocated to a particular manager not only by the organization, but also by members of a group who feel that this person has the ability to act as a leader. The new education policies require education leaders and managers to work in democratic and participatory ways to build relationships and ensure efficient and effective delivery of quality education for learners. Superintendents, by virtue of their positions, find themselves in the frontline of the struggle to develop new ways of doing things in education.

Van der Westhuizen (1991:225) states that management tasks are based on authority, freedom and responsibility. Management tasks are actions carried out by the educational leaders in the process of dealing with a certain situation. Without maintaining authority and authority being accepted, it would be difficult to manage. Management also has a unique authority structure, which means that the execution of a specific management task will give rise to a unique manner of maintaining authority in different situations.

2.7.2 Power and Leadership

Leaders can influence their subordinates and apply authority effectively because a leader has power of one kind or another. As leaders, managers may utilize various sources of power to influence their subordinates in a given situation when necessary. Smit and Cronje (1997:282) maintain that a leader without power would not be able to influence his or her subordinates properly to voluntarily perform their duties in the productive attainment of the organization's objectives. They are of the view that power, or the ability to influence the behaviour of others, has nothing to do with a manager's position in the hierarchy and is not acquired through a title in an organizational diagram.

To this end, a leader must earn the ability to influence the behaviour of subordinates. This may be the reason that a person who has both authority and power is far more effective than a manager with authority. One of the most useful frameworks for understanding the power of leaders was developed by French and Raven (1993). They identify the following kinds of power:

2.7.2.1 Legitimate Power

Legitimate power refers to the formal authority that the organization grants to a particular position or influence based on the leader's formal position in the hierarchy. Thus, a manager has the right to compel subordinates to perform their duties and to dismiss them if they do not. Legitimate power is, therefore, the same as authority. However, the fact that a manager does have legitimate power does not necessarily make him or her a good leader.

2.7.2.2 Reward Power

Reward power is the power to give or withhold rewards. Hellriegel *et al* (2001:284) describe reward power as the influence stemming from a leader's ability to satisfy subordinates' needs. In other words, subordinates act on a manager's requests in the belief that their behaviour will be rewarded. Du Toit *et al* (1998:182) view reward power as the provision of rewards by allocating organizational resources in exchange for collaboration. The greater the number of rewards conferred by a manager and the more important these rewards are to subordinates, the greater the manager's reward power.

2.7.2.3 Coercive Power

Coercive power is the power to enforce compliance through fear, either psychological or physical. There is certainly no question of physical violence in a contemporary organization, but psychological or emotional fear of dismissal is a kind of power that managers can use to bring pressure to bear on their subordinates. Hellriegel *et al* (2001:284) state that coercive power is usually less effective than reward power. In this regard, coercive power can be viewed as the antithesis of reward power, where the threat of sanctions induces subordinates to cooperate.

2.7.2.4 Referent Power

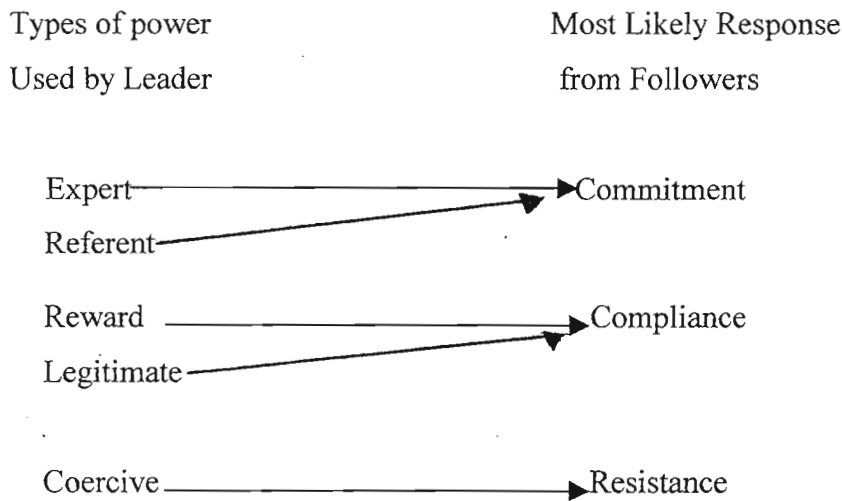
Referent power refers to personal power and is a somewhat abstract concept. In this situation, subordinates follow their leader simply because they like, respect or identify with him or her. In other words, the leader's personal characteristics make him or her attractive to his or her followers. Such a leader is said to have charisma and/or excellent reputations. For Du Toit *et al* (1998:182), referent power has, as its source, the personal attributes of the leader, which are esteemed by followers, and which enhance their admiration, cooperation and loyalty.

2.7.2.5 Expert Power

A leader's specialized knowledge grants that person expert power. It is a key source of power for managers at present and will continue to be so in the future. Du Toit *et al* (1998:182) contend that expert power is based on the leader's technical and functional expertise and knowledge in a certain field, and enhances the esteem of the leader in a situation in which experience or knowledge is required. Subordinates act on the leader's recommendations because of the leader's knowledge.

Figure 1.8 illustrates the consequences of using Five Types of Power used by leaders (Hellriegel *et al*, 2001:284).

Figure 1.8: Consequences of Using Five Types of Power



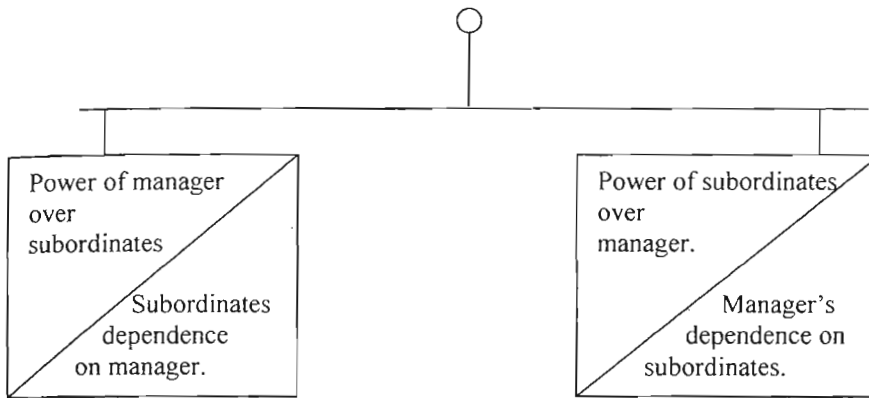
According to Hellriegel *et al* (2001:284), the leader's use of different types of power can lead to one of three types of behaviour in followers: commitment, compliance, or resistance. Peffer (1994) states that committed subordinates are enthusiastic about meeting their leader's expectations and strive to do so. Subordinates who merely comply with their leader's requests will do only what has to be done – usually without much enthusiasm. In most cases, resistance by subordinates will be expressed as appearing to respond to their leader's requests while not actually doing so or even intentionally delaying or sabotaging plans.

As figure 1.8 shows, expert and referent power tends to result in subordinate commitment, legitimate and reward power tends to result in compliance, and coercive power tends to result in resistance. Referent power usually leads to high levels of performance. Hence, effective leaders are likely to rely on expert, referent, and reward power, using legitimate and coercive power only minimally. Legitimate power is effective when a manager simply requires a subordinate to perform a task that is within the subordinate's capabilities and job description. In some situations, coercive power may be effective in getting subordinates to comply with rules.

Du Toit & Cronje (1998:283) believe that a manager who possesses all five kinds of power is a strong leader. However, not only managers or leaders have power – subordinates also possess it. Managers, for instance, sometimes depend on their subordinates for information. Managers should, therefore, realize that subordinates also have power, and they should use

their own power judiciously and only to the extent necessary to realize their objectives. Effective managers use their leadership or power and that of their subordinates. Figure 1.9 illustrates the balance: Smit & Cronje (1997: 283):

Figure 1.9: Balancing the Power of Managers and Subordinates



2.8 Conclusion

The epistemological debate that is taking place in South Africa is between a school of thought that adheres to the traditional approach to Public Administration, and a school of thought that strives to introduce innovation and new content into academic efforts and professional actions of public administration in South Africa (Wessels and Pauw, 1999:334). The generic administrative process approach was the dominant paradigm in South African Public Administration. Groenewald (1992:68-71) states that the generic administrative approach is systematically biased towards internal aspects of bureaucracy rather than the relationships between the system of public administration and its complex societal environment. It is fact that at the time of the dominance of this approach, Public Administration academics were generally of the same type as the government of the time and shared the political opinions of the previous South African Government.

Presently South Africa has had several years of democratic government, and processes of transformation are underway in the public sector and academic institutions. These transformational processes will once again affect the academic and theoretical debate. On the professional practice side the social and political context has brought such issues as

representativity and effectiveness in governance to the fore. This has been done by, *inter alia*, the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act 108 of 1996, and recently the in-depth analyses of the Presidential Review on the Transformation and Reform of the Public Service, which was appointed during 1996.

The related question is of course whether the previous dominant paradigm has been sufficiently challenged in the education sector by new emerging paradigms, and whether these new possible paradigms hold the promise of being more critically challenging than the previous administrative process approach. Another related question is the extent to which the new possible paradigms have been rooted and are growing in the collective minds of professional practitioners. If new paradigms are neither systematically stronger nor shared by a substantive group of educational leaders, their potential to influence the current reality is limited. In the next chapter, an overview of attempts at providing new paradigmatic points of departure for superintendents will be provided. The question that this research attempts to answer is how widely have these new paradigmatic approaches to leadership and management been distributed and taken notice of within the relevant professional community. In light of the foregoing, it becomes imperative to focus on a few public management theories. The next chapter focuses, therefore, on a survey of international literature dealing with education leadership.

CHAPTER THREE

LEADERSHIP IN THE CONTEXT OF EDUCATION

3.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses a number of examples of leadership from different jurisdictions of the knowledge, growth and skills required of leaders in education.

3.1 Aims of Education Leadership

A survey of international literature dealing with education leadership would be incomplete, if attention is not given to the aims of leadership. These aims are briefly discussed below.

3.1.1 Leadership in the Guiding Task of the Educational Leader

The concept of leadership is important in education. Van der Westhuizen (1991:187) states that in contrast to management, which indicates a job, a profession and a calling, leadership is a characteristic. Analysis of the word *leadership* shows the root of the term to be *lead*. It is thus of importance to determine who must lead and where. It is a generally accepted notion that the aims of education, and with them educational practice, should be determined by the manager's view of life. For that matter, the aims of education are determined by the aims of life. The manager's view on life or worldview should determine his or her view on education. However, this is not always possible since managers have to, at times, design the educational structures round the decision-makers in society. It is therefore possible that politicians' or even administrators' views can become integral parts of the education structure and systems.

Leadership may be described as the integrated and dynamic application of the leader's abilities in an authoritative manner, which will convince, inspire, bind and direct followers to realize a common ideal. Potgieter (1972:39) suggests that inborn characteristics (*trait theory*) are essential for a leader, but the effectiveness of his or her leadership may be improved by learning to deal with and to direct people in a specific group context. Other

researchers are of the view that the ability to lead is not only an inborn faculty: there are also specific techniques and skills that are needed in this respect to carry out specific tasks. For the purpose of this research, it is important to look at leadership as a management task, as the educational leader's style of leadership plays a specific role in his or her management actions and will influence his or her management tasks. The expression that "leaders are born and not made", no longer applies. Leaders can be born and made. It is true that a good leader should have certain talents and skills, " but these skills are not peculiar to 'gifted' individuals (Prentice-Hall editorial staff, 1974:83). What is crucial to this research is the understanding that leadership can be acquired in the same way that knowledge is gained.

The interdependence between management and leadership should be apparent if leadership is seen as follows (Prentice-Hall editorial staff, 1974:417):

Leadership is the process of working with other people to identify and achieve common goals in a meaningful way. The one element that is absolutely necessary to any program involving people is leadership. Without the ability to lead, a manager cannot be effective even though he (sic) may be an extremely erudite person.

If it is recognized that the educational enterprise consists of people and that one has to work with people daily, it is clear that building relationships should be emphasized as one of the most important aims or tasks of an educational leader. It is also clear from the above discussion that building relationships and guiding are influenced by the educational leader's leadership qualities.

Since leadership may be regarded as filling a particular role in the group, it may also be analyzed according to interactions. From the various efforts to define leadership, it would appear that the interaction between the leader and the subordinates is emphasized. Guiding is an action of influencing through which a leader constantly inspires, guides, and equips his or her followers for the fulfillment of the objectives of the organization. Although a leader is usually more visible than his or her followers because of the nature of his or her task, he or she should try to maintain a balance within the group and ensure that each person in the group is aware of his or her particular task and role.

A survey of the research on leadership provides the following description of the aims of leadership:

- Leadership is a way of interacting, and more specifically of communicating between a leader and his or her subordinates.
- Leadership is a way of stimulating the group into activity to achieve goals within the group's interests, capabilities, and ideals.
- The leader fills a certain role and has a certain status. This status role of the leader implies that a certain amount of authority, influence, power, and prestige has been awarded to him or her.
- Leadership is the ability to be creative and to stimulate responsible action on the part of subordinates.

Leadership may thus be summarized as the calling and characteristics through which the leader in creative and dutiful ways stimulates, directs and co-ordinates group interaction and activity in a specific situation on the basis of group goals and with a view to their eventual attainment. From this viewpoint, leadership in a management context may be seen as that human quality or factor which guides an organization towards achieving its goals by means of voluntary collaboration of members of that organization, in other words, with the co-operation of the people of that organization.

Educational leadership is the process by which superintendents direct and influence subordinates to perform educational tasks. In order to achieve these tasks, superintendents must create and establish an environment to assist all subordinates to work to their full potential. Therefore, educational leadership is largely about influencing behaviour to achieve educational excellence. Leadership is about dealing appropriately with people. If educational leaders are to influence other people in their charge, they need to understand their subordinates, in particular, their personalities, what motivates them, their values and the difficulties they experience.

Educational leaders need to build interpersonal relationships based on a philosophy of respect for human dignity. Furthermore, leaders need to reflect on their own personality, values, behaviour and leadership styles, as it is their own character that is critical in influencing others to follow them. Mintzberg (1973) is one of the authors who expounded

on this topic. Mintzberg's role description is a representation of the manager's task as an integrated whole and the organized set of expectations which determine the functioning of the office of the manager (Van Buuren, 1979:54). According to Mintzberg (1973:60), leadership entails the interpersonal relationships between the education leader and his subordinates. Mintzberg correctly regards the leadership role as the most important role of a manager (educational leader). One of the tasks as a leader is to integrate individual needs and organizational objectives. This integration is what Getzels *et al* (1968:77) refer to as the ideographic (graphic representation of ideas by symbolic characters) and nomothetic relationships in a school. The leadership role of the education leader invests him or her with power and his or her action, as a leader, will determine how much of his or her power is realized.

Leaders set out to accomplish a vision or mission. These are accomplished by using resources effectively, the most important of which is people. Therefore, good and efficient leaders harmonize and integrate the needs of the task with that of the people they lead at an individual level and at a group level. Thus a leader needs to find a balance between task, individual and group needs (Figure 1.2).

This balance is explained in Figure 1.2 below (Chibber, 1993:26)



3.2 Review of International Perspectives on Leadership

This section provides an overview of the varieties of competencies retained in various countries. According to Rupert (1995), leadership differs across international boundaries. He states that Americans emphasize co-ordination, co-operation with people, understanding and delegation as the most important leadership qualities. This is possibly a

reflection of their democratic way of life. The British leadership profile sets great store by general fortitude, integrity, discretion, and willpower. Europeans stress the quality of leadership or supremacy, natural authority, discipline and inspiration and see themselves as a reflection of the European aristocratic tradition. The German management elite manifests authoritarian tendencies to retain the leadership function for themselves, and tend to delegate authority only for routine functions. For the purpose of this research, attention will be given to leadership expectations within the field of education in Canada, Australia, and the United States of America.

3.2.1 Essential Criteria for School Administrators in Ontario, Canada

Leithwood (1997:1-79) makes reference to one school district in Ontario that has designed a document to be completed by aspiring educational leaders. The document, referred to as the *Essential Preparation Criteria for School Administrator Positions* (EPCSAP), was the product of the Ontario Ministry of Education and Training. This document specifies the following areas of current knowledge, growth and skills that the candidate has developed over time through experience in the educational environment. These include, *inter alia*, the following:

- developing and maintaining positive relationships among various groups for a common purpose;
- supervising staff in professional growth, improvement, and discipline situations;
- demonstrating effective management and leadership skills;
- providing effective staff development for other staff members.

The *Essential Preparation Criteria for School Administrator Positions* (EPCSAP) focuses primarily on (a) general leadership skills, and (b) instructional leadership. It is a generally known fact that the appointments of Superintendents of Education (Management) in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education are often executed in an arbitrary manner with, arguably, very little attention given to the general leadership and instructional leadership proficiencies and essential expertise of the appointees. In the Canadian experience, however, education administrators are subject to an evaluation instrument that acts as a key

performance indicator of the suitability of persons aspiring to or appointed to leadership positions in education.

3.2.2 General Leadership Skills

Below are some of the components and elements of educational leadership contained in the EPCSAP document (Scheerens and Bosker, 1997):

3.2.2.1 Articulated Leadership

According to the above category, the school leader:

- has a clear and explicit view on how the educational institution has to be managed;
- provides clear and unambiguous leadership;
- has considerable discretion;
- plays a major role in initiating new policy.

3.2.2.2 The School Leader as an Information Provider

In this category, the school leader needs to observe the following:

- degree, timeliness and quality of information provision;
- adequate dissemination of information;
- channels information so that it reaches the relevant people involved;
- ensures that there is enough information on the work of colleagues in order to reach sufficient coordination of tasks.

3.2.2.3 The School Leader as an Orchestra of Participative Decision-Making

For participative decision-making, the following are prerequisites for leaders:

- uses a clear decision-making procedure;
- decisions are supported by a sufficient number of staff;

- decisions are taken on the bases of sound and well-grounded information;
- the time needed to take decisions is fair;
- decisions are taken by the whole team;
- engages personnel in education policy making;
- ensures that decisions taken are carried through;
- innovation is not hindered by decision-making;
- is firm in adhering to rules and agreements;
- feels that engaging others in decision-making stimulates effectiveness.

3.2.2.4 The School Leader as a Coordinator

- an initiator of staff meetings

Under instructional leadership, the time devoted to educational versus administrative tasks, the leader as a meta-controller of education processes, the leader as a counsellor and quality controller of educators, the leader as a facilitator of work-oriented teams, and the leader as an initiator and facilitator of staff professionalization form the foundation of the instrument. The researcher found it useful to highlight some of the criteria contained in the category, instructional leadership. For the purpose of the study, the following factors are relevant:

- division of leader activities over administrative/organizational, instructional leadership and own professional development;
- the degree to which subordinates are satisfied with stimulating effectiveness-enhancing leadership;
- subordinates are happy with the relationship with the leader;
- subordinates experience support, appreciation, counselling and feedback from the leader;
- the leader encourages subordinates to exploit their talents;
- the leader supports subordinates who need help in carrying out improvement measures;

- stimulates subordinates to improve their professional craftsmanship;
- encourages the staff to work as a team;
- encourages a clearly established division of labour;
- special skills of subordinates are taken into account when tasks are divided among staff;
- monitors the general orientation of the various tasks;
- ensures that different routes are aligned;
- monitors the attainment of educational objectives;
- has an open mind with respect to initiatives to improve the quality of education;
- takes appropriate action when desired educational and organizational aspects are not fulfilled;
- the leader and team talk labour desired changes at educational institutions;
- the subordinates are invited to put forward improvement proposals;
- a supportive attitude of the leader with respect to the implementation of new methods of work;
- the leader emphasizes the importance of team development and further education;
- the leader encourages further education of educators in a selective, targeted way.

Contextualizing the role of the education leader is important in any case but particularly so when the education context can vary widely, as is the case in South Africa.

Contextualization is not a simple or a superficial process but involves unpacking the organizational and individual layers that make up an educational institution, as Davidoff puts it: “penetrating beyond the symptoms of dysfunctionality” (Davidoff, 1997:110-111). The above discussion proffered by EPCSAP is no more than a brief explanation of the principles and procedures on which systematic selection of school administrators is based.

Perhaps the significance of the processes is that they ground the selection process firmly in job-related considerations; they seek relevant evidence systematically from a wide range of

relevant sources; they derive evidence not just from past form but also use techniques to assess latent talent, job-related abilities, and final decisions are arrived at systematically. The predictive validity of systematic selection approaches is infinitely superior to practices that are characterized as traditional ones. One of the major implications of the foregoing is the need to ground the role and competencies expected of education managers *cum* leaders in the crucible of the school, including its past, current and future realities. As suggested by the African National Congress (1995:8), policies about education leaders are doomed if one ignores these realities:

Almost all education and training policy will come to grief in practice if it does not win the support of two essential constituencies: those who are expected to benefit from it, and those who are expected to implement it. Coercion is a recipe for disaster. South Africans know this from bitter experience, and we ignore the lessons from our educational past at our own peril.

3.2.3 Major Perspectives in North American Policy and Practice

Leithwood (1997:1-79) examined the knowledge and skills required of the contemporary education manager and noted that there were two major perspectives in North American policy and practice: the functional and the cognitive. Of particular interest regarding the former, is the work done by the *National Policy Board for Educational Administration* [NPBEA], which developed twenty one domains of knowledge and skills considered essential for effective education leadership, regrouped in four clusters, as shown in Table 1.4 (Leithwood, 1997:1-79):

Table 1.4: Domains of Knowledge and Skills for Effective Management

Knowledge and Skills for Effective Education Management
--

Functional domains:

delegation leadership information collection problem analysis judgment organizational implementation

Programmatic domains:

instruction and the learning environment curriculum design guidance and development staff development measurement and evaluation resource allocation
--

Interpersonal domains:

motivating others interpersonal sensitivity oral and non-verbal expression written expression
--

Contextual domains:

philosophical and cultural values legal and regulatory applications policy and political influences public relations

3.2.4 Council of State Officers (CCSO): US

In another United States initiative, the *Council of State Officers* [CCSO] has established certain guiding principles orientating the creation of national standards. According to Leithwood (1997:1-79), the mandate of the CCSO is to develop standards that:

- acknowledge the changing role of the educational leader;
- recognize the collaborative nature of educational leadership;
- should be high, upgrading the quality of the profession;
- should be integrated and coherent; should be predicted on the concepts of access, opportunity, and empowerment for all members of the education community

In its document, the CCSO aims to focus on what it deems are the core of effective leadership. This document leads in two directions. First, a deliberate attempt is made to achieve what is referred to as “a parsimonious model at the standard level”. Second, a deliberate attempt is made to focus on matters of teaching and learning and the creating of successful learning environments. In essence, a school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of educational institutions by:

- facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a vision of education that is shared and supported by subordinates as well as the other role-players and stakeholders;
- advocating, nurturing, and sustaining an organizational culture conducive to staff professional growth;
- ensuring management of the organization, operations, and resources for an efficient and effective learning environment;
- collaborating with subordinates and other stakeholders responding to diverse interests and needs;
- acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner;
- understanding, responding to, and influencing the larger social, educational and cultural context (Scheerens *et al*, 1997).

3.2.5 The Queensland Standards Framework: Leadership in Education

The State of Queensland, in Australia, has developed the Standards Framework as a basis for recognizing an individual leader’s personal development profile (Queensland

Department of Education, 1997). The model is built on what are identified as the six key roles of school leaders. These roles consist of:

- leadership in education;
- management;
- people and partnerships;
- change;
- outcomes;
- accountability.

According to this framework, each of the key six roles has two types of competencies. Best practice competencies are considered to be the knowledge, skills and behaviours of the leader as exemplified by collective site-based actions of personnel at the work site. Competencies of this nature are drawn from data provided by educational leaders and subsequent field consultation. The best practice competencies are exemplified through:

- collective site-based actions – actions which are consistently demonstrated by individuals and groups who comprise the site;
- specific underpinning knowledge and understanding – the current specific knowledge and understanding that underpins this competency;
- context indicators – the scope and complexity of the context in which the actions occur. Within this document, the context indicators provide examples of the scope that applies to particular actions. Defining scope may include such components as values and perspectives;
- evidence – valid, authentic, current and sufficient evidence of actions and knowledge and understanding. According to the document, evidence collected will be appropriate to a person's leadership and realities of the work-site;
- personal performance competencies are described as underlying characteristics of managers, indicating behaviour across situations and over time.

These competencies provide “an indicator of the types of behaviour which support the achievement of leadership goals” (Leithwood, 1997:1-79).

The above model of leadership in education is particularly interesting as leadership in education is exemplified through the performance levels and personal actions of the education leader. It emphasizes the following best practice competencies:

1. Collective site-based actions that would indicate whether the education leader and his or her subordinates are involved collaboratively in shaping their vision, and whether the organizational values and goals are understood and promoted.
2. Specific underpinning knowledge and understanding would indicate how site-based vision, values, future directions and culture impact on the development of the partnerships and operational plan.
3. Personal performance competency would indicate whether the education leader leads through vision and values.

The following table 1.6 indicates the performance levels and personal actions of the leader (Leithwood, 1997:1-79):

Table 1.6: Performance Levels and Personal Actions of the Leader

<u>Performance Levels</u>	<u>Personal Actions</u>
<u>Informs people:</u>	Keeps people informed about decisions which impact on how their roles contribute to the work unit's objectives.
<u>Delivers the objectives:</u>	Makes sure the practical needs of the work unit are met and resources are available to deliver the objectives. Aligns work-unit's activities to the goals of the department.
<u>Seeks a leadership role:</u>	Positions self as a leader and promotes the work unit in the wider community. Recognizes the importance of developing the vision and values for the work unit, and develops and implements long-term objectives for the work unit.
<u>Implements the vision:</u>	Develops and communicates a vision for the work unit, which seeks to deliver the best results for clients. Ensures that others commit to the vision, goals and agenda. Aligns day-to-day activities to this vision and values to achieve overall goals.
<u>Lives and breathes the vision and values:</u>	Coordinates and communicates a collaborative vision which sets the strategic direction for the work unit and which generates excitement, enthusiasm, confidence and commitment to the vision and direction. Lives and breathes the vision and values; instills pride in work unit achievements; is prepared to stand by decisions which may be unpopular or controversial but that benefit the work unit over the longer term.

The review of some international perspectives of educational leadership brings two dimensions to the fore. It gives a useful framework for explaining both the variety of relationships in an educational setting and the concomitant interpersonal behaviour. It provides an integrated view of educational leadership. In educational leadership, therefore, attention should not only be given to the manager's task-orientation or task-relevant style, but also to the manner in which tasks are carried out, that is, relationship-orientation or people-orientation. Task behaviour, therefore, refers to the directional actions of the

education leader concerning the task or work to be done. On the other hand, relationship behaviour or people orientation, according to Van der Westhuizen (1991:97), refers to the degree of support given to subordinates by the education leader through:

- personal encouragement and support
- consideration of the ideas and opinions of others
- recognition of good work
- confidence in the abilities of subordinates
- encouragement of reciprocal communication.

The Michigan study, under the guidance of Likert, cited in Stoner and Freeman (1992:475), also identifies two basic forms of leadership, namely task-oriented leader behaviour and employee-oriented leader behaviour. In task-oriented leader behaviour, the leader is concerned primarily with careful supervision and control to ensure that subordinates do their work satisfactorily. This leadership style implies pressure on subordinates to perform. According to task-oriented leaders, subordinates are merely instruments to get the work done. In employee-oriented leader behaviour, the leader applies less control and more motivation and participative management to get the job done. This leadership style focuses on people, and their needs and progress. Thus, where the first leadership style stresses the actual job, the second concerns the development of motivated groups. Likert showed a preference for the second approach, because the Michigan research found that production performance was higher among employee-oriented leaders than task-oriented leaders. In the first group, job satisfaction was high and labour turnover and absenteeism low, while exactly the opposite was true of task-oriented leaders. One conclusion that can be drawn from the Michigan research, which identified the two divergent leadership styles, is that leadership does not have only one dimension, and that both dimensions, that is, task-oriented and employee-oriented leadership, may be necessary for successful leadership.

Relationship behaviour or people orientation refers to the degree of supportive behaviour or actions of the educational leader towards the staff who have to carry out tasks. This synthesis management approach is probably the most popular in modern times (Reynders, 1977:67). This theory is task-oriented (based on the classical-scientific management approach), but it is also people-orientated (based on the human relations approach). It is

important that the synthesis management approach not only emphasizes the management skills of the educational leader but also emphasizes that he or she should have the skills to form relationships. According to research conducted by Lindeque (1980:229), it appears that the value orientation of the educational leader plays a role in his or her organizational relationships and that values jointly determine the management effectiveness and the management behaviour of the educational leader.

The international perspectives on educational leadership indicate that an attempt is made through the synthesis management approach to keep a balance between the task and the person, the one who holds authority and the subordinate. With this no fault can be found, as management is an interwoven activity. Influence of the synthesis management approach may be found in various recent theories. Management is seen as an all-embracing human activity that cannot be explicated in terms of one theory only. In essence, then, the leader and his or her task are emphasized as two important dimensions, which should be in equilibrium with one another.

The Canadian, North American, and Australian initiatives provide a balanced perspective on management and are of great value to the educational leader. It is evident from the foregoing, that humanistic ideologies such as behaviourism, determinism, mechanistic approaches, pragmatism and nominalism are present in existing leadership perspectives. However, for the purpose of this study, no attempt has been made to discuss these ideologies since the aim in mentioning them is only to indicate that existing leadership theories contain elements that are in conflict with the presuppositions.

Based on the foregoing discussions, it may be said that educational leadership is all embracing and necessary for the functioning of learning sites. According to Robbins (1980:53), educational leadership is a complex and interwoven activity and a multi-faceted issue and should be approached from various angles. This means that educational leadership needs a unique approach without absolutizing a particular feature, and shows that educational leadership should be a balanced activity.

It is also apparent that educational leadership is an integrated activity that should include people in order to bring about educative teaching. It is apparent, too, that the emphasis of educational leadership should not be placed only on the educational leader, because this

would make management one-dimensional and its dynamic nature may be lost. Good leadership should therefore be both task and people-orientated. Tasks should be clearly described and subordinates should be motivated. In the context of education, therefore, it means that the educational leader must consider the staff, management activities, resources, needs, desires, objectives, the given situation, rules, policies and regulations – in other words, virtually everything – in his or her management activities. Only in this way, can authority be exerted, and only in this way will authority be accepted.

It should be clear that leadership in education is in every way an interwoven activity, and this unique quality of educational management cannot be ignored. The implication is that there must be a partnership in education with a resultant 'interwovenness' in the management activities of the various people, or of the partnership. The international studies show that the different values that are interwoven with the educational leader's management tasks, consciously or unconsciously, influence his or her leadership. In the management tasks of planning and organizing, the activities of people are the focus, while in leading or guiding the interaction is *with* people. In leading, the emphasis shifts to the interactions between the educational leader and the people involved through which tasks are initiated and kept in motion.

Leading may be regarded as the management task which gives direction to the common activity of people to ensure that they execute the tasks to achieve the set goals. Reynders (1977:45) maintains that leading or guiding is a creative, initiating, activating, and motivating activity. Leading is the work, which an educational leader must carry out to allow other people to operate effectively. The importance of leading is that it is the management action that not only ensures the completion of specific tasks but also that the tasks are well done. However, leading also ensures voluntary co-operation. Motivation is necessary for this and entails direct contact with subordinates.

According to Marx (1981:276-278), effective leadership can be achieved if attention is given to the following aspects:

- There should be a healthy and objective relationship between the education leader and the subordinates.
- The educational leader must be motivated.

- The actions of subordinates rather than their personal qualities should be the focus.
- Subordinates should have the opportunity to satisfy and achieve their personal needs and ambitions.
- Personal goals should be reconciled with those of the learning institution wherever possible.
- Care should be taken that directives are received and interpreted correctly.
- It must be ensured that work is initiated and remains in progress.

From the above discussion, it becomes eminently clear that various actions are embodied in the process of leading subordinates to carry out specific tasks. The way people conduct themselves is mainly determined by their feelings (Allen, 1964:240), and it is therefore necessary for the manager to consider the feelings of his or her subordinates and, more importantly, to direct their feelings to effect optimal achievement of the goals of the organization. Van der Westhuizen (1991:182) lists the following criteria as being supportive actions:

- building relationships
- leadership and guiding
- motivation
- communication

Staff motivation remains one of the most crucial elements of a productive and happy workforce. Indeed, it is one of the most significant factors in managing people, according to Allen (1964) and Van der Westhuizen (1991). While no single motivational style is better than another, it is essential that leaders are aware of their style and are able to adapt to different circumstances. Similarly, the job of the leader in the workplace is to get things done through employees; hence, the leader should be able to motivate employees.

In spite of enormous research, the subject of motivation is not clearly understood and more often than not poorly practised. To understand motivation, one must understand human nature itself. And therein lies the problem. However, the essential skill is in knowing what

motivates people and satisfying the needs of individuals and groups at a given time. From the work of Allen (1964) and Van der Westhuizen (1991), it may be deduced that motivation means taking account of and balancing the needs of the organization and its objectives as well as the needs of the people expected to achieve those objectives. It can be deduced further that there are strategies for motivation, a few of which are:

- positive reinforcement
- effective discipline
- treating subordinates fairly
- satisfying subordinates' needs and
- setting work related goals.

3.3 Establishing Relationships as a Leadership Task

Relationship building traditionally is not incorporated in the list of management tasks, but in recent literature increasing attention is paid to this element in management. The type of person an educational leader is and how he or she establishes and maintains relationships are very important.

The building of relationships is also important as it involves human interaction. Various studies show that human orientation is one of the axes of management and that good human orientation, that is, the building of relationships, can lead to sound leadership. Building relationships is important in the educational context, as the educational leader should establish a satisfactory relationship with every subordinate. For Newell (1978:5), establishing relationships is important at educational institutions because:

- only people are capable of attaining educational objectives;
- establishing good relationships facilitates healthier interpersonal relationships; and
- people are dependent on each other for their continued existence.

The building of relationships entails establishing a relationship with one's work, with the organization, and with the figures of authority who are important. The three components,

according to Deep (1978:15), form the basis of sound relationship building. It would be the task of the educational leader to ensure that sound relationships are established between him/herself. The relationships that have to be established must be in accord with the social systems theory of Getzels *et al* (1968:52) who state that structurally education is a social process concerned with creating, maintaining, stimulating, controlling, and unifying, formally and informally, the organized human and material energy within a unified system designed to accomplish predetermined objectives. In building relationships, there are certain aspects which play a role and which can be learnt, and if they are kept in mind, every educational leader should be in a position to establish sound relationships. Some of these principles are given below (Allen, 1964:246; Marx, 1981:282-283; Teichler, 1982:66):

- It should be remembered that the person is important. This refers not only to the work a person can do and how he (*sic*) may be of service. An interest should be shown in the staff member as a person.
- One should believe in the abilities of staff members to make contributions.
- The opinions, insights and feelings of staff should be considered.
- Staff should be drawn into the formulation of objectives for the institution in the short and long term.
- Exchanging ideas can increase creativity.
- Sound relationships are established and developed through openheartedness.
- The education leader's value system, that is, philosophy of life, should be compatible with that of the staff.
- Tasks should also be allocated to subordinates according to their personalities to ensure optimum co-operation.
- The potential of every subordinate can be better utilized through motivation.
- The leadership and management style of the education leader will influence his (*sic*) ability to build relationships.

- Effective communication and communication channels should be used.
- Group morale and togetherness should be purposefully cultivated to promote loyalty.
- Responsibilities can be delegated.

Van der Westhuizen (1991:185) uses the above principles in support of his claim that an educational leader should have some knowledge of the following matters:

- leadership
- motivation
- satisfying needs
- dealing with conflict and modifying behaviour
- group dynamics.

Certain characteristics and behaviour of an educational leader may promote or disturb human relations. Research done by Teichler (1982:236-237), showed that the following characteristics and actions were among those that promoted sound relationships:

- humanity
- justice
- consistency
- decisiveness
- recognition
- personal interest and
- strong leadership.

In contrast, some research showed that the following characteristics and actions affect sound relationships adversely:

- indecisiveness
- autocracy
- bias

- tediousness
- egoism and self-aggrandizement, and
- treating subordinates as novices.

A review of the latest trends in leadership styles and techniques, presented in a somewhat simplistic but profound way, is found in the article entitled, "The twelve new leadership skills" cited in the *Executive Digest Magazine* (1999:66). The article asserts that leading from the top down has become a thing of the past; so has the notion that the leader has to have all the answers. In the article, the refreshingly new leadership styles and techniques are suggested. In brief, these are:

Leaders are good listeners. People are good listeners when they are interested in what goes on around them. A good leader should always be keen to hear what is going on, and as such needs to have good listening skills. The biggest drawback to the development of this skill is the arrogance of believing a leader knows it all and does not need to waste time listening to subordinates.

Leaders do not blame, they learn. Even the smartest leader makes mistakes, can underestimate or overestimate situations. The important thing is for the leader to acknowledge what has happened and to fix it with the skills available and the co-operation of all.

Leaders continuously encourage others to achieve higher goals. The quest for excellence and growth for self and others is part and parcel of good leadership. Leaders are keen to continuously motivate their subordinates to strive for achievement and success.

Leaders set the example. Leaders are conscious of their responsibility to practice what they preach.

Leaders are both confident and modest. A healthy ego is good for leadership, provided it never becomes a blinding factor. Leadership is not about increasing one's power base any more, but rather about wisely empowering others.

Leaders are authentic. Subordinates follow leaders because they trust them, and they are trusted because they come across as real people with integrity.

Leaders provide direction and vision. This is not the same thing as providing all the answers. Leaders stay abreast of developments in their industry, and in work/efficiency methods and tools. They communicate and share their knowledge and ask the right questions, and set the right challenges to create the same mindset for all in staying alert to developments.

Leaders protect their people from dangers but do not hide realities. Most people secretly, or openly, fear change, and that is why leaders have to be courageous and adept at introducing change and innovation; they have to know how to inspire people and to tackle the changes even when deep down they understand that most people dislike leaving their comfort zones.

Leaders bring about innovation but remain loyal to core values. The secret is to know what has to be changed for improvement and what should not. Not all formulae or systems have to be changed, but some must in order to guarantee survival and success in today's world.

Leaders create and maintain internal communication networks. Leaders know how to get people who normally do not interact with one another to do so; and they encourage dialogue and discussion to stimulate exciting ideas and solutions.

Leaders network with their peers. It is crucial for people at the top to keep in touch with others in leadership positions in order to exchange views, challenges, and even problem-solving tips.

The true function of a leader is to develop other leaders. This is the golden rule. The success of the organization is dependent on a leader's ability to identify other leaders within the organization and to introduce plans to develop them.

From the foregoing it may be inferred that work is a continuous process, which requires collaboration at all levels of the organization. The ideal situation would be to harness the commitment of peers and subordinates to enhance effective task performance. In order to

manage people effectively, the demands made by the leader ought to be realistic and attainable. On the down side of this, however, is that many managers have aligned themselves to the concept of optimal outputs to maximize the work environment. They are bent on ensuring that targets and objectives are met at all costs. This does create discord amongst significant actors in the workplace as power sharing is diminished and authoritarian and hierarchical structures are accentuated.

Certain techniques and skills can be acquired for the purposes of being a leader in terms of the criteria mentioned above. To be a relevant and credible leader, the educational leader should earn his or her leadership role or position of leader. Prentice-Hall editorial staff (1974:417) endorse this view when they state that earning a leadership role or position of leader is important, since modern culture and a more sophisticated cadre of principals and educators do not provide the education leader with followers as a matter of course, unless he (*sic*) deserves leadership.

What these researchers are essentially saying is that to be a professional leader, an educational leader should have a clear view of the needs, possibilities, and duties of leadership. Leaders cannot influence their subordinates by personality alone. A democratic leader will not limit others, will not force his or her will on others, will not oppose change, will not fear that differences may arise, will provide leadership by means of conviction and reason, will not seek his or her own gain, will use his or her authority to serve common progress, and will maintain and respect the ideals of those he or she is leading. Moreover, if this does not happen, leadership is meaningless and does not provide direction, that is, if it does not aim for the realization of effective education. Teichler (1982:230) states that the following conditions provide constructive direction for educational leaders:

- the integrated cultivation and application of so-called best personality traits.
- The gaining of knowledge and insight into the principles, which form the basis of his (*sic*) calling and leadership, and the acquisition of increasing competencies in the application of these principles.

From the foregoing discussion, it would appear that the type of person an educational leader is, as well as the way in which he or she behaves as a leader, would determine how he or she executes his or her management tasks. It is also clear that leadership requires certain techniques and skills that may and should be mastered by educational leaders. Leadership is, therefore, not merely a position but something that should be effectively executed.

Leadership, as a management task, also implies that educational leaders work with people such as colleagues and subordinates within the context of the educational organization. These people have to be mobilized and put in motion to achieve the desired goals. Knowledge of motivation and human behaviour in an organizational context is therefore required. According to Beach (1970:445), motivation is the preparedness to expend energy to achieve a certain goal. Marx (1981:193) agrees with this by saying that motivation is all the effort that is used by a leader to encourage his or her staff and colleagues to willingly achieve to the best of their abilities.

For some authors, motivation is so important in their entire management action and in the leadership task, that it is elevated to the position of the most important of all management tasks. In this regard, Megginson (1977:357) states that, "Management is motivation". Owens (1981:106) states that to be able to understand motivation, the needs that initiate behaviour and actions in people should be understood. Motivating revolves to a great extent around the idea of action, and the actions of people carry the stamp of purposefulness, direction and perseverance. According to Gorton (1976:55), motivation takes place when an educational leader is at the point where tasks must be executed. The education leader requests, orders, directs, motivates and convinces staff towards the fulfillment of his (*sic*) goal. This means that by delegating authority, co-operation is obtained, and the possibility created wherein a person may express him/herself. It may be concluded that a person does something because he or she has a particular reason for doing so. An educational leader should, therefore, make use of the link between a person's action and his or her motives by using it in a positive way to achieve educational goals.

3.4 The Education Legacy in South Africa

It is only over the last few years that authoritative descriptions of educational institutions

in South Africa have become available. The picture that emerges is a frightening one of inequality in resources of all kinds including education leadership. Education management remains characterized by bureaucratic approaches and authoritarian management and controls. The researcher is of the opinion that the crisis in education can be attributed to the lack of legitimacy of the education system as a whole. Principals, educators and even superintendents themselves have consistently been at the receiving end of top-down management structures. They have all worked in a regulated environment and have become accustomed to receiving direct instructions from departmental officials. Management development practices in the past have tended to focus on the collection of qualifications and certificates with little attention being paid to actual ability to transfer this newly acquired knowledge to the institutions in which managers work. South African education is in a process of reconstruction and change. For many involved in education, the context feels unstable. For people in leadership positions within education, this context presents an enormous challenge. The leadership challenge is to bring a sense of hope and possibility back into the terrain of the education system, to rekindle a sense of working together to bring about localized transformation within a shifting environment. There are, according to Sterling and Davidson (2000:7), three old ideas or perspectives of leadership which keep leaders trapped in the past:

Firstly, the perspective that leadership means keeping control. During the apartheid years, people in leadership positions in education were trained in rigid, bureaucratic management skills, with a primary agenda of keeping institutions "under control". Often, people were promoted not for their leadership potential but because they were willing to co-operate in implementing apartheid policies in schools.

The legacy of this approach to leadership still lives on within South African education institutions. There is a tendency for people in leadership positions to focus primarily on the administrative, technical and bureaucratic functions of leadership, without integrating the skills of vision building, transforming the organizational culture of education institutions, and so on. For the bureaucracy, the major roles of education leaders are administrative and controlling. This could include passing down policies and notices from head office, distributing resources, conducting inspections and audits. The education leader also provides services to support educational institutions in policy implementation. Here, the leader is in a hierarchical relationship with personnel and institutions; with

institutions and personnel accountable to the education leader, and the education leader accountable to the central office. Bureaucratic leadership takes the constrained position. It constrains people by rules, misplaced authority and power, and seniority. Management through personal leadership also represents a constrained position. In both approaches, decision-making and choices are rational, determined by goals and consequences of particular actions.

Secondly, problems are perceived as being 'out there'. In the past, there was a tendency to see problems experienced as external or based 'out there'. Under apartheid, educational institutions were confronting complex issues: unequal education for different races, a curriculum tightly controlled to reinforce apartheid ideology, management structures that were part of the apartheid state structures. During these years, the external constraints and pressures facing education were enormous, and many were externally imposed. In post-apartheid South Africa, this pattern of seeing problems as being "out there" has persisted.

Thirdly, educational institutions are fixed and rigid structures. Institutions have been viewed in a very narrow way in South Africa. Seen as fairly unchanging, fixed institutions, they have been expected to tick over regularly from day to day, guided by external policy parameters established by education departments. However, institutions are not rigid structures. They are dynamic organizations, which change and develop in an ongoing way. This development is strongly influenced by the commitment and energy which leaders offer to the institutions. In other words, the leader's role is to encourage transformation within the institutions by inspiring and motivating subordinates and peers to realize their potentials.

3.5 Styles of Leadership or Management

Leadership in organizations, especially the style that is most likely to be effective in carrying out decisions, has been the subject of much enquiry. Writers such as Hersey and Blanchard (1977), Fiedler (1967), and Bennis (1988) wished to discover a means by which a theoretical match could be made between leadership style, on the one hand, and some desired outcome on the other. Bennis (1988) found that successful leaders share four behaviour patterns. First, they have a vision. Second, they know how to communicate their vision simply and clearly to others. Third, they know how to generate trust in their

subordinates because they behave consistently in their pursuit of their vision. Fourth, they take a close look at their own behavioural strengths and weaknesses.

Leadership is concerned with the human aspect of management (Eyre *et al*, 1999:177). It therefore follows that the style of leadership has a direct bearing on the overall management style. Leadership styles fall along a spectrum of control. At the one end, the leader's style might be autocratic and authoritarian. At the other end, it might be democratic and participative. It is, therefore, necessary to understand the variety of different leadership styles available.

It is necessary, also, to understand the effects of particular situations on leadership style. For instance, the leadership content and approach necessary to manage a group of newly appointed educators is very different from that required to direct a coordinated team of skilled professionals all expert in their work and accustomed to working together. In the first case, it is probable that close and sympathetic attention will be required, whereas in the second case, leadership is likely to consist only of general guidance and acceptance of ultimate responsibility.

Within all situations, and given the vagaries of educational management, there must be a guiding set of core principles on which the leadership style, both of the organization as a whole, and also of its departments, is based. This is, in turn, reinforced through procedures and policies, relations between staff and managers, relationships between departments, divisions and functions, and direction from the top. Within these confines, it is possible to define the different types of leadership styles as follows:

3.5.1 Autocratic or Authoritarian Leadership

This above style is leader-centred and can be dictatorial. This type of leader wants to have her or his own way and he or she alone determines policy (Getzel *et al*, 1968:37). The leader takes all the decisions and only certain tasks are allotted to staff. The leader takes full responsibility for the decisions made and ensures that set goals are attained. The fact that there is only one-way communication between the leader and the group is characteristic of this type of leadership. The leader creates needs among his or her staff, which previously did not exist. These needs are the leader's needs, which he or she wants

to realize through his or her staff. The leader is the ruler and, as it were, the commander. The leader gives instructions to staff members individually instead of delegating via a pyramid structure. According to Reynders (1977:47), this type of leader is inclined to dominate and has difficulty in working with others. It is true, however, that autocratic forms of leadership do exist, and according to Eyre *et al* (1999:176), can be more effective. However, their continued effectiveness is dependent upon the extent to which those in charge continue to be prepared to take an enlightened view of the world and their capability not to become corrupted by the very position of their own autocracy.

3.5.2 Free rein leadership or *laissez-faire* leadership

Under free rein leadership, the organization moves along under its own steam without specific direction from the leader. In this instance, the leader does not make his or her presence felt. Staff has the freedom to make individual or group decisions. The leader, according to De Witt (1979:78), guides staff by appealing to personal integrity. A situation is created by this type of leadership in which the subordinate feels totally trusted and is allowed to decide for himself or herself. The leader is minimally involved and is the background.

3.5.3 Bureaucratic Leadership

Under bureaucratic leadership, a manager occupies the position of leader in a bureaucratic system (Owens, 1970:135). His or her leadership is a combination of democratic, autocratic and "free rein" leadership. Van der Westhuizen (1991:191) states that the bureaucratic leader's ability to integrate, blend, balance and adapt components of his or her own style of leadership in harmony with the situation, the group and his or her own humanity, will largely determine his success as leader of the organization. This type of leader adheres strictly to the letter of the law, rules and regulations and tries in this way to maintain his or her position but sometimes does as he or she chooses. If a bureaucratic leader applies his or her leadership style effectively, it does have the following characteristics (Owens, 1970:60):

- It is effective and specialized.
- It is predictable because there are written rules and regulations. This gives rise to uniformity among staff and uniform rules and regulations.

- It is impersonal because the letter of the law is the order of the day and the people involved are not taken into account.
- It is quick because rules are uniform and only need to be applied to problem cases.

It can be inferred from the above that, according to the bureaucratic leadership style, staff members are regarded as employees, which results in a type of 'head-subordinate' relationship. Authority comes from above, it is centralized, and subordinates merely have to obey.

3.5.4 Democratic or participative leadership

Democratic leadership involves the staff by means of mutual consultation in decision-making (Getzels *et al*, 1968:37). Decisions are made by means of voluntary and spontaneous communication, and the leader plays an active role in this process. This type of leadership provides subordinates with the opportunity to make a contribution. Definite efforts are made to create positive interpersonal relationships. The democratic leadership style offers opportunities for original and creative contributions by subordinates, and in this way they may contribute to attaining goals (Reynders, 1977:47).

Rensis Likert, cited in Adey and Andrew (1990:65-67) and Eyre and Pettinger (1991:181), divides leadership styles into four types known also as the *System 4 Approach to Management*, as follows:

- exploitive-authoritative
- benevolent-authoritative
- consultative-democratic
- participative-democratic

According to Likert, cited in Adey and Andrew (1990:65-67) and in Eyre and Pettinger (1999:181), the exploitive-authoritative or *system one approach* shows no regard for the members of the group and uses the group merely for dissemination of instructions. The group has no part in decision-making. The group is coerced into performing the tasks at hand and

there is little trust within the group. The members are exploited for the purposes of the task and the leader adopts an authoritarian attitude. Power and direction come from top downwards and where there is no participation, consultation or involvement on the part of subordinates. This style is characterized by subordinate compliance based on fear with a result that unfavourable attitudes are generated.

The benevolent-authoritative style or *system two approach*, according to Likert, cited in Eyre and Pettinger (1999:181), is more benevolent towards group members but is still autocratic. Instead of being threatening and exploitive, the leader is more patronizing and condescending. Although there is more trust among group members than there is with an exploitive-authoritative leader, the group members behave cautiously. There is more trust and some upward opportunity for consultation and participation in some areas. Again, attitudes tend to be generally unfavourable, and confidence, trust and communication remain at low levels. Often, however, because of the benevolence of the autocratic leader, there is a measure of co-operation.

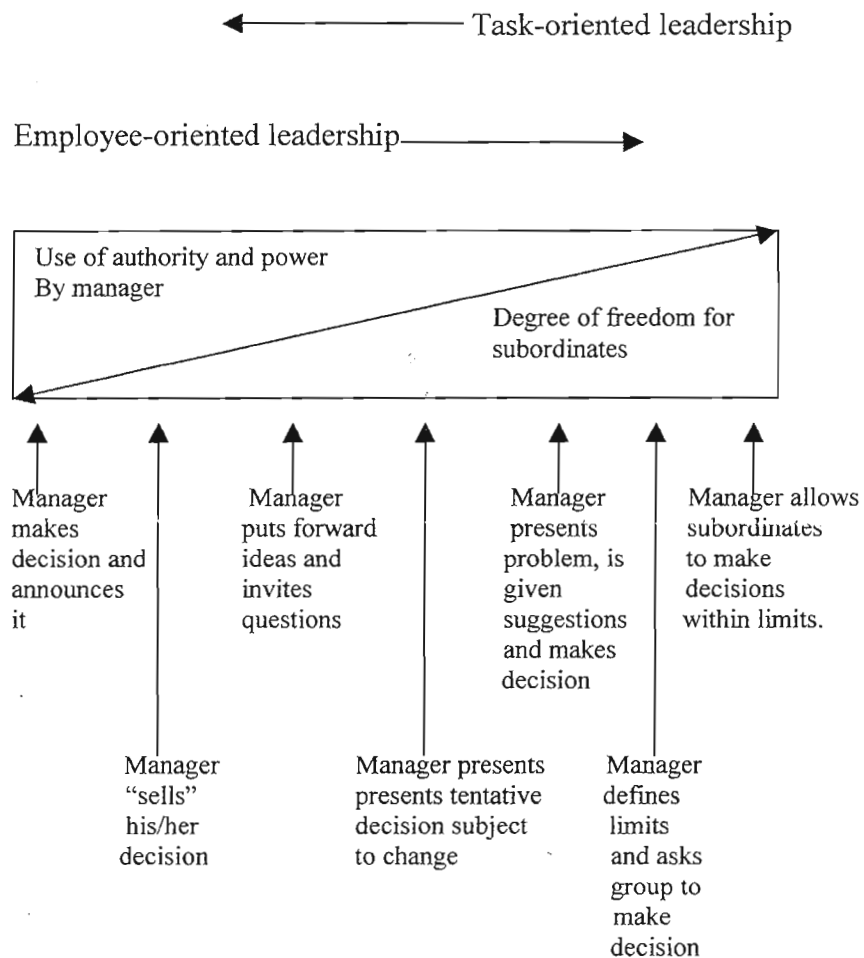
The consultative-democratic style of leadership or *system three approach*, according to Likert cited in Eyre and Pettinger (1991:181) allows practical decisions to be made within the group but major decisions are still taken by the leader. In this approach, aims and objectives are set after consultation with subordinates. Communication is two-way and teamwork is encouraged at least in some areas. Attitudes towards both superiors and the organization tend to be favourable when the organization is working steadily. There is a greater degree of confidence within the group and there is opportunity for free discussion on the understanding that the leader, who still keeps control, may veto the contributions.

Likert, cited in Adey and Andrew (1990) and Eyre and Pettinger (1991:1881), states that the participative-democratic style of leadership or *system four approach* allows maximum participation from group members who together take the decisions. The leader facilitates discussion and maintains the level of trust and confidence at the highest level. The socio-emotional level of friendship and co-operation is high. Although decision-making may take more time, motivation is high among members. In this approach, three basic concepts have a very important effect on performance, namely, the use by the manager of the principle of supportive relationships throughout the team; the use of group-based methods of decision-

making and supervision; and the setting of high performance targets and ambitious goals for the team and the organization overall.

According to Eyre and Pettinger (1991:181), participative-democratic or *system four* was Likert's preferred system, the one that his research demonstrated best in the long run. The openness of system four also meant that problems were identified earlier and dealt with before they became crises. It also became very much easier to consult with, and gain agreement on, reorganizations, changes and developments when these became necessary.

Figure 1.10: Leadership Grid: A Continuum of Leadership Behaviour (Source: Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1973):



On the basis of the two behaviour models or leadership styles, namely, task-oriented leadership and employee-oriented leadership styles, the leadership grid was developed as an instrument to identify a suitable leadership style so that managers can be trained and directed towards the

'ideal' leadership style. Figure 1.10 shows how the leadership grid is interpreted. The task-oriented style is situated on the horizontal axis, and the employee-oriented leadership style on the vertical axis, the 'ideal' style being at the top right where production is optimized by means of democratic management and, therefore, a well-motivated team of workers.

To complement the Michigan research, which studied the behaviour of leaders in an effort to develop the ideal leadership model, Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) studied a further dimension that led to the development of the situational models. The research identified various leadership styles between the extremes of task-oriented and employee-oriented leadership styles, as illustrated in figure 1.10. The model depicted in this figure is a series of leadership styles that can be used in certain situations, each style having a degree of authority that can be applied by the manager as well as the corresponding degree of freedom within which subordinates can act.

A movement from right to left in the model indicates a change from autocratic to democratic leadership, depending on the particular situation, which demands a certain style of leadership. Consequently, a group that works well together reacts better to more freedom than to strict supervision.

3.6 The Role of Educational Leaders

Research on leadership roles is moving in many directions and new lines of enquiry are opened up in an effort to construct the ultimate leadership model. The following contemporary perspectives are but a few of the new leadership models. The first specific questions this review is meant to answer are: "What are the roles that education leaders are expected to fulfill?" and "Do these roles vary for different settings?" Several different roles are described in the literature, namely the education leader as (Canada-South Africa Education Management Program, 2001:10-13):

- transactional leader;
- instructional leader;
- transformational leader;
- moral leader;
- participative leader;

- managerial leader, and
- contingent leader.

The fact that these different roles are presented separately is not meant to convey that any given educational leader can be characterized by only one of these roles. Although some education leaders may seem to fit one mould more than any other, successful leaders are invariably those who can exercise different roles in different circumstances, who instinctively know what needs doing and how to get it done. The following are brief descriptions of the roles of the leader:

3.6.1 Transactional Leader

The traditional management function of leading is also known as transactional. Smit and Cronje (1997:295) state that transactional leaders do what managers do; they clarify the role of subordinates, initiate structures and provide appropriate rewards. They conform to organizational norms and values. Their style is characterized by objectives, standards, evaluation and correction of performance, policies and procedures. The manager and transactional leader are characterized as directing and controlling in a stable structure and having greater centralized authority. Transactional leadership is characteristic of stable, ongoing situations: exchanges or agreements with subordinates are developed pointing out what the subordinates will receive if they do something right – or wrong. The transactional leadership approach lasts only as long as the needs of both the leader and the subordinate are satisfied through the continuing exchange process. It is consequently not a relationship that binds the leader and follower together in a mutual and continuing pursuit of higher purpose (Smit and Cronje, 1997:296). In an environment such as KwaZulu-Natal and indeed South Africa, where change is occurring, a purely transactional style of leadership may be counterproductive (Grobler, 1996).

3.6.2 Instructional leader

As the name suggests, this form of leadership focuses on the core mission of the school – classroom instruction, paying attention to what is happening at the chalk face. Instructional leadership can thus be viewed as time devoted to *educational* as opposed to *administrative tasks*. In this model, the leader is the *meta-controller* of classroom processes and the *quality*

controller of classroom teachers (Scheerens & Bosker, 1997:9). This does not imply that the leader as instructional leader takes an authoritarian stance towards educators, merely that he or she provides direction to the process of teaching and learning. This leadership model has also been viewed as consisting of three dimensions, namely, defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme, and promoting school climate (Hallinger & McCary, 1990). This form of leadership, according to Sheppard (1996:325-344), aims at enhancing learner achievement as well as other types of outcomes.

3.6.3 Transformational Leader

This above model embraces a variety of notions, including the charismatic, visionary, cultural and empowering concepts of leadership; overall it assumes that the leadership focus ought to be “*the commitments and capacities of organizational members*” (Leithwood *et al*, 1999:9). Much of the thinking and writing about transformational leadership comes from the work of Leithwood, Tomlinson and Genge at the University of Toronto. Their model conceptualizes such leadership along eight dimensions, namely building school vision, establishing school goals, providing intellectual stimulation, offering individualized support, modeling best practices and important organizational values, demonstrating high performance expectations; creating a productive school culture, and developing structures to foster participation in school decisions (Leithwood *et al*, 1999:9).

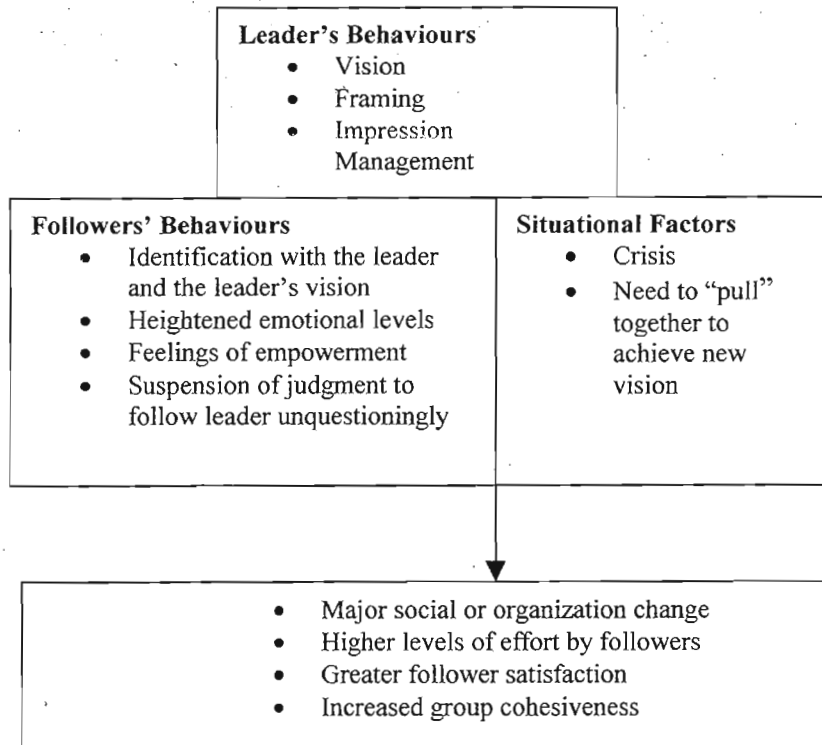
Charismatic attributes are a consequence of what leaders do as well as the circumstances in which subordinates find themselves. It has also been argued that there are actually two types of charismatic leaders: *visionary ones* and *crisis-produced* leaders (Leithwood *et al*, 1996:802-803). The power of the visionary lies in the attractiveness of the missions, which he or she espouses and the willingness of others to believe in those missions. In this situation, change is looked upon favourably –something that may even be initiated by the followers.

The so-called crisis-produced charismatic leaders are products of a set of circumstances, which are perceived to be beyond the coping mechanism of potential followers. In any case, this model embodies some form of *vision building* as indicated in the following elements by (Leithwood *et al*, 1996:802-803):

- helping to provide colleagues with an overall sense of purpose;
- initiating processes which engage subordinates in the collective development of a shared vision;
- espousing a vision for the institution but not the way that pre-empts others from expressing their vision;
- exciting colleagues with visions of what they may be able to accomplish if they work collaboratively to change their practices;
- helping to clarify the meaning of the institution's vision in terms of practical implications for programs and instruction;
- assisting staff in understanding the relationship between external initiatives for change and the institution's vision;
- assisting staff in understanding the larger social mission of which their institution is a part, a social mission which may include such important end values as equality, justice and integrity;
- using all available opportunities to communicate the institution's vision to staff and other stakeholders.

According to Shamir *et al* (1993:577-594), researchers now believe that the type of leadership needed by top managers for tomorrow's organization is what has been labelled transformational. Quite simply, transformational leadership is leading by motivating. Transformational leaders provide extraordinary motivation by appealing to followers' ideals and moral values and inspiring them to think about problems in new ways (*Financial Mail*, 23 October 1998). House (1988) cited in Hellriegel *et al* (2001:299), states transformational leaders exhibit three behaviours: vision, framing, and impression management. Figure 1.11 below, shows these behaviours and the followers' reactions to them:

Figure 1.11 Leadership Behaviours: Vision, Framing, and Impression Management



3.6.3.1 Vision

Perhaps the most important characteristic that transformational leaders possess is their ability to create a *vision* that binds people to each other (Hellriegel *et al*, 2001:299). But, according to Larwood *et al* (1995:740), transformational leaders must have more than just a *vision*: they also have to have a *road map* for attaining it. From this, it appears that what is important is that the followers "buy into" that vision and that the leader has a plan to energize them to reach it. Leaders who are totally committed to their vision and course of action are often called charismatic. Charismatic leaders have an unshakeable belief in their mission, are supremely confident that they and their followers can succeed, and have the ability to convey these certainties to their followers. Followers of charismatic leaders demonstrate unquestioning loyalty and obedience (Sosick *et al*, 1997: 89-103).

3.6.3.2 Framing

When changes in the environment occur slowly, many managers fail to recognize them as threats to the organization. According to Hellriegel *et al* (2001:300), to make members of an organization aware of environmental changes, transformational leaders often *frame* their

vision by giving employees a new purpose for working. *Framing* is a process whereby leaders define the group's purpose in highly meaningful terms. In organizations, *framing* often involves identifying the core values and purpose that should guide employees. Hellriegel *et al* (2001:300) list some of these core values as integrity, individual initiative, teamwork, people development, mutual trust and respect, and commitment.

3.6.3.3 Impression Management

Impression management involves an attempt to control the impressions that others form about the leader through behaviours that make the leader more attractive and appealing to others. According to Hellriegel *et al* (2001:300), *impression management* sounds manipulative and calculating – and sometimes it is. But, more often, *impression management* is a natural and sincere expression that reveals to followers an alignment between the vision and the person. When observers of effective leaders refer to the importance of integrity, that often is what they mean – revealing to followers how the message they are hearing relates to the personal experiences of the messenger (Hellriegel *et al*, 2001:300).

3.6.4 Moral Leader

In some senses, it is assumed that managing public services must, by definition, be ethical. After all, the concepts of integrity, probity, accountability and impartiality would feature in most descriptions of the qualities of those professionals working in health, welfare or education. Moral philosophy has neither featured strongly in the training of public service managers, nor in the teaching of public sector management. Education managers need to know what principles they are acting on and what guidance will enable them to make a practical choice or decision. In so doing, it will encourage education managers to locate some of the issues they face on a day-to-day basis within a wider ethical framework.

Managing the public services is, increasingly, a complex activity where a range of different types of organization are involved in the delivery of public services. Public services managers have had to develop new skills and adopt new perspectives as the boundaries between public, private and voluntary sector organizations become blurred. The managing task becomes one of managing ambiguity in an ever-changing world. At the same time, however, there is a certain timeliness to any debate concerning the management of public policies and managers

will need to acknowledge the continuing relevance of traditions and the enduring nature of the themes of accountability, responsibility, acting in the public interest, integrity, and probity.

As a starting point, a number of assumptions are made concerning the activities that education managers engage in and the relationships that these managers have with their subordinates. According to Lawton (1998:6), there are at least three assumptions. These are:

1. that managers in the public services perform a number of different functions including the delivery of services, regulation of service delivery and policy advice;
2. that managers in the public services engage in a number of different relationships and that these relationships will vary in form, content and scope. Typically, such relationships will be concerned with obligations, duties, rights, agreements, loyalty, responsibility and accountability;
3. that the context within which such relationships take place varies and determines how such relationships are conducted. This context will include:
 - hierarchies and networks;
 - wider social practices which determine acceptable and unacceptable behaviour on the part of public services manager;
 - professional standards and codes of conduct; conventions concerning the role and status of managers within society.

If Lawton's (1998) assumptions are reasonable, then the role of the education leader is a complex business in terms of what is provided, who is to provide it and how it is to be provided. Lawton (1998:147) also makes reference to the tensions that the public services manager has to cope with. These tensions include:

- The tension between the need for control and the need for discretion.
- The tensions in managing the needs of different stakeholders.

- The tensions in responding to changing circumstances and, at the same time, maintaining existing standards expressed in terms of accountability, honesty and duty.
- The tension between managing the daily tasks and maintaining a sense of self and personal integrity.

Proponents of the moral or ethical approach to management argue that values are a central part of all leadership and administrative practices. Hodgkinson, one of the leading advocates of this approach, claims that, “values constitute the essential problem of leadership... If there are no value conflicts then there is no need for leadership (Hodgkinson, 1991:11). Moral leadership inevitably focuses on the values and ethics of the leader but must also be understood in terms of the moral mission of educational institutions.

The moral purpose of learning institutions has been characterized by Fullan as making the difference in the commitment, skills and action pertaining to norms of civility, fairness, sharing, trust, collaborative engagement, and managing differences and conflict (Fullan, 1997: 4). Although the moral dimension of leadership might seem to be an essential component of any leadership model, it is not without its share of critics.

Critics of this approach are particularly averse to entering into the values debate. In their view, values have no place in administrative decision-making, maintaining a preference for what they perceive as a more rational approach to leadership practice. Not surprisingly, others are quick to present convincing arguments as to why administrative practice from a rational perspective is highly suspect. Proponents of moral leadership contend that educative leadership needs to be concerned with rightness, simply not attitudes, styles and behaviours (Duigan & MacPherson, 1993:8-33). Similarly, Lees (1995:225) argues that leadership in a democratic society entails a moral obligation – one that promotes “democracy, empowerment, and social justice”. Notwithstanding the views of Duigan and MacPherson (1993) and Lees (1995), there are a number of imperatives that affect, not just the context of the educational leader, but also his or her day-to-day activity. For example, the imperatives are concerned with devolving responsibility and responding to the raised expectations of better quality services from subordinates. Moral leadership is primarily concerned with how managers treat their staff and how the staff, in turn, treats each other. To this end, the grounding for moral leadership in the education sector is in *how* services are delivered to employees, and not just

what is delivered. Indeed, it can be argued that in the educational context the nature of leadership is to treat subordinates with dignity and respect. The researcher's standpoint is that effective leadership cannot be value-free. In determining the leadership preferences of superintendents in the eThekweni Region, the researcher included the moral or ethical dimension as one of the key variables for effective leadership.

3.6.5 Participative Leader

The notion of participative leadership evolved from a view of decision-making as a group process (Yukl, 1994). Three schools of thought emerge from this way of looking at administrative practice. One view is that this form of leadership enhances organizational effectiveness. Another purports that participation of this nature supports democratic principles and is therefore related to the concept of moral leadership discussed above. The third view emerges from the context of site-based management – arguably the main thrust of school restructuring initiatives during the past decade. In this case, governance and authority are shared among all legitimate stakeholders in the school, based on their expertise, their democratic right to make choices, and their critical role in the decision-making process. This form of leadership is also arguably an integral part of the transformation process in South Africa, as stated by McLennan with respect to the broader public sector: “Developing the appropriate practices, norms, procedures and language to mediate participation will take time and careful planning.... Establishing partnerships and joint responsibility implies the development of new skills and capacities for managing this process both in the Public service and civil society, at schools, in training institutions, at the provincial level and in the national ministry” (McLennan, 1997:39).

In almost all aspects of the education organization, people work in groups at some time or another – in committees, in project teams, or in working parties. In the context of education tasks are always undertaken by groups of people who rarely work on their own; in other words, the task determines the working practice. This is usually because the tasks are relatively complex, and require the combined abilities of a number of people or because they involve co-operation between a number of individuals. This is partly because the educational institutions are faced with a massive amount of complex decision-making. There is also a tendency to believe that power in the organization should be shared rather than being in the

hands of one person. Charles Handy (1990) identifies the following reasons for the phenomenon of 'groupthink':

- for the distribution of work;
- for the management and control of work;
- for problem-solving and decision-making;
- for processing information;
- for testing and ratifying decisions;
- for co-ordination and liaison;
- for increasing commitment and involvement;
- for negotiation and conflict resolution.

In education, people are brought together because there is a particular task, which the organization has identified as needing to be undertaken. These tasks relate back to Handy's (1990) purpose of work groups and might include problem solving, idea generation, planning and implementation, change, quality improvement, decision-making, policy formulation, procedural definition, and others. The timescale of the task is also an important factor. If the job needs to be completed urgently, a highly structured group with an authoritative leader may be acceptable. Where there is less pressure of time and creative ideas are sought, this is likely to be less acceptable.

The manager who is responsible for leading the group is likely to contribute considerably to the group's success or failure. In some instances, the leader will have the authority of his or her position in the organization. In other, less highly structured organizations, the leader may lack any recognizable organizational power but may lead others because they have particular knowledge which other members of the group lack. One of the most challenging tasks that confronts contemporary managers is group management in an enterprise, and a successful leader is able to create interactions that are pleasant and positive, and that lead to the attainment of the organization's objectives.

3.6.6 Managerial Leader

This above approach to leadership focuses on 'the functions, tasks or behaviours of the leader' (Leithwood & Duke, 1999:53). This model is sometimes seen as a functionalist

approach to leadership, where a leader is primarily concerned with a rational distribution of tasks among members of the organization, with careful attention to the status of each member in the hierarchy of the organization. As a result, this style is often contrasted with the more visionary or participative approaches described above. However, there are managerial aspects to any approach to leadership, which are explicitly incorporated in this model. Myers and Murphy (1995) identify six dimensions of organizational control: supervision, input controls, behaviour controls, output controls, selection, socialization, and environmental controls. According to Caldwell, (1992:16-17), leaders need to engage in a cyclical process of 'goal setting, needs identification, priority-setting, planning, budgeting, implementing, and evaluating in a manner which provides for the appropriate involvement of staff and community'. Duke and Leithwood (1994) consider the following managerial aspects to be explicitly incorporated into the managerial leadership approach (Figure 1.12):

Figure 1.12 Managerial Leadership Approach/Management Functions of Leadership

Management Functions of Leadership
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• provide adequate fiscal and material resources;• distribute fiscal and material resources so that they are well utilized;• manage the student body;• anticipate problems and devise effective ways of addressing them;• manage the institution's staff;• maintain effective lines of communication between staff, students, community members and board office staff• accommodate policies and initiatives undertaken by the district office, regional office and central office to assist school improvement;• reduce disruptions to maximize teaching effectiveness;• mediate conflicts and differences in expectations;• attend to the political demands of school functioning.

Whilst a more detailed description of the roles and functions of superintendents will be provided in the relevant chapter, it may be necessary to allude briefly to the roles and functions of managers assigned to district and circuit education offices. There is a general impression that roles and functions are defined mainly by the Provincial Department of Education. The following have been described as the managerial roles and functions of superintendents:

- monitoring, exercising control and facilitating the provision of education;
- supporting and servicing schools;
- serving as a link between provincial head office and schools;
- coordinating circuit offices and wards and ensuring uniformity in the district;
- provisioning, co-ordination, dissemination of information, and administration;
- gathering data from schools, wards and circuits;
- intervening in disputes and crisis management;
- decentralization of services.

Put simply, the main task of managers and leaders is to make sure that the organization works well. They are “in charge”. They are responsible for getting people, systems, structures, strategies, and organizational culture to work well together in different ways to meet the goals of the organization. Mintzberg, who defines “roles” as “organized sets of behaviours identified with a position” says that the real world of running organizations is not as neat as the four words, planning, organizing, coordinating and controlling suggest. He argues that it is best to think about managers’ jobs in terms of the roles they play (Mintzberg, 1990). Research reveals that managers need to play a number of different roles every day. They interact with a wide range of people, personalities, and information and make different sorts of decisions.

3.6.7 Contingent Leader

The focus of this approach is how leaders respond to the unique organizational circumstances or problems that they face (Leithwood & Duke, 1999:54). These circumstances may entail,

for example, disposition and preferences of co-workers, conditions of work, and contextual effects. The type of leadership desired is dependent or contingent upon these circumstances. Therefore, it would be necessary to find variations in how leadership is practised.

The literature makes a distinction between “style’ and ‘problem-solving” orientations to contingent leadership. Discussion on leadership styles focus on overt leadership practice and attempts to define a succinct number of discernible patterns of such practice. In contrast, the literature on problem solving explores the internal cognitive and affective processes engaged in by leaders as they reflect upon the problems they encounter and what courses of action to take. In essence, leaders tend to create patterns of responses according to the problems they encounter. Inevitably, it would seem, that what leaders do is contingent upon how they think.

While bearing in mind the crossover that occurs in practice between the above roles of educational leaders, the following exhibit provides a capsule summary of the seven perspectives on leadership roles (Leithwood *et al*, 1999.18-19):

Table 1.6: Comparison of the Different Roles of Education Leaders

Approaches to Educational leadership	Who exerts Influence?	Sources of Influence	Purposes For influences	Outcomes of influence
Transactional	Traditional manager	Position power	Directing and controlling	Conform to norms
Instructional	Typically those in formal leadership roles	Expert knowledge; typically position power	Enhance the effectiveness of educators' classroom practices	Increased student growth
Transformational	Typically those in formal leadership roles, but not restricted to such persons	Inspire higher levels of commitment and capacity among organization members	Greater effort and productivity; develop more skilled practice	Increased capacity of organization to continuously improve
Moral	Those in formal administrative roles	Use of a system of moral values to guide organization decision-making	Increased sensitivity to the rightness of decisions; increased participation in decisions	Morally justified courses of action; democratic institutions
Participative	The group (including non-administrative members)	Interpersonal communication	Increased participation in decisions	Increased capacity of organization to respond productively to internal and external demands for change; more democratic organization
Managerial	Those in formal administrative roles	Positional power; policies and procedures	Ensure efficient completion of specified tasks by organization members	Achieve formal goals of the organization
Contingent	Typically those in formal leadership roles	Matching leader behaviour to organization context; expert problem-solving processes	Better meet needs of organization members; more effective responses to organization's challenges	Achieve formal goals of the organization; increased capacity of organization to respond productively to internal and external demands

As indicated above, different roles or cross-over will be required for different times and circumstances, which will vary with the educational context, including the type of institution and personnel within the institution.

3.7 Conclusion

Most researchers agree that the educational leader impacts upon how effectively the educational institutions and personnel within them accomplish their mission. Some researchers find that institutions that make an impact on the education system are led by leaders who make a significant and measurable contribution to the staff and the quality of what transpires in the institutions. Regardless of the magnitude of the superintendent's influence on school outcomes, the researcher concluded with certainty that the presence of the superintendent in the learning environment and his or her ability to nurture the strengths of subordinates does have an effect. With the demands of the new dispensation of educational management and leadership in the eThekweni Region, it seems timely to reflect on the expectations researchers have for superintendents in the new system, whether there are significant gaps between these expectations and current practice, and what can be done to enhance capacity to diminish such gaps in the future.

CHAPTER FOUR

LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT WITH PARTICULAR EMPHASIS ON SUPERINTENDENTS OF EDUCATION (MANAGEMENT) IN THE KWAZULU-NATAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE (KZNDEC)

4.0 Introduction

The purpose of an identification of the various tasks performed by the superintendent is that it provides an overview of what management and leadership consists. The identification of management and leadership tasks indicates the qualities and competencies that a superintendent should have, and also points to the interdependence of management and leadership.

4.1 Some General Considerations about the Management Context

Improving the management of all government entities, especially in education, is a priority for the Republic of South Africa. The State President in the inaugural address to parliament recognized the need for focusing on improving the management systems in education by stating:

We will have to focus on outcome-based assessment as well as on the quality of management systems. All necessary steps must and will be taken to ensure that learners learn, educators educate, and managers manage.

The Province of KwaZulu-Natal, as well as other provinces in the Republic of South Africa, has undergone immense transformational change since the change in government, beginning in 1994. The consolidation of five former departments into one, unitary system of education for the purposes of providing education services to all learners on an equitable basis has been an enormous undertaking. Considering the diverse systems, capacity, and political direction found in the five previous departments of education, it is a credit to the role players throughout the province that the education system has made the progress that is evident.

To assist provincial education departments, the National Department of Education (NDOE) established the Education Support Unit (EDSU) to render support for the overall

management, resource management, corporate services, transformation and other functions that were identified for the delivery of education services. Moreover, the requirements for sound management practices are adequately provided for through National and Provincial laws, various departmental regulations, instructions, circulars and other policy pronouncements (*cf.* Introduction).

The South African Schools Act, 84 of 1996 and the National Education Policy Act, 27 of 1996, create a whole new approach to leading, managing and governing educational sites. This new approach makes it possible for superintendents, principals, members of school management teams (SMTs) and school governing bodies to change the way they think about their roles and responsibilities. They need to understand a whole new education management paradigm. Educational leadership and management practices must now reflect the human rights changes that are enshrined in the Constitution, namely, respect, accountability, non-sexism and non-racism, open society, *ubuntu*, rule of law, social justice and equity, equality, reconciliation and democracy.

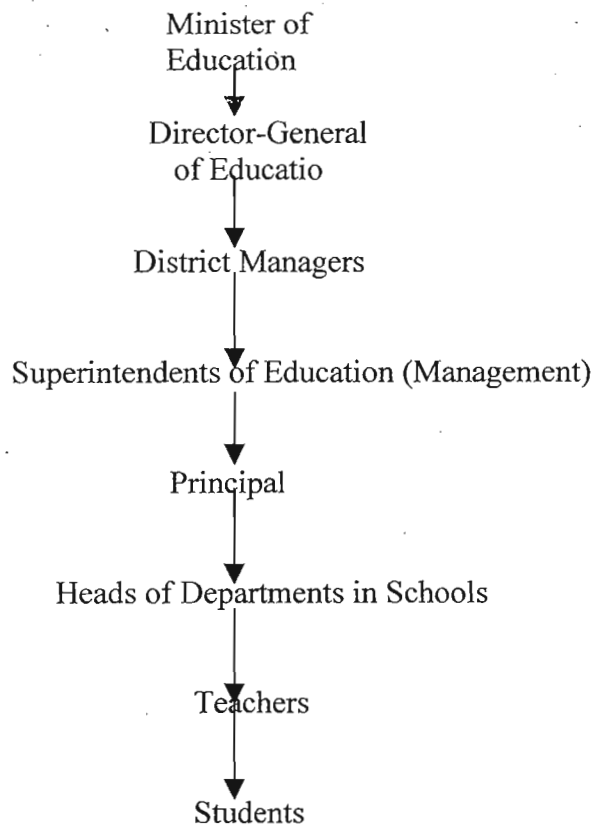
4.2 Two Basic Organizational Structures

The diagrammes, below, depict the two faces of organizational structures in the South African education system, that is, the past and present paradigms.

4.2.1 Hierarchical and Bureaucratic Structures

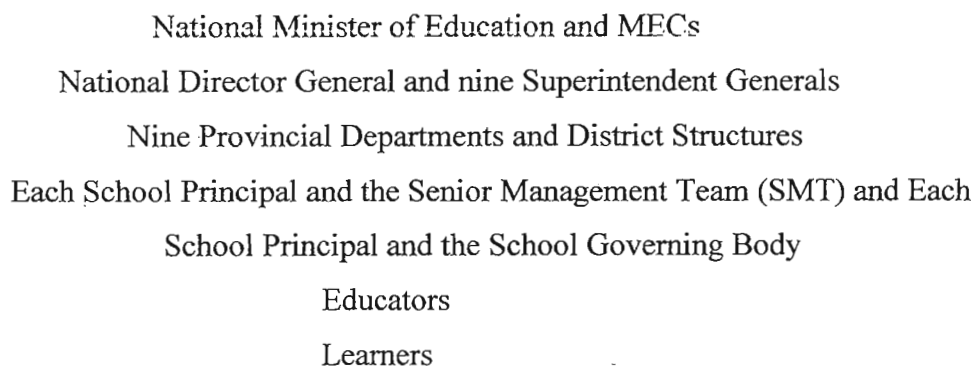
In the past, the educational organizational structure looked like this (Figure 1.13):

Figure 1.13: Hierarchical and Bureaucratic Structure



4.2.2 Flat or Horizontal Structure

The new organizational structure looks like this (Figure 1.14):



As indicated, the above diagrams depict organizational structures before and after 1994. The organizational structure is based on what people do and how they relate to one another in the organization. Superintendents of Education (Management) are located at the District offices. The most structured form of organization is the bureaucracy (*vide*: Figure 1.13). In bureaucracies, each person is appointed to an office or position which has clear tasks, and

which relates to other offices according to fixed rules and procedures. Reporting structures and lines of accountability and responsibility are clearly set out. Work is done in uniform ways, no matter who holds the office. Usually, government offices are run as bureaucracies.

Public services organizations often have hierarchical structures, where there are chains of command, and people are responsible to those above them. Organizations, too, may have *flat* structures, where there are fewer layers of people, and broader job responsibilities. *Flatter* structures presumably allow for greater participation in decision-making. Schools and education departments are often hierarchical and bureaucratic, as indeed are other public sector departments. However, with the changes in Public Administration legislation and the introduction of educational new policies, the new approach to educational management advocates a *flatter* and more open organization. This ought to mean that it should no longer be good enough for education managers simply to be good administrators; they must also be proactive leaders and managers. Managers can no longer simply wait for instructions or decisions from government. The pace of change, and the need to be adaptable and responsive to local circumstances, requires that managers develop new skills and styles of working. They must be capable of providing leadership for teams, and able to interact with communities and stakeholders both inside and outside the education system. They must be able to manage and use resources and information to promote efficiency and support democratic governance.

4.3 Education Districts Profile

At the time of this study, the KwaZulu-Natal province consisted of 41 districts of varying sizes and types, which were grouped together into eight regions, namely, Durban North and Durban South (now *eThekweni* Region), Empangeni, Ladysmith, Pietermaritzburg, Port Shepstone, Ulundi and Vryheid (Table 1.7):

Table 1.7: Education Districts Profile (Department of Education, 1999)

Regions	Number of Districts
1. Durban North	6
2. Durban South	6
3. Empangeni	5
4. Ladysmith	5
5. Pietermaritzburg	5
6. Port Shepstone	4
7. Ulundi	6
8. Vryheid	4
TOTAL	41

The definition of an education district is summarized as follows (Department of Education, 1999:4):

An education district is defined as clusters of schools (making up a circuit), teacher formations and other stakeholders such as School Governing Bodies (made up of communities around the schools) in a given area, and has as its nodal point a district office. An education district is largely defined in terms of the numbers of schools, learners and educators. Schools in the KwaZulu-Natal districts are found in a variety of areas, that is, in rural, peri-urban and urban areas.

In KwaZulu-Natal Province, professional staff such as subject advisors, psychological services, physical planning, examinations and curriculum, library services and sports resort at the Regional Offices. The districts have a district manager, superintendents of education (management), professional staff, and administrative staff responsible for provisioning, financial services, personnel matters, auxiliary services and school administration. On average, twenty officials from the various sections form a district office.

4.4 Reconceptualising Education Management: Three Approaches to Education Management

There are three approaches to education management currently at work in South Africa (Department of Education, 1996:15). These will be discussed briefly below:

4.4.1 Technical and Administrative Functions

This above approach has characterized public administration, for the past three decades. It focuses on technical administrative functions such as planning, organizing, guiding and controlling. Officials are seen as implementers of policy formulated by elected politicians. This approach dominated the public service during the apartheid years, and infuses current thinking on education management. It is the guiding principle behind the restructuring of many provincial education departments and is concerned with order and control.

In their attempts to deal with the chaos of transition, many managers in the education system as a whole are focusing strongly on issues such as professionalism, the development of regulatory frameworks and the clarification of roles and functions. This way of thinking focuses on administrative processes and generates an approach to management that emphasizes structure. It is largely concerned with defining job descriptions, powers, functions and management relationships.

4.4.2 Management and Leadership Functions

The second approach attempts to reduce the emphasis on administrative process. It emphasizes the management and leadership functions of managers in the education system as a whole, including those at school level. It is concerned with people development and with the establishment of management systems that support education delivery.

The notion of a management team, which leads and facilitates change, is central to this approach. It depends on management practices, which emphasize the devolution of power, mission building, human resource development and school effectiveness. Management development, which supports this approach, would highlight quality assurance and performance. It would develop leadership and technical management skills so as to ensure effective and efficient delivery within institutions as well as government departments.

4.4.3 Relationship between Policy, Decision-Making Processes and Implementation

The third approach is concerned with governance and with the relationship between policy, decision-making processes, and implementation. It dissolves the divide between politics and administration, which characterizes the first approach outlined above. It implies an emphasis on relationship building, stakeholder participation, the management of diversity, and development. Here management development would focus on the skills required to build and support the relationships needed to reconstruct a ruptured education system.

If South Africa is to break decisively with the past and implement its vision for the education system, it will be necessary to draw on aspects of all three approaches. To this end, South Africa would need:

- first, to develop structures and systems appropriate to devolved decision-making within the context of the new policy legislation;
- second, to develop the leadership skills needed to manage people, lead change and support the process of transformation; and
- third to develop individual and team competencies, that is, the understanding, knowledge, skills and attitudes, appropriate to the day-to-day management of education.

Education management and leadership, as the key to decentralization and transformation, requires a broad and more inclusive understanding, and the Department of Education (1996:16) argues that it must embrace three important spheres of activity, namely:

- the ethos and practice of management, which involves articulating and operationalizing the principles of good management practice;
- organizational development, which involves developing and sustaining effective structures, systems and procedures for improved management; and,
- people development, which requires empowering managers by building their professional competencies and providing on-the-job support to them.

These spheres of activity are interrelated, and that is why the National Department of Education (NDOE) advocates an approach to education management and leadership that is both participatory and holistic. In practical terms, education management must be seen as an on-going process in which people learn, and organizations adapt and adjust within the commonly held values and standards of performance. As an integral part of the education system, educational leadership is a process, which seeks to harmonize the current and future goals both of the education system and individuals in the education community.

4.5 Formal Duties and Responsibilities of Superintendents of Education (Management)

Presently, almost every region and district office staff member below the level of Director (management echelon) in the employ of the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education and Culture lacks an individualized written duty sheet or job description. Officials, in the senior management echelon, have apparently signed performance contracts, which is a requirement for them to be given the new salary dispensation with effect from 1 July 1998. In some regions, however, office-based personnel, including superintendents of education, have attended workshops on the preparation of job descriptions. Without proper job descriptions, performance levels are difficult to monitor and evaluate. Existing policies, Acts, regulations, Government Gazettes and other legislative prescriptions do exist, but these are categorized, in generic terms, as formal duties and responsibilities of school-based and office-based educators.

In the Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC), formal agreement was reached in 1998 about the broad duties of educators: principal, deputy principal, head of department, educator, and office-based educator (director of education, chief and deputy superintendents and education specialists). It is important to note that the superintendent of education, also known as a deputy chief education specialist, is categorized as an office-based educator and is, therefore, subject to all the provisions outlined in the Employment of Educators Act, 76 of 1998. What follows are extracts from the ELRC 1998 document, specifically Chapter 3, section 3c (15), of the Personnel Administration Measures (PAM) (Education Law and Policy Handbook, 1999), the Employment of Educators Act, 76 of 1998, and the KZN Circular Number 134 of 2003, respectively. In the PAM document, the duties of office-based Educators are listed in this order:

1. Leadership
2. Communication
3. Financial Planning and Management
4. Strategic planning and Transformation
5. Policy
6. Research and Development
7. Curriculum Delivery
8. Staff Development
9. General

In comparing the order of these duties with those of school-based educators, it is evident that leadership is regarded as the most important, and communication the second most important. Implicit in this, is the belief that leadership is *the* springboard to understanding people and situations, and for responding appropriately and meaningfully to complex challenges in South African educational institutions.

4.5.1 Personnel Administration Measures (PAM): Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC)

- a) Job Title: Office Based Educator
- b) Rank: Director of Education/Chief/Deputy/First/Senior Education Specialist
- c) Post Level: 1/2/3/4/5/6
- d) Aims of the Job:

The core process in education is curriculum delivery, and the strategic levers for curriculum delivery are in-service training (INSET), education management development (EMD), and enabling functions. The aim of jobs at offices is to facilitate curriculum delivery through support in various ways. Offices will be managed in compliance with applicable legislation, regulations, ELRC resolutions and personnel administration measures.

(e) The Core Responsibilities of Office Based Educators

In executing tasks, educators must be mindful of their role in education transformation, redress and equity. The duties and responsibilities of the job are individual and varied,

depending on the nature of the responsibilities attached to each post. These include but are not limited to subject advisory services, administration and policy development processes. It remains the responsibility of immediate supervisors to develop specific responsibilities and duties for each post on the basis of job content as may be applicable. The duties and responsibilities for incumbents of these posts include, but are not limited to, the following:

4.5.1.1 Leadership

- To provide an environment that creates and fosters commitment and confidence among colleagues and educators, while promoting the values of fairness and equity in the workplace.
- To assist educators to identify, assess and meet the needs of learners (provide professional leadership).
- To disseminate and encourage the application of good practices in all areas of work.
- To implement systems and structures and present innovative ideas, that are congruent with policy frameworks and plans.
- To create and maintain sound human relations among colleagues and enhance the spirit of co-operation at all levels (ELRC, 1999).

4.5.1.2 Communication

- To communicate effectively, both orally and in writing, with principals, other staff, parents, school governing bodies (SGBs), external agencies and the Department as well as to ensure timeous feedback from institutions.
- To consult with all stakeholders on decisions which affect them.
- To explain the objectives of any intervention/s to learners, educators and others.
- To chair workshops, case conferences and meetings when needed.
- To serve on recruitment, promotion, advisory and other committees as required.

- To assist in the development of the use of information (statistics/surveys) and communication technology as a means of gathering and disseminating information about learners.
- To liaise with other relevant Government Departments, for example, Department of Health and Welfare, and Public Works as required.
- To maintain contacts with sports, cultural and community organizations.

4.5.1.3 Financial Planning and Management

- To undertake activity-based costing (ABC) for planned projects/activities.
- To prioritize activities in terms of costs and educational needs in preparation for strategic planning.
- To plan budgets in terms of medium term expenditure framework (MTEF).
- To manage projects within the set budgets.
- To advise principals and school management teams on the planning, utilization and monitoring of budgets in order to meet school objectives.
- To maintain records to disseminate information for financial accountability (ELRC, 1999)

4.5.1.4 Strategic Planning and Transformation

- To analyze the external environment and internal work environment.
- To identify the needs of clients (learners, educators, and others).
- To prepare strategic plans with the intention of achieving the goals of the Department.
- To prepare management plans to achieve targets as well as the needs of clients (educators, learners and others).
- To provide guidance to institutions on strategic planning.

- To support and co-operate with principals, staff and SGBs in whole school development (ELRC, 1999).

4.5.1.5 Policy

- To formulate policy for operational reasons.
- To analyze policy.
- To implement policy.
- To monitor and evaluate policy implementation.
- To provide guidance to institutions on policy formulation and implementation.

4.5.1.6 Research and Development

- To keep abreast of the latest research in the field of education.
- To undertake small scale as well as large scale research to improve service delivery and policy formulation.
- To encourage and support research initiatives with Universities, Colleges of Education and other Agencies.
- To apply research findings after carefully analyzing the context.
- To maintain a database of learners/educators needs e.g. professional development needs of educators.

4.5.1.7 Curriculum Delivery

- To assist in the equitable deployment of staff and resources to facilitate teaching and learning.
- To provide pastoral support (guidance and counselling) to learners whenever requested by institutions.
- To maintain effective partnerships between parents and school staff to promote effective teaching and learning.

- To develop systems for monitoring and recording progress made by learners towards achievement of targets set.
- To support initiatives to improve numeracy, literacy and information technology as well as access to the wider curriculum.
- To facilitate curriculum development at institution/District/Provincial/National level.
- To provide guidance/assistance in learner assessment.
- To promote the National campaign on Culture of Teaching, Learning and Service (COLTS) (ELRC, 1999).

4.5.1.8 Staff Development

- To assess professional development needs by using questionnaires, informal methods and developmental appraisal.
- To support/plan staff development activities based on needs and which are congruent with the principles and values of the applicable frameworks and plans.
- To contribute, to implement and participate in staff development programmes.
- To evaluate success/problems of staff development programmes in terms of the goals of the institutions/Department.
- To provide support for professional growth of educators within an appraisal system.
- To participate in agreed educator appraisal processes in order to regularly review their professional practice.

4.5.1.9 General

- To keep and update records of the office, district or area under his or her control.
- To ensure that Departmental circulars and other information received which affect colleagues or their work are brought to their notice as soon as possible.
- To handle all correspondence referred to his or her office.

4.6 Employment of Educators Act, 76 of 1998

Another document that provides generic guidelines to superintendents of education as well as other office-based personnel is the Employment of Educators Act, 76 of 1998. This document outlines the roles and responsibilities in terms of the core responsibility, their definitions and the attendant expectations, thereof. These are:

4.6.1 Human Relations

Human relations include the superintendent's attitude to people, especially the degree to which they are valued and the extent to which their qualities are respected and regarded. It has to do with acknowledgement, dignity, professional and educational respect. It includes providing constructive criticism as well as necessary support. The balance between personal and professional relations is an important factor, as is the combination of an openness and directiveness with restraint and sensitivity. In this regard, the superintendent would demonstrate understanding, concern and empathy for colleagues; maintains sound interpersonal relationships, and enjoys the respect of colleagues based not only on professional expertise but also on relationships.

4.6.2 Leadership

Leadership would involve the superintendent's ability to provide institution with direction in such a way that they share the superintendent's vision, supports its development plans, makes the best use of resources, co-operate in generating ethos, and cultivate a learning and teaching

environment which fully satisfies all its members, supporters and associates. Leadership requires the combination of many qualities, directed towards the enhancement of the school and the Education Department as a whole. The governance, administrative, managerial, developmental and teaching sectors of the institutions are coordinated by the superintendent within a vision and plan for the institution. Departmental policies, regulations and resources, as well as those obtained elsewhere, are combined to provide the educational institution with the capacity to be a high-quality centre of learning. This energetic coherence is provided by the superintendent, whose relationship is seen as an opportunity for all to engage with the realization of educational ideals. Furthermore, this superintendent is in demand by many community organizations and demonstrates leadership qualities across many sectors of society.

4.6.3 Communication

The above attribute involves the ability of superintendents to interact with other stakeholders in ways that promote understanding, clarity, mutual recognition and general sense of purpose. This is linked with human relations and leadership. It involves working relations with language policy of institutions, relations with the institutions and with the style of management. It also involves receptivity to concerns of colleagues as well as the ability to articulate policies and the need for action. Multiple means of communication are employed to ensure that everyone is well informed and understands the bases for decisions and actions. The superintendent is open to criticism and alternative viewpoints and is able to express a good grasp of the nature of what is being discussed and debated. Information is easily available and there is regular and open reporting back. Frequent interchanges with all stakeholders is facilitated and all ideas are given due consideration. Vision and goals of the Department are communicated to stakeholders and institutions.

4.6.4 Record Keeping

The above is a 'brute' bureaucratic requirement but an essential element in keeping track of the school's development. Though eventually a means of corroboration, verification and reporting, records of activities are part of managerial control, accountability, ensuring access to information and optimum use of resources, including the use of funds. It is expected that a superintendent has established efficient storage and retrieval systems. All meetings are

recorded and reports retained. They must ensure that information is complete and extensive, and that administrative staff is well trained and seldom over-extended. The superintendent has full access to all information whenever it is required and is able to produce complete reports at short notice. He or she has to ensure that financial records are complete and always up-to-date.

4.6.5 Strategic Planning

Strategic planning is the process of planning to use resources (human, physical, and financial) based on goals and strategic priorities to facilitate teaching and learning and transformation of education. The superintendent is involved in collecting background information to assess current and future needs; to conduct stakeholder analysis; to review previous plans; to conduct analysis of strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, constraints, and threats; and to determine goals, objectives, activities, time frames and performance indicators.

4.6.6 Financial Planning and Management

This above task involves the process of budgeting for costs to undertake activities that are part of the strategic plans. It also includes management of the budget. The superintendent is expected to determine the budget according to strategic plans, as part of the medium term expenditure framework (MTEF). He or she is expected to manage the budget through careful and on-going monitoring.

4.6.7 Education Management Development

This involves the acquisition of expertise and skills for the management of the office as a whole, and for the incorporation of democratic procedures, accountability to the Department, and for grasp of human resource development within a new educational context. The superintendent is expected to be acutely aware of the importance of appropriate management procedures in the office, including consultation, decision-making, leadership, accountability, and staff development. He or she recognizes that a human resources development policy for the office is necessary and uses appraisal procedures. Departmental and other resources as well as other educational institutions are used to assist staff with staff development. The superintendent is expected to achieve a sophisticated understanding of managing the change

process. He or she seeks and implements strategies that enhance the capacity of the office and institutions through appropriate democratic management.

4.6.8 Staff Development

Staff development involves the contribution to staff development programmes and the coordination of resources to support them. The superintendent is expected to be particularly adept at drawing up staff development programmes that are directly appropriate to the needs and conditions of each office. He or she is expected to have a sound grasp of many alternatives available for such programmes, and has access to manifold resources to give body and direction to staff development. Superintendents are expected to work very closely with stakeholders in sustaining the programmes.

4.6.9 Policy Assimilation, Coordination and Implementation

This element involves the process of formulating policy through wide consultation and consensus, and coordination of the implementation thereof. It also includes monitoring of policy implementation and review. The policy vacuum is identified, based on review of performance, problems, etc. Policy is developed and communicated to relevant parties. Implementation is monitored, policy review is conducted, and amendments are made where necessary.

4.6.10 Research and Development

This involves the degree to which the superintendent is familiar with and contributes to educational research, curriculum development, and policy formulation. The superintendent is expected to be keenly interested in what is happening in the district and elsewhere. He or she uses a lively theoretical grasp of issues to generate ideas relevant to education in the district. He or she is expected to write articles, attend seminars, and is influential in encouraging policy development.

4.7 KwaZulu-Natal Circular Number 134 of 2003

The Provincial Department of Education, realizing that superintendents of education lack an individualized written duty sheet or job description, introduced the above circular. Prior to its introduction, it was difficult for senior managers to monitor and evaluate the performance levels of these superintendents. As was pointed out before, the Personnel Administration Measures (PAM) and the Employment of Educators Act, 76 of 1998 painted, in broad brush-strokes, the roles and responsibilities of all office based educators.

The preamble to Circular 134 states that, as the 'face' of the Department, the superintendent (management) ought to project the commitment of the Department by providing a caring and quality service to all consumers of pre-tertiary education in the province. In order to succeed in this onerous task, he or she needs to act sensitively to the cultural values and preferences of the consumers within a multi-cultural context. The superintendent (management) is also a representative of the Provincial Head of Education or the Chief Executive Officer, and has, therefore, to ensure that he or she conducts him/herself in a professional and responsible manner at all times.

KZN Circular Number 134 of 2003 proceeds to delineate the key performance areas of the SEM, which include:

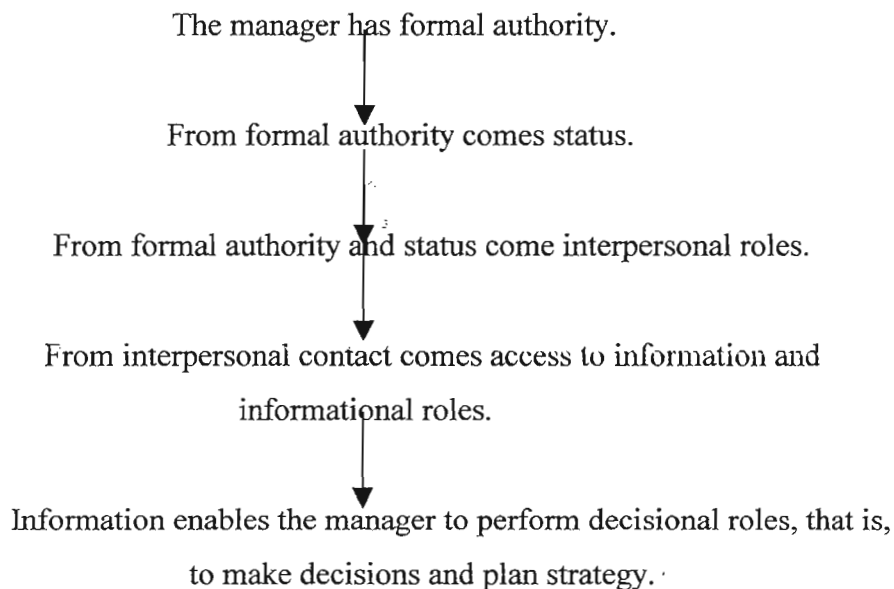
- staffing matters;
- capacity building;
- dispute resolution;
- systems and procedures;
- management and leadership;
- governance;
- integrated quality management systems; and,
- ad hoc tasks.

4.8 Conclusion

A careful analysis of the elements contained in all three of the three documents above, which deal with the roles and responsibilities of superintendents, shows that these managers need to play a number of different roles every day. They interact with people and with information, and make different sorts of decisions. Essentially, superintendents have formal authority and status in the organization and they enact three kinds of roles, namely:

- interpersonal roles
- informational roles, and
- decisional roles.

For both international researchers and South African policy makers, the logic in respect of the roles of education managers is akin to that depicted graphically below (Figure 1.15):



In the following diagram (Figure 1.16), these three main types of roles are further divided into ten roles (Mintzberg, 1990):

Figure 1.16: Three Main Types of Roles

	The manager's roles	
	Formal authority and status	
<i>Interpersonal roles</i>	<i>Informational roles</i>	<i>Decisional roles</i>
a. Figurehead	d. Monitor	g. Entrepreneur
b. Leader	e. Disseminator	h. Disturbance handler
c. Liaison	f. Spokesperson	i. Negotiator j. Resource allocator

The superintendent (management) is undoubtedly one of the key educational leaders and a primary liaison between the different stakeholder groups: principals, school management teams, educators, parents, the governing bodies, district and regional officials, and officials of the Provincial Department of Education. Mintzberg's (1990) description reflects policy and practice in jurisdictions around the world, especially in the context of the increased autonomy of educational institutions in various forms of site-based learning. Against the background of the above information, the researcher suggests that superintendents, who must make complex decisions about educational leadership, must understand the significance of diverse models in education as well as ideas emanating from the international community. From the above, it is clear that the building of interpersonal relationships is an important management task of the superintendent. The fact that management is an equilibrating and balanced activity, has been indicated by Mintzberg (1990) and Leithwood *et al* (1999:18-19). The review of literature on leadership convinced the researcher that leadership should not be approached only from the myopic viewpoint of one particular leadership theory. The researcher believes that to lead effectively, a superintendent needs to embrace the various theories, namely characteristic, situational and group function theories. Each of these theories absolutizes an aspect or facet of leadership, while a valid theory of leadership would most likely contain elements of each of these approaches. The researcher selected the situational theories, as he believed that these particularize the integral parts of educational leadership and management such as policy and control, context, delegation and organization, planning and guidance, interpersonal

relationships, motivation and decision-making. The following chapter discusses four situational theories, which presuppose the symbiotic interplay of task and relationship-oriented leadership.

CHAPTER FIVE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK: THE CONTINGENCY OR SITUATIONAL THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

5.0 Introduction

The point of departure in the situation theory is that certain types of leaders or leadership are the most suitable in certain situations. According to this view, the situation is the most important factor that determines who emerges as a leader, what the nature of leadership action will be, and how the leader and his or her subordinates interact with each other. This situation theory has practical value because leadership involves the application of specific expertise and makes certain demands of certain leadership qualities.

5.1 The Eclectic Nature of the Situation Theory

During the past century, theorists have developed numerous and varied responses to the same basic management question: "What is the best way to lead in an organization?" This study has earlier, in Chapters 2 and 3, alluded to some of the most widely accepted viewpoints on leadership and management that have evolved since the nineteenth century, namely, the traditional (or classical), the behavioural, and the systems approaches. It would, therefore, be reasonable to assume that all of the preceding leadership and management views still influence managers' thinking today, to a lesser or greater extent.

As Fullan (1998:214-231) and Leithwood *et al* (1996) observe, it is inevitable that leadership theory, in its quest for generalizations, becomes abstract and decontextualized. In practice, however, successful leadership depends largely on context or situation, and the choices that managers make. Where research on educational districts and administrative structure exists (and there is little in literature), it is usually in the style of case examples and evaluation studies. The findings, in Chapter Seven, clarify the dependence of leadership on context, including the particular mixture of expertise, structure, resources, and organizational culture that informs the superintendent's leadership style.

Also, in the introduction to this study, it is argued that the broad context of public service management intersects with the educational leadership context – an approach which according to Wessels and Pauw (1999:17), is undergoing massive transformation from one grounded in the apartheid paradigm of ‘*this-is-the-way-we’ve-always-done-it*’ to a new paradigm of ‘*what-is-the-best-way*’ approach. The emphasis in this research, therefore, is on a fluid view of leadership that sees the superintendents as negotiators and implementers of change, and on the understanding that, as educational leaders, superintendents are called upon to lead their colleagues in a variety of situations.

According to Hellriegel *et al* (2001:65), the intrinsic nature of the situational or contingency theory is that leadership practices should be consistent with the requirements of the external environment and the people involved. Proponents of the situational theory contend that different situations require different practices. These proponents advocate the use of three management viewpoints independently or in combination, as necessary, to deal with different situations (Tosi, 1992; Crowston, 1997; Huber and Glick, 1993). It would be expedient to recapitulate the three management viewpoints expressed earlier in this research.

Firstly, the traditional viewpoint (*cf.* 2.3.2.1) sought to identify management competencies that efficiently organized the work of subordinates. Each level of management in the hierarchy was assigned specific goals and tasks to accomplish, in an allotted time period. The structure of the organization governed relations between manager and subordinate. It was the manager’s job to plan, organize and lay out the task for the subordinate; it was the subordinate’s job to follow the manager’s instructions. Traditionally, these leaders resorted to the power of the position.

Secondly, the behavioural viewpoint (Chapter 3) focused on developing two competencies, namely, communication and teamwork. It was the manager’s job to acknowledge the social and emotional needs of subordinates and to develop harmonious relationships in the workplace. This viewpoint stressed that subordinates’ behavioural patterns are greatly influenced by their interactions with peers and managers. The behavioural view contends that, if managers communicated with subordinates and satisfied their workplace needs, the organization would be more effective and efficient. This approach required leaders to

enhance rather than undercut co-operation and to operate with the highest ethical standards. To this end, leadership involved collaboration and connection with subordinates in various ways.

Thirdly, the systems viewpoint (*cf.* 2.3.2.2) stressed that managers should focus on how the various inputs, transformation processes and outputs, are related to the organization's goals. The organization was viewed as the 'whole', rather than simply the sum of its various departments or divisions. This wholeness requires managers to develop their communication, strategic thinking, and action, and global awareness competencies. To develop these competencies, managers use quantitative models to help them understand complex organizational relationships. The systems approach, therefore, requires leaders to develop a process focus.

As a result of the increasing complexity of the education system in South Africa, the educational leader is subjected to changing demands especially in respect of his or her management tasks. In this regard, the researcher believes that there is an urgent necessity for superintendents to receive both academic and professional training in education leadership and management. The chapter on recommendations deals with leader-development in greater detail.

The researcher is convinced that leadership in education must be a balanced activity and, therefore, none of the above-mentioned viewpoints can either be emphasized or accepted *per se*. It can be concluded that education leadership will consist of some of all the above-mentioned approaches, and that all of these approaches should be synthesized to ensure effective leadership. The following diagram shows the application of an eclectic approach to educational management.

Table 1.8: Integration of Management Viewpoints and Competencies (Adapted from Hellriegel *et al*, 2001:69)

Managerial Competency	Management Viewpoint			Situational
	Traditional	Behavioural	Systems	
Communication		X	X	X
Planning and Administration	X			X
Strategic Action			X	X
Teamwork		X		X
X = relatively high importance				

As shown in the above table, the situational or contingency viewpoint draws from each of the other viewpoints and involves a somewhat different set of competencies. Deciding whether to draw on one set of skills in a competence or on several skills across competencies is the job of the manager. How an organization is designed, depends on its external environment and the skills of its leaders and its employees. The successful leader will be the person with the qualities most suited to the situation. Therefore, the situational theory sees leadership in the context of the environment, that is, time, place and event. The situational theory shows that leadership involves more than personal traits and behaviour. Leadership also involves dealing appropriately and meaningfully with people in actual situations.

According to the situational theory, it is essential also that leaders learn to change or adapt their styles of leadership depending on the situation. The situational theory implies that there is no 'one best way' to lead all people in all situations. Different people are successful in different circumstances. Managers, who subscribe to the situational approach, use the concepts developed by traditionalists, behaviourists, and systems analysts– but go beyond them to identify the best approach for each particular situation. Because of its very nature, the situational or contingency viewpoint cannot offer detailed prescriptions for the *best* way to manage in *all* situations.

5.1.1 Contingency or Situational Variables

The essence of the situational viewpoint is that management and leadership practices should be consistent with the requirements of the environment and the people who work for the organization. The relative importance of each contingency variable depends on the type of managerial problem being considered. For the situational theorists, the point of departure is that certain types of leaders or leadership are the most suitable in certain situations.

To complement the trait and behaviour approaches to leadership and to tie in with Tannenbaum and Schmidt's (1973) multidimensional view on leadership, which gave rise to the contingency or situational approach to leadership, researchers started identifying factors in each situation that influence the effectiveness of leadership. The reason for this approach and the shift in emphasis was that the trait and behaviour approaches indicated that no single trait or style is equally effective in all situations, and that good leadership is the result of additional variables. Hence, according to Smit and Cronje (1997:283), leaders' success can be attributed partly to certain traits and behaviour patterns that they manifest, but the leaders' success is determined primarily by how good their traits and behaviour patterns are in satisfying the needs of their subordinates and the situations.

This situational or contingency approach attests to the fact that there is not a best style of leadership for all situations. The success of leadership lies therein that it should be applicable and suit the situation. The theory presupposes that a leadership style should be accepted as a given fact and that tasks and situations should be arranged to suit the leadership style rather than making an attempt to change the leadership style to suit the situation. Briefly, this approach means that the leadership style of an educational leader should be regarded as a given factor and that it is recommended that the planning of tasks and situations be done in such a way that a person's leadership style will be adapted to suit the specific situation.

5.1.2 Assessing the Situational or Contingency Viewpoint

The situational viewpoint of management is useful because of its diagnostic approach, which clearly departs from the one-best-way-approach of the traditionalists. The

contingency viewpoint encourages managers to analyze and understand situational differences and to choose the solution best suited to the organization, the process and the people involved in each situation. According to the situational theory, it is not an organization that is being managed but a situation.

Critics argue that the contingency viewpoint really is nothing new. They say that it is merely a meshing of techniques from other viewpoints of management (Hellriegel *et al*, 2001:67). It holds that a manager should rely on absolute principles from the traditional, behavioural, and systems viewpoints only after properly diagnosing the realities of the situation. Such a diagnosis looks at the nature of the situation and the means by which the manager can influence it. The researcher is partial to the situational theory because the researcher believes that educational leaders' success is often determined by their ability to sum up a situation and adapt their style of leadership accordingly. Instead of searching for the best style of leadership, educational leaders should rather learn to establish interfaces with themselves, the situation and the needs of their subordinates. The researcher believes that the situational theory, through its eclectic nature, provides some explanations for why different styles of leadership will work. There is no 'one best way' to lead all people in all situations. Different leaders are successful in different circumstances. An effective leader in one situation is not necessarily an effective leader in another. Similarly, no single style is effective for all situations. For instance, the autocratic style of leadership may be the most appropriate in one situation, while the participative style may be best in another situation. Each situation requires a different management approach (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1979:120), therefore, no general way of managing is applicable to all situations. Situational management requires the manager to have the ability to analyze different situations and to formulate and apply a management strategy that will work best for the situation.

5.2 Situational or Contingency Theories

Various theories were developed against the background of this explanation of the situational approach to leadership. The four most influential situational theories of leadership are Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory, Hersey and Blanchard's (1993) situational theory, Vroom-Yetton-Jago's (1988) leader-participation theory, and House's (1990) path-goal theory.

5.2.1 Fiedler's Contingency Theory of Leadership

Fiedler (1967) and his associates developed the first theory of contingency. The contingency theory suggests that successful leadership depends on matching a leader's style to a situation's demand. In other words, each leadership style is most effective when it is used in the right situation. According to this theory, the manager has to understand his or her own leadership style, diagnose the particular situation, and then match style and situation. That may mean either changing the situation to match the manager's style or giving the leadership role to someone whose style matches the situation.

A leader who recognizes the importance of developing strong and positive emotional ties with subordinates is called a relationship-oriented leader. This type of leader would always use a considerate or an employee-centred style. A leader who does not value relationships and instead focuses only on the task is called a task-oriented leader. This type of manager structures the job for subordinates and closely watches their behaviour. Such a leader simply wants to get the job done.

Fiedler (1967) identified three variables in the work situation that help determine which leadership style will be effective: leader-member relations, task structure, and the leader's position power. Each can be described as either favourable or unfavourable for the leader. The variables will be discussed briefly in relation to the detailed analysis rendered on power and leadership and manager-subordinate relationships in sections 2.7 and 3.5 respectively.

5.2.1.1 Leader-Member Relations

The above variable involves the extent to which subordinates accept the leader. A leader who gets along well with subordinates and whose expertise (expert power) is in a favourable position. Conversely, a leader who is disliked and is not trusted is in an unfavourable position.

5.2.1.2 Task-Structure

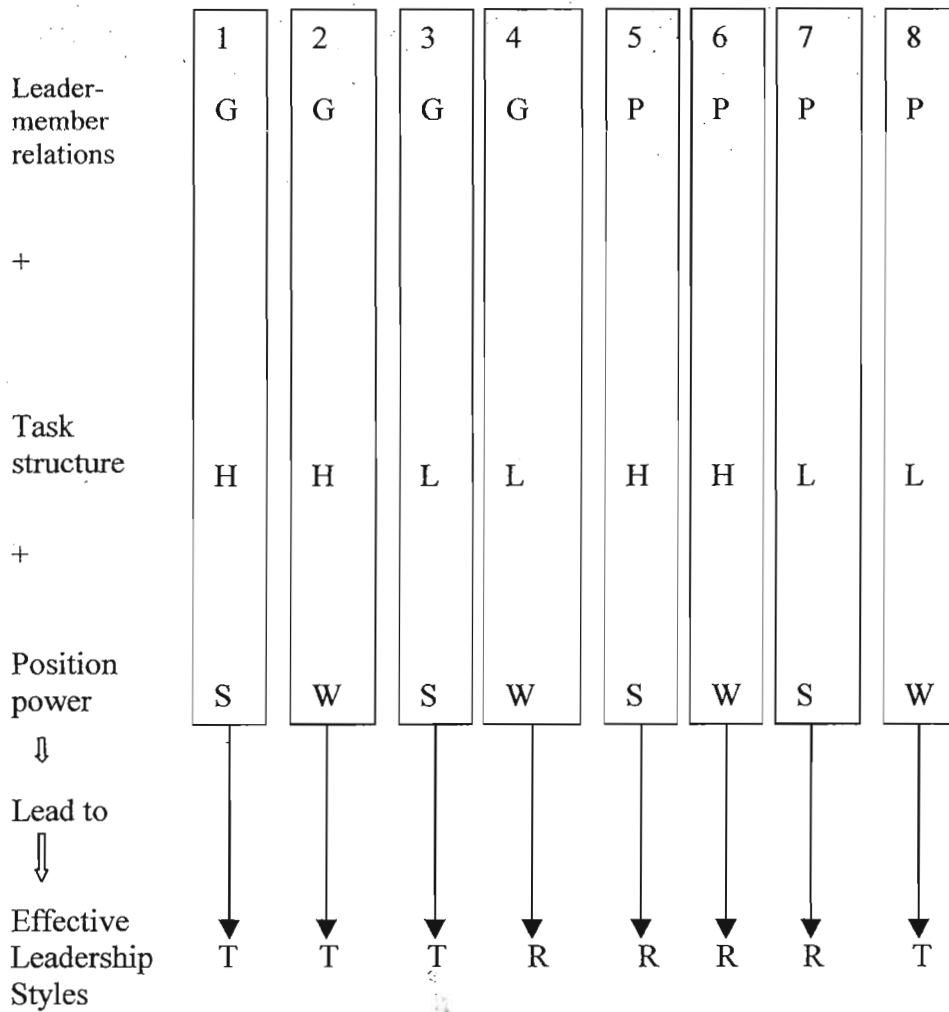
Task-structure is the degree to which a task is routine. When giving directions, the leader can refer to standard operating procedures. Fiedler (1967) considered this situation to be favourable for a leader. In contrast, for a complex and non-routine task the leader has no clear guidelines or

procedures to point to. In this case, the leader has to guide and direct subordinates. This situation is considered to be unfavourable for a leader.

5.2.1.3 Leader Position Power

The above is the extent to which a leader has legitimate, reward and coercive power (*vide*: 2.7.2.1 – 2.7.2.3) of this research. Having strong position power is favourable for a leader because it simplifies the leader's ability to influence subordinates. Low position power makes the leader's task difficult because the leader has to rely on personal sources of influence.

Figure 1.17 illustrates Fiedler's contingency model of leadership (Hellriegel *et al*, 2001:291)



G = good
 P = poor
 H = high
 L = low
 S = strong
 W = weak
 T = task-oriented style
 R = relationship-oriented style

According to this model, the basic situational variables are shown on the left. The numbered columns represent possible combinations of the three variables and are arranged from the most favourable situation (1) to the least favourable situation (8) for the leader. The leadership style, task-oriented or relationship-oriented, best suited to each combination of variables is indicated by 'T' or 'R' in the bottom row. The model indicates that a leader will have the most control and influence in situations represented by column 1, where there are good leader-member relations, high task structure, and strong position power. The diagram shows that a leader will have

progressively less control and influence in situations represented by columns 2-7. A leader's control and influence are quite limited in situations represented by column 8.

5.2.1.4 Extrapolation: Effective Leadership Styles

As suggested in Figure 1.17, task-oriented leaders perform most effectively in the most favourable situations (columns 1, 2, and 3) and in the least favourable situation (column 8). In the most favourable situations, the leader is well respected, has freedom to reward and sanction subordinates, and subordinates' activities are clear and specific. In the least favourable situation (column 8), tasks are unstructured, group support is lacking, and the leader's position power is low. Relationship-oriented leaders generally are most effective in moderately favourable situations. In such cases, tasks are structured, but the leader is disliked or vice versa. Regardless of the situation, the leader must depend on his or her subordinates' willingness and creativity to accomplish the required tasks.

5.2.1.5 Organizational Implications of Fiedler's Contingency Theory

According to Potter¹¹¹ *et al* (1993:61-70), the model's greatest contributions may be its redirection of research in the field, rather than provision of any concrete ideas. It has caused researchers to examine a situation more closely before attempting to find the leadership style most appropriate to the situation. Fiedler pointed out that a leader could not be labeled good or poor. Rather, the leader may perform well in one situation but not in others. Hence organizations can gain better leadership by making the situation more favourable or shifting the leader to a situation that better matches the individual's style. Baird *et al* (1990:302-307) argue that Fiedler's contingency or situational theory is based on the assumption that, for the lack of a single best style, successful leadership depends on the fit with regard to the leader, the subordinate, and the situation. In short, a leader's effectiveness is determined by how well his or her style is compatible with the situation. According to Fiedler (1967), a manager can maintain this fit by:

- understanding his or her style of leadership (task-oriented or employee-oriented style);
- analyzing the situation to determine whether or not the style will be effective;
- matching the style and situation by changing the latter so that it is compatible with the style, because a leader cannot change his or her style to tie in with the situation. An

example here would be to select an autocratic leader to fill a position that requires a task-oriented leader, or adapting a position to give an autocratic leader more formal authority over his or her subordinates.

5.2.2 Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory

Hersey and Blanchard's model suggests that the level of directive (similar to initiating-structure and production-centred) and supportive (similar to considerate and employee-centred) leader behaviours be based on the level of readiness of the followers (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988:171). In contrast to Fiedler, who believes that a leader's style is relatively rigid, Hersey and Blanchard emphasize a leader's flexibility to adapt to changing situations. This model prescribes different combinations of directive and supportive behaviours for different levels of subordinates' readiness. Hanna and Wilson (1984:123) refer to these styles as "telling", "selling", "participating", and "delegating". For Hersey and Blanchard, maturity has three components, namely, the individual's achievement and motivation, his or her willingness and ability to take responsibility, and the extent to which he or she has the requisite education and experience for a particular situation.

The above model prescribes different combinations of directive and supportive behaviours for different levels of subordinates' readiness. In essence, this model presupposes that managerial style must change as a group of subordinates develops and reaches maturity. To be successful, this model suggests that leaders must analyze the situation, determine what degree of support is necessary, and adapt their style as their subordinates develop. The following variables are closely examined in the chapter dealing with the findings of the questionnaire (*cf.* Chapter 7):

5.2.2.1 Directive Behaviour: This behaviour variable is evident when a leader relies on one-way communication, spells out duties and tells his or her subordinates what to do and where, when, and how to do it. Directive leaders structure, control, and supervise subordinates.

5.2.2.2 Supportive Behaviour: Supportive behaviour occurs when a leader relies on two-way communication, listening, encouraging, and involving subordinates in decision-making. Being supportive does not mean just being amiable. It is about being receptive to other people's ideas and respecting what they do.

5.2.2.3 Readiness: Readiness refers to a subordinate's ability to set high but attainable task-related goals and a willingness to accept responsibility for reaching them. People have varying degrees of readiness, depending on their backgrounds and the specific task they are trying to accomplish.

5.2.2.4 Organizational Principles of the Hersey and Blanchard Model

The idea that leaders should be flexible with respect to the leadership style they use is appealing. However, the leader must constantly monitor the maturity levels of subordinates in order to determine the combination of directive and supportive behaviour that is most appropriate. An inexperienced subordinate may perform as well as an experienced one if properly directed and closely supervised. If the leader's style is appropriate, it should also help subordinates gain more experience and become more competent. Thus, as a leader helps followers evolve, his or her leadership style also needs to evolve.

Hersey and Blanchard were interested in a situation-controlled approach to leadership when they developed their model (Hanna & Wilson, 1984:122-123). According to Hanna and Wilson (1984), every communication event includes both a *task dimension* (objects, problems, events) and a *relationship dimension* between the communicators at the moment of the communication event. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) believe that appropriate leadership decisions must take both the task and relationship dimensions into account.

5.2.3 House's Path-Goal Theory

Robert House, cited in Wofford and Liska (1994:857-876), and in Hellriegel *et al* (2001:294), developed another contingency or situational model. House's path-goal model indicates that effective leaders clearly specify the task, reduce barriers to task achievement, and increase opportunities for task-related satisfaction, thereby clarifying the paths, or means, by which subordinates can attain job satisfaction and improve performance. In the path-goal theory, the leader's function, according to Wofford and Liska (1994:857-876), is to motivate subordinates and help them reach their highly valued, job-related objectives. The specific style of leader behaviour exhibited should be determined by two contingency variables: employee characteristics and task characteristics. Like the Fiedler and Hersey and Blanchard contingency models, House's path-goal theory does not provide a formula for the best way to lead. Instead, it

stresses that, to be effective, a leader should select the style most appropriate to a particular situation and the subordinates' needs. The model identifies four styles of leadership (Woffard & Liska, 1994:857-876):

5.2.3.1 Achievement-Oriented Leadership:

Achievement-oriented leadership involves setting challenging goals, expecting followers to perform at their highest level, and showing confidence that they will meet this expectation.

5.2.3.2 Directive Leadership:

Directive leadership involves letting subordinates know what is expected of them and telling them how to perform their tasks. Their style is similar to the initiating-structure and production-centred styles.

5.2.3.3 Participative Leadership:

Participative leadership involves consulting with followers and asking for their suggestions before making a decision.

5.2.3.4 Supportive Leadership:

Supportive leadership involves being friendly and approachable and showing concern for subordinates' well being. This style is much like the considerate and employee-centred or people-oriented style.

House's first contingency variable is employee characteristics. The model suggests that subordinates will accept a particular leadership style if they perceive it to be an immediate source of job satisfaction. The other contingency variable of the path-goal model is task characteristics. Participative or supportive leadership is likely to increase satisfaction with the leader. Like Fiedler's and Hersey and Blanchard's models, House's model indicates that participative leadership styles are not always effective. A participatory style is needed most when subordinates' acceptance of decision is important, when the leader does not have some of the information needed to make a decision, and when a problem is unstructured. According to this

model, directive or task-oriented leadership seems to work better when subordinates do not share the leader's and/or organization's goals and when subordinates are receptive to top-down decision-making.

5.2.4 Leader-Participation Situational Theory

One of the more recent contributions to the situation or contingency approach is the leader-participation model proposed by Vroom, Yetton and Jago (1988). The leader-participation theory provides a set of rules to determine the amount and form of participative decision-making that should be encouraged in different situations. Recognizing that the task can be either structured or unstructured, the researchers suggested that the leader's behaviours be adjusted to the task structure. The theory suggests that the effectiveness of a decision is gauged by both its quality and its acceptance. According to the leader-participation model, a leader needs to analyze the situation and then choose a decision-making style. The Vroom-Yetton-Jago theory sets standards for the inclusion of subordinates in the decision-making process. The theory is therefore an aid for managers to determine how and to what extent subordinates should participate in problem solving. Thus to be able to handle a certain situation, the Vroom-Yetton-Jago model isolated five styles of leadership that represent a continuum from authoritarian approaches to a fully participative approach (Smit & Cronje, 1992:348). These styles are summarized in the Table below.

Table 1.9: Decision-Making Styles According to the Leader-Participation Model (Vroom & Yetton, 1988):

Decision Style**Definition**

A1 (autocratic)	Leader makes the decision alone.
A11 (autocratic)	Leader asks for information from team members, but makes the decision alone. Team members may or may not be informed as to what the situation is.
C1 (consultative)	Leader shares the situation with each team member and asks for information and evaluation. Team members do not meet as a team, and the leader alone makes the decision.
C11 (consultative)	Leader and team members meet as team to discuss the situation, but the leader makes the decision.
G1 (group)	Leader and team members meet as team to discuss the situation, and the team make the decision.

Moreover, according to this model, the leader's analysis is guided by eight contingency questions, which must be answered. The researcher took cognizance of the following questions posed by Vroom and Yetton (1988) model:

1. How important is the technical quality of this decision? (Quality Requirement)
2. How important is the subordinate's commitment to the decision? (Commitment Requirement)
3. Does the leader have sufficient information to make a high-quality decision? (Leader's Information)
4. Is the problem well structured? (Problem Structure)
5. If the leader were to make the decision by him/herself, is it reasonably certain that his or her subordinates would be committed to the decision? (Commitment Probability)

6. Do subordinates share the organizational goals to be attained in solving this problem? (Goal Congruence)
7. Is conflict among subordinates over preferred solutions likely? (Subordinate Conflict)
8. Do subordinates have sufficient information to make a high-quality decision? (Subordinate Information)

5.2.4.1 Organizational Implications

The leader-participation model provides an excellent guide for determining the type and degree of subordinate participation in decision-making. Leaders use participation when the quality of decision is important, when subordinates should accept the decision and they are unlikely to do so unless they are allowed to have some say in it, and when subordinates can be trusted to strive for organizational goals rather than individual goals.

This model also stresses that the situation and not the leader should receive attention. Along with Hersey and Blanchard's, and House's models, the leader-participation model states that a leader can adopt different styles of leadership to meet the demands of different situations. But, before choosing a leadership style, a leader must assess the situation.

Table 1.10 A Comparison of Four Situational Models

	Fiedler's Contingency Model	Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Model	House's Path-Goal Model	Leader-Participation Model
Key situational variables	Task structure; Leader-member Relations; Leader position power	Level of followers' maturity	Task-Characteristics; Employee-characteristics	Eight diagnostic questions concerning time, quality, and acceptance
Leadership styles	Task-Oriented; Relationship-oriented	Telling Selling Participating Delegating	Achievement Directive Participative Supportive	Admix of: autocratic, consultative, and group styles
Implications	Leader's style is matched to situation or situation is changed to fit leader's style. High or low control situations favour task-oriented leader. Moderate control situations favour relationship-oriented leader.	Effective leaders choose a style to match the maturity level of their followers.	If tasks are routine and simple, supportive or participative leadership is best for team members who want to satisfy their social needs. If tasks are non-routine and complex, directive or achievement-oriented leadership is best for team members who want to self-actualize on the job.	Effective leaders analyze the situation by answering the eight contingency questions and then choose among the five styles, depending on their answers.

5.3. Conclusion

According to these four situational or contingency models, leaders need to be able to direct and motivate others to achieve high productivity and greater job satisfaction. The contingency models demonstrate the importance to a leader of situational factors and follower characteristics.

This research is premised on the belief that successful superintendents ought to be adept at recognizing the requirements and the dynamics of the situation, and the needs of their subordinates and then adjusting their own leadership style or the situation accordingly.

Contingency models imply that leaders should be able to adapt their behaviour to the different conditions they may face. One of the questions that this research asks is: "Can Superintendents of Education (Management) realistically be expected to be so flexible?" The study of Superintendents of Education (Management) in the eThekweni Region would indicate if they can

and do use different leadership styles in different situations. The study will also indicate if superintendents, who display a broad range of leadership behaviours, are more effective in their jobs. Consonant with the aforementioned views of situational theorists such as Hersey and Blanchard, Fiedler, Vroom-Yetton-Jago, and House, is the researcher's conviction that superintendents in the eThekweni Region will have to deal with transformation and change where cognitive and social transformation leadership skills play a big part. This is imperative in order to pre-empt a scenario in which many of them could find themselves 'yesterday's leaders for today's and tomorrow's contingencies'.

CHAPTER SIX

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

6.0 Introduction

This section contains what the researcher considers to be a fresh combination of perspectives on research methodology available and applicable to Public Administration. It also constitutes the rationale for the methodological approaches used by the researcher in this study. The researcher believes that his study had a multi-disciplinary nature, and that the disciplines and methods of the empirical social sciences featured very prominently within it. White (1986:232), Adam and White (1994:575), and Cleary (1992:60) maintain that non-mainstream research can contribute to knowledge in Public Administration if, it is guided by alternative methodological and philosophical frameworks. Their thoughts make it clear that a survey on Public Administration research in fact shows that it has, to some extent, been taken for granted that social science methods can and must be applied to Public Administration.

Research in Public Administration is something different from general survey research. It is an attempt to contribute to the body of knowledge of Public Administration. According to McCurdy and Cleary, the aim of research should be to build the knowledge base of a subject (McCurdy & Cleary, 1984:53). To be of any theoretical significance, research in Public Administration should, according to Stallings, 'rise above the individual and particular problems of day-to-day practical administration (Stallings, 1986:239). Wessels and Pauw (1999:367) state that Public Administration research is supposed to be something different from general survey research. It is not supposed only to give a systematic or scientific description of a problem in practice with some practical solutions for it. Issues for a researcher in Public Administration are those, which are not solvable by a practitioner with only systematic thinking skills. Such issues are usually explained by concepts, theories, and paradigms within the subject Public Administration. Perry and Kraemer refer to these issues as 'core issues' in the subject (Perry and Kraemer, 1986:221). Marais (1993:118) argues that it is also possible to focus on what he calls 'the second order of reality', namely the theories, models, concepts, and other constructs that are used in the

subject Public Administration to get a grip on the practice of public administration. The substance of the reality that is being studied plays a vital role in determining the data sources and methods for collecting it. The researcher contends that the profile of sources and methods in Public Administration will not differ substantially from other academic subjects. Without having to embark on an extended discussion of what research is, it can be argued that if research is a human activity to acquire knowledge, scientific research is probably a conditioned human activity to acquire new and valid scientific knowledge about a specific field of study. As Pauw points out, not all conditioned human activities to acquire knowledge are scientific (Pauw, 1996:66-68).

6.1. Units of Analysis

Babbie identified four categories of ‘units of analysis’ that are studied by social scientists, namely individuals, groups, organizations, and social artifacts (Babbie, 1992:92-95). Mouton uses much the same classification with a few adaptations (Mouton, 1996:47-50). He also has a category for individuals, but has renamed Babbie’s category of ‘groups’ as ‘collectives’. He refines Babbie’s ‘organizations’ into two subcategories, namely ‘organizations’ (e.g. government departments) and ‘institutions’ (e.g. schools and universities), and divides Babbie’s ‘social artefacts’ into social actions and events, ‘interventions’ (e.g. programmes, policies, and systems) and ‘cultural objects’ (Wessels and Pauw, 1999:370). What emerges from the foregoing comments is the fact that there are more or less four main categories of entities in the social world that are analyzed by social researchers. According to Wessels and Pauw (1999:370), these categories of entities are also applicable to the objects of research by researchers in Public Administration as a social science. Of equal significance to this research, is Bailey’s reference to the following categories of units of analysis (with Mouton’s taxonomy in brackets):

- people (individuals or collectives)
- events (social events)
- organizational processes (organizations or interventions)

(Bailey, 1992:50).

The broad categories posed by Babbie (1992), Mouton (1996) and Bailey (1992), are useful ways of classifying reality – especially for methodological purposes. It is thus clear

that Public Administration contains a wide, complex and ever-changing variety of research 'objects' or units of analysis.

It was in this context, therefore, that the research was applied to obtain valid knowledge about the object of enquiry, namely, the analysis of theory and practice of leadership in education with a particular reference to Superintendents of Education (Management) in the eThekweni Region of KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education.

6.2 Sources, Methods, and Techniques

Various viewpoints exist on what constitutes valid sources, methods and techniques in Public Administration. A study of the literature on social, and more specifically Public Administration, research reveals that there are at least three macro research methods (or paradigms) that can be prominent in the social sciences. The first is probably the one referred to as 'mainstream' social research, namely *quantitative* research (Adams and White, 1994:570; Perry and Kraemer, 1986:224). The second is best known as *qualitative* research (Perry and Kraemer, 1986:224; Adams and White, 1994:570). The third to take note of is *participatory action research* (Mouton 1996:37; Reason, 1994:47; Bless and Higgson-Smith, 1995:51-61). Mouton refers also to the existence of quantitative, qualitative and participatory paradigms, which imply different sources of data, data collecting methods and techniques as well as different assumptions and values regarding their use (Mouton, 1996:37). The main argument here is that, due to the different units of analysis that constitute public administration, a researcher in Public Administration ought to be able to use a variety of sources, methods and techniques in order to produce valid knowledge about the object of enquiry. According to Pauw (1995:49), the disciplines of 'investigation of groups' and 'interpretation' are probably the most frequently used. Adams and White, in turn, use a slightly different taxonomy of research, namely theoretical, empirical, historical and operations research (Adams and White, 1994:569). They include in their category of 'empirical research' all the 'mainstream' social science methods and their associated techniques, other quantitative techniques, the case study approach, and qualitative research designs and techniques (Adams and White, 1994:569). This category corresponds to the disciplines which Pauw (1995) calls 'investigation of groups' and 'investigation of persons', categories of skills he regards as having the highest incidence in Public Administration. The 'theoretical' category of Adams and White (1994) includes the

technique of logical argument and critical analysis. To this end, the researcher used both quantitative and qualitative methods in his study.

The disciplines mentioned above are applied to gather data about a specific object of inquiry. The various sources of data that are exploited in the social sciences can be divided into two main categories: human behaviour and human characteristics (Mouton, 1996:141-142). Each category of data can best be collected, by using a specialized discipline, or combinations of disciplines, developed and refined specifically for that type of data source.

It seems common practice, however, to use data sources from both categories (human behaviour and human characteristics) while making a study of the theory and practice of leadership in education with a particular reference to superintendents of education (management). From the category 'products of human behaviour and human characteristics', data sources such as official documents, reports, business plans, the Constitution, and other relevant Acts were used to obtain reliable data about the aim, functions, composition, and competencies of superintendents. Data within the category 'human behaviour and human characteristics' were obtained from managers and officials in the eThekweni Region about their experiences with and perceptions and expectations of superintendents as leaders in education.

The above observations illustrate that a researcher in Public administration has to deal with a wide variety of data sources with just as wide a variety of methodological techniques to exploit the sources in an attempt to obtain valid knowledge on the object of inquiry. A researcher in Public Administration thus cannot afford to rely on one methodological paradigm only. In this regard, one can echo the remark by McCurdy and Cleary that Public Administration 'needs methodology and research designs structured by "our own unique needs"' (McCurdy and Cleary, 1984:54).

6.3 Methodological Dimensions and Research Design

The researcher believed that much research in the past has been over-simplified in its approach, or so subservient to the canons of traditional research that its attention had been too narrowly focused. This concern is shared by Bell, who observes that methods are often

not justified by the context of the research project, but are imposed in an arbitrary fashion, which he calls the 'tyranny of the traditional scientific approach' (Bell, 1994:325).

Perhaps, at this stage of our understanding, bolder research designs can contribute to the pursuit of what Wessels and Pauw (1999:270) refer to as the 'epistemic imperative'. As much of the study was mounted in a largely unresearched field, the researcher was faced with daunting methodological problems. Faced with diverse interests, the researcher took a broad study of the concept 'leadership' as a dynamic interaction between superintendents of education (management) and their subordinates (principals), combining both subjective and objective methods and techniques in the acquisition of relevant information. Pauw (1999:375) contends that a researcher in Public Administration has to deal with a wide variety of data sources with just as wide a variety of methodological skills in an effort to obtain valid knowledge on the specific object of inquiry. McCurdy and Cleary (1984:54) confirm the view of Pauw (1999) that Public Administration 'needs methodology and research designs structured by our own unique needs'. A perusal of the views of several other authorities, namely Mouton (1996), Adams and White (1994) and Perry and Kraemer (1986), confirms the view of Pauw.

To this end, the researcher, for pragmatic reasons, could not afford to rely on one methodological paradigm or discipline. The researcher adopted a comprehensive plan of data collection. Consequently, the theoretical rationale of this study attempted to break away from the traditional concept of triangulation into a strategy of multiple-operationism. The researcher felt that a combination of methods, developed and refined specifically for this study, was better suited to the exigencies of the eThekwinini Region's educational setting. By interweaving the research methods, it was hoped to advance understanding of the interplay among the different categories of units of analysis. As indicated previously, these approaches are reflected by, *inter alia*, the different philosophical and methodological paradigms in Public Administration and in the social sciences in general. The importance of the multidimensional methodological approaches to a study of this nature cannot be doubted. Mouton, for instance, refers to the existence of quantitative, qualitative, and participatory research paradigms, which imply different sources of data, data collecting methods and techniques, as well as different assumptions and values regarding their use (Mouton, 1996:37).

A problem in education that has long concerned educationists is the problem of the relationship between theory and practice in educational discourse. Despite the fact that much has been written on the relationship between theoretical statements and practical principles in education, it would seem that educationists continue to cling to an image of theory as incomprehensible 'jargon' that has nothing to do with their everyday problems and concerns. This study set out to address this misconception by exposing the unique interrelationship of theory and practice as enunciated in situational or contingency theoretical frameworks that impact on educational leadership, so that superintendents of education (management) may acquire a critical disposition in addressing issues that they encounter as educational leaders. The relationship of theory and practice in this research was not simply one of applying theory to practice; nor was it a matter of deriving theory from practice. Rather, by conceiving self-reflection as a valid category of knowledge, the critical approach assisted the researcher to interpret theory and practice as mutually constitutive and dialectically related domains. In essence, the value of theory to the study was to build the knowledge base of leadership in education. One way of doing so was to follow the criterion used by McCurdy and Cleary (1984:50):

- Did the research explicitly strengthen or weaken an existing theory or establish conditions under which the theory operates?

As part of the research methodology, attention was directed at the situational theories, namely those expounded by Fiedler (1967), Hersey and Blanchard (1993), Vroom, Yetton and Jago (1988), and House (1994), and the view of the theory-practice relationship that each sustains. Theory, in this research, refers to the framework of thought that structures and guides any distinctive theoretical or practical activity. Used in this sense, it denotes the underlying conceptual framework in terms of which a particular theoretical or practical enterprise is carried out. The researcher believed that the aim of theory was 'understanding' and theorizing was the distinctively human and humanizing social process through which, for the purpose of this study, superintendents could understand themselves, and the social world in which they live and work.

The researcher's review of literature on the subject of leadership revealed two conflicting traditions in South African politics, namely bureaucracy and democracy. The researcher discovered that each tradition led to a very different perspective on the role of

administration in South African democracy. The researcher believed that leadership should not always be vested in an individual by virtue of his or her place in the organizational hierarchy. Most contemporary research on leadership suggests that the best style of leadership depends a lot on the situation. The situational theory posits, theoretically at least, a process of interaction between superintendents and their subordinates that is dynamic, evolving through time. Throughout this process, superintendents have distinct informational and expertise advantages over school principals, for instance. The researcher was of the view that it was healthy for superintendents to use their information and expertise advantages to better inform their subordinates, *inter alia*, on policy matters, policy process, and policy implementation. Analyzing the empirically testable situational or contingency theories could, the researcher believed, reveal significant institutional change in the relationship between superintendents and their subordinates, leading, perhaps, to the conclusion that the superintendents observed in this study were not active and authoritative overseers but also thoroughly involved participants or co-managers. The researcher hoped that the review of findings based on the situational theory would indicate if bureaucratic responsiveness on the part of superintendents was the norm rather than the exception. The research looked also at the way superintendents behaved in different situations. The researcher turned to situational theories that purport to explain or account for the roles and behaviour of these public managers. The researcher believed that situational or contingency theories were central to any sophisticated understanding of public administration. These theories of Fiedler (1967), Hersey and Blanchard (1993), Vroom-Yetton-Jago (1988), and House (1994), indicate that the leader of a team needs to be related to the task, which is being carried out, the needs of the team and the needs of individuals in the team. In order to draw meaningful conclusions from the data collected, the instruments advocated by the foregoing theorists were utilized. These instruments provided a method of determining the differences between the theoretical and observed leadership practices of superintendents in a variety of situations. The question arose as to whether the differences between the observed practice and the theoretical assumptions were significant. In this context, the null hypothesis was that no differences existed between the observed practices and theoretical assumptions. If the observed practices departed significantly from the theoretical assumptions, then that would constitute evidence for the rejection or amendment of the theories.

6.4 Research Objectives

The research objectives of the study are as follows:

- Describe, explain, explore, and understand the concept *leadership* in group dynamics, specifically between Superintendents of Education (Management) and their subordinates;
- Analyze the current practice of leadership in education *vis- a- vis* situational theories;
- Describe how subordinates perceive the adequacy of leadership between themselves and the Superintendents of Education.

6.5 Data Analysis and Interpretation

The application of various methods and techniques led to different types of data-sets with different techniques of interpretation. Since quantitative research in the study relied on self-administered questionnaires and semi-structured interviews as techniques of data collection, the raw data-sets consisted of questionnaires completed by superintendents of education (management), who constituted the sample. These questionnaires were codified and the data was captured. These captured data-sets were analyzed by means of various techniques, such as the techniques for descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. The researcher believed that quantitative data collection methods and techniques could be analyzed and interpreted quantitatively as well as qualitatively. The researcher also believed that the unstructured individual or focus group interviews and participant observations may not lead to quantifiable answers, but could result in one or more of the following data-sets:

- the researcher's memories and notes
- tape recordings

Participatory observation produced data-sets of items such as:

- the minutes of participatory meetings

- their collective action

The researcher found that qualitative data collection methods and techniques produced unquantified data-sets which could be analyzed in a way that the comprehensibility of the units of analysis, its orientation, and, with that, the research problem increased.

Mason (1996:137-138) suggests the following techniques for analyzing and interpreting the data-sets of qualitative research:

- comparative explanations
- developmental explanations
- descriptive explanations
- predictive explanations
- theoretical explanations

6.6 Sample Used in this Study

Thirty-five (35) Superintendents of Education (Management), who were drawn from the eThekwinini Region, constituted the sample. The researcher believed that if the necessary biographical questions were captured, it could be possible to predict how respondents from different biographical categories such as race, gender, age, educational qualifications, rank and years of service would illuminate the study. With some background knowledge and with the various analyses of the data-set at hand, it would be possible for the researcher to give, to a limited extent, explanations for the reaction of the respondents.

RACE				GENDER		AGE			Years of Service				Grad-uate	Post Grad
A	C	I	W	M	F	35+	40+	50+	15	20	25	30		
23	3	6	3	31	4	10	18	7	4	19	8	4	21	14

6.7. Participant and Non-Participant Observation

Cohen and Manion (1989) describe two kinds of observation, namely participant and non-participant observation. In this study, a mixture of the two was employed. Each was dependent on the type of setting or context. For example, the former played a dominant role in activities such as workshops where the researcher was requested to participate and contribute, while the latter was more dominant in circuit and ward meetings organized by superintendents, where their agenda dominated. The following advantages of using participant observation were found:

- the researcher was able to discern ongoing implementation of leadership styles and management practices which had interpretive and subjective elements, and he was able to make appropriate notes about salient features
- the researcher could establish a more intimate and informal relationship with superintendents and principals, and provide the researcher with notes and data gathered on an ongoing basis
- data collected was not only on verbal responses to semi-structured questions– observed features, non-verbal clues and sub-texts could also be recorded.

The researcher conducted his study by occasionally joining the superintendents, by participating, to a greater or lesser extent, in their activities in order to achieve an understanding of the meanings and perceptions of the relationships between the people involved in the research, but retaining a degree of detachment as an observer whilst recording observations and conversations. The aim of research within this paradigm was to formulate situation-specific insights. The participant observer (researcher) took part in educational activities and events to observe the attitudes and behaviour of superintendents and their subordinates. Participant observation is described by Simon (1986:24) as a:

Research technique whereby the research investigator joins the group he (sic) wishes to study and shares in their day-to-day experiences through genuine face-to-face interaction

Reason (1994:47) seems to endorse this view when he states that where research within the quantitative paradigm is usually *on* people, research within the participatory paradigm is *with* people.

Simon (1986:14) adds, that such a strategy, if employed:

Moves away from the imposition of categories from above, to a procedure where informal techniques are used in such a way that the target population itself generates the important research issues (Crucial issues).

Here the researcher entered into the study pragmatically, recognizing the dynamic nature of human situations and human behaviour; aware that objectives and priorities were constantly evolving, but seeking to understand the significant features of the process he was involved with, and illuminating interpretations of them. The researcher understood that any research worthy of the name must be alert to unexpected outcomes, whether good or bad. First-hand situation-specific observation played a large part in the research, as did reports and questionnaires from the participating superintendents.

The investigator was in a position to meet and converse with the participating superintendents on a very regular basis. It must be pointed that the superintendents were not averse to meetings and site-specific visitations. It was possible for the researcher to discuss with superintendents, both in an informal and formal way, many issues pertaining to the process of leadership in education. These superintendents were visited regularly over a period of four months. These visits took the form of participant observations and also formed the context for informal interviewing. In this kind of informal interviewing, questions were not asked in any specific order, but the interviewer probed certain issues. The superintendents, who were interviewed, were encouraged to elaborate or proffer points of view, and the researcher noted these. Issues, which repeated themselves, were selected for further exploration. It must be noted that this study attempts, amongst others, to offer critical perspectives of the theory and practice of leadership in education leadership, and to generate increased awareness and understanding of the leadership process between superintendents and their subordinates. The researcher was satisfied that a fairly detailed portrayal of the relationships, merits, problems, and constraints was abstracted through participant observation.

To link up with information sources for evaluation purposes, required evaluation opportunities. Such opportunities presented themselves in the form of school visits, staff meetings and social occasions. There were many similar opportunities for the researcher who was intent on making direct contact with principals and superintendents as well as on making use of indirect information sources so that a fuller picture could be formed. It was also possible for the researcher to discuss with individual principals, in an informal yet *confidential* way, issues pertaining to education leadership in the eThekweni Region. For example, principals were asked to think of the circuit or ward team of which he or she was a part. The following questions were posed to them:

- Does the superintendent consider the needs of the task, the team and the individual?
- What are the roles, which you expect superintendents to fulfill?
- Do these roles vary for different settings and circumstance?
- What kinds of superintendents do we need to fill these expectations?
- What are the qualities or competencies required by superintendents to fulfill leadership roles?

The researcher was aware that one of the major implications of the study was the need to ground the roles and competencies expected of superintendents in the crucible of the school, including its past, current and future realities. The researcher was optimistic that the responses from principals would provide useful material in beginning to answer critical questions pertaining to the study.

6.8 Source Documents: Official Records

Because of the nature of his rank and position the researcher, a Chief Superintendent of Education, had access to relevant records and documentation, and this was regarded as an important evaluation opportunity. The principals' log books were valuable source documents for the study. The researcher was of the view that written comments by superintendents had diagnostic value as they formed a means of communication between the superintendent and his or her subordinates. A brief scan of official logbooks provided an opportunity for useful overview of the emotive content. The researcher was thus able to

evaluate this information qualitatively, and decode these communication messages. To the researcher, this form of communication was important because it comprised a structured set of symbols from which certain assumptions and inferences could be made. It was also valuable for interpretive perceptions with regard to how these abstractions were encoded by the principals.

6.9 Circuit Meetings

The monthly meetings for principals in a circuit or ward created special opportunities for observation and investigation by the researcher. The term 'circuit meeting' implies an informal yet businesslike communication between the superintendent, as the convener, and his or her principals, conducted presumably in a democratic way and in the interests of common objectives or specific tasks. The researcher was able to gain valuable insights into the following aspects by focusing on particular subjects or themes:

- *Communication models*: Were the meetings between superintendents and principals of school characterized by a dialogue process, or was there a one-sided monologue? Did superintendents block two-way communication, thereby discouraging colleagues from making constructive and positive contributions? Was there despondent resignation by principals, or vigorous interchange of ideas and experiences?
- *Styles of Leadership*: Was the style democratic or autocratic? Did superintendents assume responsibility for every decision in an autocratic manner, and were there strong orientations to bureaucratic management and controls driven by rules, mandates, standardized procedures and processes, or forces of personality and leadership? Were these encounters driven by shared values and worldviews, commitment to the ideals of 'community' and participation, professional standards, codes and norms? Does the superintendents' management have a strong affective component, to build relationships, kinship, and professionalism? Is there a harmonious collegial spirit and *esprit de corps*, and is the morale of principals low or high?

- *Relationships*: Is there a healthy balance between task behaviour and relationship behaviour? What is the status of human relationships and group dynamics in aspects such as decision-making process and joint problem solving? Are principals permitted to make meaningful contributions, and is there a sense of shared responsibility? Is the aim of these encounters to create understanding and mutual appreciation of each other's contributions, and are they focused on the promotion of co-operation, team spirit, and achieving consensus? Can these meetings be qualified as traditional, focusing particularly on administrative routine matters? Does the superintendent, by co-operative integration of each colleague, effect greater professional involvement, a striving for unity, joint formulation of the broad goals and thus greater educational efficacy? Is there group-maintenance leadership and people-oriented leadership or predominantly task-related leadership?

The researcher moved a step further to analyze the leadership style of superintendents in terms of the Likert's (1967) taxonomy, namely:

- exploitive-authoritative
- benevolent-authoritative
- consultative-democratic
- participative-democratic

Yet another dimension of leadership was observed. Here, the researcher's intention was to use the opportunities to understand the power structures within the group dynamics, particular the incidence of the use of different types of power, such as:

- referent power
- expert power
- information power
- coercive power
- reward power
- legitimate power

For the bureaucracy, the major roles are administrative and controlling – passing down policies and notices from head office, distributing resources, conducting inspections and audits. The superintendent provides services to support subordinates in policy implementation. Here the superintendent is in hierarchical relationships with subordinates, with principals accountable to superintendents, and superintendents accountable to head office. In the community approach, the principals in the eThekweni Region and the superintendents are in an organic relationship. They share expertise and resources, plan together, work together in professional development and organizational development. The superintendent's responsibilities for coordination, information flows, support and accountability extend to leadership and management.

The meeting scenario ought to create special opportunities for guiding education, for a superintendent to provide guidance, to see him/herself as team leader who provides guidelines in a democratic manner. He or she will not use the meeting to behave in an unnecessarily autocratic way, nor will he or she use it merely to enforce his or her final decisions and announcements

6.10 Informal Meetings with Principals

The researcher did not neglect to solicit the participation of subordinates, for instance, principals of schools. He felt that it was crucial to get the opinions and perceptions of those who were involved in the process. What have been the best and worst features of their interactions with superintendents, as they have perceived it? What does each individual feel he or she has got out of these interactions? Clearly, the "same" experience will mean different things to different principals. But principals were also encouraged to reflect upon what has happened to them during the course of the interactions with their educational managers. Principals' views were solicited in discussions with a view to eliciting what knowledge, skills, values and attitudes they seemed to be developing as they engaged in the interactions and relations with superintendents, as well as something about their trials and tribulations within the relationships.

6.11 Semi-Structured Interviews

According to Parlett (1972:66), discovering the views of participants is crucial to assess the impact of an innovation, and that interviews vary as to the type of information or comment that is sought. Though desirable, it was not possible for the researcher to interview every participant. Interviewees were selected randomly. The researcher was of the view that a semi-structured guide was preferable to an unstructured or structured guide. The semi-structured interview guide consisted largely of simple and straightforward questions. These semi-structured interviews were conducted with superintendents (N=10) and principals (N= 20). These groups were chosen randomly from a population of 35 superintendents and 150 principals, respectively.

In order to encourage participants to elaborate on selected issues, the researcher asked direct questions, raised issues, and sought responses from all involved. The interview guide consisted largely of simple and straightforward questions. In retrospect, the interviews generated a great deal of data and issues. According to Kumar (1989:77), a semi-structured guide is preferable to an unstructured guide for three reasons:

First, it keeps the discussion focused. Participants often digress from the subject to explore an interesting but totally irrelevant issue. Second, it phrases the questions carefully so that all present can understand them. Third, a semi-structured guide facilitates the collection of systematic data that can be categorized for analytical purposes.

In a poignant and somewhat anecdotal way, Stenhouse (1982:216) provides a reason for conducting interviews:

The people I interview are participants and they are observers of themselves and others; my object is to provide in interviews the conditions that help them talk reflectively about their observations and experience. It is their observations I am after, not mine.

The researcher made very limited use of a tape recorder, when he could. It was intended to protect the interviewees against misrepresentation, and it preserved a full record. When this

was not possible, the researcher made notes on paper divided into two columns – one column was used for running contents, lists or minutes of points made; the other column being reserved for verbatim quotation. This phase went reasonably well. The researcher was aware that tape recording interviews with superintendents and principals depended upon their goodwill, and that there was a limit to the extent and frequency with which tape recordings could be used. The time spent with each superintendent and the principals varied according to their availability for interviewing. The researcher recorded the experiences, the response of superintendents and the principals, and the ways in which the effects of the study were perceived by both superintendents and principals.

6.12 Construction of Interview Schedules

When constructing questions to be used in the interview schedule, the researcher always had to ask himself the following question: “Is it absolutely necessary to have this information?” It was crucial to include only those questions, which related to the research themes. Simon (1968) offers some hints to be used when constructing questions, when he quotes Wiseman and Aron (1970:39-40):

Is a question useful? Does it get at the desired information? Is it possible that respondents will have the information necessary to answer the questions? Are several questions needed on a specific topic in order to cover it adequately? Is the question free from bias? Is the wording of the question clear? Does it contain words that the average respondent may not understand?

Once the questions for the interview schedule for superintendents had been completed, the researcher checked this aspect of the research design with five superintendents, selected randomly from the actual group with which the study would deal. According to Simon (1986:47), the pre-test should (and it did) prove valuable in demonstrating redundant questions, ambiguity and bias. This comment is shared by Backstrom and Hursh, cited in Simon (1986:48), that the pre-test is run under actual field conditions on the people in the actual community or population with which the study will deal. In the actual interviews, no difficulties were encountered with the wording of the questions. There was no need, therefore, for improvement or re-working of the questions.

Observations and interviews with participants were combined to collect data on the significant features relevant to the study. The model described here takes account of several contexts in which an innovative programme functions.

6.13 Conclusion

Beginning with an extensive database, the investigator systematically reduced the breadth of his inquiry to give more concentrated attention to the emerging issues. Within this framework, an information profile was assembled using data collected from four areas: observations, interviews, questionnaires, and documentary sources. In acknowledging the contribution of renowned scholars, it became imperative to adopt a research style and methodology that was appropriate. The crucial figures in this study – the superintendents and their subordinates – became his chief preoccupation. Observation linked with discussion and inquiry enabled the researcher to develop an informed account of the theory and practice of leadership in education, which will be discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER SEVEN

AN ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS REACHED IN THE INVESTIGATION

7.0 Introduction

In this chapter, the results of the empirical investigation were analyzed and interpreted. Thereafter, the responses to the questionnaire on leadership style tendencies or preferences were examined. As indicated in Chapter 6, the data for this study was gathered by means of a questionnaire, participant observation and semi-structured interviews. The analysis of the questionnaire data involved coding 35 completed questionnaires, and subsequently subjecting the coded data to both statistical and inferential analyses. The questionnaire was administered to superintendents of education in order to measure their preferences and overall tendencies for certain styles of leadership. Most contemporary research on leadership by Hersey and Blanchard (1988), Vroom-Yetton-Jago (1988), Fiedler (1967) and House (1994) suggests that the best style of leadership depends significantly on the situation or contingency. The questionnaire was consequently designed to provide a basis for analysis and interpretation, not to elicit "right" or "wrong" answers. Finally, the data was subjected to statistical analysis in order to test statistically the relationship between specific variables.

Below is the analysis of the data gathered.

7.1 DESCRIPTIVE AND INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

The following data pertains to the gender, age, and highest qualifications of superintendents who participated in the research. In addition, data in respect of the respondents' previous employment in the now defunct departments of education was also gathered.

7.1.1 Gender of Superintendents in the Sample

Table 1 Frequency distribution according to gender of respondents

GENDER	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Male	31	88.58
Female	4	11.42
TOTAL	35	100

Table 1 indicates that more male superintendents (88.58%) compared to female (11.42%) superintendents are currently occupying management positions in the eThekweni Region. The gender profile of superintendents does not mirror the principle of representativity. Past practices in education management reflect broader discriminatory tendencies in the society as a whole. The paucity of women in senior management positions in the education system is testimony to the gender discrimination, which has pervaded all levels of the public service. In the past ten years there has been very limited progress in the advancement of women into management positions. It is even possible that the rate of upward mobility of women has slowed down in the past few years. According to a survey approximately 9% of the management positions in South Africa, are occupied by women. By way of comparison, Schrire (1992:196) indicates that in the United States 36% of executive positions in corporations were occupied by women.

The high concentration of male superintendents has possibly perpetuated a stereotype that women may not be suitable to hold management positions in the education system. This means that eThekweni Region, for instance, has not benefited from the input of both men and women at the level of management and leadership. It also poses a particular challenge if the new approach to education management and leadership, with its stress on collaborative and participative management is to be implemented effectively. Due to the low number of women managers, studies on them are few. Based on a study done by Fullan (1991), it was suggested that women had a greater preference than men for activities related to professional development and for less bureaucratic and hierarchical forms of management. According to Daft (1995:392), as women move into higher positions in organizations, they bring a different leadership style to organizations – a style that is very effective in today's turbulent corporate environment. Although women also possess assertiveness, initiative, and aggressiveness, they tend to engage in leadership behaviour that can be called interactive. An interactive leader, according to Daft (1995:392), is concerned with consensus building, is open and inclusive, encourages participation by others and is more caring than the leadership styles of many males.

In terms of South Africa's history of gender discrimination, affirmative action must be addressed as an integral part of the eThekweni Region's strategy of affirming the rights of women to effective participation of this hitherto disadvantaged group in society. There are, undoubtedly, countless and complex social, cultural, historical, and psychological forces behind this regrettable tendency. Policy should also be based on the need to accelerate the rate of gender integration into the previously segmented management structure. Policy should also be developed to help women managers cope successfully at a point of transition in their lives, to recognize their aptitudes and abilities, to gain confidence and competence, and to take advantage of opportunities for upward mobility. Women managers, themselves, often undervalue their leadership roles and skills. The researcher contends that women managers have to recognize the considerable resources that they possess and to put a realistic value on them. The eThekweni Region, as a major employer, has to devote considerable time and effort to its advancement programmes. The overview thus far clearly illustrates the urgent need to develop managers, especially women managers, in eThekweni Region. It is a safe prediction that the increased demand for programmes that are adapted to the unique needs and perceptions of women, will continue. Additionally, the demand for relevant advancement programmes to train and develop women in and into management positions will increase.

7.1.2 Age of Respondents

Table 2 Frequency distribution according to the age of superintendents

AGE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
35 +	10	28.6
40 +	18	51.4
50 +	7	20.0
TOTAL	35	100

The age profile of the respondents reflected in the above table shows that 28,6% of the respondents are in the age category 35 years plus; 51,4 % in the age category 40 years plus; and 20% of the respondents are over 50 years. Data from this question clearly indicates that superintendents in the eThekweni Region are relatively young and still have many years to contribute to educational management. In table 2, 80% (28) of the respondents are in the age

category below 50 years. It is good for any organization to have a spread of ages in its management cadre. Thus, if their knowledge and skills are properly harnessed and they are trained to become partners in managing the education system, the trend towards participative and collaborative management can evolve. Of significance is Covey's (1990:217) definition of the "maturity continuum" which he states focuses on a growth and development process from dependency through independency to interdependency. Hersey and Blanchard's (1988) situational leadership theory suggests that the levels of directive (task-behaviour) and supportive (relationship-behaviour) are based on the level of readiness of the followers. In contrast to Fiedler (1967) who believes that a leader's style is relatively rigid, Hersey and Blanchard (1988) emphasize a leader's flexibility to adapt to changing situations. Respect for the phenomenon of the 'maturity continuum' is deeply ingrained in the theory of human interaction, management, and leadership.

Only 20% of the superintendents are over 50 years. What is noticeable from this table is that the apex narrows as the ages advance. The possible reason for this phenomenon is that the majority of the senior and more experienced managers have been lost to the profession due to the Department of Education's retrenchment and early retirement packages.

Superintendents bring with them a whole clutch of different experiences which affect how they behave and perform at work. It is obvious that superintendents would behave in a work situation simply because they have different abilities and experience. Superintendents who have worked, for example, in the pre-democratic education system which was highly structured and where there were rules and procedures to be followed for nearly every activity, would, perhaps, would find it difficult to adjust to working in a democratic organization where there is great stress on supportive relationships, mutual trust, skilful and flexible leadership, good relations, consultation and participation. Hence, they are likely to make assumptions about other people based on their own experiences and, in trying to make sense of relating to others, they would set certain standards and expect other people to adhere to them, even though the latter may not share these views and have different standards for themselves.

In keeping with the needs of the previous political regime, educational institutions were to be policed by school managers who were designated the title of 'inspectors'. The connotations of the term 'inspector' are not difficult to comprehend. However, it fell to these 'inspectors' to

clarify for principals and other subordinates, points of education policy, which were generated by the erstwhile Department of Education. Inspectors were also expected to become increasingly involved in the appraisal of school-based personnel. All this was in addition to the essential part they played in matters of staff discipline and control. Intensive monitoring of performance increased the demands for reports from inspectors as a step towards sanctions against ineffective staff, and other, less extreme remedial measures.

Most of these superintendents are likely to be with the education department into the next decade or two. They are likely to have to cope with increasing change and flexibility in their jobs, have to acquire new skills, and take on different responsibilities. In order to determine future needs, the department should consider auditing the current skills and knowledge of existing superintendents and implement the necessary re-orientation and induction programmes where needed.

7.1.3 Highest Qualifications

Table 3 Frequency distribution according to qualifications of superintendents

Qualifications	Frequency	Percent
University Degree Plus College/University Diploma e.g. BA, UED	21	60
Other Post Graduate University Degrees e.g. B.Ed., M.Ed.	14	40
TOTAL	35	100

It is encouraging to note in Table 3 that all respondents indicated they have a basic degree and a basic diploma in education. According to the table 3, 40% of the respondents indicated that they have a post-graduate degree in education. While a proper academic qualification is a necessary criterion to enter the management level, appropriate training and development are necessary for qualitative education, good management, and progressive leadership. Table 2 indicates that 100% of the superintendents are over the age of 35, thereby suggesting that the majority of superintendents have had their training before the 1994 democratic elections.

Ideological and value judgments made by certain tertiary institutions often manifested directly in the learning experiences and education curricula, which individual superintendents have been exposed to at colleges and universities. Those who obtained their education diplomas and degrees from the University of South Africa (UNISA), for example, were schooled in the disputatious 'Fundamental Pedagogy'. Superintendents exposed to this school of educational philosophy generally worked to a deficit model of education in which the purpose of the service was to identify deficiency and remedy it, rather than to recognize proficiency and develop it. The aims, it could be deduced, were not to form the basis of an agenda of democratic entitlement by providing potential education managers with equal opportunities to deal with democratic change through progression, role competence and personal development. Until recently, the dominant perspectives in educational management were broadly functionalist which saw institutional decision-making as a generally rational and systematic approach – in other words, the 'one-best-way' approach as opposed to 'which-is-the-best-way' approach.

Of particular significance is the indication in table 3 that 60% of the superintendents have a university degree, while 40% have had the benefit of post-graduate studies in education. It is the researcher's contention that all superintendents need a relevant post-graduate qualification in education in order to improve their competencies, capacities and understanding of educational leadership and management. A post-graduate study, such the B.Ed, contributes to more meaningful theoretical insight into and better understanding of leadership perspectives, management, and other developments in the field of education. A pre-requisite for any form of management development leading to a diploma or degree qualification is that it must conform to national management standards. It needs to be more genuine by enabling indigenous educational management and leadership theories and practices to flourish alongside those imported from elsewhere. Self-improvement and professional development would equip superintendents with the skills, values, knowledge, and attitudes to implement various combinations of instructional, transformational, moral, participative, managerial and contingent leadership. This, in turn, would make them competent educational leaders who would be able to exercise different roles in different circumstances.

Due to the rapidly changing demands on superintendents to meet the needs of the clientele they serve, in-service and continuous training programmes are imperative. Training is seen as an essential component of the department and is a major management tool with which to

develop the full effectiveness of the department's most important resource: its people. The past approaches to training and development have been increasingly questioned. Current approaches to educational management need to see a shift from top-down rationalist stances to a more interactionist focus, which stresses the importance of individual actors' meanings and interpretations rather than on organizational structures and goals. Erasmus and van Dyke (1999:2) define training as: 'a systematic and planned process to change the knowledge, skills and behaviour of employees in such a way that organizational objectives are achieved'.

According to De Cenzo and Robbins (1994:255), "Training is a learning experience in that it seeks a relatively permanent change in an individual that will improve his or her ability to perform on the job". Development is aimed at superintendents serving in a managerial capacity or preparing for managerial posts within the department. It is essentially directed towards preparing supervisory and managerial personnel for subsequent levels of management. Development, therefore, can be seen as a process by which superintendents obtain the necessary experience, skills, and attitudes to become or remain successful leaders in their organization. The significance of training and development is discussed further in the next chapter on recommendations.

7.1.4 Typology: Employment in Former Departments of Education

Table 4 Frequency distribution according to the type of ex-department

Type	Frequency	Percent
ex-DET	9	25.8
ex-HOD	6	17,0
ex-HOR	3	8,6
ex-HOA	3	8,6
Ex-KZ	14	40.0

Table 4 indicates that the majority of respondents (65.8%) are from ex-Department of Education and Training and the ex-KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education. Thus, it can be concluded that there are more ex-DET and ex-KZN superintendents in the eThekweni Region than all the other ex-departments put together, which amount to 34.2%. No discussion of context in eThekweni can ignore the overriding context of transformation in education. Smith (1997:126) states that the policy context in South Africa is a system undergoing massive transformation from one grounded in the apartheid paradigm of racial segregation and

inequality to a new paradigm grounded in the equality of all students, regardless of race. In the introduction to this study, it was stated that the education systems in South Africa were differentiated on the basis of the racial, ethnic and regional divisions of South African society. The Department of Education and Training (DET) and its counterpart, the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education, may be cited as the prelude to the gross disparities in the present educational system. In the past educational dispensation in South Africa, differentiation in the provision of education occurred in different ways and on different grounds for different individuals. Behr (1984:352) puts this in perspective when he quotes the preamble to the White Paper, South African Republic (1983): “The government should set up *systems for the provision of education* by creating educational bodies and institutions, by determining their objectives, by demarcating their fields of activity and by creating organizational structures within which educational bodies and institutions (that may also be grouped together in different subsystems) can be accommodated. Educational policy should in the view of the National Government take community values into account and ‘allow full scope for self-determination for each population group in regard to its education as an own affair’. Behr (1984:352) states that the Government was not in favour of a system of central control of education because ‘experience had shown that the granting of autonomy or managerial independence to executive education departments and autonomous institutions is highly conducive to administrative efficiency’. The Afikaner Volkskongress, cited in Behr (1984:351), adopted the resolution that the provision of education in South Africa had to be subject to the explicit grounds that these be interpreted on ‘educational and philosophical’ grounds and that the Christian-National character of education as well as mother tongue instruction be considered as non-negotiable for the Afrikaner. The Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) (1981:209) intimated that differentiation based purely on differences of race or colour, cannot be regarded as relevant grounds for inequality of treatment and is consequently contrary to the social and ethical demands for justice. The researcher based his findings, to a large extent, on the past educational dispensations from which the present management cadre emerged.

Since table 4 indicates that there are more ex-DET and ex-KZN superintendents in the eThekweni Region, it can be inferred that a monumental effort in terms of human resources development is required. According to Lemon (1995:112) transformation requires redress, a daunting challenge, when one considers the numbers involved. The implication is that management development would have to focus on the skills required to build and support

superintendents to break decisively with the past and to develop the leadership skills needed to manage people, lead change and support the process of transformation. The researcher believes that education management development in eThekweni Region must embrace the principle of empowering superintendents by building their professional competencies, and articulating and operationalizing the principles of good management practice and ethos. The vast complexities of the education system and the scale of the need require that all developmental capacity in practical networks and nodes of co-operation be harnessed.

7.2 QUESTIONNAIRE: LEADERSHIP STYLE PREFERENCE

The questionnaire helped the researcher to measure the respondents' preferences for certain styles of leadership behaviour and enabled him to draw relevant inferences. The theories used in this study, namely that of Fiedler (1967), Hersey and Blanchard (1988), Vroom-Yetton-Jago (1988) and House (1994), suggest that the best style of leadership depends a lot on varying situations. To this end, the questionnaire also helped the researcher to better understand how superintendents were able to adapt their leadership styles to different situations. Each pair of statements offers a description of the respondents' leadership behaviour and preferences and indicates something about the leadership style that is most natural to them. The responses to the questionnaire gave the researcher some indication of the typical patterns of leadership behaviour and overall tendencies, for example:

- Low on Task and Relationship Behaviour (uninvolved)
- High on both Task and Relationship Behaviour (participating)
- Low on Task and High on Relationship behaviour (friendly)
- High on Task and Low on Relationship Behaviour (controlling)

According to situational theorists, the different level of involvement between leaders and subordinates can be distinguished along a continuum moving from low to high involvement. Research and practical experience indicate that the chances of involvement succeeding in an organization is significantly enhanced if leaders and subordinates share the following sets of fundamental beliefs: scope, domain, focus, degree and participants.

7.2.1 Leader- Subordinate Communication Trends

Table 5

Statements	Frequency	Percent
I take the time to explain to employees exactly what I expect of them.	26	74.2
Employees should be responsible for determining what is expected of them on the job.	9	25.8
TOTAL	35	100

According to table 5, 74.2% (26) of the respondents indicated that they took the time to explain to employees exactly what they expected of them. This indicates a high task-oriented leadership tendency. According to Hellriegel *et al* (2001:294), when tasks are non-routine and complex, directive or achievement-oriented leadership is more appropriate than employee-oriented leader behaviour. Directive leadership is letting subordinates know what is expected of them and telling them how to perform their tasks. It would be logical to assume that these superintendents make decisions and announce them. In terms of Tannenbaum and Schmidt's (1973) decision-making model of the autocratic-participative range (*cf.* Figure 1.10), the data would illustrate that these superintendents exhibit a greater extent of authority and power as opposed to the extent of contribution and input by subordinates.

In the above table, 25.8% (9) respondents indicated that employees should be responsible for determining what is expected of them in the course of their work. This indicates high employee-oriented leadership behaviour in which the superintendent applies less control and more motivation and participative management to get the work done. On the other hand, it may be inferred that these superintendents adopt a *laissez-faire* leadership style in which the leadership abstains from interference with individual action. However, through the use of the participant observation research method, the researcher was able to discern that superintendents did not abdicate their responsibilities when applying the people-oriented position.

Thus, where the first leadership style stresses the actual task, the second concerns the development of motivated subordinates. Likert (1961) showed a preference for the second approach probably because his Michigan study found that task performance was higher among employee-oriented leaders than task-oriented leaders. One conclusion drawn from Likert's (1961) research which identified the two divergent leadership styles is that leadership

does not only have one dimension and that both dimensions (task-oriented leadership and relationship-oriented leadership) may be necessary for effective leadership. The researcher concluded that the style of leadership must adapt to the situation. The more pragmatic positions of task-oriented leadership behaviour and the employee-oriented leadership behaviour may be what a particular situation requires.

7.2.2 Formal and Informal Leader-Subordinate Relationships

Table 6

Statement	Frequency	Percent
I am pleasant towards employees but I avoid getting too friendly.	32	91.4
I respond to employees in a warm and friendly manner.	3	8.6
TOTAL	35	100

A very high percentage of respondents (91.4%) indicated that they were amiable towards employees but avoided getting too friendly, while 8.6% of the respondents indicated that they respond to employees in a warm and friendly manner. The significance of the findings is that there is no single 'best' way of leading subordinates. The first group of superintendents maintains a balance between the dignity of position and establishing harmonious interpersonal relationships. Compared with the second group of respondents, they may seem restrained and hesitant, but this does not mean that they are not in touch with their subordinates. In effect, this means that their relationships have a different basis or bias. In respect of the second group, there is greater emotional investment in the relationship with subordinates, which could indicate a more inspirational leadership style.

The second group of respondents exhibits a high relationship-oriented behaviour. A leader who recognizes the importance of developing strong and positive emotional ties with subordinates is called a relationship-oriented leader. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) suggest that supportive behaviour occurs when a leader relies on two-way communication, listening, encouraging, and involving subordinates in decision-making. Being supportive, however, does not mean just being nice. It is about being receptive to subordinates' ideas and respecting

what they do. Sterling and Davidoff (2000:79) maintain that the art of leadership involves an ongoing process of building trust. By building a strong level of trust amongst subordinates, a leader creates a context in which their subordinates feel safe and in which they feel their contributions are valued. At the same time, trust becomes part of the organizational culture and helps to bring about a constructive atmosphere in the organization. According to Adair (1983) in order to lead effectively, one needs to honour and respect, to align words with action, to respect limits and boundaries, to be responsible and disciplined, and to demonstrate the right use of power.

7.2.3 Participative and *Laissez-Faire* Leadership

Table 7

Statements	Frequency	Percent
I help employees set specific high goals for themselves.	29	82.9
I allow employees to find their own ways to do their jobs.	6	17.1
TOTAL	35	100

From the above table, 82.9% (29) of the respondents indicated that they helped employees set specific high goals for themselves, while 17.1% (6) respondents stated that that allow employees to find their own ways to do their jobs. The first group of respondents demonstrates both high relationship-oriented and high task-oriented leadership behaviour. It is evident that these superintendents engage in a type of leadership, which may be described as involvement through co-determination. This translates into equal involvement where superintendents and subordinates jointly make decisions. Drawing on the research perspectives of situational theorists, the researcher is of the view that the expected outcome is one of co-operation. The second group shows both low task and low relationship-oriented leadership behaviours. The overall tendency of the first group is one of participation, while the tendency of the second group is to be uninvolved. It can be inferred that the leadership orientation of the first group is an ever-changing response to situations within a group. These superintendents have a clear idea of what the task at hand is and guide their subordinates towards this goal. At the same time, the leader is concerned about promoting affective relations in the group. Such superintendents may be described as having a more democratic

and participative style of leadership in which three basic concepts have a very important effect on performance. Eyre and Pettinger (1993:181) characterize these concepts as 'the use of the manager of the principle of supportive relationships; the use of group-based methods of decision-making and supervision; and the setting of high performance targets and ambitious goals for the department and the organization overall'.

It can be assumed that the second group of superintendents does not really care about the subordinates or the task. Tasks are performed with the minimum of effort as and when circumstances allow. It was implied in this study that people were promoted not for their leadership potential but because they were prepared to co-operate in implementing apartheid policies. The legacy of this approach still lives on within the system of education. Applying this low-task and low-relationship leadership style to the body of research, it could be said that the second group represents a *laissez-faire* leadership style. Following from this, it would be logical to assume that these superintendents abstain from involving themselves with the tasks of their subordinates and, consequently, abdicate their responsibilities. The researcher assumes that there is a common thread running through all of these concerns, namely an absence of effective leadership and this, in turn, may reflect a crisis of leadership in institutions managed by this group of superintendents. The first step in taking up the leadership challenge is for this category of superintendents to make a conscious and deliberate choice to develop their leadership capacity. This task, in itself, presents a challenge, which the researcher has attempted to elaborate on in the chapter on recommendations

7.2.4 Interaction between Leader and Subordinate

Table 8

Statements	Frequency	Percent
I try to get employees to work together as a team.	31	88.6
I try to keep a proper distance from individual employees.	4	11.4
TOTAL	35	100

In the table above, 88.6% (31) of the respondents indicated that they try to get employees to work together as a team, while only 11.4% (4) of the respondents indicated that they try to

keep a proper distance from individual employees. The first group of respondents manifested a high task-oriented leadership style. Subordinates are likely to be much more motivated when they function in a congenial and positive environment, than when they function in a negative environment. Without relinquishing authority, a leader must have concern for his or her subordinates, and must nowadays actively seek their co-operation in making decisions. In other words, this group is more likely to generate an atmosphere of participation, co-operation and mutual respect. It can be concluded that these superintendents create relationships and patterns of communication that do not follow the hierarchical path or chain of command.

It can be also inferred that the second group of respondents manifest a style of leadership that is low on both task and relationship behaviour. Such a style is indicative of the old autocratic style of leadership which can be assumed is nowadays resented by most subordinates. Such a leadership style is also indicative of a lack of respect for their subordinates by those in authority, and such a situation does not generate respect in the subordinates for their managers. As was pointed out in the research, the requirements of the task alone are not enough; subordinates as a team have needs which must be met, and individuals within the team have their own needs. Bedeian (1993) states that the relationship between superior and subordinate is often based on the way each treats the other and how this reciprocal behaviour is interpreted. As superior and subordinate interact, the feelings that arise either limit or encourage the content and frequency of their communications, and the method of their communication. The combination of these elements comprises the climate of an interpersonal relationship (Bedeian, 1993:528). In summary, a leader has to balance the interrelated needs of the task and the team as well as those of individual team members.

7.2.5 Power Relations

Table 9

Statements	Frequency	Percent
I make it clear to employees exactly how I want the job done.	29	82.9
As long as the job gets done, I don't care how employees go about doing it.	6	17.1
TOTAL	35	100

A comparative analysis of the frequency distribution indicates a high correlation between the responses in table 7 and table 9 respectively in respect of task-oriented and relationship-oriented leadership. The overwhelming majority, constituting 82.9% (29) of the respondents, indicated that they make it clear to employees exactly how they want the job done, while 17.1% (6) respondents indicated that, as long as the job gets done, they don't care how employees go about doing it. The first group of superintendents reflects a high-task oriented and high-relationship oriented leadership style, whilst the second group reflects a low-task oriented and low-relationship oriented leadership style. The first group of superintendents influences their subordinates and applies authority effectively. It can be concluded that these superintendents exercise the following kinds of power judiciously: referent and expert power. Research, both local and international, maintains that leaders can influence their subordinates and apply their authority effectively because a true leader has power of one kind or other. The types of power used by a leader reveal a great deal about why others follow that individual. The leader's use of different types of power can lead to one of three types of behaviour in subordinates: commitment, compliance, or resistance. Without power, it is believed a leader would not be able to influence his or her subordinates to voluntarily perform their duties in the productive attainment of the organization's objectives and goals. The second group of superintendents demonstrates coercive power, which is the ability of a leader to obtain compliance from subordinates. The researcher acknowledges that, in some situations, coercive power may be effective in getting subordinates to comply with the rules. In general, however, subordinates who merely comply with their leader's requests and directives are likely to do only what has to be done – usually without much enthusiasm. It can be concluded that power has nothing to do with a superintendent's position in the hierarchy and authority is not acquired through a title. In other words, a superintendent who has both authority and power is likely to be far more effective than a superintendent who has only authority.

7.2.6 Relationship Behaviour of Leaders

Table 10

Statements	Frequency	Percent
Employees know when they have done a good job and don't need me to tell them.	12	34.3
I tell employees how much I appreciate their efforts.	23	65.7
TOTAL	35	100

In the above table, 34.3% (12) of the respondents indicated that their employees know when they have done a good job and do not need superintendents to tell them that, while 65.7% (23) respondents indicated that they tell employees how much they appreciate their efforts. From the statistics in table 10, it is clear that the first group exhibits a low relationship-oriented and high task-oriented leadership style. The second group of respondents exhibits a high-task and high-relationship oriented leadership style. A considerate leader presumably seeks to create a friendly and pleasant working climate. Typical behaviours of a considerate leader include expressing appreciation when subordinates do a good job, and being friendly and accessible. He or she seeks acceptance by treating subordinates with respect and dignity and tends to downplay the use of legitimate and coercive power. Those factors which make subordinates feel satisfied with their job and which motivate them to work include high levels of achievement, recognition, interpersonal relations and working conditions. If all or any of these are considered by subordinates to be of a low standard, they are likely to feel dissatisfied with they are doing. The researcher believes that it is essential that a 'reward', or even a word of appreciation or affirmation, fulfills the subordinate's needs, if motivation to work is to be maintained or increased. Human beings have a need to be esteemed and the leader who realizes this and actively recognizes his or her subordinates as people rather than working units is likely to be successful in motivating them positively.

7.2.7 Active and Passive Leadership

Table 11

Statements	Frequency	Percent
I provide employees with the information needed to plan the work effectively.	21	60
I take employees' limitations into account and don't expect too much of them.	14	40
TOTAL	35	100

In table 11, 60% (21) of the respondents indicated that they provided employees with the information needed to plan the work effectively, and 40% (14) of the respondents indicated that they took employees' limitations and did not expect too much of them. The first group of superintendents portrays a controlling leadership tendency, namely high on task and low on relationship behaviour. It is evident from table 11 that the second group of superintendents depicts a friendly tendency, namely low on task and high on relationship behaviour. Both these groups work to a deficiency model of leadership. Leaders who believe that subordinates have poor work habits will treat them accordingly. This can be viewed as impoverished leadership in which minimum effort is made to get work done. A great weakness of this style of leadership is the propensity of those supposedly in charge to abdicate their responsibilities. The notion of this kind of leadership often results in a series of dilemmas for the leader. The dilemmas arise from a tension between what these leaders believe to be democratic and what they need to do in practice. In operational terms, the style adopted by the second group of respondents, may not be the recipe necessary for long-term success and effectiveness.

The first group of respondents demonstrates a propensity for the traditional function of leading or transactional leadership. Transactional leaders clarify the role of subordinates, initiate structures and provide appropriate rewards. It appears from the findings above that they conform to organizational norms and standards. Their style is characterized by objectives, standards, evaluation and correction of performance, policies and procedures. The manager and transactional leader are characterized as directing and controlling in a stable structure and having greater centralized authority. The transactional leadership approach is likely to last for as long as the task needs of both the leader and subordinate are satisfied by the continuing exchange process. In an environment such as eThekweni Region, where change is occurring rapidly, a purely transactional style of leadership may be counterproductive. The

findings here, once more, underscore the importance of both dimensions of leadership, namely task-oriented and employee-oriented leadership.

7.2.8 Group Dynamics: Leader and Subordinate

Table 12

Statements	Frequency	Percent
I provide opportunities for employees to get together to share ideas and information.	32	91.4
I make productive use of the time when others are speaking, to prepare my own arguments.	3	8.6
TOTAL	35	100

The majority of respondents (91.4%) demonstrate a penchant for a participating style of leadership in which there is a high relationship-oriented tendency. On the other hand, 8.6% (3) of the respondents indicated that they were engaged in formulating arguments while subordinates are speaking. This group demonstrates low relationship-oriented leadership behaviour. Eyre and Pettinger (1999: 170) state that listening is a key managerial attribute. It is part of the managerial duty to take an active interest in the hopes, fears and aspirations of all members of the department's staff; and any lapse in this is a mark of disrespect, as well as a barrier to effective listening. In this table, the quality of a relationship between a leader and a subordinate varies from low (an ineffective relationship) to high (an effective relationship). The researcher did not expect respondents to choose the second statement, as he believed all superintendents would not transgress a fundamental quality of leadership. House's (1994) path-goal model stresses that, to be effective, a leader should select the style most appropriate to a particular situation and the needs of subordinates. The first group of respondents presumably sets challenging goals, expects subordinates to perform at their highest level, and shows confidence that subordinates will meet this expectation. It is evident that these superintendents demonstrate both a consultative-democratic style of leadership and a participative-democratic style of leadership. The former style allows practical decisions to be made by the subordinates within the group where there is a greater degree of confidence and opportunity for free discussion. The latter leadership style allows maximum participation from subordinates who together take the decisions. The socio-emotional level of co-operation

is expected to be high and, although decision-making may take more time, motivation is high among subordinates.

7.2.9

Organizational Culture

Table 13

Statements	Frequency	Percent
I encourage employees to try out new work-related ideas.	9	25.7
I expect employees to adhere to and maintain standard work procedures.	26	74.3
TOTAL	35	100

In the above table, 25.7% (9) of respondents indicated that they encourage employees to try out new work-related ideas, while 74.3% (26) of respondents expect employees to adhere to and maintain standard work procedures. The first group exhibits a low task-oriented leadership style, and the second group exhibits a high task-oriented leadership style. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) emphasize a leader's flexibility to adapt to changing situations. In contrast to Fiedler (1967) who believes that a leader's style is relatively rigid, Hersey and Blanchard (1988) emphasize a leader's flexibility to adapt to changing situations. This flexibility is reflected in the style of the first group of respondents. From a theoretical perspective, a strong case has been argued for leaders to create opportunities of wide-scale participation in educational management. The situational leadership model suggests that the level of directive and supportive leader behaviours be based on the level of readiness of the subordinates. In this regard, it can be assumed that this group of superintendents is receptive to the other people's ideas and respect what they do. Hellriegel *et al* (2001:294) state that if a leader's style is appropriate, it should also help subordinates gain more experience and become more competent. Thus, as a leader helps subordinates to evolve, his or her leadership style also needs to evolve. The Vroom-Yetton-Jago contingency model (1997) emphasizes that the situation – not the leader – should receive attention. Along with Hersey and Blanchard's, and House's models, the leader-participation model states that the leader can adopt different styles of leadership to meet the demands of different situations. The responses may point to the differences between an empowerment model of leadership and a bureaucratic

one. The first group of respondents would be influenced by flexible culture, learning orientation, employee empowerment, creativity, analysis and intuition, and collaboration and co-operation. It is evident that there is involvement through consultation. Superintendents make the decisions, but invite comments from subordinates on such decisions. Or, subordinates have the opportunity to offer suggestions but superintendents retain the discretion to accept or reject such suggestions. The researcher believes that the expected outcome of this involvement is likely to be one of acceptance.

It can be inferred that not all respondents in this study are able to achieve that which is suggested by the situational or contingency models of leadership. Although they may know how they should lead, it is possible that they lack the ability to tailor their leadership to meet the specific situation. The leadership dimensions of the second group of superintendents are likely to be characterized by a rigid culture, a product orientation, a parochial interest, by management and direction, and procedure bias. Hence, it is concluded that in some instances, the dichotomy between the superintendent and the principal in the management of the school, still prevails. This group of superintendents needs to develop different leadership skills to survive in a dynamic environment. The researcher is of the view that superintendents who manifest such rigidity need to learn to operate without the might of hierarchy behind them, and that they must be able to collaborate and be connected with their subordinates in various ways.

7.2.10 Social Relationships: Divergent Values

Table 14

Statements	Frequency	Percent
I respect effective employees but I don't pretend to be at their level.	19	54.3
I treat employees with respect and as equals.	16	45.7
TOTAL	35	100

In the above table, 54.3% (19) of the respondents indicated that they respect effective employees but they don't pretend to be at their level, whereas 45.7% (16) indicated that they

treat employees with respect and as equals. The first group indicates an overall tendency of high on task and low on relationship leadership behaviour. The second group indicates a style of leadership that is high on relationship and low on task behaviour. It can be inferred that the first group of superintendents favour an achievement-oriented leadership style that involves setting challenging goals, expecting subordinates to perform at their highest level, and showing appreciation when they meet this expectation. From this perspective, effective employees are those that conform to the values and norms of the occupational culture. In the public sector, one of the most fundamental objectives of leadership is to ensure accountability. Wanna *et al* (1992:216) observe that public sector accountability is an ongoing obligation and relationship of trust, not simply a performance contract maintained by bottom-line results. The researcher is of the view that a superintendent must acknowledge the situational, organizational and wider social aspects of educational leadership, and the interrelationships between three dimensions. In other words, the researcher contends that managers should provide leadership that integrates task-oriented focuses with other aspects of their work in managing people. The first group of respondents equates technical functions and dimensions in the provision of services with the effectiveness of the employees. This group appears to be overwhelmingly goal-oriented at the expense of relationships.

The leadership preference of the second group of respondents is built upon relationships. These superintendents recognize the importance of developing strong and positive emotional ties with subordinates. Fiedler (1967) describes such leaders as relationship-oriented leaders. House's (1994) path-goal model sees a leader as one who motivates subordinates and helps them to reach their job-related objectives. This model indicates that effective leaders reduce barriers to task achievement and increase opportunities for task-related satisfaction. This model does not take into account that managers who have a high concern for people may have a low concern for production. The researcher maintains that managers who use this style try to create a secure and comfortable atmosphere and trust that their subordinates will respond positively. Attention to the need for satisfying relationships leads to a friendly, if not necessarily productive atmosphere and work ethic. Most of the contemporary research on leadership, however, indicates that, while leadership is concerned with relationships with subordinates, it also involves expectations about subordinates' discharge of responsibilities. The concept of personalized relationships may no longer be appropriate and it would be necessary to recognize that the proper characterization is one that involves a 'contractual exchange'.

7.2.11

Task Environments: Productivity and Flexibility

Table 15

Statements	Frequency	Percent
I make sure that employees have the resources to do a good job.	17	48.6
I expect employees to solve their own work problems.	18	51.4
TOTAL	35	100

In the above table, 48.6% (17) of the superintendents indicated that they make sure that employees have the resources to do a good job, while 51.4% (18) indicated that they expect subordinates to solve their own work problems. The researcher took a different philosophical tack in the analysis of this data. He studied the responses of both groups of superintendents to discover what he could about their leadership styles that fit the contingencies of the situation. The researcher concluded that both groups of respondents exercise forms of leadership that may yield both maximum worker satisfaction and maximum task efficiency. These respondents made choices that they believed would serve the best interests of the department and at the same time satisfy the preferences of subordinates. These superintendents are pragmatic when implementing task-oriented policies in educational institutions. The style of leadership demonstrated by the first group would fit well with tasks involving repetitive resource allocation, external accountability, notification of policy changes and systematic problems. The second group of respondents exhibits a permissive leadership style, which tends to let subordinates make their own choices. Whereas the first group treats all subordinates alike, the second group interacts with unique individuals on their own terms. The efficiency needs of the department and the satisfaction needs of subordinates are best served by leadership that treats all subordinates alike but leaves decision making in their hands. Such leadership is permissive or depersonalized because it leaves the subordinates in charge of making decisions about fairness, sequence, teamwork, and the like.

Most writers concerned with organizational leadership state or suggest that regardless of whether control is exercised permissively or in an authoritarian way, subordinates will be

happier and more satisfied if their uniqueness is recognized. Similarly, most state or suggest that the greater the permissiveness the greater the worker's satisfaction. But there are important cases in which these arguments are simply not true. For example, there are some tasks and situations in which leadership simply cannot bring the needs for organizational efficiency into line. The responses in table 15 clearly indicate this. Resource allocation, a contentious issue in education, is a matter that generates conflict, not consonance, between the superintendent's need for efficiency and the subordinates' need for satisfaction. The superintendent tends towards depersonalized control, but subordinates would prefer more personalized and permissive control. The choice of style is one in which both task efficiency and worker satisfaction will be maximized by leadership that respects the uniqueness of each subordinate. Van Dyk *et al* (2001:139) aver that it is important for leaders to treat employees as mature and capable workers and learners and to provide freedom that encourages enthusiasm and creativity. They proceed to state that in the structure of a learning organization employees must be involved in the development of strategies. It will provide them with the opportunity to take responsibility and to develop individual leadership skills.

7.2.12 Production-Centred and Subordinate-Centred Leadership Styles

Table 16

Statements	Frequency	Percent
I display understanding when employees come to me with their problems.	28	80
I emphasize to employees their own responsibility for their work.	7	20
TOTAL	35	100

In the table above, 80% (28) of the superintendents show high task and high relationship tendencies, while 20% (7) of the superintendents show low task and low relationship leadership style. The first group of superintendents is related to the task, which is being carried out, the needs of the team and the needs of individuals. Sometimes subordinates feel they need support, or feedback, or better communication and they look to the leader for all these things. Because people at lower levels often have direct contact with a problem, the request for help is usually relevant. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) are well disposed towards supportive leadership, which they contend is facilitated by communication that is descriptive,

problem-oriented, spontaneous and empathetic. It can be inferred that the leadership style portrayed by the second group of respondents operates in a defensive climate where the leader is evaluative, controlling, strategic, neutral and superior. Leaders who take the avoidance orientation do not understand the subordinate's problems while those leaders who take a co-operative orientation are likely to explore, understand, accept, and combine the subordinate's problem into their own to make a decision. For successful leadership to flourish all subordinates should be treated with justice, and no favouritism or antipathy should be shown towards individuals. This research does not discount problem solving by subordinates; on the contrary, the research places a premium on permissive or depersonalized leadership in certain situations (*vide* table.15). However in other situations, where a leader is confronted with problems, the research supports the view of Burke (1977:254-255) that problem solving directs a leader's energies toward defeating the problem, encourages open exchange of information, and tries to reach a situation that is optimal to all. The quality of thought is central to leadership in education. It depends on the perceptual and analytical skill of the leader, and on the ability of the leader and his or her subordinates to look at situations from a variety of perspectives.

7.2.13 Initiating-Structure Leadership Styles

Table 17

Statements	Frequency	Percentage
I express clearly to employees my views about the ways things should be done.	22	63
I expect employees to figure out for themselves how things should be done.	13	27
TOTAL	35	100

In the above table, 63% (22) respondents indicated that they express clearly to employees their views about the ways things should be done, while 27% (13) indicated that they expected employees to figure out for themselves how things should be done. The former group manifests low relationship and high task oriented leadership; the latter group manifests low task and low relationship leadership. Superintendents who adopt a strategy of

involvement through informing produce low involvement by subordinates. In this case, it is clearly evident that superintendents have complete responsibility for the demarcated area of work, make all the decisions and merely inform subordinates accordingly. Fiedler, Hersey and Blanchard, Vroom-Yetton-Jago and House reject the idea that there is any one best to lead people and organizations. These proponents of the contingency school of thought contend that each situation is unique and that the appropriate leadership style depends on the task, the organizational structure, the kinds of subordinates, and the leader. To be effective, leaders need to weigh how these component parts fit together. The respondents could have considered the unique characteristics of the contingencies they are facing in the field and based their style of leading on what they discovered. Fiedler (1967) was among the first to argue for the contingency approach to leadership. He suggested that managers could discover the appropriate leadership style by examining the situational contingencies. He believed that managers must look at the degree of task structure, the kind of relationship they have with subordinates, and the amount of power they can exercise. Understanding these contingencies will allow managers to know whether they should emphasize human relationships or the tasks to be completed. The responses in table 17 may indicate that the preferred leadership styles were tailored to fit the task or the subordinates. It may also reveal something about the contingencies a leader faces such as: the degree of formality and the type of structure that characterize the organization (structural contingencies), the diversity of the people in the organization (demographic contingencies), the history and tradition of the organization (traditional contingencies), and the impact of social, political, and cultural factors on the organization (social contingencies). The findings confirm the assumption made by Vroom-Yetton-Jago (1988), Hersey and Blanchard (1988), and House (1994) that there is no single best way of leadership. Both local and international research into contemporary leadership emphasize that appropriate leadership styles must take both the task and relationship dimensions into account.

7.2.14 Participation and Involvement

Table 18

Statements	Frequency	Percent
There is little value in encouraging employees' ideas since they were tried out long ago.	7	20
I ask employees for their ideas and let them know that their suggestions are desired and appreciated.	28	80
TOTAL	35	100

In the table above, 20% (7) respondents indicated that there is little value in encouraging employees' ideas since they were tried out long ago. The majority, 80% (28), asked employees for their ideas and let them that their suggestions are desired an appreciated. The latter percentage indicates a positive direction of leadership in the current climate of transformation. It reflects the identification and acknowledgement of the principles of democracy in the management and governance of educational systems. In the current climate of restructuring education systems and concurrent wide-scale transformation in educational management, differing ideologies inevitably manifest themselves in the leadership of schools. In the first group, the manager retains critical choices. An authoritarian leadership style is one that reserves decision-making on the important issues for managers. Transformation and changed have not influenced the workplace in the area of environment and worker. If the subordinates lack maturity and the requisite experience then the leadership style would probably have to be fairly directive and supportive. The superintendents are not very concerned with the social niceties of the situation. From these responses, it can be deduced that the superintendents assign subordinates to a task, tell them how to do it, follow through with frequent checks to discover if they were doing the task correctly. Leadership in this case is task directed. This approach to leadership focuses on the "functions, tasks or behaviour of the leader (Leithwood & Duke, 1999:53). This group of superintendents needs to realize that problems must and should not be solved with old structures, mindsets, or knowledge that was part of the department in the past. If there is no trust in a relationship, then it is assumed that negative interaction will evolve. Bennis (1998) sees trust as the fundamental cement that binds an organization together, facilitating good communication, rectifying badly timed actions, making goal attainment possible, and creating the conditions for organizational success.

The second group of superintendents demonstrates a high relationship-oriented leadership style. This approach to leadership assumes that leadership is not just one person but instead a

group of people, who work closely, in collaboration. This is based on the recognition that everyone has the potential to become a leader. According to Yukl (1994), the notion of participative leadership evolved from a view of decision-making as a group process. The superintendent has a formal leadership role through his or her appointment to the position, but subordinates also have leadership roles. It is not uncommon to find that some subordinates automatically take the lead in certain instances. The more mature the subordinates are, the less directive and supportive the leader needs to be. Hersey and Blanchard (1988), state that maturity has three components: the subordinate's achievement motivation, his or her willingness and ability to take responsibility, and the extent to which the subordinate has the requisite knowledge and experience for a particular situation. Fraser *et al* (1992:84) define socialization in education as 'the individual's adaptation to his or her social environment through interaction with other people'. Flowing from this, it can be concluded that leadership largely depends on the superintendent's insights into the subordinates as individuals.

7.2.15 Performance Matrix

Table 19

Statements	Frequency	Percent
I expect a great deal from employees in terms of performance.	29	82.9
I avoid giving employees specific numerical goals.	6	17.1
TOTAL	35	100

In the above table, 82.9% (29) of the respondents indicated that they expect a great deal from employees in terms of performance, while 17.1% (6) of respondents indicated that they avoid giving employees specific numerical goals. In terms of the overall tendencies, the first group reflects high task-oriented leadership and the second group manifests a low task-oriented leadership style. According to Ranson and Stewart (1994:161), accountable management requires clear targets, achievements of which is within the responsibility of managers. Ranson and Stewart (1994:162) add that accountability is not a continuing relationship of stewardship, but reporting of defined tasks achieved. The mechanics of accountable-

management should be a part, but only a part of performance management. Against the backdrop of these the preceding statements, it can be assumed that the first group of respondents adopts a functionalist approach to leadership, where the superintendent is primarily concerned with tasks and targets. This style is contrasted with the more visionary or participative approaches consonant with the transformation process. The second group of respondents avoids setting performance targets. Ranson and Stewart (1994:157) caution that effective public management requires a framework for organizational guidance that is neither the frustration of direct control as it happens nor reliance on professional control alone. It can be concluded that the second group does not exercise direct and detailed control by setting numerical targets because these respondents do not view the judgment of performance solely in terms of an accountability focus. Rather, these superintendents consider the role of collective choice, learning as a key task, democratic processes and supportive culture as essential values and the imperatives of leadership.

7.2.16 Pastoral-Care Relationships

Table 20

Statements	Frequency	Percent
I show employees that I am personally concerned about them.	23	65.7
I prefer to deal with employees Privately, and on a one-to-one rather than in a group.	12	34.3
TOTAL	35	100

In the above table, 65% (23) of respondents indicated that they are personally concerned about their subordinates, while 34.3% (12) respondents indicated that they prefer dealing privately with their subordinates. The former group displays high relationship-oriented leadership and the latter low relationship-oriented leadership. The responses of the first group denote the ability of the superintendents to lead the team towards its objectives through effective interaction with his or her subordinates. As coordinators, the superintendents are able to recognize individual strengths and weaknesses in his or her subordinates and ensure that the best use is made of every one's potential. It is worth pointing out that there are different levels of leader-subordinate relationship. According to Stoker (1993:6-8) different

professionals will engage with each other and their clients at different levels. This study has shown that the leader is at the heart of a set of relationships with different stakeholders. In so far as these stakeholders are individuals or groups, they all represent different worldviews. The leadership skill is in reconciling these different viewpoints. For example, leading in a multicultural environment is a reality for the modern manager. The researcher agrees with Lawton (1998:147) that leading in the public services is characterized by ambiguity in terms of goals, responsibilities, functions or relationships. Lawton (1998:147) states that it is inevitable that such ambiguity should exist given the tensions that the public services manager has to cope with. Lawton (1998) cites the following tensions:

- The tension between the need for control and the need for discretion.
- The tension in managing the needs of different stakeholders.
- The tensions in responding to changing circumstances and, at the same time, maintaining existing standards expressed in terms of accountability, integrity, and duty.
- The tension between managing the daily task and maintaining a sense of self and personal integrity.

From the preceding information, it can be inferred that leaders must place themselves in the subordinates' position out of a sense of duty. Obligations arise as a result of being a public official and specific obligations arise as a result of being an education leader. The researcher argues that educational leadership depends upon satisfactory relationships between a range of stakeholders and these relationships, cooperative and individual, must be based on trust.

7.2.17 Bureaucratic Leadership: Supremacy and Natural Authority

Table 21

Statements	Frequency	Percent
If employees want to know how to do a specific task or activity, they know that there are established procedures they can follow.	33	94.3
I decide myself what will be done as well as well as how to do it.	2	5.7
TOTAL	35	100

In the above table, 94.3% (33) of respondents stated that employees know that there are established procedures to perform a task, while a mere 5.7% (2) of respondents indicated that they decided what has to be done as well as how it has to be done. Both groups manifest a low relationship-oriented leadership and a high task-oriented leadership style. The task-oriented approach is based on normative need, as perceived by the superintendent and the approach to leadership focuses on the functions, tasks or behaviour of the leader. Moreover, both group of respondents elicit compliance from subordinates through a combination of legitimate, coercive and expert power. It is likely that subordinates who merely comply with their leader's requests will do only what has to be done. Where superintendents are not creating opportunities for professional growth, implementing educational policies and the attainment of the organization's goals, may be ineffective if not hampered. The research has indicated that expert power tends to result in compliance, and coercive power tends to result in resistance. It also shows that effective leaders are likely to rely on expert, referent, and reward power, using legitimate and coercive power minimally. Research by French and Raven (1960) conclude that it is a clear advantage for a leader to possess power for, used correctly, it can substantially enhance the leader's effectiveness in achieving organizational goals. Smit and Cronje (1997:247) reach the conclusion that a person with both positional authority and personal power is more likely to accomplish organizational objectives successfully than an individual with less personal power but they caution that an effective manager uses power in a way that maintains a healthy balance between his or her own power and that of subordinates.

7.2.18 Responsiveness to Change

Table 22

Statements	Frequency	Percent
With so much changing there is no point in worrying employee with the details too far in advance.	14	40
I let employees know of the changes well in advance so that they can prepare.	21	60
TOTAL	35	100

In the table above, 40% (14) of the respondents manifest a low task-oriented and a low relationship-oriented leadership style, and 60% (21) exhibit high task-oriented and high relationship-oriented leadership style. The functionalist approach to leadership, demonstrated by the first group of respondents, can be contrasted with the more visionary or participative approaches to leadership, demonstrated by the second group of respondents. The researcher is of the view that the public service ethos of the first group may be located in a bureaucratic ethos while that of the second group in a democratic ethos. The assumption is that asymmetric information can exist between a leader and the subordinate and professional relations may often be characterized by such inequalities in information. The problem is where the leader uses the power that can emerge out of unequal dependencies. It can also be assumed that that relationship is governed by traditions, customs, and conventions. Lees (1995:255) argues that leadership in a democratic society entails a moral obligation that promotes “democracy, empowerment, and social justice”. Lees’ argument is supported by the researcher who believes that the success of educational institutions should be premised upon the skill of superintendents in fostering proactive mindsets, and in becoming more entrepreneurial and innovative.

The notion of participative leadership enhances organizational effectiveness and participation supports democratic principles. In this case, leadership and authority are shared between the leader and his or her subordinates based on their democratic right to make choices and their critical role in the decision-making process. This form of leadership is also arguably an integral part of the transformation process in South Africa, as stated by McLennan (1997:39) with respect to the broader public sector: “Developing the appropriate practices, norms, procedures and language to mediate participation will take time and careful planning and establishing partnerships and joint responsibility implies the development of new skills and capacities for managing this process both in the public service and civil society, at schools, in training institutions, at the provincial level and in the national ministry”.

7.2.19 Empowerment of Subordinates: Contextual Arrangements

Table 2

Statements	Frequency	Percent
I help employees to get the training they need to perform the job effectively.	29	82.9
I let employees know that I expect them to do their best.	6	17.1
TOTAL	35	100

In the above table, 82.9% (29) of respondents indicated that they help employees to get the training to perform the job effectively, while 17.1% (6) respondents indicated that they expect employees to do their best. The first group of respondents demonstrates high task-oriented and high relationship oriented leadership styles. The second group of respondents demonstrates low task-oriented and low relationship-oriented leadership style. The first group of superintendents shows an increased capacity to respond productively to internal and external demands for change. Consequently, these superintendents would be better positioned to meet the needs of their subordinates. These leaders would be likely to provide more effective responses to the organization's challenges. According to Leithwood and Duke (1999:54), the focus of this approach is "how leaders respond to the unique organizational circumstances or problems that they face". These circumstances may entail, for example, disposition and preferences of subordinates, conditions of the task, and contextual effects. In summary, these leaders tend to create patterns of responses according to the problems they encounter.

In analyzing the responses of the second group of respondents, the researcher contends that, regardless of the situation, these superintendents are likely to depend on the subordinates' willingness and creativity to accomplish the required tasks. A leader who gets along well with subordinates and whose expertise is respected is in a favourable position. Conversely, a leader who is disliked and is not trusted is in an unfavourable situation. The research of Fiedler (1967) has significance for the second category of respondents. He asserts that a leader cannot easily change his or her leadership style to fit a situation. Task structure is the degree to which a job is routine. When giving directions, the leader can refer to standard operating procedures. In contrast, for a complex and non-routine job, the leader has no clear guidelines or procedures to point to. In this case, the leader has to guide and direct subordinates. This situation is considered to be unfavourable for a leader.

7.2.20 Paternal and Parochial Leadership

Table 24

Statements	Frequency	Percent
I show employees that I really listen to them.	23	65.7
I seldom spend time in group meetings with employees.	12	34.3
TOTAL	35	100

In the table above, 65.7% (23) of the respondents indicated that they really listen to employees, while 34.3% (12) indicated that they seldom spend time in group-meetings with employees. This clearly reflects high relationship-oriented leadership on the part of the first group. The second group manifests low relationship leadership behaviour. The theories and principles of leadership described in the research generally apply to teams. Perhaps the most difficult aspect of being a leader is empowerment of subordinates. For some leaders, accepting the idea of empowerment is difficult. Learning how to empower subordinates does not imply adopting a strictly hands-off style. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) and House (1994) concur that as subordinates become more experienced, the leader's role changes. It is a well-known truism that some subordinates never reach their full potential. The researcher, however, contends that even when self-managed subordinates are mature and experienced, the leader should retain a few administrative responsibilities and take responsibility for ensuring that his or her subordinates have clear goals. Careful listening and giving accurate feedback to others focus subordinates' on the tasks and reinforce a sense of clear and shared goals. Some planning and monitoring of subordinates' work is also necessary. The response of the second group indicates that subordinates may be leaderless. The approach of the first group ensures, in the view of the researcher, that subordinates direct their energies towards the twin goals of getting things done (task behaviours) and building constructive interpersonal ties and processes (relationship behaviour). The researcher is convinced that the degree to which one or more of the preceding characteristics is absent determines the extent to which the leadership of subordinates is likely to be ineffective.

7.2.21 Division of Labour through Delegation and Co-operation

Table 25

Statements	Frequency	Percent
I clearly assign specific tasks to particular employees.	30	85.7
I find it best to let employees sort out informally who is best for any given task or assignment.	5	14.3
TOTAL	35	100

In the table above, 85.7% (30) of the respondents indicated that they clearly assign tasks to particular employees, while 14.3% (5) of the respondents indicated that they find it best to let employees sort out informally who is best for any given task. The first group of respondents demonstrates high task-oriented leadership and the second group manifests a high relationship-oriented leadership style. The second group of respondents encourages a leadership style that is flexible. In this case, subordinates have complete say over their area of work in all respects. They are free to make decisions in whatever way they wish and inform their superintendents accordingly. From one perspective, it can be argued that superintendent 'disappears' at this level of involvement. Where there is complete involvement by subordinates, the likely expected outcome is ownership. Leadership may shift among subordinates in terms of who is most capable of solving a particular problem. In terms of relationship behaviours, the leader accepts the reality of differences among subordinates and provides opportunities for the latter to work co-operatively. The following characteristics lead to high levels of team performance:

- Subordinates adopt procedures for making decisions, including how to share leadership.
- Subordinates learn to receive help from one another and to give help to one another.
- Subordinates achieve trust and openness among themselves.
- Subordinates learn how to diagnose and improve their own functioning.

Task-related and role behaviours of subordinates are increasingly resolved through co-operation, open communication, and acceptance of mutual influence.

The first group of respondents, on the other hand, focuses on the basic managerial functions of planning, organizing, leading and controlling. In assessing the leadership preference of the first group, the researcher concluded that much traditional thinking is still found in the education sector. This group emphasizes formal structure and processes, believing that they are necessary for the adequate performance of all tasks. Traditional management stresses the leader's role in a hierarchy. Although traditionalists may recognize that subordinates have feelings, their overriding focus is on efficient and effective job performance. It is evident that these superintendents are concerned with the formal relations between tasks and processes. Presumably, because of their higher position and greater expertise, superiors are to be obeyed by subordinates. The review of literature showed that administrative and scientific management places much emphasis on logical processes and strict division of labour.

7.2.22 Facilitation, Discretion, Persuasion, and Support

Table 26

Statements	Frequency	Percent
I screen out all the unimportant interactions with employees and attend only to those that are really important.	13	37.1
I make sure that employees find me accessible and interested in their concerns.	22	62,9
TOTAL	35	100

In the above table, 37.1% (13) of the respondents indicated that they screen out all the important interactions with employees and attend only to those that are really important. On the other hand, 62.9% (22) indicated that they make sure that employees find them accessible and interested in their concerns. The first and second groups of respondents display low and high relationship-oriented leadership styles respectively. As a leader within education, a superintendent will need to work with subordinates in many group and individual contexts. Subordinates are an important resource and a leader needs to draw on their skills and talents to make institutions creative and dynamic centres of learning. Research indicates that a shared vision is created when a leader acknowledges and draws on the unique contribution of each

individual in the team. Sterling and Davidoff (2000:79) assert that the art of leadership involves an ongoing process of building trust. Feelings of trust are built when subordinates feel safe; when they feel that they will be heard; when their contributions are valued and when they feel they will be treated with respect. The second group of respondents, as opposed to the first, uses their leadership qualities to facilitate a collective process of vision building, in which everyone's ideas, opinions, and feelings are heard. If the vision is to be collectively owned, all subordinates need to be part of conceptualizing and negotiating it. It is the task of the leader to facilitate this participatory process. Sterling and Davidoff (2000:40) in a simple yet profound statement sums up what the researcher also believes is the role of a leader when they say that 'being a good leader also means carrying those skills into the less public moments too....It means drawing on and actively using one's leadership capacity in small conversations with individual staff members, in one's day-to-day planning, in one's self-reflection and one's administrative tasks'.

7.2.23 Role Expectations: Task-Oriented and Relationship-Oriented

Table 27

Statements	Frequency	Percent
I make sure that employees clearly understand my roles and responsibilities.	19	54.3
When employees know and carry out their job responsibilities, there is no reason for me to get involved.	16	45.7
TOTAL	35	100

In the above table, 54.3% (19) of the respondents indicated that they make sure that employees clearly understand their roles and responsibilities while 45.7% (16) of them indicated that there is no reason for them to get involved, when employees know and carry out their job responsibilities. Both groups of respondents manifest high task-oriented leadership styles. The research of situational theorists indicates that a leader has two main choices: he or she can decide to control closely all tasks and activities within the organization, or he or she can decide to be flexible in his or her attitude towards activities and their control. This theory originated from the research undertaken by Vroom (1988) and Fiedler (1967). According to this view, each situation requires a different management approach. Situational leadership

requires that the manager to have the ability to analyze different situations and to formulate and apply a leadership strategy which will work best for the situation. The concept *role* involves the behaviour of a person within an organization as determined by interpersonal relationships and events. Role expectation refers to the expectations which one person has of someone else's behaviour within a certain role (Lipham and Hoeh, 1974:125). Research on management styles has brought two dimensions of leadership to the fore. It would appear that most leaders are either intent on getting a certain amount of work done (task-orientation or task-relevant style) or are concerned with the needs and feelings of the people with whom they work (people-orientation or leadership style. The first group of respondents display what Reddin (1970:94) calls the dedicated leadership style. This style is characterized by high task-orientation and low people-orientation. The researcher contends that a synthesis leadership approach, found in various recent theories, is probably the most appropriate one for the eThekweni Region. Through this approach, a balance is maintained between the task and the subordinate, the one who holds authority, and the subordinate. Leadership is thus viewed as an interwoven activity, which provides a balanced perspective on leadership and may be of great value to a superintendent. The value of this approach is that it does not take place according to a set pattern or recipe, but is dynamic and interactive. In such cases, subordinates have full say regarding their area of work within, of course, guidelines laid down by their superintendents. The expected outcome of such involvement through self-management is likely to be independence.

7.2.24 Managing Subordinates as Individuals

Table 28

Statements	Frequency	Percent
I show a great deal of concern for employees' personal welfare.	25	71.4
I respect employees' privacy and right to have personal concerns left alone.	10	28.6
TOTAL	35	100

In the above table, 71.4% (25) of the respondents indicated that they show a great deal of concern for employees' personal welfare, and 28.6% (10) indicated that they respect their employees' right to privacy. The first group displays high relationship-oriented leadership. Therefore, relationship behaviour or people orientation refers to the supportive behaviour or

actions of these respondents towards their subordinates who have to carry out the tasks. Relationship building traditionally is not incorporated into the list of management tasks, but in recent literature increasing attention is paid to this element in leadership. Empathy is one of the techniques, which can be used in building interpersonal relationships. Teichler (1982:226-227) mentions the following techniques used in the building of sound interpersonal relationships:

- Empathy: This is the ability to understand the feelings and intentions of others.
- Respect and warmth: This is recognizing the rights of others.

Certain characteristics and behaviour of an educational leader may promote or disturb human relations. Research, which has been done by Teichler (1982:236-237), showed that the following characteristics and actions were among those that promoted sound relationships: humanity, justice, consistency, decisiveness, recognition, personal interest and strong leadership. In contrast, the following characteristics and actions affect sound relationships adversely: indecisiveness, autocracy, aloofness, and apathy. It is clear from the above discussion that building relationships and guiding are influenced by the educational leader's leadership qualities. Since leadership may be regarded as filling a particular role in the group, it may be analyzed according to interactions. From the various efforts to define leadership, it would appear that mainly the interaction between the leader and his or her subordinates is mainly emphasized.

7.2.25 Explicit and Implicit Coercion

Table 25

Statements	Frequency	Percent
I prepare specific work schedules for employees to help define responsibilities and to coordinate work activities.	33	94.3
As long as the work gets done employees can keep to their schedules.	2	5.7
TOTAL	35	100

In the above table, 94.3% (33) of the respondents indicated that they prepared specific work schedules for employees to help define responsibilities and to coordinate work activities. On the other hand, 5.7% (2) indicated that as long as the work gets done employees could keep to their own work schedules. The first group reflects high task-oriented leadership, while the second group reflects a low task-oriented leadership style. The approach taken by the first group would contribute to increased production, and the success of any task is embodied in the classical-scientific approach (Hoy and Miskel, 1978:3). These superintendents subscribe to the principles of scientific management, which are based on clearly defined principles and procedures. It is underpinned by the assumption that everyone's work should be clearly defined and described. From an analysis of this approach, the researcher arrived at the conclusion that, for this group of superintendents, technical skills are the most important characteristics of subordinates. The approach to leadership is akin to Fayol's management theory cited in Hellriegel *et al* (2001:56-57). He identified the following elements of management: planning, organizing, commanding, coordination, and controlling. A major disadvantage of this approach is that subordinates may become ineffective because of the formalized structure. It can lead to conservatism, which has a negative effect on renewal. Within the situational leadership theory of Hersey and Blanchard (1982:151), task relevant readiness is defined as the ability to determine high but realistic objectives for a specific task, to be willing and able to accept responsibility for the task, and to have the necessary training and experience. It is assumed that the two superintendents in the second group adjust their leadership style to the task readiness of their subordinates. There is, however, a drawback in this style of leadership. A situational cycle is also present in the situational leadership model (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982:212-214). In contrast with the developmental cycle, a decrease in a subordinate's level of task relevant readiness can occur. This regression may be attributed to various personal or other reasons. It is, however, important for a superintendent to identify regression as soon as possible and to adjust his or her leadership style accordingly. Failure to establish a sense of urgency is one of the key mistakes made by leaders represented in the second group.

7.2.26 Leadership through Manipulation and Co-option

Table 26

Statements	Frequency	Percent
I permit employees to try out new ideas that seem unlikely to have an adverse effect on productivity.	21	60
I listen to employees' ideas for doing things better and make changes based on their suggestions.	14	40
TOTAL	35	100

the table above, 60% (21) of the respondents indicated that they permit employees to try out new ideas that seem unlikely to have an adverse effect on productivity. On the other hand, 40% (14) of respondents indicated that they listened to employees' ideas for doing things better and make changes based on their suggestions. The first group of respondents manifests high task-oriented and high relationship-oriented leadership. The second group of respondents reveals a high task-oriented and high relationship-oriented leadership approach. The essential difference between these two groups is the extent to which each engages in participative leadership and risk taking. The amount and quality of information available to a leader about the relevant decision-making condition can vary widely – as can a leader's estimates of risk. Presumably, the first group will use objective or subjective probability in estimating the outcome. In other words, they will engage in risk taking selectively and cautiously. The second group of respondents presumably bases their decisions on a combination of experiences that they hope will lead to better outcomes. For both groups, however, the type and reliability of the relationships with subordinates will influence the level of risk. From the above discussion, it becomes clear that leadership decisions are made under different conditions.

2.27 Integration of Leadership and Management

Table 27

Statements	Frequency	Percent
I make sure that all employees understand the specific standards of performance that apply to their work.	28	80
I ask employees to do their best without setting overly specific standards.	7	20
TOTAL	35	100

In the above table, 80% (28) of the respondents indicated that they make sure that all employees understand the specific standards of performance that apply to their work and 20% (7) of them indicated that they ask employees to do their best without setting overly specific standards. The first group demonstrates a high task-oriented and low relationship-oriented leadership styles seemingly while the second group of respondents reveals a high relationship-oriented and low task-oriented leadership style. It can be inferred that the first group institutes a process in which superintendents ensure that the department's objectives are realized or that actual performance ties in with predetermined standards. Smit and Cronje (1997:401) state that establishing standards of performance at strategic points is the first step in management control. They aver that a performance standard is a projection of expected or planned performance and, over a period of time, the positive or negative disparity between planned and actual performance is monitored to compare actual performance with the standard possible. It is worth noting that all situational theorists mentioned in this study agree that the judicious use of control is necessary, for without any control it is impossible to determine a subordinate's progress and ultimately the performance of the organization. The major concern with this group of superintendents, however, is the seemingly extreme use of regulatory control of their subordinates.

The inference the researcher made regarding the second group of respondents is that control procedures are not so austere as those used by the first group. By adopting a relationship-oriented style of leadership, these superintendents are possibly of the view that this enhances subordinate motivation. The preceding discussion of the control of an organization's human resources emphasizes mainly formal controls developed by superintendents. As far as informal control systems are concerned, leaders play a decisive role in social control mechanisms. This refers specifically to group behaviour in which the leader and subordinates

develop norms that lay down the standards of performance of each person. Research indicates that when leaders and subordinates collaboratively participate in developing norms that lay down the guidelines for the group, as a whole, it is possible that this practice will have a profound influence on the behaviour of groups when it comes to control or social control. Van der Westhuizen (1991:455) contends that informal control gives staff members greater authority in the setting of objectives, determining work procedures and determining performance standards. The implication is that the set objectives, procedures and standards may be likely to be recognized as having meaning and significance for the leader and his or her subordinates. In this way, departmental objectives become part of duty, procedures are seen as instruments of efficacy, and performance standards as norms of excellence.

7.2.28 Authority, Power and Influence

Table 28

Statements	Frequency	Percent
I make sure that when I take actions or make decisions affecting them, employees understand the reasons.	33	94.3
Employees accept the fact that I am boss, so there is no need for constant explanations of my actions.	2	5.7
TOTAL	35	100

In the above table, 94.3% (33) of respondents indicated that when they take actions or make decisions affecting subordinates, they understand the reasons, while just 5.7% (2) of the respondents indicated that employees accept the fact they are the bosses and that there is no need for constant explanations of their actions. Clearly, the first group manifests high relationship-oriented leadership, and the second a low relationship-oriented leadership style. Mention was made in the research that, during apartheid years, people in leadership positions were trained in rigid, bureaucratic management skills, with a primary agenda of keeping subordinates 'under control'. It was also pointed out that people were promoted not for their leadership potential but because they were willing to co-operate in implementing apartheid policies in educational institutions. The latter group shows a tendency, albeit in a post-apartheid era, to focus primarily on power, rank, position, technical and bureaucratic

functions of leadership without integrating the skills of vision building, team building, transforming the organizational culture of institutions under their jurisdiction. In this view, leadership is understood in a very narrow way. The leader is the ruler and, as it were, the commander. This type of leader wants to have his or her own way and he or she alone determines the policy. This group of superintendents needs to relinquish mistaken ideas about what leadership means. When these old attitudes, values and perceptions are abandoned, only then would these superintendents free themselves to lead in creative and dynamic ways. Heider (1985) captures the true art of leadership when he says that good leadership consists of doing less and being more.

7.2.29 Organizational Politics: Regulatory Frameworks

Table 29

Statements	Frequency	Percent
I let employees know exactly what standards and regulations I expect them to follow.	26	74.3
Employees can develop their own informal standards and work rules, as long as the job gets done.	9	25.7
TOTAL	35	100

In the table above, 74.3% (26) of the respondents indicated that they let employees know exactly what standards and regulations they expect them to follow, while 25.7% (9) indicated that employees can develop their own informal standards and work rules, as long as the job gets done. The first group of respondents displays a high task-oriented leadership style, while the second group demonstrates a low task-oriented style of leadership. The first group of respondents presumably “occupies the position of leader in a bureaucratic system” (Owens 1970:135). For Owen this style of leadership is a combination of democratic and autocratic leadership. This type of leader shows an ability to integrate, blend, balance and adopt his or her own style of leadership in harmony with the situation, his or her subordinates, and his or her own humanity. It is evident, too, that this leader adheres strictly to the letter of the law, rules and regulations and tries in this way to maintain his or her position. If a bureaucratic

leader applies his or her leadership style effectively, it does have the following characteristic (Owens 1970:60):

- It is effective and specialized.
- It is predictable because there are written rules and regulations. This gives rise to uniformity among staff and uniform rules and regulations.
- It is impersonal because the letter of the law is the order of the day and the people involved are not taken into account.

In the second instance, the leader does not make his or her presence felt. Subordinates have the freedom to make individual or group decisions. Elements of free rein leadership or *laissez-faire* leadership are evident in this approach to leadership. The leader, according to De Witt (1979:78), guides subordinates by appealing to personal integrity. A situation is created by this type of leadership in which the subordinate feels totally trusted and should decide for him or herself. The leader is minimally involved and is in the background.

From the foregoing discussion, it would appear that the type of person a superintendent is, as well as the way he or she behaves as a leader, will determine how he or she executes his or her management tasks. It is also clear that leadership requires certain techniques and skills, which may and should be mastered by educational leaders. Leadership is therefore not merely a position but something, which should be effectively executed.

7.2.30 Low-Culture and High-Culture Contexts

Table 30

Statements	Frequency	Percent
I try to get all the relevant information before making an important decision.	19	54.3
I consult with employees before making important decisions about the work.	16	45.7
TOTAL	35	100

In the above table, 54.3% (19) of the respondents indicated that they try to get all the relevant information before making an important decision and 45.7% (16) of the respondents indicated that they consulted with employees before making important decisions about the work. The first group manifests a high task-oriented and high relationship-oriented leadership style, while their counterparts in the second group high relationship-oriented leadership style. It can be argued that cultures can be distinguished from one another by the way leaders communicate with subordinates and exchange information between them. The first group of respondents operates in a low-culture context where the leaders are highly individualistic and less influenced by their context and information is explicit and straightforward. In such contexts, the subordinate knows very little and is told practically everything and supplied with the background information. The second group of respondents engages in high-context communication. Smit and Cronje (1997:450) describe this approach as “collectivist culture”. In this regard, they maintain that in a collectivist or high-context culture, the interests of the subordinates take precedence over the leader’s interests. Implicit in this view is the fact that a culture also inhibits other behaviours. To understand better how cultural dimensions impact on leadership behaviour in a practical sense, it is necessary to review how culture affects the interactions of individuals. Arising out of this discussion is the researcher’s contention that a low-context leadership culture, which demands individualism and personal responsibility, will place a superintendent at a distinct disadvantage. Conversely, the superintendent who operates in a high-context leadership milieu will be a dynamic transformative force for group solidarity and collective unity. To remedy this kind of cultural opposites in the organization, superintendents need to structure work in ways that the subordinates as well as the leader can achieve.

As discussed in Chapter Two, leadership is a complex management function, which involves such things as influencing and motivating people. Leadership also includes communication with subordinates. As such it is exposed to cultural influences. According to Smit and Cronje (1997:455), two dimensions that directly affect leadership behaviour, are power distance and people orientation. The researcher believes that a participative approach, which ensures that subordinates are given the opportunity to unlock their creative potential, will be advantageous to education. On the other hand, an approach, which presupposes limited and fixed human potential, will be regressive.

The analysis of the questionnaire led the researcher to the following conclusions:

- Becoming a leader is a process, not an event.
- Each leadership situation requires different skills, attitudes, values and knowledge and that effective leadership is only mastered through practice and implementation in real situations.
- Each leadership challenge offers superintendents the opportunity to bring clarity and creative change into the situation.
- Sometimes superintendents need the challenging, directing, deciding face of leadership and at other times they need to draw on the non-directing, visionary and supportive way of leading.
- Leaders, in a democratic organization, bring a new set of values to leading and managing: values like co-operation, mutual respect, responsibility, integrity and courage.
- For superintendents in leadership positions, the shifting contexts present an enormous challenge.
- There is a crisis of leadership in eThekweni Region. The research reflects that this management cadre comprises superintendents who are somewhat incompetent, bureaucratic, unaccountable, unassertive or autocratic. There are those who have taken up the leadership challenge and have made a conscious and deliberate choice to develop their leadership capacity.
- There are inaccurate perceptions of what effective leadership really means and how leadership can contribute to creative change with the department of education and sites of learning. There are old ideas or perspectives, which keep superintendents trapped in the past.
- There is a tendency for some superintendents in leadership positions to focus primarily on the technical and bureaucratic functions of leadership, without integrating the skills of vision building, team building, and transforming the organizational culture of institutions. Schools and its personnel are viewed in a very narrow way in eThekweni region. They are guided by external policy parameters established by superintendents.
- Superintendents do not view their leadership from a holistic perspective. There is an absence of a strong interrelationship between task, maintenance and individual needs. Maintenance and individual needs are more hidden or less on the surface.

Karen Collett, cited in Sterling and Davidoff (2000:54) encapsulates, metaphorically, what the researcher believes should be the role of leadership and management:

Leadership and management are linked. The leader has to have the ability to lead with vision and insight (to have the broader view to keep the ship on course), as well as coordinating the different elements of organizational life which allow processes to go on in an effective way. All the people on the ship depend on each other and there needs to be good communication and agreement on who needs to do what and how. There is both the task of doing what the organization has to do as well as the management, the maintenance of the structures, procedures and the people. Good management can't be separated from good leadership as they hold each other together.

The above analysis imposes a rich interpretation of leadership and management. In essence, leadership and management should be about shifting boundaries and contexts, engaging with multiple organizational processes, opening up higher order activities within these processes, increasing levels of freedom, and extending the range of role players and their modes of engagement.

7.3 SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS

Qualitative research methods were used to collect and analyze data. An in-depth, open-ended interview was conducted with ten (N10) of the participating superintendents selected from six (6) circuits in the eThekweni Region. The participants received several questions in advance, which they were asked to think about prior to meeting with the researcher. Questions were intended to be general in nature, allowing for the interviewer to probe for more specific responses as the interviews progressed.

7.3.1 SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS: SUPERINTENDENTS (Annexure B)

7.3.1.1 Contrasting Perceptions of Roles and Responsibilities

Superintendents, as middle managers, contend that their major responsibility is management control. In this regard, superintendents describe their major role as administrative and

controlling, which involve passing down policies and notices from head or regional office office, distributing resources, conducting inspections and audits. Several superintendents felt that the jobs of superintendents are dominated more by administrative work than professional support. The superintendent is expected to provide the necessary managerial services to support principals in policy implementation. In this context, the superintendent is in a hierarchical relationship with principals. Presently, the provision of educational services, such as management support and professional development, has quite a limited role. The role of the superintendent also extends to that of regulating the schools and personnel under their jurisdiction to ensure that educational activities remain consistent with the goals established in the “Master Strategic Plan”. Therefore, in the opinion of most interviewees, management control relates directly to the Department’s goals and strategies, allocating resources to the strategies and subsequently assessing the strategies’ effectiveness and efficiency in achieving these goals. Management control depends to a great extent on directives issued to them by senior management. It is worth quoting *verbatim* the sentiments of one district superintendent with regard to his experiences:

Our programmes and foci are being defined by both head office and the regional office. I live with the conflict and contradiction that I need to be more involved with principals in so far as capacity building and leadership development are concerned. But, my time and efforts are consumed by routine administrative matters.

The inference here is that superintendents do not really see themselves and the principals being in an organic relationship. Occasionally, superintendents and their principals do share expertise and resources, plan together, and work together in professional development and organizational development. The superintendent’s responsibilities for coordination, information flows, support and accountability do not extend sufficiently to leadership and management. It is evident that there are different conceptions of the roles and functions of superintendents, as there appears to be little collaboration and synergy between superintendents on the ground and senior managers based in the eThekweni Regional Office. The picture that emerged is one characterized by bureaucratic and behaviourist approaches with strong orientations to authoritarian management and controls.

Another general management activity is ‘crisis management’ or what is commonly referred to as, ‘fire fighting’. Superintendents stated that, of necessity, they devote a great deal of their

time to these critical problems. Examples of crises may be a precipitous and serious decline in matriculation results, persistent absenteeism by educators, labour-related matters, failure on the part of subordinates to adhere to departmental policies, interpersonal relations, and general working conditions. While the duties of superintendents are presumed to be instructional leadership, superintendents argue that only managerial and political (negotiator) duties dominate their work. While superintendents are expected to play more professional and supportive roles to colleagues, interviewees describe themselves as ‘messengers’ and ‘post offices’. Few interviewees felt that they have managed to elevate instructional leadership using managerial and political duties in its service. In the past decade, diverse interests and groups have grown and predominate in districts. Organized labour, communities and school governing bodies have become more politically active. The district superintendent has, therefore, become more of a negotiator, goal-setter, and coordinator of diverse interests than a person who must learn to lead and involve teams. This study, in which 10 superintendents were interviewed, showed that the role of superintendents was largely that of mediator of conflicts. Some of these conflicts took on major systemic proportions affecting the entire eThekweni Region whereas others were minor. But, all in all, there were rarely days when superintendents were not called upon to make a decision on conflicts. What is revealing is the infrequency with which leadership issues occupied the time of superintendents and, as a result, professional engagement and instructional leadership were rarely addressed in any meaningful way.

7.3.1.2 Conceptual Understanding of Management and Leadership

Superintendents perceived the concepts of management and leadership in different ways. They contend that the eThekweni Region is a collection of people who are expected to work together to advance the goals of the organization. By their work, the people not only achieve the organization’s goals but they also shape them. Consequently, conceptions of organizations cannot be separated from beliefs about people, including their capacities for self-direction, the ways they interact and the ways they might be controlled. Education, with its long tradition, has evolved a body of practice; a way of going about things, which is generally responsive to the clientele it serves. The superintendent is initiated into this practice and learns much of the substance of his or her work through a process of apprenticeship in which good conduct is understood as appropriate participation in the activities of educating. The rules, formal and informal, which guide his or her practice are generally assimilated into his or her outlook and

help shape and form his or her actions. Many of these rules, assumptions and beliefs are not so much the product of design but the product of countless long-forgotten choices, which encapsulate suggestions of how to achieve practical results. Others are those, which relate to the prudential art of the job, those, which embody the hints, tips and clues, and those which prescribe the sort of superintendent who is acceptable his or her colleagues, of all ranks.

Superintendents were divided in their responses on the issue of how managers should operate within the public services organizations. From the responses, two belief systems were evident which may be described as ‘constrained’ and ‘unconstrained’. Some interviewees felt that subordinates need to be ‘constrained’ because, left alone, they will not work optimally for the good of the organization or other people. Other interviewees felt that subordinates, for example principals, need to be ‘unconstrained’ because, given suitable conditions, their natural motivation for good will result in creative achievement. There was agreement that these two beliefs have different consequences for education leadership in the eThekweni Region.

First, bureaucratic management takes the *constrained* position. It constrains people by rules and seniority. Management through personal leadership also represents a constrained position, namely constraint by social and psychological factors. In both approaches, decision-making and choices are rational, determined by goals and the consequences of particular actions. Risk taking and creative actions are incompatible with the constrained position. It is clear from the preceding discussion that certain components of leadership emerge, namely authority, power, influence, delegation, responsibility and accountability. For the sake of good leadership and the effective management of the organization, the delicate balance of the different leadership components should be maintained. The constrained position is a form of excessive authority, which may mean an autocratic style. A basic form of leadership behaviour is identified, namely task-oriented leadership behaviour in which the leader is concerned primarily with careful supervision and control to ensure that subordinates do their work satisfactorily. In summary, performance is demanded with minimum consideration for people. Argyris (1976) found that bureaucracies, and the ways people in bureaucracies interact, are guided by a particular set of beliefs or principles. The interview with superintendents showed that these principles are remarkably small in number, widely held and consistently applied:

- strive to be in unilateral control;

- minimize losing, maximize winning;
- minimize expression of negative feelings and offence;
- be rational.

In combination, these principles prevent the organization and the personnel within them from learning. The particular mix of seeming to be in control, seeming not to lose, and avoiding giving offence produces an environment in which subordinates avoid offering ideas or criticisms, cover up their errors, and pretend not to see errors. In his research, Fullan (1991:201), identifies some of the major obstacles to systemic change:

- unresolved issues involving administrative leadership, on the one hand, and enhanced power among other participants, on the other;
- constraints on teacher participation in decision-making; and,
- reluctance of administrators at all levels to give up traditional prerogatives.

The conclusion Fullan (1991) reaches is that the district superintendent should continually negotiate and monitor the inherently complex relationship between control and autonomy with accountability in an attempt to stay within an acceptable space of mutual influence.

An examination of the responses given by interviewees indicated that organizational forms and structures were organized along hierarchical lines to ensure the advantages of accountability and management control, centralization and the allocation of clear tasks and responsibilities. The characteristics evident in this type of leadership style are similar to those described by Hummel (1987):

- Bureaucracies consist of an individual, the manager, and a 'pseudo-being', the functionary.
- The manager treats the functionary as a means rather than an end.
- Both lack a common perception of a shared reality and both are prohibited from reciprocal interaction for constructing a shared reality, the manager retaining a monopoly on defining organizational reality.
- The manager speaks a language to the functionary that is totally instructional and one-directional and does not allow for any mutual redefinition of the relationship.

Second, 'community' or human relations approach to management puts faith in an *unconstrained* view of human nature. In this view, the link between structure and goals can be put very simply: structure should reflect goals. The approach is premised on the grounds that if educational services are expected to be innovative, responsive to the environment and deliver flexible services it would not make sense to have a rigid, inflexible, hierarchical organization bound by rules. Decision-making depends on values and feelings as well as reason, socially situated knowledge as well as individual knowledge. Control is achieved largely through intangible forces such as norms and group interactions. These views of human nature are important not so much as statements of truth but for their consequences in leadership and organizational development. The beliefs that are important in an organization's achievement are not only about human nature, but human interactions. In what ways does the bureaucratic form of leadership affect individuals? The perceptions of bureaucracy held by different superintendents are very different. For those superintendents who subscribe to the interpersonal approach, it is assumed that bureaucratic leadership is pathological and dysfunctional for the individuals working in such environments. These superintendents argued that any educational organization that is characterized by a rational organization of social interaction may be fundamentally incapable of taking care of goals and policies that require human interaction. This view is supported in a phrase from Weber (1968:975) that "the more bureaucracy develops, the more perfectly it is 'dehumanized'". The dysfunctions of bureaucracy are said to include:

- Leaders become conservative and resist change.
- Leaders become dependent upon external sanctions for motivation.
- It focuses on meritocracy and does not promote teamwork.
- Leaders lead and others follow.
- Bureaucratic leaders are not willing to give up power.
- Bureaucracy encourages group-thinking where existing norms remain unchallenged.
- Bureaucratic leaders foster mistrust and fear.
- Bureaucratic leadership stresses the formal rather than the informal organization.
- Leaders encourage excessive following of rules.
- Leaders can hide behind rules, as an excuse for not using judgment.
- Bureaucratic leaders are expected to conform to certain role expectations.

- Bureaucratic leaders are expected to 'keep their noses clean' and not violate role norms.
- There is strong personal loyalty to superiors.

Several superintendents agree that all of the aforementioned factors are dysfunctional. They maintain that the model of hierarchical, rule-dominated administration has some validity for some parts of the educational system, but not for others. Depending upon the situation, personal loyalty to superiors might be considered a virtue rather than being dysfunctional. Superintendents argue that in normal life, people relate to each other through the meaning each attaches to his or her action. Superintendents see the bureaucratic leader's task as inherently difficult since:

- there is often a non-cooperative individual;
- there is an absence of a prestigious profession; e.g. as in education;
- they are often dealing with controversial issues in areas of public policy where there is considerable disagreement; e.g. dealing with staffing matters;
- there is often popular non-acceptance of the mission; e.g. restructuring.

All of the preceding responses led the researcher to conclude that eThekweni Region needs superintendents who are not engrossed in their power and their position. As leaders, these superintendents should be capable of creating a clear understanding of the journey ahead and the goals of the organization. Yet, at the same time, these superintendents should be adept at creating space for subordinates to behave with autonomy and to exercise choice. Many writers mentioned in this study have alluded to the notion of the empowering leader.

7.3.1.3 Task-oriented and Relationship-Oriented Leadership Styles

The researcher wished to discover a means by which a theoretical match could be made between leadership style, or "behaviour," on the one hand and some desired outcome on the other. Typically, that desired outcome was worker satisfaction and more efficient task performance in the organization.

Since the discussions of leadership style tend to suggest that the social needs of the subordinate are different from the task needs of the organization, some superintendents tend to view the subordinate's social needs as conflicting with the organization's efficiency needs. In doing so, they imply that superintendents constantly have to choose between these two concerns. The researcher argues that task needs and social needs do not have to be in conflict with each other.

A second interesting characteristic of discussions of leadership style is that superintendents tend to associate an authoritarian style of leadership with a high concern for task efficiency and a democratic or permissive style of leadership with a leader's concern for employee satisfaction. The assumption appears to be that if superintendents want their subordinates to be satisfied, they should follow a permissive or democratic philosophy – the more democratic the leadership style, the more satisfied the individual employees. International research indicates that those leaders who took the human relations philosophy to its extreme, failed. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) believe that appropriate leadership decisions must take both the task and relationship dimensions into account.

7.3.1.4 Conflicting Perceptions of Effective Leadership

There is a tendency for many superintendents to focus primarily on the technical and bureaucratic functions of leadership, without integrating the skills of vision building, team building, transforming the organizational culture. This way of thinking focuses on administrative process and generates an approach to management, which emphasizes structure, order and control. Frequently, the tendency boils down to what the top tells the middle to do with the bottom. To guide the administrative process, these superintendents are likely to lean heavily on formal authority. This leads the researcher to conclude that their style of leadership focuses, *inter alia*, on such principles as division of labour, authority and responsibility, unity of command, unity of direction, subordination of individual interest to the common good, centralization, hierarchy, and order. Research shows that it is no longer sufficient for a superintendent to be a good administrator: he or she must be a proactive leader and manager. And, in the new definitions of leadership and management, the superintendent can no longer view his or her roles as being good coordinators, organizers, and enforcers of rules and standards in which tasks, responsibilities, and authority for all subordinates are clearly defined. The new education policy requires superintendents to work in democratic and

participatory ways to build relationships and ensure efficient and effective delivery, but many superintendents find it difficult to translate policy into practice. Veldsman (2003:24) sums up the researcher's conceptual understanding of workplace democracy when he says that it must be understood as 'dynamic, multifaceted and maturing process, which requires a change process to bring about enhanced involvement aimed at achieving organizational outcomes'. Veldsman (2003:240) also stresses the importance of 'adopting an involvement-friendly organizational paradigm'.

One of the major limitations of the administrative approach is that bureaucratic rigidity results in subordinates being compensated for doing what they are told to do, not for thinking. The research shows that superintendents, as leaders, need to create a guiding coalition, develop vision and strategy, communicate the change vision, and empower broad-based action. This guiding coalition needs to have at least four characteristics: position power, expertise, credibility, and leadership. Consequently, the active co-operation of subordinates is a *conditio sine qua non* for the operation of the organization (Castoriadis, 1987). The researcher concludes that what is required is an infusion of an approach that reduces the emphasis on administrative process. For it to be successful, the approach must be concerned with people development and with the establishment of appropriate management systems.

7.3.1.5 Resistance to Change

Some superintendents seem driven to strive for change; others appear to be content with lesser goals. Many ideas proffered by superintendents were situated at the policy level, and a few seem able to integrate the goals of department with subordinates, practices and processes. From this, it was evident that many superintendents lack the crucial ability to engage and build passion in their subordinates. There are at least two key challenges facing these superintendents. First, the challenge of bringing qualitative skills to the role of leader, particularly in the establishment of sound interpersonal relationships between themselves and their subordinates, and in the understanding of organizational structure and dynamics. Second, to develop a new set of skills and competencies around visioning, systems thinking, development, and change management. The researcher believes that the biggest obstacle that stands in the way of democratic leadership is a hierarchical managerial mindset. The cause may lie in the inability of superintendents to forge a democratic leadership style within a historically undemocratic leadership culture. The review of international literature emphasizes

the need for leaders to acknowledge that engaging subordinates will require a more open and democratic way of managing. What is also important is the reality that leaders and subordinates have to work closely together. Superintendents have to be confident 'mirrors' of what is happening in the organization and adept at understanding subordinate motivations and aspirations. It was encouraging, however, to note that some of the superintendents have a fundamental belief in a relationship with their subordinates. These superintendents adopt a leadership model that encourages subordinates to take responsibility for their own development and actions, and, at the same time, builds choice, greater discretion and personal autonomy into the fabric of the organization.

7.4 SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS: PRINCIPALS OF SCHOOLS (Annexure A)

The objective of these interviews was to gauge the view of principals, to amalgamate their perceptions and to relate the key findings to the overall theoretical framework. The data used stems largely from responses derived from interviews with 20 principals who were randomly drawn from six circuits in eThekweni Region. The diversity of circuits and of principals within them is consistent with the principles set out by Campbell and Fiske (1959) in defining validity, reflected in Patton's (1987) term 'maximum variation sampling'. He argues that when similar patterns emerge from diverse contexts they are more likely to be of value in capturing 'core phenomena', providing in the present case a potentially robust basis for theorizing the relationship between modes of leadership behaviour, social relationships and organizational context. Interviewees provided information about their perceptions of their superintendents and the organizational setting. In an open-ended interview, each lasting about an hour, principals were encouraged to give freely their account of their superintendents' leadership and managerial styles. In all, twenty respondents' information was analyzed. By employing practical strategies for close, detached qualitative analysis provided by grounded theory the researcher was able to adopt the perspective in the research process of 'an outsider within', creating the possibility of 'seeing 'what is ordinarily invisible from within a dominant order' (Henwood and Pidgeon 1994:17).

7.4.1 Emergent Themes and their Interpretation

In using a qualitative methodology, the researcher acknowledges his active involvement in

choosing the interviewees, defining the term 'education leader', and in shaping 'a causal description' of individual and social processes. The research process moved from level to level of 'analytical abstraction' in three broad steps: (a) the creation of texts and the categorization of the data therein, (b) the drawing out of themes and relationships between them, and (c) the synthesis of those themes and supporting data into an explanatory framework (Miles and Huberman, 1994). The interviews were framed by the researcher's definition and shaped by his invitation to 'talk about your experiences of interacting with your superintendent, developing and implementing policy and procedures', and by using follow-up prompts. The researcher, therefore, was likely to have influenced those who took part in the research.

The insights of the twenty collaborators helped. Additional data was provided by each of the institutions, including documentary evidence on policies, planning, frameworks, etc. - supplementing that received from the respondents. Further data arose from feedback meetings with participants at which preliminary findings were discussed. Finally, vital contextual knowledge was gleaned from the researcher's own involvement in the institutions, from site visits and from published accounts of external pressures to which, from his data, the twenty principals appeared to be subject. Hence by applying grounded theory approaches, supplemented by these other sources of data, the researcher was enabled to address questions of structure and process despite the personalized, subject-centred interview mode. This is consistent with Silverman's (1993) view that interview data can give access both to 'cultural particulars related to the patterns of social organization' as well as 'displays of members' artful practices in assembling these particulars during interviews'. Thus the researcher was able to shape, from the analytical categories and the connections between them 'a generic, cultural and social account' of the initiation and development of task and relationship-oriented leadership style from origins through to implementation and eventual institutionalization.

7.4.2 Interpretations and Theoretical Connections

In considering organizational settings, the researcher employed Giddens' (1984) notion that a 'social system' is constituted by the patterns of social relations between superintendents and principals. System integration depends on reciprocal interrelationships between subordinates and superiors. In each of the school sites, principals had experienced a considerable degree of

disruption to the ordering of the social systems within their institutions. Most accounts referred to a closely choreographed leadership style, which demonstrated a top-down culture. The interviews revealed that only about six of the twenty principals were able to 'run their schools' within the sphere of their own authority. They seemed to be on a relatively light rein, with scope to manipulate their roles. The remainder seemed to feel constrained to consult and negotiate with their superintendents. Most respondents supported a 'playing-down of superintendents' authoritative role, emphasizing teamwork instead. References were made to leadership approaches that principals believed ought to constitute the pattern of appropriate social relations. For example, managers ought to be 'coaches', symbolizing their new role in facilitating improved employee performance. Respondents contended that the superintendents' role should be modified to enable principals to deal better with strategic issues. This response is consistent with two other arguments provided by Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) and Mintzberg (1990) that the managerial role can be legitimized only through co-operation or that subordinates can make a contribution to effective leadership. In general, the data suggested a lesser incidence of co-operation and joint contribution strategies.

Respondents proffered several different rationales for the management of a school ranging from a traditional 'logic' – a form of 'collegiality' that enabled principals to 'do their own thing' –through to an 'enterprise culture logic' that school principals should be subject to a form of 'executive management'. Ironically, in a few cases, top-down control stemming from the executive management model competed with something nearer a 'collegial' model based on notions of 'delegation', 'empowerment' and 'autonomous work groups'. In other cases, pressure for devolved forms, giving principals more scope to take initiatives, conflicted with a bureaucratic tightening up of service accountability. If a principal has no choice about planning and implementation, the researcher hypothesizes that the success of institutions will depend on how much of that principal's *self* is invested in the planning and implementation phases at their schools. A key concept in the researcher's interpretation to build theory is 'self-identity', used in a sense similar to that employed by other researchers using qualitative methods, for whom identity serves as an organizing principle in understanding, respectively, the roles and responsibilities of principals and superintendents. Even while acting as an agent of transformation, as in the case of the superintendent, an individual behaves in ways that sustain 'continuity of the personality' as he or she 'moves along the paths of daily activities' (Giddens 1984:60).

Moral issues also seemed important to principals, illustrated by their hope that whether or not principals agreed with their superintendents, principals would say that superintendents 'were fair and treated them properly, with respect'. Several principals exhibited a great need for personal autonomy, reacting strongly when its security was threatened by the unreasonable exercise of authority by superintendents. On taking up her present as principal of an urban comprehensive high school, one principal concluded that her personal autonomy had been subject to considerable interference. Resolved to change the managerial style, she confronted the superintendent to stop him interfering. In her view, the intervention was necessary for management of the school to proceed. One principal, new in his role, felt that his superintendent did not know him well enough to allow him to progress an innovative idea without taking it 'up the line' into the bureaucracy. So he went ahead with his project without consulting his 'boss' in advance. Conversely, close and trusting relationships were revealed. Another interviewee indicated that he had built up a degree of trust that served his superintendent and him well in the arm's-length nature of their formal relationship. Yet another respondent indicated that her superintendent, involved with her in all stages of her school's programmes, claims that: 'We get on well professionally and that makes a whole lot of things possible'. According to another respondent, a superintendent's identity as a leader, hinged on his or her capability to enable principals and others to exercise their personal agency with greater independence.

Drawing on the evidence that these interviews illustrate, the researcher hypothesized that his respondents exhibited what situational theorists call 'transformative capacity'. This is concerned with the ability of principals to achieve certain outcomes, a function of the freedom to choose between alternative ways of behaving, expressing how they are 'willing to exist as particular subjects', their deployment of knowledge, and their self-efficacy.

Some interviewees described instances where there were a variety of social interactions within which superintendents and principals used their intrinsic and acquired capability to transform situations. They referred to circuit meetings, regular and irregular, formal and informal, including those related to the procedures principals had to follow in order for their programmes and projects to be sanctioned by superintendents. Some superintendents are revealed as good net-workers, facilitating access to unusual sources of information and other forms of support, enhancing their discursive penetration of different settings, and enriching the range of perspectives and arguments they are able to import into the workplace.

In addition to the above, individual principals raised the following concerns:

- There is no long-term or inspirational vision.
- The superintendent is autocratic.
- Principals are frustrated by bureaucratic procedures.
- Leaders don't involve principals in discussion processes.
- There is a lack of proper democratic governance.
- Superintendents are not prepared to take risks.
- Leaders adhere rigidly to Department dictates.
- There is very little joint planning.
- Those in leadership positions show no accountability.
- There is great uncertainty and lack of direction with the educational changes at a Departmental level.
- Superintendents do not share resources and skills fairly.
- Principals fear victimization from the superintendent for being open and honest.

The researcher noticed that there is a common thread running through all of these concerns: an absence of effective leadership. Problems such as lack of planning, an absence of vision, unfair resource allocation and feelings of uncertainty indicate a lack of meaningful leadership. Superintendents, as education leaders are often described as being incompetent, bureaucratic, unaccountable, unassertive or autocratic. This problem list reflects a crisis of leadership in eThekweni Schools. Mortimore (1998) suggests the following factors for effective educational management: professional leadership (not only administrative management); shared vision and goals; learning environment; and high expectations and positive reinforcement. Mulford (1998) adds, for a learning organization, there should be a spirit of trust; sharing information openly and honestly, raising sensitive issues for discussion; using reflective self-analysis to raise awareness of assumptions and beliefs; examining current practices critically; changing personal frames of reference if warranted; understanding systemic influences and relationships; and, correcting disruptive power imbalances.

7.5 Conclusion

The researcher approached the research problem through the use of the quantitative paradigm

and qualitative research paradigms. The researcher used the quantitative paradigm, which involved both the use of a sample of superintendents as his source of data and self-administered questionnaires to collect the data. The qualitative research involved the use of superintendents and some principals as sources of data through the application of unstructured individual and focus group interviews as techniques for collecting the data. The research questions determined not only the research objectives and units of analysis, but also the data sources and eventually the data collecting techniques.

In the research into the leadership style of superintendents, the hypothesis was that the behaviour or actions of successful superintendents differed from those unsuccessful superintendents. Thus, instead of trying to establish what a successful superintendent was, the researcher tried to determine what successful superintendents do – how they delegate, communicate, motivate their subordinates, and so on. Spurred on by the assumption that certain models of behaviour are decisive for the success of leader, research into leadership and leadership models has investigated leadership characteristics and behaviour, as well as all sorts of approaches to, and theories of leadership, including a few contemporary perspectives. An overview of the research that gave rise to specific leadership models, theories and perspectives helped the researcher to throw more light on the issue of leadership and management. The research also showed that leadership styles that seem appropriate in one situation are not necessarily valid in another. The research into leadership behaviour did bring to light the realization that by participating in a group, a superintendent can manifest and establish certain leadership behaviour. To function effectively, subordinates need a superintendent to perform two important functions, namely task-related functions that concern problem solving, and relationship-oriented or social functions that are necessary to maintain one's subordinates. Against the background of the preceding assumptions, the researcher conducted a study in this field, and came up with the finding that superintendents do indeed manifest certain leadership behaviour, namely:

- Task-oriented leader behaviour, in which the superintendent is concerned primarily with careful supervision and control to ensure that subordinates do their work satisfactorily. This leadership style implies pressure on subordinates to perform. For task-oriented leaders, subordinates are merely instruments to get the work done.

- Employee-oriented leader behaviour, in which the superintendent applies less control and more motivation and participative management to get the tasks done. This leadership style focuses on subordinates and their needs and progress.

So, whereas the first leadership style stresses the actual task, the second concerns the development of motivated subordinates. Findings from the data indicate that, although several superintendents have moved away from the traditional top-down management mode, there is a trend that indicates that leadership is not altogether inclusive of relevant stakeholders. It is thus concluded that leadership practices by superintendents are neither consistent nor inconsistent with the policy of democratic participation as enunciated in current education policy documents and national legislation. Findings from the empirical investigation indicate that there is a general lack of knowledge by superintendents about the new education policy directions that call for transformation in the management and governance of education systems. The findings indicate that there is a need for proactive information strategies and developmental strategies to ensure that all educational managers are kept informed, on a continuous basis, about novel education policy documents that have relevance to the management of schools.

The researcher shows a preference for the second approach, but further research would have to be conducted to conclude whether production performance is higher among employee-oriented superintendents than task-oriented superintendents. Another conclusion drawn from the research, which identified the two divergent leadership styles, is that leadership does not have only one dimension, and that both dimensions (task-oriented leadership and employee-oriented leadership) may be necessary for success.

CHAPTER EIGHT

RECOMMENDATIONS

8.0 Introduction

From the discussion of the findings in the preceding chapter, it is clear that several areas where recommendations can be made with a view to improving the quality of leadership and more specifically the leadership of superintendents of education (management) in the eThekweni Region do arise. This chapter contains what the researcher believes to be at the heart of an overall strategy for developing the conceptual and practical capacity of superintendents in order for them to lead and manage the education system, the personnel and the institutions in eThekweni Region, building on the foundations of the capacity that already exists. The recommendations contained in this research have been distilled out of a process of close observation of the education management and leadership on the ground; of rigorous analysis of research both local and international research; a careful review of the literature on theoretical constructs; a detailed audit of education leadership needs and resources; sustained interaction with affected stakeholders; and especially out of an analysis of data collected.

These recommendations are of necessity quite broad, and are not intended to represent a comprehensive set of suggestions. They are intended to provide some pointers as to how to move from the conceptual framework the research has developed, to more concrete steps towards implementation. Some of the recommendations relate specifically to district superintendents in the eThekweni Region, while others relate generally to leadership in the eThekweni Education Region. Some areas for further research are also indicated.

8.1 TRENDS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT: SHIFTING THE FOCUS FROM THE OLD TO THE NEW PARADIGM

The findings confirm that there is a link between the leadership orientations of many superintendents and the legacy of apartheid in the field of education management, although pockets of a more open style of management and leadership do exist. The need for capacity building programmes for superintendents in the eThekweni Region, as acknowledged in the

White Paper on Education and Training (*cf.* Chapter 1), is of paramount importance. The competence of superintendents and their increasing capacity to manage their responsibilities effectively become more critical. The researcher is strongly of the opinion that many superintendents of education in the eThekweni Region are being hampered presently by a leadership capacity deficit. The research has prioritized the professionalization of superintendents because it is too costly, both in human and financial terms, to sustain an inefficient cadre of managers. The sustained professionalization of superintendents, through relevant developmental and ongoing in-service training programmes, is the most desirable approach because it enables superintendents to develop and consolidate their expertise on the job and within a lifelong learning paradigm, and subsequently ensures that eThekweni Region has a constant and steady inflow of new recruits into management posts.

The situation at present is that, while the vision for the transformed education system has been set out in educational policy frameworks and the new legislation, the leadership orientations of many superintendents in eThekweni Region are still shaped by the ethos, systems and procedures inherited from the apartheid past. The study shows that the more complex and unclear the change appears, the more likely it will be avoided. The study also shows that past and present education management and leadership practices of district superintendents are also hampering the transformation process. Recent changes to the system of education have resulted in most district superintendents being unprepared for their new role as 'educational leaders'. If superintendents are to break decisively with the past and implement the new vision for management and leadership, it will be necessary for them to develop the leadership skills needed to manage people, to lead change, and to support the process of transformation in education. Within this context, change in education management practices must involve both the re-organization and re-alignment of management practices to achieve these objectives, as well as attitudinal changes on the part of existing and new educational leaders. The researcher is convinced that change will have to be driven as much by the principles of efficiency and effectiveness as by those of equity, democratic accountability and responsiveness.

South African education has been as fraught with divisions and controversy as the political background from which it stems. The official educational orthodoxy of the apartheid regime was 'Fundamental Pedagogics', a theory of education, which acquired characteristics influenced by its needs to justify the racially divisive order of society. University training

programmes in Public Administration assumed that school administrators were not expected to have expertise and *avant-garde* theoretical perspectives related to management development. It would be correct to conclude that South African bureaucratic agencies, especially academic institutions, concentrated on discussions of structures and functions without making any serious effort to link all this to developing educational managers. An important consideration here is that there was a prevailing and predominant bureaucratic culture, which was locked, both conceptually and in practice, into prolific regulation and control. All district superintendents in this study had received their tertiary qualifications at a time when the apartheid education system and public administration approaches were based on a top-down management and an authoritarian leadership style. Public servants, as they were then commonly called, were mere instruments and extensions of the state apparatus.

Moreover, management development practices in the past have tended to focus on the collection of qualifications and certificates, a phenomenon commonly referred to as the 'paper chase'. Power and control were exercised exclusively from the top – that is from the Minister of Education, the Director-General for education, and the seventeen departments of education. School principals have consistently been at the receiving end of these top-down management structures. They have worked in a regulated environment and have become accustomed to receiving direct instructions from departmental officials. The superintendents, themselves, had very little power in making policy. The superintendent was more of an administrator and 'inspector' than an educational leader, and he or she worked in environments that were very bureaucratic and controlling. This was the result of the bureaucratic and authoritarian management systems, which these superintendents were required to implement and 'police'. Consequently, there appears to be evidence of overt or covert resistance to changing the way things have been done in the past. The research indicates that these traditional and conventional educational practices have, to a marked degree, been perpetuated in the new system. Clearly, in this connection, a key recommendation would be the development of a shared understanding about education leadership needs and priorities, and shared understanding of appropriate strategies to enable superintendents to work in democratic and participative ways to address these needs and priorities.

The research also reveals that resistance to change flourishes where there is poor communication between managers and subordinates, little or no active participation and

involvement in decisions and decision-making processes. To overcome such resistance, it is necessary that there be open lines of communication, participation and involvement of all stakeholders, and an atmosphere of facilitation, support, negotiation and consensus. Research indicates that effective superintendents are those who constantly work, *inter alia*, on communication because problems of communication are natural and inevitable. John Kotter, cited in the *Business Times* supplement (*Sunday Times*, 19 October 2003), maintains that effective communication includes simplicity, communicating *via* different types of forums and over various channels, leading by example and two-way communication. In other words, leaders should *say* and *do*. The review of literature and the theoretical constructs of the situational theorists used in this study, endorse these principles of communication.

Research on Public Administration indicated that the new public sector, including the Department of Education, has inherited complex organizational structures and outmoded management styles from the apartheid public administration system. Education, like public services management, was characterized by an ideological approach, which led to a rule-driven, secretive and hierarchical management structure, infused with authoritarian and non-consultative management styles and cultures. There was little recognition that the education environment was one characterized by a dynamic continuum of change; rather, the public administration legacy treated processes in education as being fragmented and static. This approach still tends to dominate leadership, administration and management processes in the public service. The findings confirm that one of the key challenges for fundamental transformation of education leadership in the eThekweni Region is the development of an appropriate ethos and capacity in superintendents so as to ensure that the newly defined goals of democracy are achieved. While it is acknowledged that some superintendents prefer limited professional involvement by means of defining their duties in terms of job descriptions, literature review on educational management and leadership indicates that such limited involvement by superintendents deprofessionalizes subordinates and creates complacency among subordinates. The literature review indicates that the manager's role is not so much one of controlling organization members as it is of facilitating their performance. Researchers implore that if most subordinates, whatever their level of current ability, have untapped resources, the leader's task becomes one of tapping these in the interest of organizational effectiveness and efficiency. Successful administrators operate on a basic set of principles. In the case of district leadership, principles may be drawn from the theory of change. This theory includes information about factors that inhibit or facilitate change and knowledge about how

to influence or alter these factors in more favorable conditions. No checklist can match the power of knowing the dynamics of social change. District superintendents are critical sources of initiating innovations. Even when the source of change is elsewhere in the system, a determining factor is how district superintendents will take to the change. If it is taken seriously, the change stands to be successfully implemented. The challenge for educational leadership in the post-apartheid era may lie in maintaining, even recreating, the balance between capacity-building and accountability strategies and resolving the tensions. If new management personnel were used when institutionalizing change, it would be preferable to use those managers who are favourable to and skilled in change. In other words, a supported visionary leadership and transformed subjective realities are conditions needed to make change happen in practice.

From this analysis, the researcher identified three requirements that superintendents of the future must meet:

- first, superintendents will need to be more inclusive in their decision making and more comprehensive in the dimensions of subordinate growth for which they consider themselves partly responsible;
- second, superintendents will need to become more efficient and effective in accomplishing the outcomes for which both superintendents and their subordinates traditionally have been held accountable;
- third, superintendents will need to be increasingly capable of adapting productively to changing expectations about what they are to accomplish and changing knowledge about best practices.

These requirements, which will obviously play out differently in different contexts or situations, have caused (Leithwood *et al*, 1997:1-79), and many other authors to speculate on new images of future educational settings, one of the most popular is the image of schools as learning organizations. Peter Senge (1990), who popularized the notion in his book, *The Fifth Discipline*, describes a learning organization as one that is ‘continually expanding its capacity to create its future’ Adaptive learning, which he calls *survival learning*, is not enough but must be joined by *generative learning*, “learning that enhances our capacity to create” (Senge, 1990:14). Although, an educational institution ought to feel comfortable with the image of itself as a learning organization, this is often not the case. As one author puts it: “The irony is

that schools are organizations devoted to learning, but they are not by any means always learning organizations” (Hargreaves, 1995:226). In the image of a school, the superintendent and the principal should be thought of as *learners*.

Superintendents require a variety of competencies to discharge their responsibilities, and the learning organization is meant to provide an institutional framework for the development of these competencies. Management and leadership development of superintendents are a combination of education, training and support and these can only thrive in the context of organizational development and staff development. The interplay between the process and context of development is of fundamental importance in thinking about a policy on management and leadership development in eThekweni Region. Effective leadership cannot be regarded as a sufficient condition for educational reform, but it can be regarded as a necessary one. Failure to pay attention to what is expected of superintendents as ‘change agents’ and how these expectations should be met will not ensure the successful transformation of institutions in the eThekweni Region. The researcher believes that good leadership and effective leadership development are keys to transformation in education. New education policy requires superintendents who are able to work in inclusive, democratic and participatory ways to build relationships and ensure efficient and effective delivery in an inclusive environment.

The above recommendations are consistent with the literature review, that once policy is formulated, it should not be regarded as an end in itself. Proactive steps by the Department of Education need to be taken to ensure that every superintendent is familiar with the contents of new policy, is comfortable with the new vision, and receives sufficient guidance and support in understanding the new initiatives. While it is acknowledged that the Department of Education and Culture does have capacity building programmes for superintendents, these workshops are not happening, qualitatively and quantitatively, at a fast enough pace and on a regular basis. Capacity building programmes for superintendents should be a continuous process because policy changes occur at regular intervals and it thus becomes imperative for superintendents to be fully updated about such changes.

8.2 THE NEED FOR THEORY AND PRACTICE IN LEADERSHIP DISCOURSE

The research has established that, at present, interest in the concepts of 'theory' and 'practice' is expressed in ways that do not fully understand their mutual interdependence. It was also established in this research, that discussions of leadership practices proceed in virtual isolation from discussions of leadership theory. There is a need to devise strategies to ensure that superintendents of education (management) are made aware of the relationship between leadership theory and practice, as well as the situations or contexts in which knowledge and understanding of educational leadership are created and shared. One attempt to resolve the theory/practice dilemma is through competence-based courses. These are courses that seek to provide underpinning knowledge and understanding associated with management and leadership competences.

In attempting to address the relationship between theory and practice in leadership discourse, it is important that the theory of leadership should not simply be a matter of learning certain technical skills, adhering to an established paradigm, or conforming to a set of methodological rules. The view taken in this research is not about dominant traditional thinking about the relationship between theory and practice or about theory for the sake of practice. Rather, it should be more a matter of learning to interact critically with those theoretical frameworks, which have guided the research efforts of situational theorists, for instance, in order to evaluate their potential impact on leadership theory and practice. This study does not see the relationship of leadership theory and the practice of leadership as oppositional, that is, theory being context-free and practice being context-dependent. The researcher has partly adopted a theory-guided view of the practice of leadership. In this study, practice is not opposed to theory: the former is itself governed by an implicit theoretical framework which structures and guides the activities of those engaged in practical pursuits. Theory relates to practice by enlightening education practitioners; it aims to educate practitioners, deepen their insights and enliven their commitments so that they may see more deeply under the surface of their own ideas and practices. Popper (1972), in looking at the relation of theory to practice, declared that we all have our philosophies, whether or not we are aware of this fact, and our philosophies are not worth very much. But the impact of our philosophies upon our actions and our lives is often devastating. This makes it necessary to try to improve our philosophies by criticism (Popper 1972:33).

By subjecting the beliefs, generalizations, assumptions and justifications of existing and ongoing practical traditions of leadership to rational criticism and reflection, the researcher contends that theory of leadership could transform the practice of leadership by transforming the ways in which the practice of leadership is experienced and understood by superintendents. The traditional understanding of the superintendent as being '*in* authority' and '*an* authority' has been challenged in this research. The alternative understanding of superintendents and principals, for example, mutually discovering knowledge recognizes the democratic and dialectical nature which educational leadership should ideally involve. This transition is not, therefore, from theory to practice *per se*, but from irrationality to rationality, from ignorance and habit to knowledge and reflection. In this approach, leadership theory is regarded as a form of inquiry aimed at improving the way in which, for example, decision-making is conducted. It represents a new way of 'doing business'. What this implies is that theory of leadership should be directed towards providing superintendents with the alternative road maps that will enable them to acquire a critical and enlightened disposition in addressing situations that they encounter in leadership. Theory can provide a basis for making wise and prudent judgments about what, in some practical situations, ought to be done. The leader's conceptual understanding of the organizational dynamics and processes of change represent generative sources of ideas. An awareness of the multiple workings of power (*vide* chapter 2), along with a consideration of the interdependence operating within educational institutions might be considered more appropriate leadership in a broadly democratic dispensation.

Theories of leadership can operate at different levels of abstraction. It can help superintendents in their practical activity. Theories can provide the superintendent with a set of guidelines to be taken into consideration when faced with decisions. Theories can operate at different levels of abstraction, such as 'trial and error', which represents 'theory in use'. As Watson (1996:325) argues: 'When managers' actions and practices do reflect their theoretical ideas, there need not necessarily be an explicit or conscious deriving of action decisions from abstract principles'. In similar vein, this research adopts the view that theory can help find a reasoned and systematic approach to leadership problems and can inform the practical judgment needed to make decisions. Such judgments require knowledge. Practical knowledge reflects a tradition of practice or experience through which knowledge is acquired. Research shows that a civil servant who has been trained to a practical operation, not to the exposition of a theory, may be criticized on the grounds that he or she proselytizes an inherently

conservative view that does not allow for new ideas or radical change. There is the danger of group-thinking emerging, of a paradigm forming where a set of beliefs and assumptions held in common throughout the organization is taken for granted. A recurring theme throughout this research is the existence of social and organizational practices, which inform the activities of public services managers, and superintendents in particular. Theory, the researcher believes, encourages a cycle of knowledge, practice and reflection, which would foster reflective practice in education management practitioners.

The notion of reflective practice is associated with Schon (1983), who defined reflective practice as involving the manager in a number of processes and activities such as:

- accurately describing existing management practices;
- reflecting critically on these practices;
- reconsidering future management practices on the basis of this consideration;
- carrying out these plans; and
- continuing to reflect on and to monitor these practices.

Theory aids practice, and reflective practice requires being sensitive and self aware in practice. Reflective practice involves a continual process of self-monitoring, leading to growing self-awareness. It is not just empty 'navel gazing', but is concerned with activity and continuous performance improvement. The kinds of questions asked are all part of the reflective practitioner's approach. It is questioning the *status quo* and the manager's assumptions. The theories analyzed in this study recommend a leadership approach that:

- is developmental in nature.
- starts from the knowledge, experience and concerns superintendents have, including their understanding of contexts in which they work.
- challenges their existing beliefs and practices, and helps superintendents rebuild or extend their knowledge.
- links theory to practice and purpose, in contexts that are 'authentic' for the superintendents.
- helps the superintendents to place new knowledge into the 'bigger picture' of education and management.

- is oriented to outcomes.

Such leadership development involves not only questioning and reconstructing knowledge and beliefs, but also training in particular skills and techniques, and 'learning in action'.

8.3 UNDERSTANDING SITUATIONAL OR CONTINGENCY THEORIES

The theories of Fiedler (1967), Hersey and Blanchard (1988), Vroom-Yetton-Jago (1986), and House (1994), among others cited in this research, can be said to be critical and oppositional discourses for understanding, challenging, and responding to issues, and problems in leadership. The value and validity of the situational theory should be determined by its performance: in other words, by what it does, what it produces and how it can be applied in leadership. The acid test for the situational or contingency theory is the practical use to which it can be put, and it can be judged weak or strong according to its capacity to guide superintendents' leadership practice. However, this viewpoint does not give superintendents free rein to indulge their personal biases and whims. Rather, superintendents are expected to determine which methods are likely to be more effective than others when dealing with various situations. A basic feature of situational leadership theory so understood is that it seeks to emancipate superintendents from their dependency on practices that are the product of precedent, habit and traditional prerogatives by developing modes of analysis and enquiry that are aimed at exposing and examining the beliefs, values and assumptions implicit in the theoretical framework through which superintendents organize their experiences. The essence of the situational or contingency viewpoint is that the superintendents' management practices should be consistent with the requirement of the external environment and the people who work for the same organization. Table 1.8, in Chapter Five, shows how the situational viewpoint draws on competencies from each of the other viewpoints, namely traditional, behavioural and systems viewpoints. The point emphasized is that it ought be the job of the educational manager to assess the situation and then decide whether to draw on one set of skills or on several skills, appropriate to each situation. The overarching principles that emerge from both international research literature and the findings in the study are that educational leaders should fit their management styles to the context and the stage of development of their subordinates, and should be 'open' to change their leadership strategies as conditions and situations change. The researcher found that successful superintendents

were adept at recognizing the requirements of the situation and the needs of their subordinates and then adjusting their own leadership style accordingly. This view is supported by Kidwell and Bennett's (1993:429-456) findings that managers who displayed a broad range of leadership competencies and behaviours were more effective in their jobs. Situational theorists offer elaborate and well-designed models but the superintendent might argue that what is important is not necessarily the degree of probability but its utility. This research has emphasized that the search for perfect solutions may be misguided. However, the belief in the 'one best way' has a long history in management theory. The philosopher, Karl Popper (1966) used the phrase 'utopian social engineering' to describe attempts to remodel society in accordance with some grand social plan. In contrast to this approach, situational theorists and international researchers concur with Popper in his attack on dogma when he argues for 'piecemeal social engineering' where change is brought about by social adjustments and readjustments, which can be continually improved upon. In sum, superintendents should be adopting the *what-is-best way* approach, rather than *this is the best way* approach.

8.4 Structural Relationships for Education Management and Leadership

The approach to education management and education leadership, which the researcher recommends, directly reflects the shift towards democratic processes outlined in recent education policy papers and legislation. This principle has direct implications for every manager in the education sector. If the much-needed shift is to be implemented, the principle of democracy must be fully understood and accepted: this is the baseline for change. It would not be sufficient to publish innovative educational policy guidelines and promulgate new legislation to represent a vision of what is desirable and worth aiming for. Rather, active and tangible steps will need to be taken to ensure that educational managers, in general, and superintendents, in particular, are familiar with the contents of the new policies, are comfortable with the new vision of educational management, and receive sufficient guidance and support in understanding the new initiatives.

Superintendents of Education (Management) will have to develop effective relationships with subordinates, especially school principals. They will have to learn how to relate to school principals in new and dynamic ways, which focus on empowering principals to improve the quality of teaching and learning in schools. Superintendents, themselves, will have to learn

how to interact with principals, school management teams, and others in ways that offer support and guidance, balanced by thoughtful direction and control. The task of instilling these new attitudes, skills, knowledge and understanding is at the heart of the challenge that the superintendents face in transforming leadership and management. The task may be daunting, but the researcher believes it is not impossible. The new educational policy frameworks and guidelines for collaborative decision-making are embedded, *inter alia*, in the Constitution, the South African Schools Act and the National Education Policy Act, and the pace of change to more democratic leadership will be determined by progress in building new competencies at all levels. The following recommendations are informed by the practical principles outlined in the National Department of Education's guidelines for change (NDOE 1996:37):

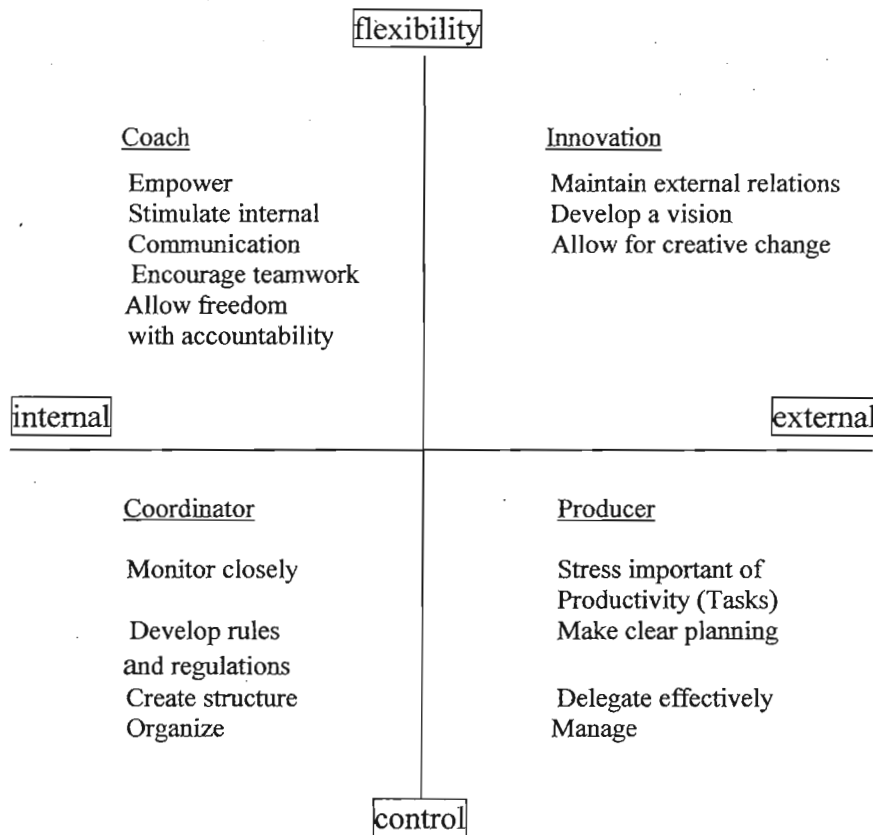
- *Consensus and commitment* must be based on shared purposes, goals and principles, and a common understanding of what constitutes good management and leadership practice.
- *Confidence* must be based on foundations of trust in education cadres, their capacity for reflection, and their potential for professional self-motivation.
- *Contextual relevance* must take account of historical and continuing disparities among schools and institutions with regard to provision, organization, skills, resources and commitment.
- *Co-operation and coordination* must be based on new working relationships within the education community; on active, focused partnerships inspired by commonly held goals.
- *Coherence* must manifest in providing possibilities for improving both the skills of managers and the performance of education service, by integrating the needs of individuals with the needs of the system.
- *Creativity* must involve making the best use of all available human, material and financial resources, and a variety of training and support techniques.
- *Coverage* refers to the ability and capability of reaching very large numbers of those administrators who are now responsible for managing and leading educational transformation in all parts of South Africa.

There is considerable discussion in this study of the value of collaboration in education between leaders and their subordinates. Collaboration promotes information sharing, shifts in norms and expectations, and a more-trustworthy context for action. The study endorses organic management, rather than bureaucratic approaches. Organic management conceptualizes institutions as 'learning organizations' and 'learning communities'. It re-frames power relationships to be less like those in bureaucracies, and, in so doing, seeks valid information from all participants; shares control and promotes free and informed choice, and commits to the choice but monitors its validity and implementation.

8.5 The Envisaged Roles of Superintendents

The research indicates that superintendents are expected to perform many activities and use various skills. However, a superintendent's resources are limited and he or she cannot do everything. Consequently, a superintendent has to make choices. The research indicates that very often these choices are made intuitively, and management activities are done according to the superintendent's personal preference. The researcher proposes that a choice be made consciously, taking into consideration the needs and goals of the organization, the requirements of the environment and personnel, and the superintendent's own skills and qualities. When orienting his or her interventions, the superintendent has two main choices. On the one hand, he or she can decide to control closely all activities and subordinates within the organization, and, on the other hand, he or she can decide to be flexible in his or her attitude and relationship towards activities and subordinates, and their control. This is the control-flexibility axis of the relationship. The second axis is the choice for the superintendent to either put energy into the internal functioning of the organization or to focus more on the world around the organization, namely its environment. This is defined as the internal-external axis. This leads to the following model:

Figure 1.18: The Control-Flexibility and Internal-External Axes



Looking at each of the quadrants in the above model, four types of superintendents are distinguishable. These can be defined as the four roles that the researcher believes a superintendent can and should play.

In the bottom right quadrant, the superintendent puts emphasis on the planning of the objectives of the organization (schools) and manages them. Productivity (task-orientation) of the organization is of high priority. The importance of the external environment leads to the concern of being able to justify the existence of the organization. So the objectives of the organizations are clearly defined, and time and effort are spent on developing and selling them. These objectives are important for seeking justification for the organization because doing the right things is considered to be important. Monitoring the internal functioning of the organization is not the main activity of this type of superintendent. The superintendent who focuses a lot on these activities is called a producer.

The superintendent in the bottom left is the coordinator, who closely monitors and coordinates everything the organization does. Objectives of the organization are clearly defined but specifically used to monitor how efficient the organization is doing things right. In order to be able to monitor, rules, regulations and procedures are described in detail and the internal structure is created and defined.

The top left quadrant superintendent is called the coach. This type of superintendent works without clear objectives but with a clear structure. The main emphasis is on people, teamwork, communication and empowerment of subordinates. Subordinates are allowed the freedom in defining what they are going to do within reasonable limitations and a clear vision. The idea is that capacitated subordinates will do the right thing as long as the organization and the superintendent create good conditions.

The top right quadrant superintendent is the innovator. This type of superintendent spends a lot of time and effort on networking, maintaining relations and defining the vision for the organization, and allows for creative decision-making and change within the organization. Both the tasks and the relationships are the main concerns.

These four types of superintendents are obviously ideal types. In reality, however, no superintendent will play only one role: he or she will combine various elements of the different roles. From the evidence of this research, a superintendent who displays merely one of the roles in an exaggerated way is very often ineffective. The pitfalls related to the exclusive adherence to just one quadrant (paradigm) are likely to be one or more of the following. The coach may be seen as a weak and soft manager. Coaching could lead to lack of productivity and endless discussions with subordinates in the organization. The innovator runs the risk of becoming chaotic and susceptible to losing touch with reality. The producer will become too preoccupied with task-behaviour to the virtual exclusion of relationship-behaviour. The controller, when guiding and controlling excessively, is likely to assume the mantle of a bureaucrat who pays more attention to rules and regulations than to work results, people-orientations and staff productivity. Unlike the bureaucracies of earlier days, roles and functions of superintendents no longer divide out and fit together. New approaches to role descriptions are part of the creative leader's task. The researcher believes that a sound leadership style would be one that contributes to effectiveness (increased output and client

satisfaction), efficiency (correlation between output and input), continuity (long term effectiveness and efficiency), legitimacy (acceptance by subordinates and other stakeholders), and capacity (ability to deliver outputs). In this role, the superintendent will be the trigger, the motivator and the enabler. For this type of leader, the following elements will be necessary: vision, outputs, inputs, alliances, strategy, structure, systems and procedures, management style, staff motivation and development, and organizational culture.

Hejka-Ekins (1994) provides three propositions that take into account the specific role and responsibilities of individual public managers and the organizational context:

- The more bureaucratic the organization, the more likely it is to use a compliance model.
- The more democratic, flexible and open the organization, the more likely it is to use integrity ethics.
- Organizations that have a mixture of both will have a fusion of the two.

It is important for superintendents to model their attitudes and behaviours on the principles of democracy. Fair treatment of all subordinates, is a prerequisite for building an atmosphere of trust and accountability. In the current climate of transformation, it becomes imperative for a superintendent to display proper leadership skills so that his or her credibility as a leader is not brought into disrepute.

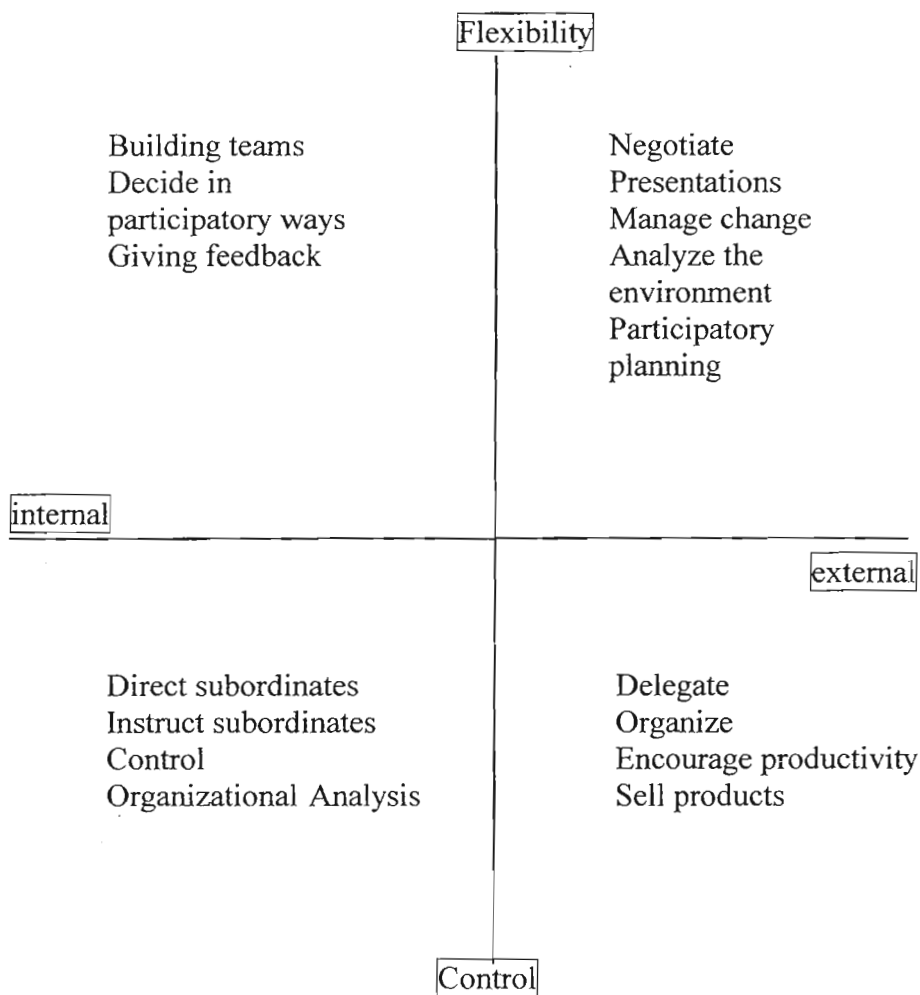
8.6 The Skills of Superintendents

Many leadership styles that were acceptable in the past will be unacceptable in the future. Superintendents will have to deal with transformation and change where cognitive and social transformation leadership skills will play a big part. In order that superintendents may perform each role correctly, the research points to certain skills that superintendents need for the role in question. As a producer, the superintendent will have to be able to delegate tasks effectively and organize the tasks in a way that efficiency is achieved without much intervention. Subordinates will have to be encouraged to be productive without constant supervision or intervention. Control is on the output and not on how the activities are done. As a coordinator, a superintendent will be able to guide staff, to monitor subordinates and

activities, and to take corrective action whenever necessary. As a coach, the superintendent will need the skills of team-building, collaborative decision-making, communication, and conflict management. Finally, as an innovator, the superintendent will have to be able to negotiate, give clear and convincing presentations, sell his or her ideas, and manage change.

The following diagram depicts what the researcher believes to be the relevant roles of the superintendent, taking into consideration the realities of the eThekweni Region:

Figure 1.19: Relevant Roles of Superintendents



The diagram encapsulates what the researcher believes should be the role of superintendents. As leaders, superintendents may have to change their behaviour to suit the circumstances, situations, and the people *with* whom they work. This is the essential premise or foundation of

the situational theory, which argues that good leadership, depends on using leadership techniques that match the situation. For example, very experienced colleagues do not need much direction and support from superintendents. Delegation is likely to work well with such personnel. Subordinates, who are inexperienced, need high levels of direction and support. A coaching style should work well with such staff.

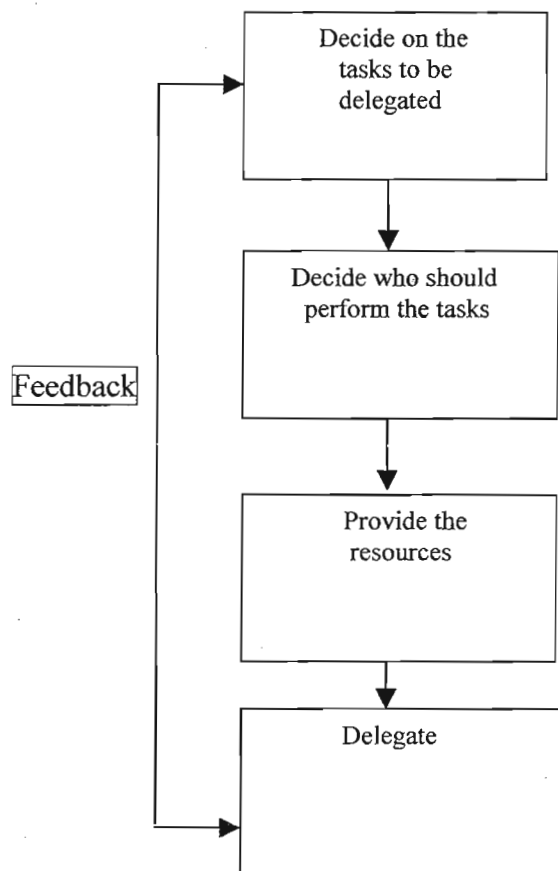
The view that leadership involves influencing subordinates to act towards the attainment of goals and objectives, and that it is based on interpersonal relationships, not administrative activities and goals, is not entirely supported in this research. The researcher agrees that superintendents need to involve others in the formulation of policies, the decision-making process, as well as planning. However, superintendents are still accountable for the actions of his or her subordinates and are sometimes forced to make difficult and unpopular decisions. He or she cannot adopt *laissez-faire* leadership under which the organization moves along on its own steam without specific direction from the leader. The context or situation makes a big difference. It is important for superintendents to weigh up different options and to act wisely. Sometimes the *right thing* may not be the *wise thing*.

Superintendents, as educational leaders and managers, have been vested with formal power. In a democratic society, the other side of power is accountability. Superintendents are accountable to the society and to the education department. The need for accountability places particular responsibilities on superintendents to lead and manage according to principles of democracy and human rights, and to be accountable for doing so. A broader theory of leadership will show that leaders do not have to do everything themselves. They do not necessarily have to be the ones who set the goals or formulate the vision for the organization. But, they must make sure that their subordinates set goals and have a vision. Moreover, while leaders are not expected to take all the decisions themselves, they must ensure that the necessary decisions are taken. Spreading leadership among members of a group or team is an important principle. But, groups and teams also need leadership from superintendents otherwise the job might not be done. Sometimes 'leading from behind' can be a very effective strategy.

When thinking about leadership, it is important to include the matter of delegation, that is, passing power on to other people. The process of leadership relies quite significantly on the

concept of delegation. It is important for superintendents to understand the concept and to know the advantages of delegation. Superintendents should realize that there is more than one way to deal with a situation and they should, therefore, not compel subordinates to apply their methods. This has been adequately underscored in situational theories. Delegation encourages subordinates to exercise judgment and accept accountability. This, in turn, improves self-confidence and willingness to take initiative. Experience reveals that better decisions are often taken by involving subordinates who are 'closer to the action', and know more about the practical execution of tasks. Superintendents should have the ability to analyze the department's objectives, goals and task requirements and to determine to what extent the subordinates have the capability to perform the task they wish to delegate. Smit and Cronje (1997:251) suggest how the delegation process may be executed (Figure 1.20):

Figure 1.20: The Delegation Process



The delegation process is essential to every superintendent for this is how he or she gets others to share in the performance of work of the department. A common failing of

bureaucratic managers is that they try to be responsible for everything. Such behaviour is viewed in this research as a common failure on the part of managers. In trying to do everything, they often sacrifice quality among other things. This researcher recommends the delegation process because it is a developmental process. It provides subordinates with an increasing amount of work to be performed, and it also teaches subordinates the practice of good management. Delegation is, therefore, useful for training personnel. By participating in decision-making and problem solving, subordinates also improve their managerial skills. Another reason why delegation is recommended is that the subordinate and not the superintendent often has the specialized knowledge required for a particular task. Even though superintendents delegate authority, they remain accountable both for their own actions and those of their subordinates.

8.7 Invitational leadership

Leadership that reflects a disinviting attitude results in a level of functioning that does not bring out the best in subordinates. The research indicates that many superintendents function at levels that may be described as consciously disinviting or unintentionally disinviting. Despite their good intentions, superintendents are often unaware that the messages, sub-texts, and signals they send out are insensitive, and may be offensive to subordinates. This can be imputed to an absence of the concepts of trust, respect and optimism. The research indicates that principals often feel that many superintendents function at levels that may be interpreted as uncaring, dictatorial, sexist, racist, and patronizing.

The researcher believes that superintendents need to function at the invitational leadership level. This is based on strong commitment to certain basic values favoured by subordinates, and indeed all people in a democratic system. The works of situational theorists, namely Fiedler (1967), Hersey and Blanchard (1988), Vroom-Yetton-Jago (1986), and House (1994) concur that the relationship-behaviour of leaders is a critical variable of effective leadership while, at the same time, not discounting the importance of the task-relationship. A belief in the value, worth and potential of the individual is central to understanding invitational leadership. Four basic beliefs underpin the invitational style of leadership, namely:

- optimism, which is the belief that subordinates have relatively untapped potential for growth and development,
- respect, which is evident in such leadership behaviours as courtesy, politeness, pastoral care and good manners,
- trust and the parity principle, which are created by a series of sincere actions and become important motivators, and
- intentionality, which involve actions that are intentionally supportive, caring, pastoral, and encouraging.

Elmore (1988), cited in Fullan (1991:161) suggests that leadership reforms, if these were to be successful, would have to be played out in ‘contested terrains’. A positive ethos in these ‘contested terrains’ would be characterized by a high degree of interest and concern relative to six sets of activity and attitude focuses such as:

- taking care of business (a learning focus);
- monitoring performance (an accountability focus);
- changing policies and practices (a change focus);
- consideration and caring for stakeholders (a caring focus);
- creating shared values (a commitment focus); and,
- creating community support (a community focus)

Fullan (1991:48) found that districts that were ‘moving’ as opposed to those that were ‘stuck’ were those in which superintendents involved principals in developing district goals or policies and determining their schools’ technical needs. District superintendents, in ‘moving’ districts, make it clear that principals become continuous learners and, through their leadership, create conditions for principals, school management teams and educators to be *learners*. Thus, a ‘moving’ district would be characterized by involving principals in formulating the district mission and determining school needs through processes in which there is participative democracy, cooperative relationships, team organization, autonomy with accountability, and networking.

If superintendents are to have any positive impact on education delivery, the researcher contends that they must have high performance ratings on the above focuses.

Grobler (1998:14-15) draws an important distinction between the two levels of functioning, namely *unintentionally inviting* and *intentionally inviting*. From his comments and supported by the findings in this research, it can be inferred that invitational leaders are highly successful in guiding and facilitating the social, emotional, physical and intellectual development of subordinates. At the level of unintentionally inviting, superintendents are positive and inviting in their relationships and do this intuitively without knowing why. These leaders, however, are unable to reflect on their practices and as such are not able to find solutions when things go wrong. On the other hand, superintendents operating at the intentionally inviting level have the ability to approach even the most difficult situations in a professional manner. They know what they do and why they do it. They believe in the worth of their subordinates, are caring and respectful. They show respect for all people and recognize their dignity and potential. They create environments where their subordinates are invited to develop intellectually, psychologically and spiritually.

According to Grobler (1998:14-16), people, places, policies and programmes are all important elements, and must all work together to create and maintain invitational leadership. In sum, people must be treated with respect; places must be inviting and appealing; policies, guidelines, directives and procedures must be based on the principles of trust, mutual respect, participation and fairness; and programmes and meetings must be based on the principles of invitational leadership. Invitational leadership is a powerful tool for superintendents. The researcher believes that it is a valuable basis for effective educational leadership and, if implemented, it is likely to bring out the best in subordinates.

8.8 Training Policies and Practices

In many countries little formal training is provided prior to an initial appointment as an administrator (Bjork & Ginsberg, 1995:11-37 and Milstein & Krueger, 1997:100-116). This is evidently the case in South Africa. In the United States and Canada the majority of “pre-service” programmes are run by universities, and usually take the form of graduate or post-graduate degrees (Bush, 1998:321-333). In South Africa, post-graduate degrees in education remain the exclusive domain of institutions of higher learning. It is this exclusivity which, according to some researchers, is one of the inherent weaknesses of leadership programmes. Lacking the appropriate linkages between the universities and ‘contested terrains’,

programmes are seen as failing to make the necessary connections between sound theory and actual demands of practice (Burnett, 1994:529-542; Carver, 1988; Murphy, 1992). France provides a three-month partly residential course for teachers appointed to leadership positions, while Sweden and Denmark both provide more than twenty days of training. These programmes are grounded in the belief that “leadership can no longer be exercised on the basis of experience and natural ability alone” (Hillman 1992:516). Singapore appears to give pre-service training for educational leaders serious attention. Prospective principals, for example, are given the opportunity to earn a Diploma in Educational Administration, offered jointly by the Ministry of Education and the National Institute of Education. The one-year programme requires full-time commitment and selected principals receive full salary throughout the course of their training. Course content aims to balance both theory and practice. In addition to coursework on organizational management, leadership and curriculum-related decision-making, candidates engage in two four-week internships in a school as associate principal.

The eThekweni Region itself cannot meet all the capacity building needs of superintendents in the education system and will need to make use of diverse institutions to provide management and leadership development. In order to address the past focus on training only, the eThekweni Region needs to develop guidelines and work closely with institutions to ensure that programmes are relevant to current management and leadership practices and day-to-day work demands. This can be supplemented by the development of appropriate accreditation mechanisms, which encourage the provision of practical, professional management and leadership development programmes.

8.9 Democratic Administration

The researcher calls for the emergence of a paradigm shift in the general conceptual approach to public administration from one that focused almost exclusively on the regulatory aspects of administration to one that is development-friendly, delivery-oriented, participatory and representative system of educational management. This is an emerging approach, which is rooted in the literature on development management and leadership. It focuses on democratizing work practices and the devolving of decision-making into administrative governance. While the approach recognizes the need for effective monitoring, its proponents

stress the need to develop participative work practices at every level of the organization. Techniques include the shifting of power, with accountability, to subordinates, loosening bureaucratic rigidities through the establishment of diverse task teams, and participative planning. McClennan, in Fitzgerald *et al* (1997:120), remarks that organizational democratization ranges from non-authoritarian leadership styles to subordinate self-management. Smith (1994:454) lists what he believes are the key dimensions of organizational democracy:

- The degree of influence or control over decision-making by individual employees.
- The organizational level at which decisions are reached.
- The type of decision over which employee influence or control is exercised.

Based on the findings stated in Chapter 7, the researcher identified three forms of superintendent-subordinate participation, where these existed. These were:

- Pseudo-participation refers to a system, which is designed to create a feeling of employee participation, without affecting the formal superintendent-subordinate authority system.
- Partial participation refers to those situations in which subordinates have an influence over superintendents, but superintendents retain the right to decide. It is partial because subordinates do not have equal power in the relationship.
- Full participation refers to situations where collective decisions are reached by a group of equal decision-makers.

The research showed that these processes could involve anything from the structure, conditions and practices of work, to discretion in respect of education policy. The researcher is of the view that organizational or institutional democracy may serve to increase accountability and responsiveness since it develops in subordinates an increased sense of responsibility about their choices. Moreover, this approach is likely to increase the employee knowledge, and interpersonal and social skills through listening, and articulating and building support.

The new public administration literature and the four situational models discussed in Chapters 2 and 5 respectively suggest that increasing environmental uncertainty will force superintendents to adopt more democratic work structures in order to deal more effectively with continual change. However, the research showed that some managers prefer the regulations they know to the ones they do not, or have to develop. The notion of democratic administration is linked to the idea of the bureaucracy as development oriented. It occurs as a consequence of social change in organizations and usually involves change agents who manage the emerging patterns of behaviour or changes in relationships among individuals or groups. Superintendents, as potential change managers, involved in democratic administration will have a dual task: the first is to manage internal relations and build an effective organization, and the second is to manage relationships with their subordinates. Fitzgerald *et al* (1997:122) lists the following variables for democratic administration or administrative reform:

- leadership
- ethos;
- resources

According to Fitzgerald *et al* (1997:122), of particular importance is the fit between the internal structure (formal and informal patterns of authority, division of labour, channels of communication, methods of mediating) and the environment. Fitzgerald's reference to 'environment' is of immense importance to the general study undertaken by the researcher. Frequent reference is made to the fact that educational management and leadership, lacking a fixed paradigm, takes place in the context of shifting social processes and activities. The fundamental lessons seem to be that superintendents should pay attention to context, particularly the development priorities and the extent of development of their subordinates. Moreover, since the policies of the department will have to be implemented by the superintendents, ignoring the important process of orientating these managers to the systems and context in which they operate will result in ineffective delivery and system breakdown.

The researcher believes, therefore, that superintendents should move forward to embrace a democratic professional role, which would incorporate some of the current management culture with a new and development-orientated ethos. In so far as the management of the

change process is concerned, the researcher contends that the superintendent is a key role-player in the promotion of values such as democracy, inclusiveness, participation, efficiency, effectiveness, productivity, accountability, responsibility and responsiveness.

8.10 Further Research

Since the research findings indicate an imperative to move away from a traditional, autocratic management paradigm to a participative mode of leadership, there is a need for a closer examination of the roles and responsibilities of the superintendents of education (management) in relation to those of the school principals. Hence, it is recommended that further research pertaining to the development of theories, methods and strategies for effective educational leadership be undertaken. Further research, as indicated in Chapter 7, would have to be conducted to conclude whether production performance is actually higher among employee-oriented superintendents than task-oriented superintendents.

8.11 Final Remark

The aim of this study was to analyze the theory and practice of leadership in education with particular reference to superintendents of education (management) in the eThekweni Region of KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education and Culture. The study investigated the manner and extent to which superintendents are responding to the changes and challenges in the democratic educational milieu, and the extent to which these leadership trends are informed by and co-exist with contemporary leadership theories. It was found that, while there was a satisfactory shift from the traditional top-down mode of management towards more inclusive and participative leadership styles, a significant percentage of superintendents need to change their management styles in order to manage and lead change in education. The rhetoric of participation is still evident, because while all the superintendents who participated in the research project have management structures in place that incorporate the relevant stakeholders, evidence from the findings indicate that not all of these stakeholders are sufficiently and appropriately involved in the decision making processes. It is hoped that the recommendations made will be seriously considered so that education institutions in the eThekweni Region can be managed and led in a dynamic way.

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8.13

ANNEXURE AQUESTIONNAIRESUPERINTENDENTS OF EDUCATION (MANAGEMENT)eTHEKWINI REGION

1. THIS QUESTIONNAIRE COMPRISES TWO SECTIONS:

SECTION A: PERSONAL HISTORY OF THE SUPERINTENDENT

SECTION B: LEADERSHIP STYLE PREFERENCE OF THE
SUPERINTENDENT.

2. THERE IS **NO** NEED TO WRITE YOUR NAMES.

3. THE INFORMATION IS **STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL**.

4. PLACE AN [X] NEXT TO YOUR CHOICE.

SECTION A: PERSONAL HISTORYQUESTION 1GENDER:

Male	
Female	

QUESTION 2AGE:

35yrs and over	
40yrs and over	
50 years and over	

QUESTION 3HIGHEST QUALIFICATION:

University degree Plus College or University Diploma e.g B.A.,UED.	
Post Graduate University Degree e.g. B.Ed., M.Ed.	

QUESTION 4PREVIOUS EMPLOYER (PRE-1994)

ex-DET	
ex-HOD	
ex-HOR	
ex-HOA	
ex-KZ	

PLEASE TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONQUESTIONNAIRE

<u>RESPONDENTS:</u>	DEPUTY CHIEF EDUCATION SPECIALISTS
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LEADERSHIP STYLE

This questionnaire reveals your preference for certain styles of leadership. It is intended to help you better understand your leadership actions and can tell you something about the leadership style that is most natural to you. You must answer the questions honestly. There are no "right" or "wrong" answers. Trying to figure out the best answer only makes the results useless for improving your self-awareness and understanding. These questions may ask you to make carefully considered choices. Please make the choices based only on your personal preferences.

Instructions

Read each pair of statements. For each pair, pick the statement that best describes your own leadership behaviours and preferences. In some cases you might feel that both statements describe you very well, but you must still pick only the one that describes you best. In other cases, you might feel that neither statement describes you at all. Even so, you must pick one –that is, the one that is least inaccurate. Please note that you will not be able to work out your score when you finished the questionnaire unless you have picked only one statement from each pair.

PLEASE REFER TO PAGES 2, 3 & 4 OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Place an **X** in the space to indicate which statement describes you best.

1. A ___ I take the time to explain to subordinates what I expect of them.
B ___ Subordinates should be responsible for determining what is expected of them in the course of their work.
2. C ___ I am pleasant towards subordinates but I avoid getting too friendly.
D ___ I respond to subordinates in a warm and friendly manner.
3. E ___ I help subordinates set specific high goals for themselves.
F ___ I allow subordinates to find their own ways to do their jobs better.
4. G ___ I try to get subordinates to work together as a team.
H ___ I try to keep a proper distance from individual subordinates.
5. A ___ I make clear to subordinates exactly how I want the job done.
B ___ As long as the job gets done I don't care how subordinates go about doing it.
6. C ___ Subordinates know when they have done a good job and don't need me to tell them.
D ___ I tell subordinates how much I appreciate their efforts.
7. E ___ I provide subordinates with the information needed to plan the work effectively.
F ___ I take subordinates' limitations into account and don't expect too much of them.
8. G ___ I provide opportunities for subordinates to get together to share ideas and information.
H ___ I make productive use of the time when others are speaking, to prepare my own arguments.
9. A ___ I encourage subordinates to try out new work-related ideas.
B ___ I expect subordinates to adhere to and maintain standard work procedures.
10. C ___ I respect effective subordinates but I don't pretend to be at their level.
D ___ I treat subordinates with respect and as equals.
11. E ___ I make sure that subordinates have the resources they need to do a good job.
F ___ I expect subordinates to solve their work problems.
12. G ___ I display understanding when subordinates come to me with their problems.
H ___ I emphasise to subordinates their own responsibility for their work.
13. A ___ I express clearly to subordinates my views about the ways things should be done.
B ___ I expect subordinates to figure out for themselves how things should be done.
14. C ___ There is little value in encouraging subordinates' ideas since almost all they come up with were tried out long ago.

- D ___ I ask subordinates for their ideas and let them know that their suggestions are desired and appreciated.
15. E ___ I expect a great deal from subordinates in terms of performance.
F ___ I avoid giving subordinates specific numerical goals or targets.
16. G ___ I show subordinates that I am personally concerned about them.
H ___ I prefer to deal with subordinates privately and one-to-one rather than in a group.
17. A ___ If subordinates want to know how to do a specific task or activity, they know that there are established procedures they can follow.
B ___ I decide myself what will be done as well as how to do it.
18. C ___ With so much always changing, there's no point in worrying subordinates with the details too far in advance.
D ___ I let subordinates know of the changes well in advance so that they can prepare.
19. E ___ I help subordinates get the training they need to perform the job effectively.
F ___ I let subordinates know that I expect them to do their best.
20. G ___ I show subordinates that I really listen to them.
H ___ I seldom spend time in group meetings with subordinates.
21. A ___ I clearly assign specific tasks to particular subordinates.
B ___ I find it best to let subordinates sort out informally who is the best individual for any given task or assignment.
22. C ___ I screen out all the unimportant interactions with subordinates and attend only to those that are really important.
D ___ I make sure that subordinates find me accessible to them and interested in their concerns.
23. E ___ I make sure that subordinates clearly understand my role and responsibilities.
F ___ When subordinates know and carry out their job responsibilities there is no reason for me to get involved.
24. G ___ I show a great deal of concern for subordinates' personal welfare.
H ___ I respect subordinates' privacy and right to have personal concerns left alone.
25. A ___ I prepare specific work schedules for subordinates to help define responsibilities and to coordinate work activities.
B ___ As long as the work gets done subordinates can keep to their own work schedules.
26. C ___ I permit subordinates to try out new ideas that seem unlikely to have an adverse effect on productivity.

- D ___ I listen to subordinates' ideas for doing things better and make changes based on their suggestions.
27. E ___ I make sure that all subordinates understand the specific standards of performance that apply to their work.
F ___ I ask subordinates to do their best without setting overly specific standards.
- . G ___ I make sure that when I take actions or make decisions affecting them, subordinates understand the reasons.
H ___ Subordinates accept the fact that I'm in charge, so there is no need for constant explanations of my actions.
29. A ___ I let subordinates know exactly what standards and regulations I expect them to follow.
B ___ Employees can develop their own informal standards and work rules, as long as the job gets done.
30. C ___ I try to get all the relevant information before making an important decision.
D ___ I consult with subordinates before making important decisions about the work.

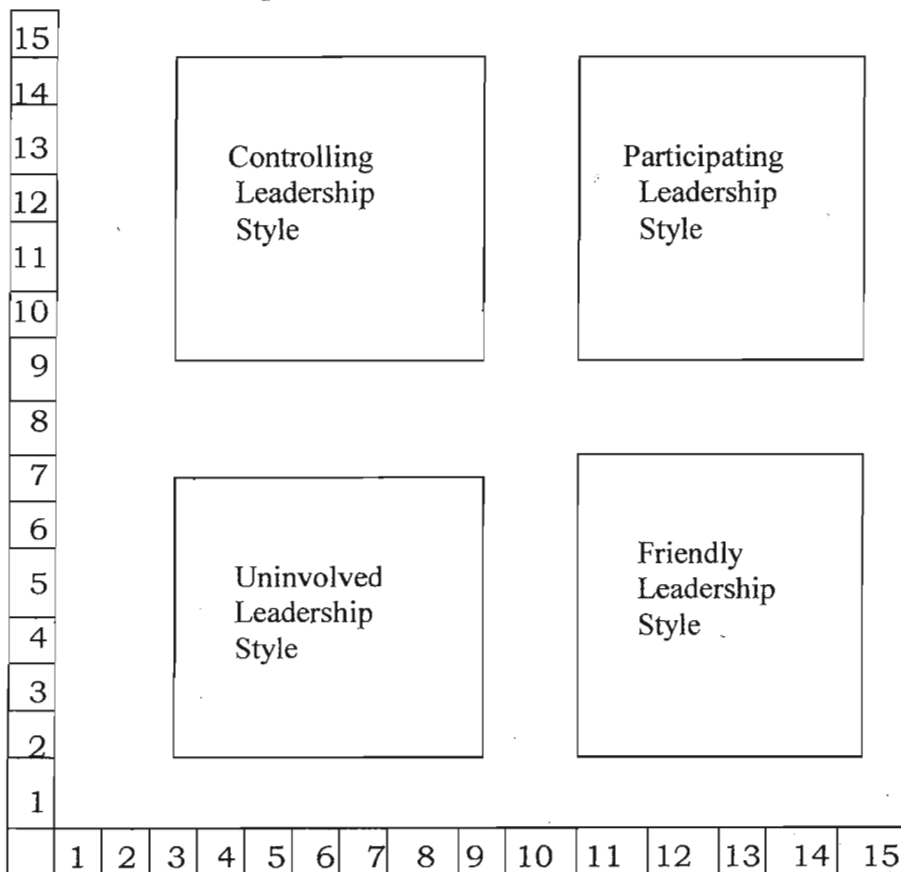
THANK YOU

Directions For Scoring

1. Count the number of times “a” was picked. _____
2. Count the number of times “e” was picked. _____
3. Add the two numbers to get the Task Behaviour Score. _____

4. Count the number of times “d” was picked. _____
5. Count the number of times “g” was picked. _____
6. Add the two numbers to get the Relationship Behaviour Score. _____

7. Scores will be put on the following chart as follows. The Task Behaviour Score will be plotted on the vertical axis. The Relationship Behaviour Score will be plotted on the horizontal axis.



Interpreting the Score

By plotting the scores on the chart, it can be seen clearly what the overall leadership tendencies are i.e. the leadership styles prevalent among the respondents.

Uninvolved: Low on task and relationship behaviour

Participating: High on both task and relationship behaviour

Friendly: Low on task and high on relationship behaviour.

Controlling: High on task and low on relationship behaviour.

CONFIDENTIAL8.14 ANNEXURE BSEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULESUPERINTENDENTS OF EDUCATION
(MANAGEMENT)

1. HOW DO YOU PERCEIVE YOUR ROLE AND RESPONSIBILITIES AS A SUPERINTENDENT OF EDUCATION (MANAGEMENT) IN THE eTHEKWINI REGION?
2. DESCRIBE A TYPICAL DAY IN THE LIFE OF A SUPERINTENDENT.
3. IS LEADERSHIP ABOUT POWER RELATIONS? WHY OR WHY NOT?
4. WHAT IS YOUR CONCEPTUAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE TERMS, 'MANAGEMENT' AND 'LEADERSHIP'?
5. HOW, DO YOU THINK, SUPERINTENDENTS OUGHT TO OPERATE GENERALLY WITHIN PUBLIC SERVICES ORGANIZATIONS AND ESPECIALLY WITHIN THE EDUCATION SECTOR?
6. WHAT DO YOU CONSIDER THE MORE IMPORTANT OF THE TWO LEADERSHIP STYLES: TASK-ORIENTED LEADERSHIP OR RELATIONSHIP-ORIENTED LEADERSHIP? WHY?
7. DO YOU SEE YOURSELF AS AN AGENT OF CHANGE? IN WHAT WAYS DO YOU FEEL THAT SUCH A DESCRIPTION BEFITS YOU?
8. DO YOU CREATE SPACE FOR YOUR SUBORDINATES TO BEHAVE WITH AUTONOMY AND TO EXERCISE CHOICE? HOW DO YOU DO THIS?
9. DO YOU FEEL THAT THE SOCIAL NEEDS OF YOUR SUBORDINATES CONFLICT WITH YOUR EFFICIENCY NEEDS OR WITH THE EFFICIENCY NEEDS OF THE DEPARTMENT? EXPLAIN.
10. DOES YOUR MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP APPROACH BOIL DOWN TO WHAT THE TOP TELLS THE MIDDLE TO DO WITH THE BOTTOM? WHY OR WHY NOT?

11. WHAT DO YOU CONSIDER TO BE THE KEY CHALLENGES FACING SUPERINTENDENTS IN THE ESTABLISHMENT OF SOUND INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THEMSELVES AND THEIR SUBORDINATES?
12. WHEN ORIENTATING YOUR INTERVENTIONS, DO YOU DO SO ACCORDING TO YOUR PERSONAL PREFERENCES OR DO YOU TAKE INTO CONSIDERATION THE NEEDS OF SUBORDINATES, THE NEEDS OF THE DEPARTMENT, THE REQUIREMENTS OF THE ENVIRONMENT, AND YOUR OWN SKILLS AND QUALITIES? HOW IMPORTANT ARE THESE?
13. ARE YOU AWARE OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP THEORY AND PRACTICE AND THE CONTEXT IN WHICH KNOWLEDGE AND UNDERSTANDING ARE CREATED AND SHARED BETWEEN LEADERS IN EDUCATION AND THEIR SUBORDINATES? SUBSTANTIATE.
14. MANY OF US HAVE A COLLECTION OF BELIEFS ABOUT THE EFFECTIVE LEADER. WHAT ARE SOME TYPICAL BELIEFS THAT YOU HAVE ABOUT GOOD LEADERSHIP?
15. IN EACH UNIQUE LEADERSHIP SITUATION, A SUPERINTENDENT IS EXPECTED TO MAKE THE RIGHT CHOICES, DRAW ON THE WIDE REPERTOIRE OF SKILLS, QUALITIES AND ABILITIES AT HIS OR HER DISPOSAL. IN PRACTICE, DO YOU USE THE "ONE-BEST-WAY-APPROACH" OR THE APPROACH THAT ASKS, "WHICH-IS-THE-BEST-WAY"?

CONFIDENTIAL

8.15 ANNEXURE C

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW

PRINCIPALS OF SCHOOLS

1. THINK OF THE CIRCUIT TEAM OF WHICH YOU ARE A MEMBER. DOES YOUR SUPERINTENDENT CONSIDER THE NEEDS OF THE TASK, THE NEEDS OF THE TEAM AND THE NEEDS OF THE INDIVIDUAL PRINCIPAL? EXPLAIN YOUR RESPONSE.

2. THERE ARE ALMOST AS MANY THEORIES ABOUT LEADERS AND LEADERSHIP AS THERE ARE DIFFERENT KINDS OF PEOPLE. IN WHICH AREAS OF LEADERSHIP WOULD YOU CONSIDER YOUR SUPERINTENDENT (A) STRONGEST, (B) WEAKEST?

3. DO YOU HAVE OPPORTUNITIES TO EXERCISE FREEDOM AND AUTONOMY AND SKILL VARIETY OVER YOUR OWN WORK OR IS THERE A LOW LEVEL OF RESPONSIBILITY, WHERE YOU ARE TOLD BY THE SUPERINTENDENT WHAT TO DO, AND WORK TO A STRICT SCHEDULE? EXPLAIN.

4. DOES YOUR SUPERINTENDENT INCREASE THE ACCOUNTABILITY OF PRINCIPALS FOR THEIR OWN WORK (INCREASES INDIVIDUAL RESPONSIBILITY AND PROVIDES RECOGNITION)?

5. DOES YOUR SUPERINTENDENT PROVIDE OPPORTUNITIES FOR YOUR PERSONAL GROWTH AND LEARNING? EXPLAIN.

6. DOES YOUR SUPERINTENDENT PERIODICALLY GIVE FEEDBACK AND GRANT ADDITIONAL AUTHORITY TO YOU IN THE WORK SITUATION? EXPLAIN.

7. FOR PEOPLE IN LEADERSHIP POSITIONS WITHIN EDUCATION, THE NEW AND SHIFTING CONTEXTS PRESENT ENORMOUS CHALLENGES. DO YOU FEEL THAT THE SUPERINTENDENT DEALS ADEQUATELY AND COMPETENTLY WITH THE CORE CHALLENGES OF LEADERSHIP, ATTITUDES AND VALUES AND EXTERNAL PRESSURES?

8. IS THERE A CRISIS OF LEADERSHIP OR A LACK OF MEANINGFUL LEADERSHIP WITHIN EDUCATION? IF YOU SAY THERE IS AN ABSENCE OF EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP, WHAT, THEN, DO YOU THINK ARE SOME OF THE PROBLEMS STEMMING FROM A LEADERSHIP CRISIS? COMMENT.

9. DO YOU FEEL THAT YOUR SUPERINTEDENT, IN HIS OR HER POSITION, IS PERHAPS BUREAUCRATIC, UNACCOUNTABLE, UNASSERTIVE, AUTOCRATIC, INSPIRATIONAL, DEMOCRATIC, COLLEGIAL, FLEXIBLE OR INFLEXIBLE, AMIABLE AND PARTICIPATIVE? HOW DO YOU ARRIVE AT THESE CONCLUSIONS? COMMENT.

10. WHAT ARE YOUR CONCEPTIONS/ASSUMPTIONS/BELIEFS OF EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP AND THE *REAL* ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF SUPERINTENDENTS (MANAGEMENT)? DISCUSS.