EMSSA 7 Characteristics
Jan Arend Brands[1]
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Introduction
This paper reviews the literature regarding the 7 characteristics that earlier were chosen by LEAD-link to be of most relevance for future training in educational leadership and management

The 7 characteristics of future training
The ordered result of 7 characteristics was:
1. The content is oriented on the problems the trainees experience and on possible practical solutions
2. The content reflects the complexity of change processes
3. The content stimulates the educational manager to participate in networks of educational managers to solve problems together
4. The content reflects the real working conditions of the educational manager / the scarcity of resources / coping under difficult circumstances
5. The content supports the trainee in the emotional aspects of having or getting a role and a task that differs from that of the past
6. The content questions the current concept of schooling and discusses alternatives (e.g. multi-graded classrooms, community resource people, children teaching children, self-guided learning materials, self-made learning materials, ongoing feedback for pupils and teachers, regular in-service training and peer mentoring for teachers, children involved in the management of the class, the school)
7. The content includes African (local) leadership or African (local) ways of organising

Characteristic 1 Problems that trainees experience, practical solutions
Not only in Sub-Saharan Africa much training for educational managers still is theory-oriented, trainees being trained in applying the theory to their own situation. So it is not a surprise that this characteristic has a high priority.
This paragraph starts with thoughts about why there might be a need to be more practical. The second part presents some subjects that seldom are a part of educational management training but are main components of the day-to-day reality of the principal in Sub-Saharan Africa.

Training not being practical
What does it mean when principals say that training is not practical (enough)?
Is it that they are not able to translate theory (or results of research) into their practice or that the selection of theories does not relate to what they consider as their real problems? Or might it be the case that the trainer is not able to convince the trainees that a theory is relevant for them because he can't present examples that the principals recognise as relevant, interesting or inviting for further thinking?

All of that can be the case. It also could be the case that the theory is translated into instruments that head teachers have difficulty to master. That would have as an effect that the trainee initially might be satisfied when he is able to use the instrument in a more or less correct way. After some time however when he discovers that the instrument (even when used correctly) does not give the support he wants for the problems to be solved, one might be dissatisfied.

Dissatisfaction also might mean that the principals (used to quick action and solving problems immediately) do not see the importance of leaning back and reflecting. And of

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[1] This paper is written to support LEAD-link in the development of new training courses on educational leadership and management. LEAD-link is a Sub-Saharan African network of organisations each having a leading role in the field of Educational Management Development in their respective countries (Sudan, Uganda, Tanzania, Zambia, Malawi, South Africa, Swaziland, Mozambique). The complete set of papers can be found on the website of LEAD-link. (http://lead-linknetwork.org/) and on the site of Jan Arend Brands (www.freeman.nl).
EMSSA is short for Educational Management Sub-Saharan Africa.

course not in all learning styles one has a preference for starting with theory and reflecting.

Otherwise in some situations saying 'This is not very practical' is a means of saying 'I don't like this training and this trainer' without being too open or too personal in criticising.

And apart from hiding the real comments the comments could also be about the prioritising of the problems being discussed in a training setting.
The content of the training then might be on problems that trainees do experience but that are not the most pressing ones. Or the content might be on solutions that in principle are thinkable but given e.g. the lack of resources not available or realistic for the trainees.
(see also characteristic 4).

Relations between theory and practice; the role of research
Theories have different relations to practice. Some theories are very abstract and maybe are difficult to translate to the everyday practice of the principal. Others are abstract, but deal with the essence of what is happening in practice (Spillane distributed leadership). Some theories, superficially seen, are easy to understand (styles of leadership) but only present options what to do and present no clue what might be relevant to do in a specific situation.

From the overview of literature in the preceding chapters it already could be understood that research on educational management much less as normally is understood or assumed gives direction to practice.
Although multi-level growth analysis now belongs to the methods available, the situation is worsening. Given the growing complexities and faster changes of a systemic nature that happens in education, researchers more and more are confined to just observe in a systematic way what is happening.

It can be expected that action-research, participatory research will be accepted more (instead of looked upon as something of a second hand nature). It might be the only means left to build in an effective and efficient way knowledge in the sense of condensed experience or food for thought that is worthwhile to chew on.

Distributed leadership and practice
The one theoretical approach that has a good focus on practice is that of distributed leadership in the sense that Spillane uses. It is a way of thinking about leadership where the main question is: what does a leader in practice do in his leadership for what reason. Or said better, what characterises the complex of (informal) leaders, followers and elements of the context (artefacts) that together lead to a wanted result. Unfortunately the accent of much literature on distributed leadership just highlights the normative meaning: working in a democratic way together.
More research is needed in delineating practice in the sense of Spillane but also more efforts are needed to make the results more readable.

Better relation between practice and theory in training
Attempts to have a better connection between practice and theory in the USA (and elsewhere) mainly are about
• using teaching methodologies other than lecturing,
• integrating practice in assignments and assessments
• using practitioners as trainers
• making it unavoidable not to think about your own functioning (e.g. by 360 degrees feedback)
• creating networks and cohorts of trainees
(see Leadership Development in the USA).
Not that everyone appreciates that. Some trainers experience that principals hate it to discuss or learn from training exercises. It is seen as spoiling the time of the trainee.

There has not been much of a discussion of changes needed in the content of training, nor does one seem to discuss changing from applying theory to actively constructing theory (which is rather strange given the current accent in learning theories for children).

Principals learning from principals
Many authors wonder why it is so difficult to realise changes in schools (and some of the characteristics indeed do not seem to change very much), at the same time changes in the school and changes in the context of the school that affect schools are so fast that it happens that trainers don't know enough of current practice to act credible.

One can predict that this will happen more and more. Creating networks of principals is not only a good solution when budgets for training are low. In general principals in the future will learn more from each other than from 'experts'. That especially holds in countries where Internet is easily available and not only the trainers are informed about the latest developments in theories on school management.

Best practice
It is suggested that a solution for bridging the theory-practice gap would be to focus on "best practice".
Glatter (2003) who had a very important role in building the field of educational management in the UK writes about "Best Practice" in Educational Leadership and Management. The background of his article is his concern about the task of the NCSL to provide 'a single national focus for school leadership development and research'. He warns against the expectation that it would easy to collect best practice (implying that such an expectation could stifle the NCSL just to send out one message about the right way to manage a school). 'All . these key factures of ELM practice – its contextual[2], multi-level and ambiguous nature and its individual or corporate character – need to be taken into account when considering the concept of 'best practice'. Unfortunately they tend to be seriously underemphasized in much public and popular discussion and in official pronouncements, creating the potential for unrealistic expectations and misleading guidance (p 233).
A very interesting observation of Glatter regarding Learning from Best Practice is:
It could be argued that an orientation to learning is logically incompatible with a concept of best practice: notions of continuous learning and improvement (…) imply that practice is never 'best'. They imply the tentative and experimental character of the great majority of educational changes, whether at institutional or system level.' (p 236)

Problems not mentioned
Another major issue in training for educational managers (in Sub-Saharan Africa) is that some problems that are very influential in everyday school life are not mentioned or only superficial like:
• Corruption
• Violence
• Parallel educational systems
• Power

For other problems school leaders are trained but these topics are not always included in regular programmes
• HIV/AIDS (see IIEP amongst many other sources)

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[2] In a footnote Glatter describes in a very clear way the essences of the English context:
In England … this has had at least four elements, which interact with another; (a) a sharp process of centralization and attendant detailed prescription, turning the English system from one of the least to one of the most centralized in the world; (b) a concomitant process of 'devolution' to institutions involving, in the school sector, the exchange of powers over the curriculum (which schools largely lost to the centre) for powers over resources (where they made significant gains): or in Simkins's (1997) terms, the exchange of power criteria, concerned with the 'what' and the 'why' of service delivery, for operational power, concerned with the 'how' of service delivery; (c) the introduction of incentives to institutions to compete for students, and the encouragement of choice for 'consumers', thus creating a quasi- or public market (…); (d) the establishment of strong accountability regimes based on technical-rational, performance management principles.

- Gender (in one of the next papers)
- Sustainable development (see UNESCO, Education for Sustainable Development)

In donor programmes (and national policies) these are seen as cross-cutting issues that should surface in any activity.

The training for using computers or implementing ICT in the school sometimes also is offered as a separate activity and is not yet included in main programmes for head teachers but for many schools is not an issue yet.

Corruption

It was a clear indication of the importance of the problems of corruption that the International Institute of Educational Planing some years ago corruption made to one of their focus areas in a project: Ethics and corruption in education

It has resulted in a range of publications from Hallak and others:

Hallak (2005) summarizes the problem as:

'In a context of budget austerity and pressure on international flows of funds, there is a clear demand for more efficiency in the use of public resources. Recent surveys suggest that leakage of funds from ministries of education to schools represent more than 80% of the total sums allocated (non-salary expenditures) in some countries; bribes and payoffs in teacher recruitment and promotion tend to lower the quality of public school teachers; and illegal payments for school entrance and other hidden costs help explain low school enrolment and high drop-out rates.'

Corruption happens in many countries[3]. A rather sad example comes from South Africa where it was discussed whether some of the rights of the new School Governance Bodies might be withdrawn because parents in the bodies asked teachers for bribes when those are eligible for job security or promotion. (xx ?)

Violence

In a recent survey commissioned by UNICEF in eleven Sub-Saharan African countries, seven out of the eleven country offices listed violence in schools as one of the top three priorities to be addressed. In a study conducted in Uganda, more than sixty percent of the students surveyed said they experienced violence regularly in schools, and from the available evidence, the situation is not particularly different in most other African countries. (What is a good school' p 7).

In the same report there is call for violence-free schools:

A school can develop policies and mechanisms that protect children from abusive behaviours, such as bullying or sexual violence, particularly against girls. These measures send a clear signal to students that the school values them and will not tolerate victimisation of its members. (p 24)

A real call for head teachers (and teachers and the community).

Parallel educational systems

The problem starts with private tutoring that happens in every country. When it becomes large scale and unavoidable it might develop into a parallel educational system where the real teaching and learning happens.

'In some countries, supplementary private tutoring has become a major industry, which consumes a considerable amount of parents' money and pupils' time. Moreover, in some cases, it has become a source of distortions, which adversely affects mainstream education (curriculum taught, schooling hours, behaviour of both students and teachers, etc.) and the goal of equality of opportunity in education. This is particularly obvious in countries where private tutoring is offered on a large scale at the end of secondary education to help students pass entrance exams for higher education (…). There, within the mechanisms for selection to higher education, private tutoring is a major area of corrupt practice. This is the case in many former soviet states, due to the direct interference of teachers/professors both in private tutoring and in selection committees for entrance to higher education and to the lack of reliability of criteria of access to higher education.' (Hallak 2005) (p 11)

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[3] For ten real world experiences see Hallak (2005) for Transparency International: Stealing the Future: Corruption in the Classroom.

Power
Lewis et al (2004) present an excellent example how power is not included or avoided in changing education. They researched 'broader participation in educational decision-making through local school governance structures in which parents serve as majority members' in South Africa. (p 1)

They end up with:
'We conclude that South African government efforts to broaden participation in educational governance is serving technocratic, efficiency ends rather than broadening participation in any authentic way. To date SASA is not translating into the empowerment of school communities or stimulating substantial organizational changes. Rather, the initiatives are serving to reinforce existing patterns of power and privilege in schools and in the broader society. Our study suggests that one of the main reasons for this is that, at all levels of the system, devolved school governance and participation of the school community in decision-making is being interpreted in a strikingly narrow way. The capacity to influence decision-making has been viewed in a formal, quasi-legalistic sense, restricted to institutional roles defined externally or defined by the most powerful actors at the school.

In asking such questions as "what does governance mean?" and "who governs and how?" analysis has generally failed to consider that actual practices of governance emerge out of actors' theories of action in particular localized struggles. While SASA and such policy prescriptions provide the template of "how governance should work," the definition of roles in practice is not a simple matter of learning one's role, mastering technical skills, or following official procedures. It involves some conflict, negotiation, and compromise. The lack of authentic participation by parents and learners reinforces the efforts of policy makers, principals, and administrators to equate democratic school governance with rational decision-making, minimal conflict, and decisions by consensus. Any re-definition of roles has to confront established power structures and conventions and their obsession with managerial and organizational efficiency, as these are often antithetical to genuine broad-based participation of local communities.

Characteristic 2 Complexity of the change process
Changing a school or schools always has been experienced as difficult. Researching successful schools has produced sets of recommendations but also the insight that research could be done in better ways. Not only looking into the school but also looking at the school in its context (other schools, the community, the district).
Not only looking whether schools (under what conditions) are successful at a certain moment but whether they are able to sustain success over time.
These are welcome insights. The annoying part however is that research on changing 'normal' schools proofs to be very complex (and for that reason does not yield firm recommendations). One hardly can expect that with a growing complexity in the research (design) expected results will become clearer.

But decisionmakers sometimes stay optimistic. Even more than that. Failing schools in the USA (No Child Left Behind) are only funded for their change plans if the plans include proposals that are evidence-based. Initiatives like the EPPI centre in the UK have learned that when you really try to select research studies that deliver hard evidence (e.g. on how to teach mathematics) sometimes not much is left to build on. The EPPI findings on school leadership are from 2003 and not that decisive as NCSL promotes.[4]

To make it more disturbing the complexity not only comes from outside the school. Distributed leadership e.g. tries to take into account the complexity of 'acting leadership together'.
And not much research is done yet into the success of courageous principals that wilfully block or circumvent mandated changes that in their opinion hinder their teachers and students (principled infidelity).
Neither is there much research on what the costs were (financially, humane) of being successful.

There also has been a development from rather rational planning towards a well-defined goal (by experts and later by all stakeholders) towards methods and means that focus on negotiation processes of stakeholders to define a common truth, not neglecting issues of power. (Also much more difficult to do research on)

Further: the role of the government nowadays is heavily criticised. Mandated changes, standardisation of testing and content seem to have a negative influence on professional motivation and creativity (and results of students).
There is a longing to return to the old days (as if there were no problems to solve at that time). There also are proposals for fundamental changes of the system. Not by definition within schools. There is nothing wrong with able teachers taking care of the learning and the results of all students. Changes (so it is wished) should be realised in the conditions the government can create to have better motivated and professional teachers. (Like in Finland where only the brightest are chosen to be a teacher). These are such high-level changes that results will be biased with long-term general societal developments.

And even these societal developments are not a constant. Individual persons change their meaning about these developments during their life. One can change fundamental beliefs about how an organisation is supposed to work (By preference led by a single person or more democratic) in line with these societal developments. Looking back one sees less of an individual than a member of his generation. (as is beautiful written about in 'War and Peace').

Maybe schools can only change on a large scale when societal beliefs change. And in the meantime most schools that experiment will fail after some time (although they might help to make societal beliefs change). And maybe our gurus (Fullan, Hopkins, Hargreaves) just resonate on what already is happening, but still is difficult to perceive. That at least is the optimistic version of having gurus. (Another version is that most people really want change next to stability and that they hope for an easy way to change).

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[4] http://eppi.ioe.ac.uk/cms/Default.aspx?tabid=505

Regarding failing schools. Maybe we should try to make sense of what the experimenting but failing school tells us about future developments. Maybe we should look less to schools that are able to be successful (in contrast with what in society is common sense and many times building on extraordinary leadership).
We might discover that we are putting school leaders (common people like you and I) in a rat race towards unrealistic ideals.

Although, when you look at what in essence is expected from a good school leader it is not more than being a good human in relation to the people he is working with. Sift out the essences of faiths, Ubuntu and humanistic ideals and we have the ideal school leader. It is not that complex.

Sets of recommendations
Probably the most cited sets of recommendations come from Fullan.
There are two important sets. First:
1. You can't mandate what matters.
2. Change is a journey, not a blueprint.
3. Problems are our friends.
4. Vision and strategic planning come later.
5. Individualism and collectivism must have equal power.
6. Neither centralization nor decentralization works.
7. Connection with the wider environment is critical for success.
8. Every person is a change agent.

And second the set of Do and Don't Assumptions About Change (Fullan 2001)
1. Do not assume that your version of what the change should be is the one that should or could be implemented.
2. Assume that any significant innovation, if it is to result in change, requires individual implementers to work out their own meaning
3. Assume that conflict and disagreement are not only inevitable but fundamental to successful change.
4. Assume that people need pressure to change (even in directions that they desire), but it will be effective only under conditions that allow them to react, to form their own position, to interact with other implementers, to obtain technical assistance, etc.
5. Assume that effective change takes time.
6. Do not assume that the reason for lack of implementation is outright rejection of the values embodied in the change, or hard-core resistance to all change.
7. Do not expect all or even most people or groups to change
8. Assume that you will need a plan that is based on the above assumptions and that addresses the factors known to affect implementation.
9. Assume that no amount of knowledge will ever make it totally clear what action should be taken.
10. Assume that changing the culture of institutions is the real agenda, not implementing single innovations.

Schools in their context
Grant et al (2008) did a study into resilient schools in Kwazulu-Natal.
'In brief the findings relate to the centrality of teaching and learning, the importance of good leadership and management and discipline as a good indicator of school resilience. … Furthermore, the role of the department of education in supporting schools was still regarded as problematic and schools turned instead to local community partnerships for support. However, the role of the school governing body emerged far more strongly as an indicator of resilience in schools today in comparison with the findings a decade ago. Overall, the paper highlights the central role people play as they work collaboratively from within schools with the little they have to bring about improvement. ' (p 1).
Even more important than noting that when the department fails schools turn to the community and the SGB, are the questions Grant asks about being resilient.
'…if resilient schools are made up of resilient people, we have to ask what it is that makes teachers' resilient? What is it that makes a teacher cope and refuse to be taken down by contextual difficulties when teaching while another teacher, facing similar circumstances, is

broken and gives in to the challenge? Similarly, what is it that makes a school leader cope and refuse to be taken down by contextual difficulties when leading a school while another school leader, facing similar circumstances, is broken and gives in to the challenge? These questions, while interesting, are beyond the scope of this paper and require further research. But we can conclude that resilient schools in a developing country such as South Africa are, by and large, doing nothing extraordinary. However, given the overwhelming starkness of their social context and the derived school challenges they continually face, we fully endorse the view of Christie et al that their achievement of "the rhythms and practices of 'ordinary schooling' is an extraordinary feat for these schools" (p 13)

Difficulty to have decisive results
This is what EPPI has to say about school leadership.
One review investigated the impact of headteachers and principals on school outcomes:
- There was some evidence that school leaders can have some effect on student outcomes, albeit indirectly. One study found that change of leadership can have a substantial negative effect.
- Evidence on achievement was mixed. Some studies reported weak positive effects; one study found a significant effect on language. One study found little or no effect on mathematics, while another found a significant effect on mathematics test scores.
- Two primary school studies provided mixed evidence about leaders' effect on attitudes to learning. One reported no significant effect on student engagement, while a second found evidence of a moderate correlation between principals' leadership and attitudes to learning. One secondary school study reported indirect effects on non-academic student variables: participation in school, engagement with school and academic self-concept.
- None of the studies collected specific data on recruitment or behaviour (i.e. student discipline). One descriptive study did provide some positive evidence based on proxy measures, while a case study highlighted the negative effect of change of leadership. One secondary school study found evidence of indirect effect on student retention.

Change over time
Seahore Louis while commenting on the Change over Time Project, sketches the sustainability of changes in schools and how success is many times only temporarily. Some elements of an interesting but worrying comment that she draws from own (long-standing) and other experiences.:
'The problem of the sustainability of internal forms of organization is explored by Giles and Hargreaves ("The Sustainability of Innovative Schools as Learning Organizations and Professional Learning Communities During Standardized Reform"). They begin with the often-noted regression of innovative schools to a more traditional structure and culture, before examining the histories of three schools that were founded as alternatives. The core argument of the article is that external pressures, largely in the form of accountability and budgetary decisions, ground a way at the innovative substance of the schools and undermined the efforts of teachers to do something original. The newest school resisted these efforts, largely by sustaining a strong learning community, but teachers in the school worried that they will not be able to stand firm much longer. One wonders whether this snapshot parallels the older schools before they too succumbed to the same pressures. The diffusion and decline of innovation during long periods of time has a contagious effect that is well documented both in schools and other organizations (Abrahamson & Rosenkopf, 1993; Rowan, 1982), but this article stimulates us to attend to the meaning of these sweeping patterns and their implications for motivation and commitment.
But where were school leaders as actors in this largely sad set of dramas?
Fink and Brayman ("School Leadership Succession and the Challenges of
Change") argue that they were up front and influential in some of the schools for short periods of time. Most studies of successful organizations look at slices of time in which a "strong leader" plays a major role in developing or encouraging innovative practice, even though studies of executive performance suggest that their influence declines over time (Hambrick & Fukutomi, 1991). Even distributed leadership perspectives concur that the role of formally designated leaders is important in the short run (Spillane & Louis, 2002). Although quite a few educational scholars acknowledge that the cycling of leaders may have a lot to do with the tendency for policies and p ractices to appear discontinuous to

teachers, the systematic examination of leadership succession is rare, except in higher education, where formal leaders have less influence (Birnbaum, 1989). This analysis suggests that whatever the short-term success, many districts and schools routinely fail to address sustaining innovations during change in leadership.'

New ideas on how change might be realised
The next example comes from the field of OD Organisation Development in International Cooperation Development. In the field are, as everywhere, 'fights' on definitions. In this case how much of the context should one take into account while talking about OD, or should we then say it is ID, Institutional Development. The important message of course is that one has to take into account the context. Even more important is the debate about old OD and new OD.

'In view of the above-mentioned developments a whole debate has occurred around the subject of 'old' versus 'new' OD. The difference between traditional/classical and new OD can best be summarised as deficit-focused thinking as part of action research (classical OD) versus positive-focused thinking (new pragmatic OD) that forms the core of Appreciative Inquiry (AI).

Classical OD basically assumes there is an objective, transcendent, knowable reality. Methodologies based on these assumptions, such as action research, are to discover or reveal this reality or to help correct distortions or misperceptions. Approaches and tools which are connected to this school of thought are among others things the organisational assessment approach (with e.g. the organisational self-assessment tool), the strategic planning approach and the organisational architecture approach.

'New pragmatic' OD on the other hand recognises multiple realities and inherent subjectivity of experience. Therefore there is no transcendent objective truth to be discovered. Instead, the focus is on negotiation between the different realities of different stakeholders. In essence the purpose of any new OD intervention is 'to get agreement among multiple constituencies, all of whose points of view are considered legitimate versions of reality'. New pragmatic OD puts greater emphasis on reaching new social agreements or adopting new mindsets and therefore new realities, which are to guide future actions. The learning organisation approach, and other open-ended approaches and tools are often used by new OD practitioners. Due to its inherent characteristics new OD often transcends an organisational focus and gets a broader perspective as 'Our concept of organisations is moving away from the mechanistic creations that flourished in the age of bureaucracy. We now speak in earnest of more fluid, organic structures, of boundaryless and seamless organisations' (Van der Velden 2006 p 7)

The main differences between classical and new OD can be summarised as follows

Classical OD usually includes	New OD may include
Influence from classical science and modern thought and philosophy	Influence from the new sciences and post-modern thought and philosophy
Reality is an objective fact	Reality is socially constructed
There is a single reality	There are multiple realities
Truth is transcendent and discoverable	Truth is immanent and emerges from the situation
Reality can be discovered using rational and analytic processes	Reality is negotiated and may involve power and political processes
Collecting and applying valid data using objective problem-solving methods leads to change	Creating new social agreements through explicit or implicit negotiation leads to change
Change can be created, planned and managed	Change is inherent and can be self-organising
Change is episodic and linear	Change is continuous and/or cyclical
Emphasis on changing behaviour and what one does	Emphasis on changing mindsets and how one thinks

Principled infidelity
In a great article Hoyle and Wallace present an ironic perspective on educational reform. 'This article adopts irony as a frame for understanding some of the consequences of the reform movement in the UK. A distinction is drawn between the ironies that are endemic in all organizations and rooted in ambiguities and dilemmas, and the ironies that specifically flow from the disjunction between central policies and the contingent circumstances of individual schools. A further distinction is made between the ironies of policy and the ironies of practice, the latter characterized by the strategies used by headteachers and teachers as they adapt policy to practice and as they represent these adaptations as fulfilling accountability requirements. A case is made for principled infidelity as a component of temperate leadership and management which acts as an antidote to overwhelming policy initiatives and the excesses of managerialism to which these give rise.' (p 9).
Hoyle at al sketch three ways how headteachers and teachers adapt to changes. Compliance, non-compliance and mediation.
'We suggest that mediation is the response which is embedded in the irony of work, since its various manifestations capture the positive attempts by headteachers and teachers in their daily activities to adapt the imperatives of policy to the contingent needs of the pupils in their charge. They are ironists because they recognize the disjunctions between policy and practice. They are also principled. They neither rebel nor opt out but seek to 'work round' policies and structures. They are characterized by what we would term principled infidelity: infidelity because they do not slavishly adhere to expectations, and principled because they seek to sustain their professional values. A fundamental irony of the present situation is that, although teachers are 'working round' educational reforms, they are probably ensuring that government intentions are met to a greater extent than would happen if teachers 'worked to rule' and sought to implement them as prescribed. As one teacher in the PACE study stated: 'I'll accept the changes, but I won't allow anything I consider really important to be lost' (Osborn et al., 2000: 68). Many statements much like this one are reported in professional workplace studies. (p 19)
Hoyle conclude:
'We believe that there is a case for temperate leadership and management such as would be characterized by a reduction of managerial activity, by making the primary focus of leaders the support of teachers—taking the strain and absorbing the stress, and by an emphasis on incremental, local improvement. Our appeal for temperance is far less likely to stir the blood than the intemperate rhetoric of transformation connoting a radical and ambitious change in educational goals and the means of achieving them, a rhetoric that currently dominates educational management discourse. But temperate leadership and management are far better attuned to the ironies of practice and policy with which teachers must deal in endeavouring to improve pupils' learning in the contingent circumstances of their individual classrooms.

Fundamental changes in the system: The Fourth Way
Quite different from asking for temperate leadership and management Hargreaves currently focuses on changes needed in the whole school system. He calls that The Fourth Way (referring to the Third Way of Tnoy Blair).

'We need a new way, a Fourth Way of inspiration, innovation and sustainability in which the curriculum is broad, targets are shared rather than imposed, the public is engaged as partners and not just consumers, and accountability is by sample and not by census. In the wake of the greatest economic upheaval for half a century, society is heading away from control by markets and bureaucracy to revitalised professionalism and public democracy. It is time our schools and school systems headed this way too. Indeed, the presentation will show, a number are increasingly and inspirationally already moving in this very direction.[5]
'The UK …' was once a world leader in inventing the Third Way, but this Government has now well and truly lost its way. Tony Blair wrote a pamphlet on the Third Way, and the LSE

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[5] Text from
http://centre4.interact.ac.nz/modules/page/page.php?space_key=21231&module_key=70357&link_key=51032&group_key=0 at 27-02-2009

director, Anthony Giddens, became its theoretical guru. This policy is now stuck –
especially in education.

In the First Way, the state supported everything in the public domain. It created conditions
for opportunity and social mobility, set out an inspirational vision of social change and
common good, and allowed professionals to get on with the job. The spirit of the times
drew many innovative teachers into the profession, but it also tolerated incompetence and
eccentricity.

After the first oil crisis in the early Seventies, a Second Way of markets and competition
emerged where schools competed for clients, performance results were published and
services outsourced. Initially, this generated energy and initiative, especially in secondary
and technical education. But markets were then trumped by the standardised national
curriculum, Ofsted introduced its culture of fear, professionals lost their autonomy and risk
was squeezed aside.

New Labour's Third Way promised something between and beyond the market and the
state. It kept competition but also restored educators' salaries, improved conditions,
provided a focus on literacy and numeracy, invested in massive regeneration programmes,
established networks of schools helping schools, and founded the world's first National
College for School Leadership.

Paradoxically, achievement results have been disappointing. Sir Michael Barber concedes
they have hit a plateau. Durham University's research points to little or no improvement in
long-term literacy achievement. The Cambridge Primary Review exposed zero gains among
the bottom 20 per cent. Meanwhile, the UK ranks dead last of 21 countries in Unicef's
survey of child wellbeing. What has gone so wrong?

Last year, I took an OECD team to Finland: the world's top performer on PISA tests and in
economic competitiveness. Finland has reinvented itself as a successful knowledge
economy by connecting an inclusive mission of future technological creativity to its craft-
like past, where all Finns study performing and creative arts until the end of secondary
school. This mission grants teachers public status as creators of their country's future. It
can therefore attract the best. Only one in 10 applicants is accepted. Highly qualified
teachers develop curricula together in each municipality within broad "steering" by the
state. Teachers work in cultures of trust, cooperation and responsibility for all the children
in their school and city. Classes are smaller than 20, teachers know their children well,
aren't inundated with interventions and they don't need scores and spreadsheets to figure
out what their students need next. There are no SATs!

In England, by contrast, while the Third Way has built better capacity, it has also increased
government control. Obsession about politically imposed achievement targets has led to
narrowing of the curriculum, teaching to the test and concentrating cynically on children
near the borderline. High-capacity educators are hamstrung by political control-freakery.
It's time for another Way.

The Fourth Way is about less government and more democracy. The government shouldn't
drive and deliver, but steer and support. Public engagement shouldn't stop at the ballot
box, the focus group or service delivery, but be evident in the development of
neighbourhoods and communities as in America's tradition of community organising on
which Barack Obama cut his political teeth.

The Fourth Way galvanises professionals by giving them opportunities to develop curricula
together within broad state guidelines. Teachers set shared targets, rather than scurrying
around to meet the targets demanded by others. In the Fourth Way, democracy plus
professionalism, replaces bureaucracy and the market.

Finally, in the Fourth Way, responsibility comes before accountability. Accountability
becomes the conscience that checks you, not the ego or id that drives you. It is applied
prudently to samples (as in Finland), not profligately through an expensive census.

The elephant in the room of the Third Way has been an excess of government control. It is now time to forge a Fourth Way that will create room inside the government elephant.[6]

All in all that sounds great. At least the analysis of the past is striking. And it is a warning for those (Sub-Saharan African) countries that now focus on quality assurance and accountability systems. But the contrast of sketching in broad strokes the wanted future and the day-to day reality can be high:
The TESS (Times Education Supplement Scotland) asked delegates at the recent International Summer School on School Leadership (where Hargreaves was speaking) for one message they would take away.
Wonanji Msiska, headteacher of Mlambalala Primary in Blantyre, Malawi: "Unfortunately, some things we've learnt couldn't be applied in our country because we don't have enough resources. I'll take away the idea of seeing the potential for leadership in every child. It's a challenge to give children individual help, as you can have 3,000 pupils in one school and it's typical to have between 90 and 140 per teacher."[7]

Complexity at personal level
How complex change s, is beautifully demonstrated by a scheme of Van der Velden where the different roles are shown in case one person (e.g. a headteacher) relates to another (e.g. a teacher) helping the other to learn. If one adds to that: role as intended and role as perceived the options for research are mind-boggling already at this level.

Counsellor "You do it; I will be your sounding board"	Coach "You did well; you can add this next time"	Partner "We will do it together and learn from each other"
Facilitator "You do it; I will attend to the process"	Teacher "Here are some principles you can use to solve problems of this type"	Modeller "I will do it; you watch so you can learn from me"
Reflective observer "You do it; I will watch and tell you what I see and hear"	Technical adviser "I will answer your questions as you go along"	Hands-on expert "I will do it for you; I will tell you what to do"

(Van der Velden p 15)

Conclusion
Researching change processes is complex. Acting on the advice coming from research is too. It seems good to develop some suspicion and resistance against messages claiming that we know what kind of leadership is needed to make schools successful in changing. As if it does not matter what kind of change one strives after.

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[6] From http://www.independent.co.uk/news/education/schools/andrew-hargreaves-this-government-must-find-a-new-direction-863535.html at 27-02-2009
[7] From http://www.tes.co.uk/article.aspx?storycode=6000957 at 27-02-2009

Characteristic 3 Networking, solving problems together
There are two major reasons for principals to meet each other individually or in groups and to solve problems together.
The first one is that it is an adequate way to become more effective and efficient (or to work on one's own professional development) in those situations where formal training hardly is available.
The second reason is that even where formal training is available sometimes training is too general, too theoretical and does not fit the specifics of the situations the principals are in. Sometimes also trainers have no knowledge of those circumstances. If that is the case working together as principals might be more worthwhile.
Apart from that here is also a hope that principals in networks can play a major role in overcoming the current hurdle in national reforms.

Sub-Saharan Africa
In some Sub-Saharan African countries the networking is formalised and a person coordinates the networking.
It can be a Primary Education Advisor (Malawi) or a Ward Education Coordinator (Tanzania). Unfortunately the WEC did not have a formal task description and the PED's did not have the entrepreneurial attitude that was expected from them. Resource Centers were created but with mixed success.
So in this paragraph the focus is mainly on self-initiated networking of principals.

Professional development of teachers
The approach can be compared with that of Liebermann[8] (2008) for teachers. Her view, which she expresses in a letter to the incoming president of the USA, is:
'Too often, professional development is perceived by teachers as being idiosyncratic and irrelevant. The authors recommend a reconceptualization of professional learning for practicing teachers, in which educators are involved in learning communities, these communities evolve over time, and they revolve around norms of openness, scholarly rigor, and collaborative construction of professional knowledge' (p 226)
She refers to experiences in the USA (e.g. the National Writing Project) and the UK (Networked Learning Communities). She concludes:
'The teacher communities described here exhibit the best we know so far about effective professional development. They focus on instruction; are sustained and continuous, rather than short term and episodic; provide opportunities for teachers to learn from one another both inside and outside the school; make it possible for teachers to influence how and what they learn; and engage teachers in thinking about what they need to know
(…). Whether organized as a group of teachers, a department, team, or a group of schools, the idea of teacher communities has been embraced by educators all over the world as a way of meeting the challenges of improving schools in this fast-changing global society. In addition, teachers are expanding their circle of like-minded colleagues by forming and joining online teaching communities, which allow geographically dispersed members to meet, exchange ideas, and learn from each other.
Perhaps if we think of these learning communities as the best professional development for teachers, we can concentrate on offering supports that will encourage the communities to grow and, in the process, create the conditions for more open and collaborative school cultures.' (p 233)

Not much seems to be written about whom of the teachers participate in these networks. (Liebermann presents different participation from 2 schools with different cultures). Of course it will be challenging and interesting for some or maybe many. It might however be the case that teachers who are in need of (informal) training (because of their results with

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[8] Already in 1996 Liebermann with Grolnick wrote a thorough article about 'Networks and Reform in American Education. They stated:
Regardless of their differences, the sixteen networks we studied appear to have in common agendas more often challenging than prescriptive; learning that is more indirect than direct; formats more collaborative than individualistic; work hat is intentionally more integrated than fragmented; leadership more facilitative than directive; thinking that encourages more multiple perspectives; values that are both context-specific and generalized; and structures more movement-like than organization-like' (p 7)

students) are less inclined to participate. The same might hold for teachers from schools in challenging circumstances.

A typology of networks
In the OECD publication 'Networks of Innovation: Towards New Models for Managing Schools and Systems' Hopkins (2003) presented an emerging typology of networks:
- At its most basic level, a network can be regarded as simply groups of teachers joining together for a common curriculum purpose and for sharing good practice.
- At a more ambitious level, networks can involve groups of teachers and schools joining together for the purposes of school improvement with the explicit aim of enhancing teaching and learning throughout a school or groups of schools, not just of sharing practice.
- Networks can also serve not just the purpose of knowledge transfer and school improvement, but also join together groups of stakeholders to implement specific policies locally and possibly nationally.
- An extension of this way of working is found when groups of networks, within and outside education, link together for system improvement in terms of social justice and inclusion.
- Finally, there is the possibility of groups of networks working together not just on a social justice agenda, but also as an explicit agency for system renewal and transformation.

Not all categories in this typology were reflected at the seminar, but it does provide a way of categorising networks as well as emphasising their potential role. It is explicitly situated within a systemic perspective and has implications for the role of governments and for policy. (p 18)

The typology already talks about social justice. But in the years after 2003 this does not seem an aspect much written about. As formulated elsewhere (xx) Hopkins also helps to hide such focus.

NCSL and networked learning
For principals and other leaders in schools the NCSL (2006) especially looks to networks of schools that have a shared purpose, active initiation and implementation. Formulated in another way: 'When successful, networked learning tends to be purposeful, designed and sustained over a period of time. NCSL relates this to system leadership assuming that 'successful school networks are the first places we would search in order to understand more about the practice of system leadership and the roles of system leaders.' The networks are seen as 'a breeding ground for innovative and committed school leaders.' (p 2).

Strange: As if people who are inclined to or talented for leadership in the absence of networks would not have taken other opportunities to become a school leader. One can suppose that they are already innovative and committed.

Jopling (2007) present an overview of Leadership in School Networks, the NCSL's Network Learning Communities that Liebermann refers to.
'We found that headteachers spoke of increased confidence in themselves and in the professionalism of others. They understood the limitations of traditional CPD provision, which often dies because it is not securely linked to the realities of school and classroom. They compared it to the increased resource that became available through the creation of new professional relationships. …A major advantage of this informal resource is that new ideas are not simply a matter for theoretical discussion. They can be viewed in operation in real classrooms in partner schools.' (p 21)
'It is paradoxical that networks encourage school leaders to be less isolated while also allowing schools to be increasingly self-sufficient in their provision of CPD. Successful networks create the kind of enthusiasm that is associated with a loosening of boundaries and restrictions and with wholesale shifts in philosophy' (p 22)

This is very close to the ideas that Roland Barth developed in the early eighties.

But the NCSL is not just promoting. In another publication it is admitted that little is known about the kind of learning that happens in successful networks. (p 4) But one is hopeful: As we learn more about the conditions that support, nurture and encourage practitioners' learning and leading, we will be able to be more intentional about how this can be sustained over time. (p 6)
It might even help to 'grow' the much needed system leaders.

School agendas or a government agenda
Warnings to be cautious about networks come from Hatcher (2008). The conclusion of his article:
'Let me end by briefly summarising the argument I have tried to develop. It revolves around the relationships between government agendas and the agency of teachers, and between them the intermediary role of management as 'system leaders' of network forms. (There is a parallel with the function of distributed leadership at school level: see Hatcher, 2005.) Network is a pluralistic concept: networks can serve very different educational-political interests. They offer the potential of new participatory relationships among teachers across schools, but also the potential of simply being vehicles for the transmission and implementation of government agendas. The role of system leaders is clearly pivotal, but again it is ambivalent. Will they be rooted in and primarily responsible to grassroots initiatives or will their role be to manage them on behalf of government, creating themselves in the process as a new super-managerial elite?
Are we witnessing the emergence of a new and complex multiple network landscape which is more participatory, more democratic, more 'dynamic', or one which is hierarchical and controlled by a technocratic managerial elite even more remote from the influence of representative democracy? My own view is that networks and system leadership can best be understood as a reconfiguring of state power, attempting to create new vehicles for the implementation of policy under the control of a reliable new technocratic management cadre. As for what it will mean in practice: whether the project of creating sufficient system leaders succeeds, and the extent to which network forms are capable of resolving the crisis of 'performativity'[9] remains to be seen. Within each network the tensions and contradictions I have described will no doubt work themselves out in different ways and, perhaps, with different outcomes.' (p 30)

The concern of Hatcher is not just philosophical. The last paragraph of the article of Joplin is:
'There is no simple, single solution to leading networks but some leaders found that the enlarged perspective they gained from their first experience of network leadership made them particularly well-placed to respond to the introduction of Primary National Strategy Learning Networks and the *Every Child Matters* agenda.'

Conclusion
The enthusiasm about networks and systemic leadership (as a possible breakthrough for innovations that now seem to have reached its limits) might hide its limitations.
It is not sure whether through nurturing configurations of cooperation that partly just emerged because of needs in schools will be used by exactly those principals whose schools are most challenged. Will the leadership in the networks head for solving the equity problem that national governments fail to attend in a sufficient way. That is still not clear.

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[9] This refers to the start of his article:
In the last few years it has become increasingly evident that the 'standards agenda' has run out of steam: improvement in pupil performance has levelled off and the equality gap remains wide. Educationists who are most influential in government thinking – David Hopkins,
David Hargreaves, Michael Fullan, Brian Caldwell, Christine Gilbert and the authors of a series of National College for School Leadership publications – share a common diagnosis of the problem. Hopkins (2007: 24) speaks of 'the failure of performance based reform'. Its centralised top-down prescriptive approach suppresses the expertise, creativity and innovation of practitioners which are necessary for continuing improvement. They are also in agreement about what the solution is. It should be schools, not government, leading change

Characteristic 4 Real working conditions, scarcity of resource, coping
In one of the earlier chapters it is mentioned how bad working conditions are in regular schools in Sub-Saharan Africa. Here that is highlighted by referring to reports that describe the situation in former homeland in South Africa, for farm schools and for nomadic populations.
Not only in Sub-Saharan Africa working conditions in schools are bad. The same holds for urban schools or rural schools in other countries. It is interesting to see what is written about leading schools in what is called challenging circumstances.

Education in homelands and on farm schools
The publication that best describes real working conditions for parts of former homelands in South Africa is Emerging Voices: A Report on Education in South African Rural Communities (HSRC 2005). The report is written with strong input from communities, learners, teachers and principals.
Some of the chapter titles speak for themselves: 'Dust and deprivation': 'The road to school'.
'Main findings include:
• the reasons why children drop out of school include the need to work, fees and pregnancy
• water, roads, electricity and sanitation are in poor supply in schools as well as the community environment
• most teachers are ill-trained, ill-equipped and face inadequate resources and support
• parents and caregivers hope for an education that will promote rural development, while learners hope for an education that will promote their participation as equals in social, economic and political life
• principals and teachers dominate School Governing Bodies (SGBs), chiefs also wield authority in SGBs, but parents are largely marginal to them. However, SGBs have great, unrealised potential. There is also evidence that a greater role in district authorities brings positive benefits by improving morale and attendance
• communities emphasise the need to unite across divisions and to form structures around common problems, to discuss these problems and to work out ways of dealing with them

'We believe that the study has achieved some significant milestones:
• It has produced a rigorous and qualitative overview of the problems of rural schooling in the context of rural poverty. We now understand better the complexity of the problems of rural communities and schooling and the importance of listening to the voices of the rural poor. We understand that there are no magic solutions. In addition, we recognise how important it is to understand more fully the pervasive and negative impact of Bantustan policies and their long-term effects on such rural communities.
• The findings of the study point to a singular conclusion: that the great majority of children in rural poor communities are receiving less than is their right in a democratic South Africa. Worse still is the fact that this will have long-term effects on their opportunities for development, their capabilities and their lives. Moreover, the communities in which they live will continue to suffer the debilitating effects of poverty and inequality for as long as these problems remain.
• The study makes an important point that it is critically important to engage with and listen to the voices of rural poor communities to understand their experiences better, and that the methodology for doing so is as important as what is 'discovered' through such engaged listening.

Amongst others the report recommends:
'access to good quality, equitable, well-managed and democratically organised education for all, including early childhood education, giving special attention to the conditions that exist for girls' (p 142)

The report does not detail specific recommendations for the professional development of principals. The report just presents a broader overview of the (sometimes) horrible situations.

Another report describes the situation in and the context of farm schools (Dugard 2005).
A typical school profile is:
- The school was established in 1974 by the then farmer.
- The principal has been with the school for four years.
- There are 112 enrolled learners who are spread between grade 1 and grade 7.
- There are 3 educators (including the principal). All classes are multi-graded.
- The school services 4 farms.
- The longest distance that children travel is approximately 7 km each way. This distance is travelled by a total of 29 children.
- There is no scholar transport for these children.
- The principal says that the school has requested assistance from the Department of Education a number of times but has never been successful.
- The school does have a feeding scheme supply which feeds all children in the school daily.
- Sometimes there are delays in the feeding scheme and children have to stay without food for up to two weeks.
- The food supplied consists of beans, soya and pap.
- The school has an elected SGB but it does not function.
- None of the 112 children pays school fees despite a policy requiring them to pay an annual fee of R30.00.
- There has never been a formal application for school fees exemption.
- Unavailability of scholar transport and retrenchment of parents adversely affect enrolment and are a major reason why children drop out. The number of children at the school falls each year.
- The migration of parents from farm to farm and the return of some to their rural homes – largely in Mozambique – also affects the number of children.
- According to the principal the school could service about 50 more children but this is prevented by the lack of transport.
- The farm is currently owned by XXX (a sugar company) which assists the school with funds (up to R3000 pa) and other facilities such the computer, the supply of toilet paper.
- The school also receives a government subsistence allowance of R10 000 pa which is largely used for staff travel (work-related) and repairs.
- Also, the farmer provides free water and electricity for the school. Other than that, there is little involvement or interference from the owners of the farm. (p 4)

The report compares farm schools in two provinces:
'Most farm schools in the Western Cape are (relatively) well funded and managed, and relationships between landowners and schools were (relatively) good. By contrast, with a few exceptions, most farm schools in Mpumalanga are poorly funded and badly managed, with precarious or downright hostile relationships between landowners and schools. In neither province, however, can farm school learners expect to access significantly better jobs or earn significantly more money than their parents. Only rarely are learners in either province expected to go on to secondary or tertiary education.
What is common to learners in both sets of schools, however, is their deep embeddedness in the social and economic structures of agricultural production, the low expectations their educators have of them, the low levels of motivation and job satisfaction displayed by educators in most schools, the inability of their parents to contribute financially to their schooling and the economic and social roles they are expected to perform in farm-based households.' (p 42)

The report recommends amongst others:
'The wholesale relocation of farm schools off farm land and on to state-owned land – even where the schools are functioning in terms of land tenure agreements. Farm schools, where possible, should be consolidated into larger, better funded rural education centres which will be able to draw on a broad range of teaching talent and benefit from better resourcing and economies of scale. Adequate transport services should be provided to these schools.' (p 43)

Again there are no specific recommendations for principals.

Basic Education for Nomadic Populations
In one of the articles of the report 'Reaching Nomadic Populations in Africa' (De Souza 2006) attention is asked for training for head teachers but in a very general way.
It is mentioned as one of the seven strategies for improving teacher supply and quality in the chapter on Teacher Training, Recruitment and Deployment:
'iii Conducting annual training workshops for teachers, head teachers and supervisors. Organised annually by two universities, the training workshops covered subject content, methodology and the necessary orientation for teaching in nomadic schools.' (p 53)

Networking is also recommended in the final recommendations for action, but at a rather high level (p 73):
'2. the expansion of networking among countries at further regional and international forums, and to examine possibilities of working together through the establishment of :
a) a regional association of educators working with nomadic groups,
b) an electronic network, and
c) a website that disseminates information on behalf of such a network.

Conclusion
Other recommendations are not mentioned here, they are quite divers. But looking at those recommendations it might be the case that the problems of homeland schools, farm schools and schools for nomadic populations are that complicated that solutions are sought first in more structural solutions than in solving the problems at school level. A contra-indication is that there is attention for the training of teachers.

Leading schools in challenging circumstances in other countries

Namibia n=1
Of course there are examples of principals that do an excellent job in e.g. rural schools where schools in similar circumstances do a far less successful job.
A nice description is from Tjivikua (2006) about the leadership from a principal in Namibia. He investigates 'what it is that successful rural school keep afloat in a turbulent environment where others around them collapsed'. (p i)
His Masters study shows that the principal is good in all elements of what is 'en vogue' now: The leadership of the principal is balanced (between task and people orientation), transformational, focussed on teaching and learning, modelling, like a team player, distributed working towards community, ubuntu, servant, strategic visionary, planning with the other stakeholders, exemplary, working on a school culture with time consciousness, commitment and care for others. There is however one paradoxical finding that the principal follows democratic procedures, but also is perceived to be autocratic in some ways (p 95).
So this n=1 study seems to proof the current theories about successful leadership. Or not?

Australia
The study of Starr (2008) presents a more complex picture. They state:
'While many very positive attributes of small rural schools are evident, this article speaks to principalship engagement with contextual problems – issues concerning work intensification, role multiplicity, school viability, new regulatory funding requirements and the abandonment of equity policies in education – since there is a dearth of information in Australia at this time about how school principals confront these challenges in small rural locations. The research exposes a growing culture of creative collaborative responses to the pervasive impediments of leading small rural schools.' (p 1)

Starr researched the major challenges confronting small rural principals working in a system with a neo-liberal and a neo-conservative policy agenda.
The challenges are headed under:
- The Impact of Reforms: "They're Making Things Worse"
  'The most obvious change and common concern expressed by principals is the

increasing amount of mandatory administrative and compliance work arriving from
district, state, and federal governments.' (p 4)
'There are many aspects to these concerns, including the side-lining of important
educational matters to managerial tasks, feelings of isolation, rising stress levels,
decreasing professional satisfaction, and unrealistic expectations of principals.worse
the longer I'm in the job.' (p 4)
'There is also consensus that reformed educational management policies incorporate
increasingly authoritative and inflexible hierarchical structures that are administratively
technical and constraining.' (p 4)
- Restricted Resource Allocation: "Jumping through the Funding Hoops"
Principals of small rural schools complain that they have to do more with less being
dependent on the preparation of successful funding submissions, whereas in previous
times schools received these resources as a matter of course (p 4)
Principals perceive that discourses concerning competitive individualism and efficiency
have overturned the previous social democratic, welfarist consensus about equality in
educational provision and outcomes. They believe that macro and meso policy morality
is disappearing with deleterious effects at the micro school level. (p 5)
- The Marginalization of School Principals
Principals feel dislocated and alienated from debates about education policy-making,
whereas previously they felt more involved, connected, and integral to the business
of making a difference and setting direction. The consensus is that principals are
marginalized and ignored by education bureaucracies.
A related issue concerns a lack of professional contact or support. Many principals do
not feel supported by the education system at the state or district level. The majority
view is that a division exists – with those on the inside having very little understanding
about small rural school life and leadership challenges. (p 5)
- The Constraints of Role Multiplicity
Conflicting role demands and resource constraints create tensions, and incumbents feel
stretched to the limits by myriad roles that cannot be executed thoroughly due to a
lack of time for any particular task. (p 6)
- School Viability and Survival: "Don't Get Caught Riding a Dead Horse"
Issues of school viability are a constant source of stress (…). If schools become too
small, they will be closed. (p 6) Another major issue concerning size and viability is
that of negative economies of scale, with a far greater cost per student for schooling
provision in small rural locations

In response to these challenges there are emerging trends towards collaboration.
"In order to best service their schools and to help themselves, small rural principals are
turning to each other and their communities for support and collaboration in conducting
their complex roles. There are many emerging moves afoot for addressing issues of
smallness and rurality. Small rural schools are enhanced by strong community linkages
and the attendant shared school-community leadership practices. These have arisen
through informal, locally-derived, and pragmatic means. Many people play an important
part in running small rural schools in which leadership is increasingly viewed as a collective
community responsibility in an environment of diminishing and more tightly controlled
resources. Hence, paraprofessionals or willing amateurs take on a greater significance in
small rural schools, assisting with all manner of activities. Small rural principals have to be
cognizant of, and diplomatic in using, localized formal and informal power structures to get
things done.
We are witnessing a trend towards collaborative councils that oversee education and other
social services within a whole district.' (p 10)

So it seems to be: growing system leadership caused by a changing context. It is quite a
different picture than the hero-like principal from Malawi who fits many current hypotheses
of successful leadership.

USA UCEA
The reasoning in the Malawi example is more in line with the reasoning of the UCEA that
recently (2008) published a short leaflet about Successful Leadership in High Poverty,

Urban Schools. UCEA refers (amongst others) refers to a recent study of three successful principals in three high poverty urban elementary schools.
'These principals set and maintained a clear direction that focused explicitly on the educational needs of the students and schools they served. Each exerted a strong, positive influence on people's willingness to follow. All three were passionate about making a difference in the lives of poor children and purposefully assumed leadership of schools with high needs and limited resources.
The principals' enthusiasm was accompanied by persistence, commitment and optimism, and they leveraged external accountability demands such as NCLB annual progress expectations to overcome resistance among teachers, particularly those who questioned the academic abilities of students living in poverty. They focused on improving the school's learning environment, with an early emphasis on creating a physically safe and nurturing atmosphere. They applied pressure early in the process to encourage adherence, and then used whatever resources they could generate to engage teachers in professional dialogue and development. They also worked hard to involve parents and other community members in school activities and decision-making.' (p 1).

The authors see as implications:
'Coupled with the fact that high quality leaders are perceived to be in relatively short supply in urban school systems (Jacobson, 2005), we need to incorporate what we know about the passion, commitments and practices of successful leaders into principal preparation and district support. Through joint effort and informed action, preparation programs and districts can improve the quality and effectiveness of school leaders for the schools (and students) who need effective leadership most.' (p 2)

It however seems to be rather difficult how to 'make' from regular people such extremely powerful principals. Rather discouraging if you have that as your perspective, also knowing from research that it will not do if you develop several of these talents. No, you need them all in the right configuration.

So the implicit message is rather weird. Yes, we have this very difficult schools and yes, some people manage to do the job. Don't expect the context will change just develop yourself as another star manager.

ADEA Teachers for rural schools (and the role of the principal)
In a study on teachers for rural schools (a contribution from Mulkeen to the ADEA Biennale 2006) the tone seems to be much more realistic. The paper identifies three teacher-related areas where the educational provision is weaker in rural area:
1) Teacher deployment practices leaves fewer teachers, more unfilled posts, and more unqualified teachers, in rural areas.
2) Teacher utilization practices result in larger class sizes at early grades. In other cases teachers without adequate preparation and materials are left trying to handle multigrade teaching. At the same time, qualified teachers may be found working with very small classes.
3) Limited teacher management systems may result in higher absenteeism, and shorter working hours, in rural areas. In addition the systems to ensure and develop the quality of teaching (inspection and support services) are often weaker in rural areas. In effect, the weakest teachers receive the least support.' (p 26)

'One likely solution lies in strengthening the management within the school.
 Promising directions include:
1) Development of monitoring tools that can easily be used within schools.
2) Providing training for heads teachers and senior teachers which specifically equips them to mentor other teachers and focus on the quality of teaching. Head teachers, in particular, often see their role as purely administrative.
3) Focusing inspection visits on quality, and building capacity in inspectors to make a meaningful contribution.
4) Streamlining ministry administrative procedures to enable head teachers to spend less time dealing with the ministry and more time managing their schools' (p 28)

Again the every day reality of the principal in disadvantaged schools
Harris and Thomson (2006) present some general conclusions about the work of the principal (in disadvantaged schools) and describes four research strands (Case study, life story, ethnopraphy, action research).
After that she concludes about that there are areas that none of the four research trends adequately addresses. She presents nine points to highlight of which four are chosen here.
'(1) Too little of the research 'comes clean' about the everyday reality of principals in disadvantaged schools and tends not to explore the compositional impact of dealing with:
• Variable teaching quality and proficiency
• Ongoing crises that require continual management (illness, death, violence, abuse etc)
• Constant external interference
• Doing more with less
• Unfavourable social mix of students and how this is produced
• Managing truancy and retention issues
• Negative effects of competition and choice and ethically managing cooperation and competition with neighbouring schools
• Unrealistic expectations about raising performance
• Developing community involvement
• Working with multiple agencies whether one thinks this is a good idea or not
• Working beyond the school through systemic and professional organizations to advocate for the needs of disadvantaged schools and their communities
(2) Too little of the research examines the particular curriculum and pedagogical knowledge required of principals e.g.
• Literacy is a major barrier to educational attainment and heads need specific educational expertise in this area –
• Dealing with diverse school populations is an ongoing curriculum, pedagogical and policy issue and heads need to be expert in inclusive pedagogies
(3) More research is needed that looks more deeply at the practices of leaders other than the disadvantaged school principal i.e. students, governors, district personnel and parents. The relationships principals establish with parents, local government, local community leaders and organizations is also a comparatively blank research canvas.
(4) More research is needed not only into how to manage and lead in hostile and managerial cultures/structures, and how they can influence others to change these circumstances. While the case has been made for teachers as leaders, we need more research into how teachers can effectively lead change.' (p 14)

Conclusion
From this overview it seems to be evident that it is too easy to just transfer what is known in general about successful principalship directly to principalship in disadvantaged schools.

Characteristic 5 Emotional aspects of a new task
Not much literature or research seems to be available about the emotions of a starting head teacher. Of course there is the literature on personal effectiveness like 'Leadership development and personal effectiveness' (West-Burnham 2004). But this is just generally describing five discrete discoveries one can do about one-self (not saying that that has no value, on the contrary).

Recently (2009) the ICP conducted with Intercamhs an 'International Survey of Principals Concerning Emotional and Mental Health and Well-Being'. This study however is only about the well-being of students and teachers, not about the principals themselves.

Hobson from NFER for NCSl reviewed the research evidence concerning new headteachers. The review starts with:
'The literature[10] suggests that whilst headteachers differ in terms of their background, the schools they work in and their experience as a new headteacher, the problems they encounter are largely the same.
The main problems experienced by new headteachers were identified as:
• feelings of professional isolation and loneliness
• dealing with the legacy, practice and style of the previous headteacher
• dealing with multiple tasks, managing time and priorities
• managing the school budget
• dealing with (eg supporting, warning, dismissing) ineffective staff
• implementing new government initiatives, notably new curricula or school improvement projects
• problems with school buildings and site management.

There is also a report of APAPDC (2005) on Leaders Matter that is a workbook for principals to take stock, to understand, to cope with it and to change for the better.
The idea behind publishing the workbook is:
'When people move into roles of positions of positional authority they can become isolated and experience some loneliness. Increasing responsibility and authority, by their nature, create distance. It can be lonely at the top. Differences in positional power and status have a significant impact on the relationships that can be established between colleagues. School leaders may need to look for support outside of their immediate school environment. The main message is that it is critical for school leaders to know that they may need support at different times in their career, that this is okay, and that the support can come in a number of forms and from a number of places. And support comes from connection… to self … to ideas … to others.' (p 7).

The coping mechanisms of rural principles that earlier in the report are described come from Saskatchewan[11].
Buettner was able to construct eight scales:
• Confrontive Coping - describes aggressive efforts to alter the situation and suggests some degree of hostility and risk-taking.
• Distancing – describes cognitive efforts to detach oneself and to minimise the significance of the situation.
• Self-Controlling – describes efforts to regulate one's own feelings.
• Seeking Social Support – describes efforts to seek informational support, tangible support, and emotional support.
• Accepting Responsibility – acknowledges one's own role in the problem with a concomitant theme of trying to put things right.
• Escape-Avoidance – describes wishful thinking and behavioural efforts to escape or avoid the problem. Items on this scale contrast with those on the Distancing scale, which suggests detachment.
• Planful Problem Solving – describes deliberate problem-focused efforts to alter the situation coupled with an analytic approach to solving the problem.

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[10] Mainly work from Weindling and Earley (1987) respectively Bolam et al (1993, 1995) about the situation in the UK
[11] Summary at http://www.saskschoolboards.ca/research/leadership/95-13.htm

- Positive Reappraisal – describes efforts to create positive meaning by focusing on personal growth. It also has a religious dimension.

Bywaters (p 77) in this study characterizes the problems of those who become a principal. 'For some new initiates into the role of school leader, it can be a time of stress, confusion, self doubt and anxiety, and they are carried through it on a high of adrenalin and massive energy output; physical, intellectual and emotional. On the other hand, some people seem to take on the mantle of leadership with relative ease, as if they were born to lead, and as if they were impervious to the stresses and pressures of the job. Their demeanour is calm, composed, and even in the most crisis-driven moments, they appear to have an aura of authority, initiative and 'followship.' Bywaters assumes that the latter had a long term career intent. 'In ideal cases, that intent has been nurtured and developed in a number of ways, consciously or subconsciously.'

Whatever the case might be she advises: 'What is important is the establishment of a set of professional habits that sees principals and other leaders practise with personal commitment, routine and rigour.
The following list describes a set of activities that reduces isolation, facilitates debriefing, builds a shared understanding of the roles and the work, identifies common experiences, works on new strategies for leadership and enables leadership coaching and teaching in an intimate and timely fashion.
The items on the list are what I call professional risk management strategies. They are critical to the long-term mental and physical wellbeing of those in leadership. For those who are thrust into leadership before they feel they are ready, these habits become the survival strategies until time, experience and learning fill the gaps in confidence that inevitably show with new appointees.

1. Develop a personal leadership statement that outlines your own values, beliefs, standards, and bottom lines about your professional work - this will be like a safety net during tricky times.
2. Keep your focus on the core business of schools.
3. Form or join a network of others in the same position, preferably with a mix of experiences.
4. Read good texts or undertake a program on time management and personal organisation. Design a plan for your day, week, term and year.
5. Work on a realistic strategic plan of what is important and possible in a school year, and stick to this religiously.
6. Write down a set of steps for a 'problem solving under pressure and duress' strategy
7. Establish a life-line colleague
8. Do a study of power in leadership and know how you tick in relation to power and how you get it most effectively.
9. Join a professional association that broadens your network and stretches your perspective.
10. Mix with people from other walks of life, share their knowledge and learn and teach in a new context.
11. Learn about systems theory and its relevance to schools. Apply systems thinking to your work.
12. Understand chaos theory.
13. Gather a tool kit of processes.
14. Start the conversations about leadership and shared community building in your school. Build leadership capacity in others.
15. Work on a long-term leadership development plan of your own.
16. Make your private relationship and your home your haven and personal space.
17. Spend time learning about what drives you.
18. Go to a financial planner and work out what you can do to maximise the benefits of earning a leadership salary.
19. Take regular doses of humour and don't take yourself too seriously.

20. Use time and space for reflection and planning, documenting and analysis of data, writing and creating new things.[12]

How leadership can be(come) exhilarating
Caldwell reports from 14 workshops held in 5 countries how leadership can be exhilarating rather than boring, discouraging, depressing or dispiriting, and how the balance can be shifted to exhilaration. In detail he reports on 5 workshops in Australia.

Participants were invited to respond to three questions:
1. What aspects of your work as leader are exhilarating?
2. What aspects of your work as leader are boring, depressing, discouraging or dispiriting?
3. What actions by you or others would make your work as leader more exhilarating and less boring, depressing, discouraging or dispiriting?

A large majority of participants (67 percent) reported that exhilaration was associated with success in the core business of the school, summarized in the statement: 'success in tasks related to learning and the support of learning, characterized by fine working relationships with staff, and enjoyment that accompanies good outcomes for students'. …

There was similarly a large majority (69 percent) in views about aspects of work that participants found boring, depressing, discouraging or dispiriting, with roughly similar numbers reporting concerns about the performance of staff, administrative work, and perceived lack of support. (p 11)

While responses to the second question seemed to transfer the burden to others, the keys to shifting the balance to exhilaration, and by implication making the work of leader more attractive and sustainable, lie to a large extent in the hands of leaders themselves, as evidenced in responses to the third question. Getting a better balance in life was important, but equally important was the need to delegate more. (p 11)

Leading as emotional management work in high risk times
Sometimes fundamental changes in the educational system bring strong emotions; Blackmore describes it well that it is more than just work overload that create the emotions[13].
Her … paper explores, through a case study of educational restructuring in Victoria, Australia, how school leaders in a public education system in Australia mediate reform discourses emphasizing managerial and market accountability and the emotional and messy work of teaching and leading. These accountability exercises were often seen by teachers and principals to be distractions; more about reporting and recording, rather than addressing substantive educational issues. They simultaneously distanced teachers and leaders from the 'real' and 'passionate' work of education while appropriating and commodifying teachers' and leaders' emotions and desires to do well. School leaders were expected to manage the emotional performances of their students, parents and colleagues as well as themselves. They also managed the emotions arising from the dissonance between teacher' professional and personal commitment to making a difference for all students based on principles of equity and the performativity requirements based on efficiency and narrowly defined and predetermined criteria of effectiveness and success that often undermined improvement for many students. In that sense performativity ('being seen to be good') and passion (for 'doing good') often produced counterintuitive impulses. (p 1)[14]

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[12] In the report the list is much more detailed including interesting suggestions.
[13] On the same topic see also Schmidt 2008
[14] Blackmore makes a direct link with what is discussed above about networking:
In 2003 there is now significant evidence of increased polarization of wealth and of educational inequality (Teese & Polesel, 2003). In response, there has been a policy shift away from the competitive relations of self-managing schools in many devolved systems, most recently in Victoria. Learning networks and clusters are now proposed as organizational formations that recognize the need for interconnectedness and that can promote community capacity building. However, such

Harris takes a similar viewpoint: 'the current social, political and economic climate has depersonalised communities and cut people off from internal and external sources of care and support ... It is the inability of governments to engage teachers' hearts and minds and to involve them as partners in policy making that is one of the key failures of school reforms and one which has had serious consequences for the power dynamics of relationships experienced in classrooms, staffrooms and playgrounds.' (p.5-6)

Harris summarizes her principal arguments as[15]:
• leadership must be viewed as primarily an emotional rather than a rational activity;
• a new model of leadership is required which addresses the emotional awareness and congruence of leaders more closely;
• effective leaders recognise the importance of developing themselves as human beings;
• leaders must recognise their own vulnerabilities and their capacity to wound others;
• leadership is about practices not tasks;
• leadership is a social, moral and ethical process which is fundamentally about raising self-esteem and collective responsibility;
• leaders must recognise that emotional fragility can sometimes be expressed in ways which isolate and distance the individual from others and must therefore create a climate in which emotions can be safely discharged without fear of escalation, humiliation or abandonment;
• leaders recognise the primacy of secure attachment relationships, especially for those who have been traumatised and emotionally frozen; and
• leaders recognise that positive emotions lead to positive cognitions, positive behaviours and increased learning capability.

Heystek (2007) defines, starting from the same analysis, the way to go quite different: 'I contend that South African school leaders perform their functions within a managerialistic school system that focuses strongly on prescribed standards, quality, and outcomes. The aim is to draw attention to the conceptual contradiction inherent in the labelling of the school principal as a leader rather than as a manager. In practice, school principals are expected to perform within a framework of control systems and performitivity, which are the core features of managerialism. The argument will be that the functions performed by school principals are essentially managerial rather than being true leadership functions, in spite of the practice of labelling principals as leaders. In consequence, the expected managerialistic performance of principals inevitably has specific implications for the training of educational leaders. The training is therefore characterised as leadership moulding rather than leadership training.' (p 491)

'The government clearly has significant control over leadership training for school leaders because the DoE was the leading role player in determining or suggesting the outcomes of the ACE programme and played an important role in predetermining the content because the DoE appointed and funded a nongovernmental organisation to write the core content which each university must use. These levels of control are not untypical of a managerialistic approach from a government because control over a programme such as the new ACE may make it easier for the government to achieve the predetermined performance outcomes and therefore demonstrate that their education initiatives are a success as a whole. This is why I suggest that a label of moulding, rather than training, may be more applicable for the model of leadership training proposed and driven by the DoE.' (p 500)

'In this discussion it must also be readily acknowledged that all principals are not visionary leaders and cannot be forced to become leaders who take their schools to new heights by means of their own ability and motivation. There may be many more principals who are better suited to being effective managers or even just administrators, able and effective

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attempts at structural reform will be unsuccessful unless teachers and students feel valued for who they are and what they achieve. (p 452)
[15] From a review by Derek Gillard at http://www.dg.dial.pipex.com/articles/edurev15.shtml

when it comes to implementing what is prescribed and delegated to them. The moulded leadership training may therefore serve the purpose of ensuring that at least most principals have the minimum ability to keep their schools at the required educational standards.' (p 502)

Wounded leader

Principals not only can wound another, they themselves are also sometimes wounded. Ackerman et al (2004)[16] document stories of school leaders who have experienced a crisis event in their leadership practice that has profoundly changed their professional growth and development. In their conversations with wounded leaders, they are guided by two questions:

* How does a reasonable, well-intentioned person, who happens to be a school leader, preserve a healthy sense of self in the face factors that challenge that self?
* What perspective on the work of leadership can shed light on these challenges and produce a mind-set that leaves the individual open to learn and grow from these experiences? (p.1)

The writers tell several stories of school leaders suddenly confronted with a serious life-changing crisis. For example, Bruce, a successful principal, reads a damaging letter to the editor condemning him, unjustly, as corrupt. The situation escalates and we learn not only how Bruce deals with the consequences, but what he learns about himself as a leader through the experience.

Each of the stories reveals something about resilience, lessons learned and a deeper understanding of the self. The message of the writers is ultimately optimistic. "Crisis can be an emergent occasion for transformation. Crisis provides the possibility of breaking free of the current image of the leader." (p.3)

Spirituality

Luckock in his article on 'Spiritual Intelligence in Leadership Development; A Practitioner Inquiry into the Ethical Orientation of Leadership Styles in LPSH' confronts the leadership styles (like coercive and coaching) used in LPSH with Hodgkinsons's leadership archetypes (like poet and careerist). (p 376, 378).
'Drawing on Danah Zohar's (2005) recent thinking on the principles of spiritually intelligent leadership, to which I alluded in my introduction, it now becomes possible to appreciate how the Poet leader, as an ideal-type, is a potentially rich ethical orientation within educational leadership that helps to integrate the key strands of LPSH and permit headteachers a fresh expression of their spirituality. She has drawn up twelve such principles as follows:
* Self-awareness—knowing what I believe in and value, and what deeply motivates me.
* Spontaneity—living in and being responsive to the moment.
* Being vision- and value-led—acting from principles and deep beliefs, and living accordingly.
* Holism—seeing larger patterns, relationships, and connections; having a sense of belonging.
* Compassion—having the quality of 'feeling-with' and deep empathy.
* Celebration of diversity—valuing other people for their differences, not despite them.
* Field independence—standing against the crowd and having one's own convictions.
* Humility—having the sense of being a player in a larger drama, of one's true place in the world.
* Tendency to ask fundamental 'why?' questions—needing to understand things and get to the bottom of them.
* Ability to reframe—standing back from a situation or problem and seeing the bigger picture; seeing problems in a wider context.
* Positive use of adversity—learning and growing from mistakes, setbacks, and suffering.

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[16] Cited from: http://www.leadspace.govt.nz/leadership/articles/the-wounded-leader.php

- Sense of vocation—feeling called upon to serve, to give something back.
(Zohar, 2005)

One of his conclusions is 'These kind of spiritual principles are certainly nowhere explicit in LPSH; they are either generally missing from the LPSH leadership styles or only
Expressed in a rudimentary fashion'. (p 388)

Conclusion
It seems to be possible (and many headteachers do so) that one can grow personally from the problems and dilemmas one encounters. That is the positive side.
The frightening aspect is that (in the research of Caldwell) people who are 'squeezed' by the system still think that it is in their own hands to make their work exhilarating.

Characteristic 6 Concept of schooling
There are many different views on education and schooling. Some are rather close to the current concept, others are quite different.
A concern in many countries is that children are not teached higher thinking skills and that teaching is rehearsing what children should memorise. Teaching is not child-oriented.
What is teached has little meaning for the student in school or after school. The curriculum is not life-oriented.

There have been many attempts to change schooling in developing countries piecemeal in the new directions chosen for education in developed countries.
Many of the (successful) attempts in pilot projects proofed not to be sustainable because of the costs or the level of training required for teachers.

Farrell has shown that in developing countries alternatives are emerging that had a quite different concept of schooling than formal schooling in developed countries.
These alternatives are successful on large scale with resources at the level developing countries can afford.

These emerging alternatives have some similar features. Not all alternatives do have all features however.

The features are:
1. Child-centered, rather than teacher-driven, pedagogy
2. Active, rather than passive, learning
3. Multi-graded classrooms with continuous-progress learning
4. Combinations of fully trained teachers, partially trained teachers and community resource people (parents and other community members) are heavily involved in the learning of the children and in the management of the school
5. Peer tutoring: Older or faster-learning children, or both, assist and 'teach' younger or slower-learning children
6. Carefully developed self-guided learning materials, that children, alone or in small groups, can work through themselves, at their own pace, with help from other students and the teachers(s) as necessary. Children are responsible for their own learning
7. Teacher- and student-constructed learning materials
8. Active student involvement in the governance and management of the school
9. Use of radio, correspondence lesson materials, in some cases television, and, in a few cases, computers
10. Ongoing and regular in-service training and peer mentoring for teachers
11. Ongoing monitoring, evaluation and feedback systems, allowing the 'system' to learn from its own experience, with constant modification of, and experimentation with, the methodology
12. Free flow of children and adults between the school and the community
13. Community involvement that includes attention to the nutrition and health needs of young children long before they reach school age
14. Locally adapted changes in the cycle of the school day or the school year
15. A focus for the school that is much less on 'teaching' and much more on 'learning'.

Farrell published this in 2002 commenting on the Aga Khan Foundation programmes in Sub-Saharan Africa. Recently (2008) his observations were published by the IIEP which gives the set of features (and his ideas) a new status.

This is against a background of failure, unless Jomtien, Education for All and MDG's:
'Unfortunately, this long and long-standing chain of international declarations, and the assumptions undergirding them, have proven to be unattainable for hundreds of millions of young people. An analysis of over 700 projects supporting primary education (World Bank, 2006) concluded that raising enrolments and completing primary education are not suffi cient to assure basic literacy and numeracy. The evaluation noted that little analytic work has focused on learning outcomes, so there is little research that can inform efforts to raise the literacy levels of those children who are enrolled in primary schools. It has

become increasingly evident that those nations with the greatest number of children out of school also have a high proportion of primary school graduates who
are functionally illiterate' (p 8)

For Farrell and his colleagues the fundamental problem is: the forms of formal schooling and their resistance to change.
'Educators and scholars of education are observers of and parties to a most peculiar pattern. Over the past century or more they have come to learn much about how human beings, young and old, actually learn best (see Bransford, Brown and Cocking, 2000; Olson, 2003; Abadzi, 2006). Yet almost none of this new knowledge has penetrated into the standard practices of formal schools, which generally carry on the century-old traditions reflecting outmoded conceptions of how learning occurs and what is worth knowing, which were first developed in Western Europe and then spread around the world through a combination of colonial imposition and cultural borrowing.' (p 11)

'What we have come to understand about human learning has almost nothing to do with how schooling continues to be conducted. What are called here the forms of formal schooling (…), which were set in the mid- to late-nineteenth century, reflected the misconceptions about human learning of the intellectual and political-economic elites of that very different time and place. But now that we have them, and have set them firmly in place, we do not seem to know how to change them, at least at any large scale.' (p 12)

The traditional forms of formal schooling
- One hundred to several hundred children/youth assemble (often compulsorily) for at least a period of time in a building called a school.
- Pupils are aged from approximately six or seven to somewhere between 11 and 16.
- The school day last for three to six hours.
- Pupils are divided into groups of 20 to 60.
- They work with a single adult, who is a certified teacher, in a single room.
- The school day is (especially at the upper grades) divided into discrete periods of 40 to 60 minutes, each devoted to a separate subject.
- Each subject is to be studied and learned by a group of young people of roughly the same age.
- Supporting learning materials, e.g. books, chalkboards, notebooks, workbooks, and worksheets, are used, and laboratories, workbenches, practice sites, etc. in technical areas.
- The support materials are grouped together within a standard curriculum, which is set by an authority level well above that of the individual school (normally the central or provincial/state government), and organized according to age-group to which they are targeted.
- Adults – assumed to be more knowledgeable – teach, and students receive instruction from them.
- In a broader system, students are expected/required to repeat back to the adults what they have been taught if they are to go any higher in the education system.
- Teachers and/or (a) central exam system(s) evaluate students' ability to repeat what they have been taught, and provide formal recognized certificates for passing particular grades or levels.
- Most or all of the financial support comes from national or regional governments, or other kinds of authority levels (e.g. religion-related schools) well above the local community level. (p 13)

Within the systems of formal schooling good schools exist. However:
'A major part of the core problem here is that, as Michael Fullan and many others (see e.g. Fullan and Watson, 1999) have observed, while we are quite good at noting a really good school and characterizing it, we do not have any serious idea about how to create such schools, at least in large numbers, nor, particularly, how to change traditional schools in large numbers into places which better match what is now known about human learning. This does not explain the problem, but it does identify it.' (p 15)

'…the good news is that there is a quiet revolution in schooling developing in a large number of nations. Typically, these new programmes develop initially on the margins of the standard system, amongst groups where standard schooling has been unable to penetrate, or has manifestly failed. In some of the cases which have been in place for a few decades, there are signs of diffusion of the new patterns into the mainstream schools.' (p 16) Farrell mentions as major examples:

- Escuela Nueva (New School) in Colombia. (standard model for rural education in several countries)
- The Non-formal Primary Education Programme of the Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC). 35,000 schools
- The Community Schools Programme of UNICEF-Egypt. Roughly 8,000 schools
- School for Life in Ghana. 760 schools

But there are similar initiatives also with enormous growth of the number of schools in the programmes from over 1,300 schools to 3,900 schools within a decade or shorter.

'Whatever the educational value of these alternative programmes may be, the question of costs, and with it cost-effectiveness, inevitably arises. There is a general belief that these alternative programmes are actually quite expensive, reflecting a widespread understanding that one cannot get quality education 'on the cheap', particularly in areas that have poor roads, communications, and are generally underserved. Programmes that are managed by NGOs, particularly international NGOs, are assumed often to have large – and often hidden – overheads, which, if included in recurrent costs, would make these programmes far more costly than government schools.
The facts do not support these assumptions. Rather, analyses carried out through the EQUIP/2 noted above suggest that the alternative schools in Egypt, Bangladesh and Ghana are far more efficient and cost-effective than public schools.' (p 23)

Although all of these programmes have sets of features similar to the set mentioned above: 'It is also extremely important that these successful change programmes have not simply altered one feature or another of the forms of formal schooling, for example add some new curriculum content, improve some part of teacher training of the standard sort, alter this or that aspect of the standard pedagogy, or provide a small amount of extra local money to the local school. Rather, they represent a thorough reorganization and revision of the standard model of schooling, such that the learning programme, although occurring in, or based in, a building called a school, is far different from what we have come to expect to be happening in a school, and is far more effective than what we have typically seen, even in very good schools for very well-off children.' (p 33)

Important lessons are:
- These programmes also demonstrate that, contrary to a very popular belief around the world, teachers are not obstacles to fundamental school change. Indeed, when it does happen, the teachers are the promoters and agents of such change, even when they are working in very difficult situations, are not necessarily formally well educated, and are often very poorly paid.
- Some of these programmes have grown under government sponsorship (as Escuela Nueva), others have grown entirely outside of government sponsorship (as the BRAC programme), and many others have been or are working well under various forms of combined sponsorship/ownership.
- Children do not have to be forced or coerced into learning. It is what they do naturally – indeed what they are genetically compelled to do, if given the opportunity.
- Multigrading is not simply a second-best expedient for use when there are not enough children in a school catchment area to support age-graded schooling. It is, in and of itself, pedagogically superior to age-graded schooling; it matches much more closely what we now know about how children actually develop.
- Early childhood education, or more properly put, attention to the nurture, health and learning needs of children before they reach formal school age, is as important (probably more so) as the primary school itself in developing ultimate learning outcomes
- Finally, these sorts of successful learning enhancement programmes must be grown and nurtured carefully and slowly. (p 33)

There are still many questions to solve but 'In the midst of that rather gloomy scenario, the alternative programmes considered in this book offer at least a modest ray of hope. (p 36).

Conclusion
The set of features of the emerging alternatives for schooling is so different from the traditional set of features that it is very well possible that leadership in these alternative systems is rather different from leadership in traditional systems.
Most or the research on leadership in schools is done in traditional (although changing) systems. So there seems much to learn about how leadership in alternative systems is functioning.

Characteristic 7 African leadership
The discussion about the characteristics of African leadership can be perceived as part of the global discussion on leadership in different cultures.
The research of Hofstede was a major breakthrough in the field. It was followed by a large-scale study in the GLOBE project, a groundbreaking, large-scale project on international management research featuring contributions from nearly 18,000 middle managers from 1,000 organizations in 62 countries, perhaps the largest project of its kind ever undertaken.

House et al (2004) first published: Culture, Leadership, and Organizations: The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies. More recently (2007) Ghhokar et al published: Culture and Leadership around the World: The GLOBE Book of In-depth Studies of 25 Societies.

'The fundamental research questions were:
1. Are there leader behaviors, attributes, and organizational practices that are universally accepted and effective across cultures?
2. Are there leader behaviors, attributes, and organizational practices that are accepted and effective in only some cultures?
3. How do attributes of societal and organizational cultures affect the kinds of leader behaviors and organizational practices that are accepted and effective?
4. What is the effect of violating cultural norms relevant to leadership and organizational practices?
5. What is the relative standing of each of the cultures studied on each of the nine core dimensions of culture?
6. Can the universal and culture-specific aspects of leader behaviors, attributes, and organizational practices be explained in terms of an underlying theory that accounts for systematic differences across cultures
(House, Javidan, Hanges, and Dorfman 2002, p.4)?

The GLOBE project definition of leadership is "the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organization of which they are members" (House et al. 2002, p.5). Starting with 23 leadership styles, the researchers eventually identified the following: (six global leader behavior dimensions were identified.

1. The transformational-charismatic leader is decisive, performance-oriented, a visionary, an inspiration to subordinates and is willing to sacrifice for the organization.
2. The team-oriented style characterizes a leader who is an integrator, diplomatic, benevolent, and has a collaborative attitude about the team.
3. The self-protective leader is a self-centered, status conscious, conflictual, procedural, and a face-saver.
4. The participative leader is a delegator and encourages subordinate participation in decisions.
5. The humane style leader is characterized by modesty and a compassionate orientation.
6. Autonomous leaders are individualistic, independent, autonomous, and unique.

The GLOBE project defines culture as "shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of collectives and are transmitted across age generations" (House et al.2002, p.5). Project GLOBE uses nine cultural dimensions. The first six dimensions had their origins in the dimensions of culture identified by Hofstede (1980) and include (1) uncertainty avoidance; (2) power distance; (3) social collectivism; (4) in-group collectivism; (5) gender egalitarianism; and (6) assertiveness. Dimension (7), future orientation, is from Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's framework and (8) performance orientation, is similar to McClelland's concept of need for achievement while (9) humane orientation is similar to his need for affiliation.

Definitions of the (nine dimensions of culture were studied) by Project GLOBE ARE:
1. Uncertainty Avoidance is the extent to which member of an organization or society strive to avoid uncertainty by reliance on social norms, rituals, and bureaucratic practices to alleviate the unpredictability of future events.
2. Power Distance is the degree to which members of an organization or society expect and agree that power should be unequally shared.
3. Collectivism I: Societal Collectivism reflects the degree to which organizational and societal institutional practices encourage and reward collective distribution of resources and collective action.
4. Collectivism II: In-Group Collectivism reflects the degree to which individuals express pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organizations or families.
5. Gender Egalitarianism is the extent is the extent to which an organization or a society minimizes role differences and gender discrimination.
6. Assertiveness is the degree to which individuals in organizations or societies are assertive, confrontational, and aggressive in social relationships.
7. Future Orientation is the degree to which individuals in organizations or societies engage in future-oriented behaviors such as planning, investing in the future, and delaying gratification.
8. Performance Orientation refers to the extent to which an organization or society encourages and rewards group members for performance improvement and excellence.
9. Humane Orientation is the degree to which individuals in organizations or societies encourage and reward individuals for being fair, altruistic, friendly, generous, caring, and kind to others (House et al. 2002, pp.5-6).

To measure each dimension, questionnaire items distinguished what a respondent think of as is in organizations and what should be. Parallel questions asked respondents about what actually is in society and what they think should be in society.'
(Cited from Liddell p 1)

Gupta (2002) did research on the clustering of 61 countries in the GLOBE study and found:
The results provide strong support to the existence of 10 cultural clusters: South Asia, Anglo, Arab, Germanic Europe, Latin Europe, Eastern Europe, Confucian Asia, Latin America, Sub-Sahara Africa, and Nordic Europe. (p11)
Countries included in the Sub-Saharan African cluster were: Namibia, Nigeria, South Africa (Black sample), Zambia, Zimbabwe. (Dickson 752)

Unfortunately Sub-Saharan Africa is not included in the detail studies of the second book (Ghhokar). South Africa is, but only for a white sample included in the so-called Anglo Cluster. The other clusters are: Southern Asia, Arabic and Latin European.

It might be helpful to present some general characteristics of some clusters compared to Sub-Saharan Africa:
Latin Europe – value individual autonomy
Middle East – devoted & loyal to their own people, women afforded less status
Nordic Europe – high priority on long-term success, women treated with greater equality
Southern Asia – strong family & deep concern for their communities
Sub-Sahara Africa – concerned & sensitive to others, demonstrate strong family loyalty

Regarding leadership
An ideal example of leadership for the Nordic European countries is leadership that is highly visionary and participative while being somewhat independent and diplomatic (Figure 13.6). For these countries, it is of less importance that their leaders be people oriented or protective of their office.
Nordic Europeans prefer leaders who are inspiring and involve others in decision making. They do not expect their leaders to be exceedingly com- passionate, nor do they expect them to be concerned with status and other self-centered attributes.

The profile of leadership for the Anglo countries emphasizes that leaders are especially charismatic/value-based, participative, and sensitive to people (Figure 13.7). Stated

another way, Anglo countries want leaders to be exceedingly motivating and visionary, not autocratic, and considerate of others. Furthermore, they report that leaders should be team oriented and autonomous. The least important characteristic for Anglo countries is self-protective leadership. They believe it is ineffective if leaders are status conscious or prone to face saving.

For countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, an ideal leader is modest, compassionate, and sensitive to the people (…). In addition, they believe a leader should be relatively charismatic/value-based, team oriented, participative, and self-protective. Leaders who act independently or act alone are viewed as less effective in these countries. In short, the Sub-Saharan Africa profile characterizes effective leadership as caring leadership. Like many other countries, these countries believe leaders should be inspirational, collaborative, and not excessively self-centered. Leaders who act autonomously are seen as ineffective in Sub-Saharan Africa countries. (Northouse p 317).

The results of the GLOBE project should be used with some cautiousness.
'In other words, according to this theory, leadership is the process of being perceived by others as a leader. However, conceptualizing leadership in this way is limited because it focuses on what people perceive to be leadership and ignores a large body of research that frames leadership in terms of what leaders do (e.g., transformational leadership, path–goal theory, skills approach). Research on how people from different cultures view leadership is valuable, but there is a need for further research on how leadership functions in different cultures' (See Northouse also for other critics p 325)

Since no further study was done in the GLOBE project, the more interesting are the comments on Western leadership views imported in Africa. Malunga writes:
'Leadership development is currently a very high priority for capacity building in Africa. My experience, however, suggests that the plethora of initiatives are largely imported from the West, and tend to have only limited application to the specific African contexts and cultures in which they operate. As a consequence, they achieve only limited success in developing leaders. African culture is at best ignored and at worst viewed simply as a negative obstacle to 'good leadership'. I believe that, to stand any chance of being effective, leadership development in Africa must be rooted in the influential cultural heritage. To promote ongoing behaviour change in leaders, it is essential to tap into the energy, commitment and authenticity that reside within the culture concerned. New ideas should be grafted onto existing indigenous cultures, rather than simply uprooting them and transplanting foreign models. This Praxis Note is inspired by the observation that leadership development from an African cultural perspective is often conspicuous by its absence in most discourses and initiatives.' (p 2)

Malunga then focuses on African Culture of 'Ubuntu'
'African cultural heritage, passed on from generation to generation, has been a source of guidance for communities in times of peace, uncertainty, birth, life and death. At its best it has been the basis for identity, respect and self- confidence. It has enabled us to live in harmony with our physical, social and spiritual environment. It provides our foundation for leadership, problem-solving, decision making and hope for the future.
This Praxis Note is written from an Eastern, Central and Southern African Bantu perspective that can be summed up by a concept known as ubuntu. Ubuntu is a cultural world-view that captures the essence of what it means to be human. My own experience and that of others suggests that many of the cultural practices in leadership and leadership development in sub-Saharan Africa were and are more similar than different (Malunga, 2004; Dia, 1991). Ubuntu is built on five interrelated principles:

- sharing and collective ownership of opportunities, responsibilities and challenges;
- the importance of people and relationships over things;
- participatory decision making and leadership;
- patriotism; and
- reconciliation as a goal of conflict management.

The positive elements of these principles will be discussed in turn and then applied to leadership development. This is not to say that there are no negative elements of ubuntu. Some of these negative elements arise from the fact that ubuntu principles were mainly practised at a village or community level in a very stable and predictable environment. Part of the challenge that this 'African model' is facing today is that it has failed to change with the times and transcend this stable and predictable context. This has resulted in certain 'shadows' being cast over the current practise of ubuntu values, such as:

- loyalty to kinship may develop into tribalism;
- the belief in chiefs and kings ruling for life could lead to leaders not respecting term limits in office;
- fear of unpredictable futures may motivate leaders to try to accumulate as much wealth as possible, or succumb to corruption while in office;
- values attached to relationships at the expense of personal progress may often lead to wasteful expenditures on, for example, births, weddings, initiation ceremonies and burials;
- the value of respect for elders may lead to a blind loyalty to old ideas that may have stopped working; and
- the desire for 'continuity or survival of the village or clan' may undermine the need for radical change in response to rapidly changing task environments.

To compound these problems, the trend towards globalisation implicitly foregrounds Northern values and can give the sense that indigenous values and practices are somehow inferior. The low self-esteem that results from this has caused many people in the South to abandon their own values and embrace those from the North. In the past, this was reinforced by missionaries who branded indigenous practices as evil and backward. (p 3)

If the five interrelated principals of Ubuntu are to applied to Leadership Development according to Malunga it would look like:

1. Adopting an experiential approach involving apprenticeship, mentoring and coaching. Emphasis must be put on learning by listening, watching and doing.
2. Emphasis, articulation and inculcation of values. Leadership development programmes must aim to transform individuals by touching people at the affective or values domain. Instead of focusing on what people should be able to do after the programmes, more emphasis must be put on what the people should be after the programmes. Programmes need to encourage participants to live up to their values. Leadership development must be about strengthening the values that guide behaviour through mentorship, coaching, placements and self- development programmes for example.
3. Use of proverbs, rituals and ceremonies as part of the leadership development process. An example of a ritual would be a symbolic 'stoning' ceremony for new leaders. As a ritual, this would connect the new leader with the people in the organisation. Such a ceremony could involve letting the people tell the leader their expectations ands fears.
4. Applying individual leadership development to the benefit of the organisation. People must be empowered to take on the training lessons beyond the classroom. Leadership development programmes should emphasise the principle that leadership is a responsibility and service to the organisation and the people it serves.
5. Viewing leadership development as a long-term, if not life-long process. The leadership needs and demands of organisations and sectors are constantly changing, so long-term and life-long leadership development processes are necessary to adapt to and implement change effectively.
6. Planning leadership succession in advance. Organisations must plan for succession in good time, and have a clear and effective system for identifying their successors. These successors must undergo well thought through programmes that will prepare them to take charge of the organisation when their time comes.
7. Involvement of the board in succession and leadership development planning. The board must ensure that appointments to leadership positions are conducted with complete transparency and accountability. The process followed to select new leaders must leave the people of the organisation satisfied. Organisations must have

succession plans well in advance to ensure smooth transitions from one leader to the next.

It is also worth noting that potential problems may also emerge when applying ubuntu values and principles. For instance, taking collective responsibility for the organisation may suffocate individual motivation and healthy competition among staff and departments. Preoccupation with relationships may stand in the way of efficiency and a results-based culture. Participatory leadership may lead to leaders abdicating their responsibility to followers in the name of participation. Patriotism may lead to a closed organisational mind that is not receptive and open to ideas from other people from other places.

The above suggestions may also not be radically different from what some Northern management gurus would recommend. There are many principles of leadership that are universal — it is the practice that needs to be modified to suit the context. The value of the recommendations, however, is the validation of the indigenous models and the connection and ownership this validation makes possible in connecting people to their own roots and identity — to what is their own.' (p 10)

Conclusion.
With these remarks we have returned to where the journey began: Leadership Development in the case of LEAD-link for headteachers, who start with their job.

Major publications from the last years are
(in this version only for CH1 till CH3):

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- (2003), 'Leading the Management of Change: Building Capacity for School Development',
- (2003), 'Networks of Innovation: Towards New Models for Managing Schools and Systems',
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Questions for the curriculum development of the Sub-Saharan African head teacher course
- Questions will be included in the questionnaire to be used in Johannesburg