FOUNDATIONS OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This course forms part of the Master of Education in Educational Leadership developed through the Virtual University for Small States of the Commonwealth. Many thanks to the team of people who worked on this programme.
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COURSE OVERVIEW

INTRODUCTION

The Foundations of Educational Leadership will introduce leaders to the concepts and principals of educational leadership. This course will provide learners with an overview of the roles of educational leaders and the impact of educational leadership on the society and educational system. This course will explore different theories and models on educational leadership and the impact to the individual, organization and society. It is a course that will challenge learners to reflect upon theory and practice and apply the principles, concepts and framework to real world situations.

COURSE GOALS

Upon completion of this course educational leader will be able to:

1. Recognize the leadership traits within self.
2. Critically reflect upon the leadership theories and models and apply them to real world situations.
3. Embrace and modify as necessary a leadership style that facilitates the achievement of the vision.
4. Create and work collaboratively towards a shared vision for their organization.
5. Lead others and is accountable and responsible for their actions.
6. Mentor and guide others towards achievement of the vision.
7. Evaluate the impact of his or her educational leadership style on the individual, organization and society.

COURSE STRUCTURE

The course is divided into five units:

- Unit 1: Introduction to Educational Leadership
  - Topic 1.1: What is Educational Leadership?
  - Topic 1.2: The Visionary Leader
- Unit 2: Theories and Models of Educational Leadership
• Unit 3: The Roles of an Educational Leader
  o Topic 3.1 - Leading People
  o Topic 3.2 – Building the Team
  o Topic 3.3 - Developing Future Leaders

• Unit 4: Accountability in Education
  o Topic 4.1 - Accountability
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  o Topic 4.3 - Ethical and Moral Responsibilities of Leaders
  o Topic 4.4 – Accountability Framework
  o Topic 4.5 – The Role of Leaders in Managing Resources

• Unit 5 – Understanding Your Personal Leadership Style
  o Topic 5.1 – Leadership Styles
  o Topic 5.2 – Produce a leadership style improvement plan.

**COURSE ASSESSMENT**

The weighting given to each of the course assignments is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assessment</th>
<th>Weighting</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>Comparison of schools/organizations using literature</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis of case study</td>
<td>40%</td>
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<td>Portfolio (reflective)</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
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</tbody>
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**ASSIGNMENTS AND PROJECT**
A series of activities and assignments guide you through concepts in this course and ask you to demonstrate that you can analyse the concepts of educational leadership and compare and contrast with your own organisation. A summary of this work is included at the beginning of each unit. The major assignment in this course is found in Unit Two, where you will undertake a case study research of models/ theories that you adopted in your organisation.

**PORTFOLIO REQUIREMENTS**
To capture the output from the reflective questions and activities, you are asked to keep a personal portfolio. At the end of the course the personal portfolio will be submitted to your instructor for feedback and grading.

**ASSESSMENT PROJECTS**
Assessment takes the form of responding to activities, as well as written assignments as determined from time to time by the institution. In cases where coursework assignments, fieldwork projects, and examinations are used in combination, a percentage rating for each component will be communicated to you at that appropriate time.

**COURSE SCHEDULE**
A course schedule with due dates and additional readings will be supplied to you by your institution.

**REQUIRED READINGS**
STUDENT SUPPORT

ACADEMIC SUPPORT

<Insert the following information if relevant>

- How to contract a tutor/facilitator (Phone number, email, office hours, etc.).
- Background information about the tutor/facilitator if he/she does not change regularly. Alternatively provide a separate letter with the package describing your tutor/facilitator’s background.
- Description of any resources that they may need to procure to complete the course (e.g. lab kits, etc.).
- How to access the library (either in person, by email or online).

HOW TO SUBMIT ASSIGNMENTS

<If the course requires that assignments be regularly graded, then insert a description of how and where to submit assignments. Also explain how the learners will receive feedback.>

TECHNICAL SUPPORT

<If the students must access content online or use email to submit assignments, then a technical support section is required. You need to include how to complete basic tasks and a phone number that they can call if they are having difficulty getting online>.
UNIT ONE – INTRODUCTION TO EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

UNIT INTRODUCTION

Today there is great interest in educational leadership. This is based on observations and research that demonstrates the quality of leadership makes a significant difference to a school and student learning outcomes (Bush, 2008). In many parts of the world, including the developed and developing countries, there is recognition that schools require effective leaders and managers if they are to provide the best possible education for their students. As the global economy gathers pace, more governments are realizing that to become economically competitive depends increasingly on the development of a highly skilled workforce. This requires trained and committed teachers guided by highly effective educational leaders (ibid, 2008).

An educational leader driven by his/her ethical values should provide a vision for the future. The vision should be expressed as an idealized goal that proposes a future better than the status quo; and the leader is able to clarify the importance of the vision in terms that are understandable to others (Bush, 2008). Visionary leadership is the ability to influence people towards the achievement of the goals.

This unit will examine the crucial role of educational leaders in particular the dynamic role of visionary leaders in leading and managing people towards achieving the established educational and institutional strategic goals.

UNIT OBJECTIVES

After completing this unit current and future educational leaders should be able to:

1. Demonstrate the personal qualities of effective leadership and management of people.
2. Apply relevant knowledge in leading and managing people.
3. Critically reflect upon the impact of visionary leaders in education.

UNIT READINGS

**TOPIC 1.1: WHAT IS EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP?**

**INTRODUCTION**

In educational leadership, specific qualities are necessary for the effective leadership and management of people. Educational leaders need leadership and management competencies, among them, values and ethics in leadership. Managing transformation in the organisation must therefore involve a discussion about the ways in which educational leadership values, styles and practices contribute towards the realisation of the organizational vision. Hence, effective educational leadership is visionary, inspirational, invitational and transformational. (Department of Education, 2008).

**OBJECTIVES**

After completing this topic current and future educational leaders should be able to:

1. Compare and contrast between educational leadership and educational management.
2. Critically reflect upon their leadership practice.

**THE IMPORTANCE OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP**

The role of educational leaders is to establish and practice the values, norms and standards for behaviour, and to communicate their expectations in a way that influences the way in which people interact with one another and co-operate to achieve organisational goals (Jones and George, 2003).

Educational leaders play a crucial role in leading and managing people in an organization. Naledi Pandor (Business Day, December 30, 2004) expressed her concern about the state of our current leadership in the developing world by saying that educational leadership must be systematically analyzed, strategic interventions and plans created before leadership achieve success.

In the past leadership was often linked to school improvement. Almost two decades ago, Beare stressed its importance when he stated:

> Outstanding leadership has invariably emerged as a key characteristic of outstanding schools. There can be no longer be doubt that those seeking quality in education must ensure its presence and that the development of potential leaders must be given high priority.

(Beare et. Al., 1992, p. 99)

Harris (2004, p.11) reinforced this view by saying that ‘effective leaders exercise an indirect but powerful influence on the effectiveness of the school and on the achievement of students’.
A report authored at the National College for School Leadership (NSCL) in England states that effective leadership is vital for school improvement.

_The evidence on school effectiveness and school improvement during the last 15 years has consistently shown the pivotal role of school leaders in securing high quality provision and high standards... effective leadership is a key to both continuous improvement and major system transformation._

(NCSL, 2001, p.5)

The relationship between the quality of leadership and school effectiveness has received global recognition. The Commonwealth Secretariat (1996), for example, referring to Africa, says that the leader plays the most important role in ensuring school effectiveness. The South African government’s Task Team on Education Management Development also emphasizes the importance of education management:

_The South African Schools Act places us firmly on the road to a school-based system of education management: schools will increasingly come to manage themselves. This implies a profound change in the culture and practice of schools. The extent to which schools are able to make the necessary change will depend largely on the nature and quality of their internal management._

(Department of Education, 1996, p. 28)

Huber’s (2004) overview of leadership development programmes in 15 countries concludes the importance role of educational leadership in any organizations:

_The pivotal role of the school leader has been corroborated by findings of school effectiveness research for the last decades... The research shows that schools classified as successful possess a competent and sound school leadership... Studies on school development and improvement also emphasise the importance of school leaders._

Huber (2004, p.1-3)
EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP VS. EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

There is a widespread belief that raising the standards of leadership and management is the key to improving educational organisations. Increasingly, this is linked to the need to prepare and develop educational leaders to effectively guide these organizations.

Leadership and management are two terms that are often confused and the global debate on how they can be distinguished will never be fully resolved. The term ‘management’ seems to be favoured when referring to the actions and processes that need to be place in order to reach the goals of the organisation, while leadership focuses on the strategic direction and vision and empowering people to move towards the strategic goals.

Although the concepts of leadership and management overlap, Cuban (1988) provides one of the clearest distinctions between leadership and management. He links leadership with change, while management is seen as a maintenance activity. He also stresses the importance of both dimensions of organisational activity:

- By leadership, I mean influencing others’ actions in achieving desirable ends.
- Leaders are people who shape the goals, motivations, and actions of others.
- Frequently they initiate change to reach existing and new goals ...
- Leadership ... takes... much ingenuity, energy and skill.

Managing is maintaining efficiently and effectively current organisational arrangements based on clearly defined goals. While managers may often exhibit leadership skills, their overall function is toward maintenance of the existing organization rather than pursuing the strategic change process. Managing and leading require different settings and at times call for varied responses.

Kotter (1996) argues that good management brings about order and consistency by drawing up plans, designing organisational structures and monitoring results. On the other hand, leadership means coping with change, developing a vision, giving direction, aligning the staff, communicating the vision and inspiring them to overcome obstacles. Educational leadership hence is the ability to influence people towards the achievement of the goals.

Day et al.’s (2001) study of 12 ‘effective’ schools leads to the discussion of several dilemmas in school leadership. One of these relates to management, which is linked to systems and ‘paper’, and leadership, which is perceived to be about the development of people. Bush (1998, 2003) links leadership to values or purpose while management relates to implementation or technical issues.

Bennis and Nanus (1995) present a clear and accepted distinction between the leader and the manager: the leader with a vision operates on the emotional and spiritual resources of the organisation, on its values, commitment, and aspirations whereas the manager operates on the physical resources of the organisation to earn a living. An excellent manager can see to it that work is done productively and efficiently, on schedule, and with
a high level of quality, in contrast, a great leader inspires their followers to high levels of achievement by showing them how their work contributes to worthwhile ends.

Bush (2008) stresses that leadership and management need to be given equal importance if schools and educational organisations are to operate effectively and achieve their objectives:

While a clear vision may be essential to establish the nature and direction of change, it is equally important to ensure that innovations are implemented efficiently and that the school’s residual functions are carried out effectively while certain elements are undergoing change.

(Bush, 2008, p.4)

CONCEPTS OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Tomlinson, (2004) states that educational leaders are transformative when they are able to shape and challenge the motives and goals of others as they attempt to make personal sense out of as much of their world as possible.

Crucially, the vision articulates the hopes and aspirations of the organization and defines the values of the organization. The right vision, frequently expressed by the leader, attracts commitment and energizes people, creates meaning in their lives, establishes a standard of excellence, bridges the present and future, and has an extraordinary power to shape the future by calling forth the skills, talents and resources to make it happen.

(Tomlinson (2004), p. 144)

In other words, ‘you start with inspiring a shared vision and negotiate with others to build a stronger vision collaboratively, modeling the way, and encouraging hearts and minds to get extraordinary things done’ (Kidder, 1994, p.8).

Leadership involves managing the tensions which arise from conflicting values, the different ideals towards which people strive, in the process of which individuals and organizations may be shaped and influenced. ‘Values are expressed through actions, and through one judgment’s of the actions of the others, and determine a judgment of right or good. Values shape an ongoing, persistent standard or code for action which exists over time’ (Kidder, 1994, p,8).

Tomlinson builds upon this idea when she states:

Your values are springs of human action, enduring beliefs which when internalized become standards or criteria for guiding your own actions and
thoughts, for influencing the actions and thought of others and for morally judging yourself and others.

(Tomlinson, 2004, p. 144)

SUMMARY
Effective leadership and management are increasingly regarded as essential if schools and colleges are to achieve the wide-ranging objectives set for them by their many stakeholders, notably the governments which provide most of the funding for public educational institutions. In an increasingly global economy, an educated workforce is vital to maintain and enhance competitiveness. Society expects schools, colleges and universities to prepare people for employment in a rapidly changing environment. Teachers, and their leaders and managers, are the people who are required to ‘deliver’ higher educational standards. However, excellent schools are driven by coherent value systems because they are able to aspire to high performance and worthwhile action (Bush et. al, 2005).

REFERENCES


**TOPIC 1.2 - THE Visionary Leadership**

**INTRODUCTION**

A central element in many definitions of leadership is that there is a process of influence.

*Most definitions of leadership reflect the assumption that it involves a social influence process whereby international influence is exerted by one person [or group] over other people [or groups] to structure the activities and relationships in a group or organisation.*

(Yukl, 2002, p.3)

Leadership may be understood as influence but this notion is neutral as it does not explain what goals or actions should be sought through this process. Vision is increasingly regarded as an essential component of effective leadership (Yukl, 2003).

Beare, et al. (1992) draw on the work of Bennis & Nanus (1985) to articulate ten ‘emerging generalisations’ about leadership, four of which relate directly to vision:

1. Outstanding leaders have a vision for their organizations.
2. Vision must be communicated in a way which secures commitment among members of the organisation.
3. Communication of vision requires communication of meaning.
4. Attention should be given to institutionalizing vision if leadership is to be successful.

These generalizations are essentially normative views about the centrality of vision for effective leadership. There is a high level of support for the notion of visionary leadership but Foreman’s (1998) review of the concept shows that it remains highly problematic. Kouzes and Posner (1996, p.24) say that ‘inspiring a shared vision is the leadership practice with which [heads] felt most uncomfortable’, while Fullan (1992, p.83) adds that ‘vision building is a highly sophisticated dynamic process which few organizations can sustain’.

In this topic we will explore these concepts further.

**OBJECTIVES**

After completing this topic current and future educational leaders should be able to:

1. identify traits and characteristics for effective leadership;
2. communicate a clear sets of personal and educational values and ethics in leadership which represent the moral purpose of an organisation; and
3. develop a clear vision for an organisation; and
4. how to institutionalize vision to ensure leadership is successful.

**Leadership Traits and Characteristics**

Certain personality traits and characteristics will contribute to successful leadership. The following is a summary of the findings of an educational forum exploring leadership traits (Policy Brief: Effective Leaders for Today’s Schools: Synthesis of a Policy Forum on Educational Leadership, June 1999). Educational leaders need to possess four characteristics in order to provide effective leadership in today’s school environment;

- Instructional Leadership.
- Management Skills.
- Community Building.
- Vision.

The following sections describe these characteristics in more detail.

**Instructional Leadership**

Perhaps the single most important characteristic of an effective educational leader is the ability to provide instructional leadership. Ironically, studies suggest that as many as 75% of current principals are not skilled as instructional leaders.

Superintendents and principals are demonstrating instructional leadership when they devote time and energy to improve the quality of teaching and learning in their organization. Instructional leaders have a commitment to the academic success of all students, especially those that are struggling to learn and to all educators who wish to improve the learning outcomes of their students.

Principals should understand the importance of providing feedback that encourages both teachers and students. Successful principals will engage the entire school with continuous messages about what a good teacher does, and the quality of work expected from students. In this type of environment, success is often measured in terms of the gains made by students in learning.

Most experts agree that instructional leadership goes beyond the simple communication of expectations. Principals and superintendents must spend considerable time in the classroom not only to observe but to participate in teaching students. Instructional leaders are not there to undermine the traditional role of the teacher; rather they are there to provide teachers with support and guidance.

**Management Skills**
Educational leadership is in many ways the ability to understand the balance that is needed in a school or district. That's the case when it comes to management skills and instructional skills. Running a district or a school in today's environment is a demanding job. Success depends on balancing the needs of politicians, parents, and other constituents.

In the past the traditional focus of management was on budgets, buildings, and facilities; today good managers need to also stay in-tune with the needs of their community and to communicate effectively to all constituents impacted by the organization.

**COMMUNITY BUILDING**

As the role of the educational leader widens, so does the need for these leaders to build relationships with people inside, and external to, the school's internal network. The traditional leadership approach of top-down decision-making no longer reflects the new distribution of power and sources of motivation.

The true community in which school systems exist consists of leaders, teachers, students, parents, and other members of the school district's neighbourhood. Educational leadership is all about bringing that community together to support the goals of the school, and even helping to achieve those goals.

This is one of the reasons why communication skills are so important for superintendents. An effective superintendent must be able to not only understand the school board's point of view, but also able to work with the board towards the pursuit of a common vision.

**EDUCATIONAL VISION**

True educational leaders are also able to articulate a clear vision of where they see their school system heading, and they have a clear plan for getting there. When a vision is shared with others, it often becomes a point around which change revolves.

Role models for educational leadership understand the importance of having a vision, sharing it, and the importance of taking risks to achieve the vision. Followers cannot fear risk, because risk is involved when challenging oneself to do things differently.

Given all of the above requirements, a lack of qualified and experienced educational leaders will only create additional problems in the organisation. Organisations cannot wait for leaders to appear. In other words, organisations need to develop their own leaders. They need to structure leadership jobs, and begin preparing individuals that are skilled and committed. Developing educational leaders is crucial to achieve organisational goals.

**VALUES AND ETHICS IN LEADERSHIP**

In organizations worldwide, they realize that sound ethical practices is good business. The emphasis is increasingly on values-based and ethical leadership (Bush, 2005). A leader in education needs to set the moral tone in a school. Bass (1997) argues that ethics is the
heart of leadership. A culture’s ethical values are what define the concept of leadership and the credibility of that leadership depends on its moral purpose, trust and hopes. Bush (2005, p.4) states clearly that ‘leadership should be grounded in firm personal and professional values’. In other words, the uses of values and ethics are important for the effective performance of people within the organisation (ibid, 2005).

Hofstede (1980) conducted one of the primary studies in cultural comparisons by referring to individualism and collectivism as the extent to which people think and act as individuals, based on their own self-determination, as opposed to confronting or adhering to the ways of a group of people. Western cultures are regarded as being more individualistic than the Eastern and African cultures (Williams & Green, 1994, p.64). In individualistic cultures, great emphasis is placed on following one’s own convictions, taking one’s own needs into account, placing a priority on being independent of others. The extent to which culture then subscribes individualistic or collectivist, will clearly influence relationships with others, and will determine the level of emotional dependency group members have on one another (Department of Education, 2008).

For example, cultural diversity is part of the South Africa mosaic, but most schools are still mono-ethnic, which implies that people are not necessarily exposed to different cultural philosophies and value systems (Department of Education, 2008). In many schools, it requires the staff to acknowledge the differences among the learners. The diversity of the country’s population resulted in legislation in the organisation where values such as equity and fairness were acknowledged.

The acceptance of values such as equity and fairness has resulted in a situation where educational organizations are presently looking beyond their immediate self-interest, by putting resources into the development of previously disadvantaged groups, such as employment equity, uplifting of poor learners, rooting out dishonest and exploitative workplace practices, addressing HIV among staff and learners and its effect on households. All these newly attained values also contributed to new legislation and policies which have a particular impact on schools and its management and leadership.

Apart from the values and the philosophies that underpin South African leadership, it is of utmost importance that leaders also know that they value themselves. School leaders need to recognize the importance of ethical behaviour. The best leaders exhibit both their values and their ethics in their leadership style and actions. Leadership ethics and values should be visible because a leader should live them in his/her actions every single day. If leaders never identify with their values in the workplace, it will result in a lack of trust and if school leaders fail to live up the school’s ethical code, the staff’s
working culture is harmed. A negative culture can be the result culture is harmed. A negative culture can be the result of leaders that do not exhibit ethical behaviours and thus have lost the ability to powerfully influence the exhibit ethical behaviour and thus have lost the ability to powerfully influence the actions of others in the spheres of functionality, such as commitment, dedication to the work, honesty, etc. A leader driven by ethical values, should among others be the kind of person others choose to follow, provide a vision for the future, provide inspiration, make other people feel important and appreciated, live his/her values and behave ethically, be a role model, set the pace through his/her expectations and example, establish an environment of continuous improvement, provide opportunities for people to grow, both personally and professionally, care and act with compassion, always say what he/she means and do what he/she says, and not be afraid to admit that he/she is wrong or made a mistake.

(Department of Education, 2008, p. 16).

**Reflection**

Reflect on your own value system by drafting a personal code of conduct. Record your code of conduct in your personal journal. See instructions below.

**PERSONAL CODE OF CONDUCT**

Use the template below to compose your own code of ethical conduct that would reflect your deeply-felt values and beliefs (produce a neat one pager – you may even enhance its appearance by using decorative elements). You may use the set of core values below to assist you in such formulation.
CORE VALUES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Honesty</th>
<th>Teamwork</th>
<th>Personal Growth</th>
<th>Knowledge</th>
<th>Respect</th>
<th>Partnership</th>
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<td>Sharing</td>
<td>Prestige</td>
<td>Loyalty</td>
<td>Hard Work</td>
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<td>Happiness</td>
<td>Optimism</td>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>Self-Respect</td>
<td>Responsibility</td>
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<tr>
<td>Equity</td>
<td>High Standards</td>
<td>Community</td>
<td>Freedom</td>
<td>Independence</td>
<td>Perseverance</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethics</td>
<td>Integrity</td>
<td>Caring</td>
<td>Continuity</td>
<td>Dignity</td>
<td>Cooperation</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Moral Values</td>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>Transparency</td>
<td>Self-Confidence</td>
<td>Compassion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Template: Ethical Code of Conduct

I, ................ (name) hereby commit myself to:

- Never turn a blind eye to unethical and fraudulent behaviour;
- Act in such a manner that my colleagues will be able to trust me;

SUMMARY

It is evident that the articulation of a clear vision has the potential to support the development of schools but that empirical evidence of its effectiveness remains mixed. A wider concern relates to whether school leaders are able to develop a specific vision for their schools, given government influence on many aspects of curriculum and management.

REFERENCES


http://www.education.gov.za/LinkClick.aspx?fileticket=95jM1ouGvXA%3D&tabid=99&mid=402


UNIT TWO: THEORIES AND MODELS OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

UNIT INTRODUCTION

Schools need trained and committed teachers but they, in turn, need the leadership of highly effective principals and support from other senior and middle managers. While the need for effective leaders is widely acknowledged, there is much less certainty about which leadership behaviours are most likely to produce favorable outcomes (Bush, T., 2007).

Early leadership theories focused on what qualities distinguished leaders and followers while subsequent theories looked at other variables such as situational factors and skills level and from there many different leadership theories emerged. Some writers argued that theories of education leadership and management have failed to make adequate connections with practice. Fullan (1996), for example, says that more work need to be done to develop a meaningful action-based theory of leadership.

Learners of educational leadership and management who turn to organizational theory for guidance in their attempt to understand and manage institutions will not find a single, universally applicable theory but a multiplicity of the theoretical approaches guided by a particular epistemic community.

This unit will examine the theoretical underpinnings of educational leadership. It begins with a review of leadership theories and models and tracks their evolution over the years from the 'Great Man' notion of the heroic leaders to situational leadership theory, contingency theory and on to transactional and transformational theories and assess their relative effectiveness in developing successful schools.

UNIT OBJECTIVES

After completing this unit current and future educational leaders should be able to:

1. Explain the key concepts underlying a theory and Model.
2. Compare and contrast different theories and models of educational leadership.
3. Critically reflect upon the theories and models and apply them in their own context.

REQUIRED UNIT READINGS


TOPIC 2.1 - THEORIES AND MODELS OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

INTRODUCTION
Theory helps the practitioner unify and focus his/her views on an organisation and on his/her roles, relationships and achievements. There are four main arguments that support the view that leaders or managers have much to learn from an appreciation of theory.

There is no single all-embracing theory of educational leadership or management. In part this reflects the astonishing diversity of educational institutions. It relates also the varied nature of the problems encountered in schools and colleges, which require different approaches and solutions. Above all, it reflects the multifaceted nature of theory in education and the social sciences.

Theories supporting leadership suggest that particular traits, behaviours and influential abilities determine whether a leader is effective or not. Since there are a lot of factors that go into leadership, it is important to examine what the leadership theory entails.

This topic begins with a review of leadership theories and models, and tracks their evolution over the years from 'great man' notion of heroic leaders to situational leadership theory, contingency and on to transactional and transformational theories.

OBJECTIVES
After completing this topic current and future educational leaders should be able to:

1. Define theory and practice and interdependency.
2. Compare and contrast the current theories and models of Educational Leadership.
3. Select the best possible model for organisational improvement in their work environment.

THEORIES AND MODELS - AN OVERVIEW
Theories are most useful for influencing practice when they suggest new ways in which events and situations can be perceived. Fresh insights may be provided by focusing attention on possible interrelationships that the practitioner has failed to notice, and which can be further explored and tested through empirical research. If the result is a better understanding of practice, the theory-practice gap is significantly reduced for those concerned. Theory cannot then be dismissed as irrelevant to the day to day practice.

Theory serves to provide a rationale for decision-making. When a teacher or a manager takes a decision it reflects in part that person's view of the organization. Such views or preconceptions are coloured by experience and by the attitudes engendered by that experience. These attitudes take on the character of frames of reference or theories, which inevitably influence the decision-making process.
The various theories of educational leadership and management reflect different ways of understanding and interpreting events and behaviour in schools and colleges. They also represent what are often ideologically based, and certainly divergent views about how educational institutions ought to be managed. They are endowed with different terminology but they all emanate from organizational theory, which is practical or management theory. The former tends to be theory for understanding while management theory has more relevance to practice. (Bush 2011: 28)

Most theories of educational leadership and management possess three major characteristics:

- **They tend to be normative**

  Theories tend to be normative in that they reflect beliefs about the nature of educational institutions and the behaviour of individuals within them. Theorists tend to express views about how schools and colleges should be managed as well as, or instead of, simply describing aspects of management or explaining the organizational structure of the institution. When, for example, practitioners or academics claim that decisions in schools are reached following a participative process they may be expressing normative judgments rather than analysis of actual practices.

- **They tend to be selective**

  Theories tend to be selective or partial, in that they emphasise certain aspects of the institution at the expense of other elements. The espousal of one theoretical model leads to the neglect of other approaches. Institutions are arguably too complex to be capable of being analysed through a single dimension. An explanation of educational institutions using a political perspective, for example, may focus on the formation of interest groups and on the bargaining between groups and individuals.

- **They are often based on, or supported by observation of practice in educational institutions**.

  Observations may be used in two ways. First, observations may be followed by the development of concepts which then become theoretical frames. Such perspectives based on data from systematic observations are sometimes called ‘grounded theory’. Because such approaches are derived from empirical inquiry in educational institutions, they are most likely to be perceived as relevant by practitioners.
Researchers may use a specific theoretical frame to select concepts to be tested through observation. The research is then used to prove or verify the efficacy of the theory. While many theories of education management are based on observation, advocates of the subjective model are skeptical of the stance. (Bush 2011: 29-30).

THEORIES AND MODELS DEFINED
The use of the term 'theory' need not imply something remote from the day-to-day experience of a teacher or leader. Rather theories and concepts can provide a framework for managerial decisions. Theory and its supporting models serve to provide a rationale for decision-making. Managerial activity is enhanced by an explicit awareness of the theoretical framework underpinning practice in educational institutions. Education theory explores the what, the why and the how of leadership and provides best practices based on the models that evolve from theory.

Educational theory (Wikipedia, 2011) can refer to either a normative or descriptive theories of education. In the second case it means 'a hypothesis' or 'a set of hypothesis' that have been verified by observation and experiment. A descriptive theory of education can be taught as a conceptual scheme that ties together various discreet particulars or variables to explain or predict actions. For example, a cultural theory of education can be used to organize and unify the variety of facts about what people learn.

Theories should explain. It should take successful practice and find out what principles condition its efficiency; and if these principles are inconsistent with these heretofore held believes, it is the theory that should be modified to suit the facts and not the facts to suit the theory.

Theory is useful only so long as it has relevance to the practice of education. Hoyle (1986) distinguishes between theory and practice. While both are potentially valuable, the latter is more significant for practicing leaders and managers in education. The relevance of theory should be judged by the extent to which it informs managerial action and contributes to the resolution of practical problems in schools.

Bush (2011) believes there are three main arguments to support the view that leaders and managers have to learn from an appreciation of theory, providing that it is grounded firmly in the realities of practice:

- Reliance of facts as the soul guide to action is unsatisfactory because all evidence requires interpretation.
- Dependence on personal experience in interpreting facts and making decisions is narrow because it discards the knowledge of others.
- Experience may be particularly unhelpful as the sole guide to action when the practitioner begins to operate in a different context.
In summary, educational leadership theories reflect the different ways of understanding and interpreting events and behaviour in institutions. They often represent how educational institutions ought to be managed. The basic idea is that all problems cannot be studied using a single theory.

**Reflection**

Provide a summary that takes the above points and makes it relevant to your future as an educational leader. Answer the question “Why is this important to me?”

Record your reflection in your personal portfolio.

**MODELS**

A model is a theoretical construct or mental picture that evolves from a theory that helps one understand something that cannot be easily observed or experienced directly. Bush (2011) classified leadership and management theories into six major models of educational management and link them to parallel leadership models.

**Table 1.1 Typology of Management and Leadership Models**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Management Models</th>
<th>Leadership Models</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>Managerial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collegial</td>
<td>Participative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political</td>
<td>Transformational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjective</td>
<td>Distributed Transactional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambiguity</td>
<td>Post modern</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td>Emotional Contingency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Moral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Instructional</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Bush and Clover, 2002

Two of the main Models are discussed here.
FORMAL MODEL

A formal model is an umbrella term used to embrace a number of similar but not identical approaches to leadership. The title formal is used because these theories emphasize the official and structural elements of organizations. There is a focus on pursuing institutional objectives through rational approaches. The definition suggested below incorporates the main features of this model.

Formal models assume that organizations are hierarchical systems in which managers use rational means to pursue agreed upon goals. Heads possess authority legitimized by their formal positions within the organization and are accountable to their sponsoring bodies for the activities of their institutions.

Formal Models according to Bush (2011) have several common factors:

- They tend to treat organizations as systems.
- They give prominence to the official structure of the organization.
- The official structure of the organization tends to be hierarchical.
- All formal approaches typify schools and colleges as goal setting organisations.
- They assume that managerial decisions are made through a rational process.
- They present the authority of leaders as essentially a product of their official position within their organisation.
- They place emphasis on accountability.

These seven basic features are present to a greater or lesser degree in each of the individual theories which together comprise the formal models. The formal models included by Bush (2011: 42) are:

- Structural models.
- System models.
- Bureaucratic models.
- Rational models.
- Hierarchical models.

These different theories overlap significantly and the main elements are often very simple despite their different titles. There are variations in emphasis but the central components appear in most of the individual theories. (Bush, 2011)
According to Bush (2003) formal models have five specific weaknesses.

1. It may be unrealistic to characterise schools and colleges as goal-oriented organizations.

2. The portrayal of decision-making as a rational process is fraught with difficulties.

3. Formal models focus on the organization as an entity and ignore or underestimate the contribution of individuals.

4. A central assumption of formal models is that power resides at the apex of the pyramid.

5. Formal approaches are based on the implicit assumption that organizations are relatively stable.

These criticisms of formal models suggest that they have serious limitations. The dominance of the hierarchy is compromised by the expertise possessed by professional staff. The supposed rationality of the decision-making process requires modification to allow for the pace and complexity of change. The concept of organizational goals is challenged by those who point to the existence of multiple objectives in education and the possible conflict between goals held at individual, departmental and institutional levels. Rationalistic-bureaucratic notions have largely proven to be sterile and to have little application to administrative practice in the real world. (Owens & Shakeshaft, 1992, p. 4)

The validity of formal models may be limited during phases of rapid change and multiple changes, such as those affecting most educational systems in the twenty-first century. The notion of thorough analysis of a problem followed by identification of alternatives, choice of the preferred option and a process of implementation and evaluation, may be unrealistic during this period. Despite its limitations it would be inappropriate to dismiss formal approaches as irrelevant to schools and colleges (Bush, 2011).

**COLLEGIAL MODEL**

Collegial Models include all those theories which emphasis that power and decision making should be shared among some or all members of the organization. These approaches range from a ‘restricted’ collegiality where the leader shares power with a limited number of senior colleagues to a ‘pure collegiality’ where all members have an equal voice in determining policy. The definition suggested below captures the main features of these perspectives.

Collegial models assume that organizations determine policy and make decisions through a process of discussions leading to consensus. Power is shared among some or all members of the organisation who are thought to have a shared understanding about the aims of the institution (Bush, 2011).

Bush (2011) explains that Collegial Models have the following features:
• They are strongly normative in orientation.

• Collegial models are seen as particularly appropriate for organization such as schools and colleges that have significant number of staff.

• Collegial models assumes a common set of values held by members of the organization.

• The size of decision-making groups is an important element in collegial management.

• Collegial models assume that decisions are reached by consensus rather than division or conflict.

Research done by Brown, Boyle & Boyle (1999) found that only four of the twelve case study schools could be categorized as operating fully in a collegial way. They had the following features:

• A commitment to regular and formal opportunities for collaboration with other heads of department and colleagues from different areas.

• Departmental priorities correlated closely with the School Development Plan, with themes and issues identified and agreed collectively.

• Heads of Departments were actively involved and consulted in the whole school policy and decision-making.

• The head teacher saw the heads of Departments as having a wider whole school management role.

Like formal models, collegial models also have limitations. These include:

1. Collegial models are so strongly normative that they tend to obscure rather than portray reality.

2. Collegial approaches to decision-making tend to be slow and cumbersome.

3. A fundamental of democratic models is that decisions are reached by consensus.

4. Collegial models have to be evaluated in relation to the special features of educational institutions.

5. Collegial approaches to school and college decision-making may be difficult to sustain because principals remain accountable to various external groups.

6. The effectiveness of a collegial system depends in part on the attitudes of staff.
7. Collegial processes in schools depend even more on the attitudes of principals than on the support of teachers.

To sum up collegial models contribute several important concepts to the theory of educational management and leadership. Participative approaches are a necessary antidote to the rigid hierarchical assumptions of the formal models. However, collegial perspectives underestimate the official authority of the principal and present bland assumptions of consensus, which often cannot be substantiated.

**Evolution of Educational Leadership Theory**

A review of the leadership literature reveals an evolving series of 'schools of thought' from "Great Man" and "Trait" theories to "Transformational" leadership (see table). Whilst early theories tend to focus upon the characteristics and behaviours of successful leaders, later theories begin to consider the role of followers and the contextual nature of leadership.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Great Man Theories</th>
<th>Based on the belief that leaders are exceptional people, born with innate qualities, destined to lead. The use of the term 'man' was intentional since until the latter part of the twentieth century leadership was thought of as a concept which is primarily male, military and Western. This led to the next school of Trait Theories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trait Theories</td>
<td>The lists of traits or qualities associated with leadership exist in abundance and continue to be produced. They draw on virtually all the adjectives in the dictionary which describe some positive or virtuous human attribute, from ambition to zest for life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaviourist Theories</td>
<td>These concentrate on what leaders actually do rather than on their qualities. Different patterns of behaviour are observed and categorised as 'styles of leadership'. This area has probably attracted most attention from practicing managers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situational Leadership</td>
<td>This approach sees leadership as specific to the situation in which it is being exercised. For example, whilst some situations may require an autocratic style, others may need a more participative approach. It also proposes that there may be differences in required leadership styles at different levels in the same organisation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Contingency Theory | This is a refinement of the situational viewpoint and focuses on identifying the situational variables which best predict the most appropriate or effective leadership style to fit the particular circumstances

Transaction Theory | This approach emphasises the importance of the relationship between leader and followers, focusing on the mutual benefits derived from a form of ‘contract through which the leader delivers such things as rewards or recognition in return for the commitment or loyalty of the followers

Transformational Theory | The central concept here is change and the role of leadership in envisioning and implementing the transformation of organisational performance

From the Great Man to Transformational Leadership

Reflection

Based on the ‘Great Man Theory’ Thomas Carlyle made those two assumptions:

- Leaders are born not made.
- Great leaders will arise when there is a need.

What are your opinions on those two assumptions? Record your reflection in your leadership/ personal journal.

Each of these theories takes a rather individualistic perspective of the leader, although a school of thought gaining increasing recognition is that of “dispersed” leadership. This approach, with its foundations in sociology, psychology and politics rather than management science, views leadership as a process that is diffused throughout an organisation rather than lying solely with the formally designated ‘leader’. The emphasis thus shifts from developing ‘leaders’ to developing ‘leaderful’ organisations with a collective responsibility for leadership (Bush, 2011).

SUMMARY

Early leadership studies focused upon individual characteristics, but evidence soon became clear that it was impossible to predict a potential for leadership based on personal traits. Following this, explaining leadership in terms of relationships between selected styles and productivity or morale, also proved unsuccessful. Groups’ dynamics, or the interaction between group members and the leader, then became the focus of leadership studies. Next, significance of a particular situation in which acts of leadership occur became the
dominant theme. The most recent views of leadership consider such things as the sociology of the organization, lifestyle, and social contributions of the leader, effective motivational technique and the transformational abilities of the leader to assist in change and adaptability. This macro view of leadership recognises the tremendous change inherent in a highly complex and interdependent world (Horace, E., and Ronald Mosen, H., (year)Page 115)

CASE STUDY: An investigation of your own organisation

Compare and contrast the different models of Educational Leadership using literature. Analyse and apply suitable model/s for improvement in your organisation. Evaluate and discuss your findings. Forward your case study to your instructor for review and feedback.

REFERENCES


Bush, T., (2011) *Theories of Educational Leadership and Management, (4h eds)*. Sage Publications Limited. Available at: [http://cnx.org//content/m13867/1.1/](http://cnx.org//content/m13867/1.1/)


INTRODUCTION

There is no single theory of leadership to meet all situations or organizations. If there is one thing in common to the many theories of leadership, it is that regardless of the process, someone must be obeyed by another. It is in the process of how one comes to command, and under what right that the theories differ. Criticising a theory therefore is to undermine the nature of that right to command.

The 'traits theory' of leadership is one of the most popular. It holds that leaders throughout history have had specific traits, or marks, that set them apart from others. Traits such as honesty, courage, competence or adaptability are sought after for leadership positions.

The behaviourist school holds that these traits can be taught, or at least imitated by anyone who wants to become a leader. On the other hand, those in contingency school hold that only certain circumstances can permit these traits to come to the fore. Even here, these traits are brought to the surface for a period of time, and may even change as a circumstance do. Since one cannot measure 'honesty' or 'adaptability' leadership can only be identified by what it can do at a different time.

Leadership theories have shaped the practical application of leadership in the past and the present and will certainly shape leadership practice in the future.

This topic discusses the most common leadership theories, their models and their application in the organizations.

OBJECTIVES

Upon completion of this topic the future educational leader will be able to:

1. Discuss the contingency and situational leadership theories.
2. Employ a model of leadership when guiding an organization.

CONTINGENCY LEADERSHIP

The Theory

Contingency theory is similar to situational theory in that there is an assumption that there is no one right way. The main difference is that situational theory tends to focus more on the behaviours that the leader should adopt, given situational factors (often about follower behaviour), whereas contingency theory takes a broader view that includes contingent factors about leader capability and other variables within the situation.

As stated above, Fiedler's contingency theory postulates that there is a number of ways for managers to lead. Situations will create different leadership style requirements for a
manager. The solution to a managerial situation is contingent on the factors that impinge on the situation. For example, in a highly routine (mechanistic) environment where repetitive tasks are the norm, a relatively directive leadership style may result in the best performance, however, in a dynamic environment a more flexible, participative style may be required. Fiedler (1967) believes that the best leadership style was the one that best fits a given situation. The success of contingency leadership depends upon a number of variables, including the individual’s leadership style, qualities of the followers and aspects of the situation.

The Fiedler model also requires the leader to determine his situation. According to Fiedler, "situational favorableness" depends on three factors: leader-member relations, task structure and a leader's position and power. Leader-member relations refer to the level of confidence and trust team members give their leader. Task structure describes how much the leader and his followers understand about the task at hand. The leader's position and power has to do with how much influence, such as the ability to dole out positive or negative rewards, a leader brings to the situation.

The strength of Fiedler's theory is its ability to predict leadership effectiveness as individual and organizational variables are introduced. In addition, Fiedler's model paved the way for other theories that have "no one perfect style of leadership" at their core, such as Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership.

On the other hand, Fiedler argues that it is easier for an organization to change a situation to match a leader than it is for the leader to change his style. The model is inflexible and ignores a leader's potential for adaptability either through training or personal style. In addition, those who score in the middle of the LPC scale cannot be decisively labeled as task-oriented or relationship-oriented, and the model does not allow for partial styles.

**THE CONTINGENT MODEL**

The contingent model provides an alternative approach, recognising the diverse nature of school contexts and the advantages of adapting leadership styles to the particular situation rather than adopting a 'one size fits all' stance. A contingency model a combination of the manager's traits and behaviour and the particular situation. It is unique because it helps explain why a leader is effective under one situation and not another.

This model assumes that what is important is how leaders respond to the unique organizational circumstances or problems...... there are wide variations in the contexts for leadership and that, to be effective, those contexts requires different leadership responses....individuals providing leadership, typically those in formal positions of authority, are capable of mastering a large repertoire of leadership practices. Their influence will depend, in large measure, on such mastery.
Contingency leadership then, is not a single model but represents a mode of responsiveness, which requires effective diagnosis followed by careful selection of the most appropriate leadership style. It is pragmatic rather than principled and can be criticised for having no overt sense of the 'big picture'. (Bush, T., 2008: 23).

The Application

Application of Fiedler's model involves aligning leadership style with situational favorableness for the most effective results. For example, task-structured leaders who have reward power will be more effective in situations where the group has been assigned a clearly defined task. Relationship-oriented leaders will be more effective in situations where the task is unclear and requires creativity and teamwork and where the leader does not have reward authority but enjoys positive relationships with her team. Between these two bookends are several potential leadership scenarios that depend on leader orientation and situational favorableness.

Therefore the leader's ability to lead is contingent upon various situational factors, including the leader's preferred style, the capabilities and behaviours of followers and also various other situational factors.

Situational Leadership

The Theory

The situational theory of leadership was developed by Dr. Paul Hersey and Dr. Ken Blanchard to find good ways of adapting leadership actions to meet the needs of different situations and circumstances. According to the authors of this theory leaders choose their leadership style based on the maturity or developmental level of the followers. Their theory yielded a four quadrant configuration based on the relevant amount of directive and support needed to motivate a given employee to fulfill a given task. The four quadrants are labeled according to the corresponding leadership style related to each of the four sections of the model. See the model.

According to Hersey & Blanchard (1970), to determine the appropriate leadership style to use in a given situation, the leader must first determine the maturity level of the followers in relation to the specific task that the leader is attempting to accomplish through the effort of the followers. As the level of followers' maturity increases, the leader should begin to reduce his or her task behaviour and increase relationship behaviour until the followers reach a moderate level of maturity. As the followers begin to move into an above average level of maturity, the leader should decrease not only task behaviour but also relationship behaviour. Once the maturity level is identified, the appropriate leadership style can be determined.
The effective leader is able to utilize multiple leadership styles as conditions change. This is the theory behind the concept of situational leadership. Implementing situational leadership in an organisation then becomes a matter of training leaders to recognize the current work setting, or employees’ condition, and using the most effective leadership style given the specific challenge.

**The Model**

The Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership Model takes a situational perspective of leadership. This model posits that the developmental levels of a leader’s subordinates play the greatest role in determining which leadership styles (leader behaviours) are most appropriate. Their theory is based on the amount of direction (task behaviour) and socio-emotional support (relationship behaviour) a leader must provide given the situation and the "level of maturity" of the followers.

- **Task behaviour** is the extent to which the leader engages in spelling out the duties and responsibilities to an individual or group. This behaviour includes telling people what to do, how to do it, when to do it, where to do it, and who's to do it. In task behaviour the leader engages in one-way communication.

- **Relationship behaviour** is the extent to which the leader engages in two-way or multi-way communications. This includes listening, facilitating, and supportive behaviours. In
relationship behaviour the leader engages in two-way communication by providing socio-emotional support.

- **Maturity** is the willingness and ability of a person to take responsibility for directing his or her own behaviour. People tend to have varying degrees of maturity, depending on the specific task, function, or objective that a leader is attempting to accomplish through their efforts.

In summary therefore a leader’s behaviours should fall along the two continua below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Directive Behaviour</th>
<th>Supportive Behaviour</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One-Way Communication</td>
<td>Two-Way Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Followers 'Roles Clearly Communicated</td>
<td>Listening, providing support and encouragement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close Supervision of Performance</td>
<td>Facilitate interaction Involve follower in decision-making</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Application

The basic principle underlying situational leadership is that the leader adapts his/her leadership behaviours to followers ‘maturity’ based on their willingness and ability to perform a specific task. Four leadership styles match high and low willingness and ability to perform task:

- When followers are unable and unwilling to perform a given task, the leader directs the followers' actions without much concern for personal relationships. This style is referred to as high-task-low relationship focus or the 'telling style'.

- When followers are unable to but willing to perform the task, the leader interacts with followers in a friendly manner but still provides concrete direction and guidance. This style is referred to as high task-high relationship focus or the 'participative style'.

- When followers are able but unwilling to perform the task, the leader does not have to provide much direction or guidance but must persuade followers to engage in the task. This style is referred to as low task-low relationship focus or the 'selling style'.

- When followers are able and willing to perform the task, the leader leaves the execution of the task to the followers with little or no interference, basically
trusting followers to accomplish the task on their own. This style is referred to as low task-high relationship focus, or the 'delegating style'.

The effective leader is skilled in the four styles and knows the ability of the followers along with their willingness to perform specific tasks. The effective leader realizes that no one leadership style is appropriate for all followers and all situations and accurately discerns which styles are appropriate for which followers in which situations. (Marzano, R., J., et al. 2005:17-18).

Implementing situational leadership in an organization is really nothing more than teaching managers or leaders how to recognise the strengths and weaknesses of each leadership styles and how this knowledge can be applied to a given work situation. It is also important for managers and leaders to recognize their intrinsic leadership style because that will often be the style they will fall back on in times of stress.

**TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP**

**The Theory**

Transactional leadership has been the traditional model of leadership with an organisational or business perspective. The transactional leadership is linked to the Political model of leadership. (Bush, 2003).

Transactional theories, also known as managerial theories, focus on the role of supervision, organization and group performance. Transactional theories are based on a system of rewards and punishments. They are often found in business, when successful employees are rewarded and when they fail they are reprimanded.

Miller & Miller (2001) define transactional leadership as an exchange process. Exchange is an established political strategy for members of organisations. Heads and principals possess authority arising from their positions as the formal leaders in their institutions. They also hold power in the form of key rewards such as promotion, work assignments and references. An exchange may secure benefits for both parties to the arrangement.

The major limitation of such a process is that it does not engage staff beyond the immediate gains arising from the transaction. As Miller and Miller’s definition implies, transactional leadership does not produce long-term commitment to the values and vision being promoted by school leaders.

Rules, procedures and standards are essential in transactional leadership. Followers are not encouraged to be creative or to find new solutions to problems. Research has found that transactional leadership tends to be most effective in situations where problems are simply and clearly defined. While transactional leadership can be effective in some situations, it is
generally considered as insufficient and may prevent both leaders and followers from achieving their full potential.

Some of the basic assumptions about transactional leadership include:

- People perform their best when the chain of command is definite and clear.
- Workers are motivated by rewards and punishment.
- Obeying the instructions and commands of the leader is the primary goal of the followers.
- Subordinates need to be carefully monitored to ensure that expectations are met

(Burns, J., M., (1975)

The Transactional Leadership Model

Bush (2003) links transactional leadership to his political model. In political models, there is conflict between stakeholders, with disagreement being resolved in favour of the most powerful protagonists.

Transactional leadership is leadership in which relationships with teachers are based upon an exchange for some valued resource. To the teacher, interaction between administrators and teachers is usually episodic, short-lived and limited to the exchange transaction (Miller & Miller, 2001:182).

Management theorists do not consider transactional leadership activities to inspire superior performance in followers. Those who adopt a transactional leadership approach tend to maintain an existing state of affairs and emphasize going by the rules. The focus tends to be on solving problems while playing within a given framework. The emphasis is more on a rational approach than a creative approach.

Some transactional leaders adopt a contingent rewards approach. In this approach, the leader makes it clear to followers what his expectations are and what they need to do to obtain the rewards. There is a negotiation between the two parties as to what the leader expects and what the reward will be for satisfying the expectations. The leader also could provide incentives to followers to influence their behavior.

Transactional leaders are often very extraverted, charismatic and strategic. They see the big picture rather than the detail. They inspire great loyalty, providing they succeed. If they fail, or are seen to be hypocritical, the followers may well become disillusioned or cynical.

The Application
The transactional leader works to create structures that clearly defines what is required of their subordinates, and the rewards that they get for following orders. Punishments are not always mentioned, but they are also well-understood and formal systems of discipline are usually in place.

The early stage of Transactional Leadership is in negotiating the contract whereby the subordinate is given a salary and other benefits, and the company or the institution (and by implication the subordinate's manager) gets authority over the subordinate.

When the Transactional Leader allocates work to a subordinate, they are considered to be fully responsible for it, whether or not they have the resources or capability to carry it out. When things go wrong, then the subordinate is considered to be personally at fault, and is punished for their failure (just as they are rewarded for succeeding).

The transactional leader often uses management by exception, working on the principle that if something is operating to defined (and hence expected) performance then it does not need attention. Exceptions to expectation require praise and reward for exceeding expectation, whilst some kind of corrective action is applied for performance below expectation.

**TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP**

**Theory**

The transformational leadership approach is the favoured style of leadership given that it is assumed to produce results beyond expectations. Transformational leadership has been most widely researched from the 1980's to 2011. It was first described by James McGregor Burns and then expounded upon by Bernard Bass. Transformational leaders were often described as heroes. A transformational leader was not afraid to approach things from an entirely different perspective, and in Weber's theory of leadership, they used their personal charm or charisma to help achieve their goals.

The theory behind transformational leaders is based on the hypothesis that leaders can exploit a need of the follower. These particular needs are not based on pro quo transactions but higher-order needs. These needs are those of the total person and are closely aligned with the internal motivational factors of the followers.

Transformational leadership is a process in which the leaders take actions to try to increase their associates' awareness of what is right and important, to raise their associates' motivational maturity and to move their associates to go beyond the associates' own self-interests for the good of the group, the organization, or society. Such leaders provide their associates with a sense of purpose that goes beyond a simple exchange of rewards for effort provided.
The transformational leaders are proactive in many different and unique ways. These leaders attempt to optimize development, not just performance. Development encompasses the maturation of ability, motivation, attitudes, and values. Such leaders want to elevate the maturity level of the needs of their associates (from security needs to needs for achievement and self-development). They convince their associates to strive for a higher level of achievement as well as higher levels of moral and ethical standards. Through the development of their associates, they optimize the development of their organization as well. High performing associates build high performing organizations. (Bolden, R., J Marturaro, A., and Dennison, P., 2003)

The Transformational Leadership Model

Transformational leadership is one of the collegial models. This model believes that the central focus of leadership is the commitments and capacities of organizational members. It assumes that leaders and staff have shared values and common interests. When it works well it has the potential to engage all stakeholders in the achievement of organizational objectives. Higher levels of personal commitment to organizational goals and greater capacities for accomplishing those goals are assumed to result in extra effort and greater productivity. This model is comprehensive in that it provides a normative approach to school leadership. It focuses primarily on the process by which leaders seek to influence school outcomes rather than on the nature of or directions of outcomes.

Leithwood (1994) conceptualised transformational leadership along eight dimensions:

- Building school vision.
- Establishing school goals.
- Providing intellectual stimulation.
- Offering individualised support.
- Modelling best practices and important organisational values.
- Demonstrating high performance expectations.
- Creating a productive culture.
- Developing structures to foster participation in school decisions.

For Bass ‘transformational leaders may:

- expand a follower’s portfolio of needs;
- transform a follower’s self-interest;
- increase the confidence of followers;
- elevate followers’ expectations;
- heighten the value of the leader’s intended outcomes for the follower;
- encourage behavioural change; and
- motivate others to higher levels of personal achievement (Maslow’s ‘self-actualisation’).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transactional Leadership</th>
<th>Transformational Leadership</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>✓ Builds on man’s need to get a job done and make a living.</td>
<td>✓ Builds on a man’s need for meaning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ Is preoccupied with power and position, politics and perks.</td>
<td>✓ Is preoccupied with purposes and values, morals, and ethics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ Is mired in daily affairs.</td>
<td>✓ Transcends daily affairs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ Is short-term and hard data orientated.</td>
<td>✓ Is orientated toward long-term goals without compromising human values and principles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ Focuses on tactical issues.</td>
<td>✓ Focuses more on missions and strategies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ Relies on human relations to lubricate human interactions.</td>
<td>✓ Releases human potential – identifying and developing new talent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ Follows and fulfills role expectations by striving to work effectively within current systems.</td>
<td>✓ Designs and redesigns jobs to make them meaningful and challenging.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ Supports systems that reinforce the bottom line, maximize efficiency, and guarantee short-term profits.</td>
<td>✓ Aligns internal structures and systems to reinforce overarching values and goals.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Comparison of Transactional and Transformational Leadership (Covey, 1992)**

Both kinds of leadership are necessary. Transactional leadership has remained the organisational model for many people and organisations that have not moved into or encouraged the transformational role needed to meet the challenges of our changing times.
Over the last two decades, transformational leadership and its emphasis on vision, employees’ empowerment and challenging the traditional leadership hypothesis, has become a well-linked model of leadership among progressive companies of to-day

**Application**

Transformational leadership begins with the awareness-awareness of our own thoughts and feelings, and how these affect our actions and the states of others. As our awareness grows, you begin to see your own inner motivating force, what drives you-your own passions and values -and how these affect your thoughts, feelings and actions and that of others.

As you become more aware your perception increases and you are able to choose actions that directly meet the needs of the situation around you, but much more powerfully than a situational leadership style. It speaks to the 'being' level of the people around you.

In developing the transformation model of school leadership, Kenneth Leithwood (1994), noted that the four I's are necessary skills for school principals if they are to meet the challenges of the 21\textsuperscript{st} century. The four I's are:

1. **Individual consideration:** The school leader must attend to the needs of and provide personal attention to individual staff members, particularly those who seem left out.

2. **Intellectual stimulation:** The effective school principal must help staff members think of old problems in new ways.

3. **Inspirational Motivation:** Through a powerful and dynamic presence the effective principal must communicate high expectations for teachers and students alike.

4. **Individualised Influence:** Through personal accomplishments and demonstrated character, the effective principal must provide a model for the behaviour of teachers. (Marzano, R., J., et al. 2005:15)

Mahatma Gandhi is a great example of a transformational leader, because he satisfied the needs of his followers. But instead of riding those needs to power, he remained sensitive to a higher purpose. His vision of leadership went beyond himself. He believed in satisfying the needs of all that followed him.

Transformational leadership is appropriate in fast changing situations, where people have high levels of skill and where the leader can afford to get involved in the detail.

Here are the top ten skills exercised by transformational leaders:

1. Creating a long-term vision of success.
2. Creating strategies and plans.

3. Thinking creatively.

4. Inspiring others to act in accord with the vision.

5. Communicating direction.

6. Facilitating change.

7. Building consensus.

8. Developing teams and individual talents.


INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP
The Theory

Instructional leadership focuses on the direction of influence, rather than its nature and source. Increasing emphasis is on managing teaching and learning as the core activities of educational institutions. This has led to the instructional leadership approach being emphasised and endorsed, notably by the English National College of Educational Leadership (2001).

Leithwood et al. (1999) point to the lack of an explicit description of instructional leadership in the literature and suggest that there may be different meanings of this concept. Southworth (2002:79) says that 'instructional leadership is strongly concerned with teaching and learning, including the professional learning of teachers as well as student growth'. He also pointed out that school leaders may lack sufficient knowledge of teaching and learning to provide adequate, let alone successful, instructional leadership. Bush and Clover's (2002) definition stresses the direction of the influence of process:

*Instructional leadership focuses on teaching and learning and on the behaviour of teachers in working with students. Leaders' influence is targeted at students learning via teachers. The emphasis is on the direction and impact of influence rather than the influence process itself. (Bush and Clover 2003:10)*

Leithwood et al. (1994: 499) claims that 'instructional leadership images are no longer adequate' because they are 'heavily focused' and do not address second order changes. He adds that the instructional leadership images 'is now showing all the signs of a dying paradigm' (p. 502).
Despite these comments Bush (2003:16-17) stated that instructional leadership is a very important dimension because it targets the school’s central activities, teaching and learning. However, this paradigm underestimates other aspects of school life, such as sport, socialisation, students’ welfare, and self-esteem.

**The Instructional Leadership Model**

There has been much discussion regarding the relative effectiveness of different leadership styles in bringing about improved student performance. Instructional leadership is one of the most useful tools in creating a forward-looking, student-centered school environment.

Instructional leadership can be defined as "those actions that a principal takes, or delegates to others, to promote growth in student learning." In practice, this means that the principal encourages educational achievement by making instructional quality the top priority of the school and brings that vision to realization. The role of an instructional leader differs from that of traditional school administrator in a number of meaningful ways. Whereas a conventional principal spends the majority of his/her time dealing with strictly administrative duties, a principal who is an instructional leader is charged with redefining his/her role to become the primary learner in a community striving for excellence in education. As such, it becomes the principal’s responsibility to work with teachers to define educational objectives and set school-wide or district wide goals, provide the necessary resources for learning, and create new learning opportunities for students and staff.

The result of instructional leadership is a collaborative learning environment where learning is not confined to the classroom and is the objective of all educators. Instructional leadership is an important departure from the ancient model of administrator as authoritarian. Inherent in the concept is the idea that learning should be a top-down process. If those in charge of the school are excited about learning, then they will share their enthusiasm throughout the community.

Those who learn to be instructional leaders acquire many characteristics that are beneficial to their schools and communities. Instructional leaders exhibit a clear sense of direction for their schools and prioritize and focus attention on the things that really matter in terms of the work of students. Furthermore, instructional leaders know what is happening in their classrooms and develop the capacities of staff by building on their strengths and reducing their weaknesses. These leaders also attempt to sustain improvement and change in their schools by anticipating and overcoming the obstacles that inevitably will emerge along the way. (Reference)

**The Application**

In order to successfully fulfill the roles and responsibilities of leadership, instructional leaders must have a vision of what they want the school to become. Teaching and learning
should be the main focus. This vision should be communicated to each stakeholder in a way that they will share the same vision. Based on this vision, a plan should be developed in order to fulfill the goal of meeting the needs of all students. Once the vision has been established, developed, and implemented, sustaining the vision is necessary by supporting teachers’ professional growth in the form of professional development.

Instructional leaders must be prepared to focus time, attention, and effort on changing what students are taught, how they are taught, and what they are learning (Bottoms & O’Neill, 2001). Ultimate accountability for student achievement is incumbent upon the instructional leader.

The role of an instructional leader then is to (a) provide instructional leadership through the establishment, articulation, and implementation of a vision of learning, (b) create and sustain a community of learners that makes student and adult learning the center focus, (c) facilitate the creation of a school culture and climate based on high expectations for students and faculty, (d) advocate, nurture, and sustain a school culture that is conducive to student learning and staff professional growth, (e) lead the school improvement process in a manner that addresses the needs of all students, (f) engage the community in activities to solicit support for student success, and (g) utilize multiple sources of data to assess, identify, and foster instructional improvement (Green, 2010).

SUMMARY
In this topic we discussed a variety of different leadership theories and models. No one theory or model fits all organizations. Often the educational leader must employ a variety of different leadership approaches based on the circumstances, the audience and the goals of the organization. Study these models and read more. Pick different leadership approaches and note what works and doesn’t work. Eventually you will develop your own leadership style.

REFERENCES


Leadership Theories: Available at http://www.money-zine.com/career-development/Leadership-skills/Leadership-Theories


UNIT THREE – THE ROLES OF AN EDUCATIONAL LEADER

UNIT INTRODUCTION

Educational leadership roles have changed radically as countries transform their education systems to prepare young people for today’s rapid technological change, economic globalisation and increased migration (Pont, et al, 2008). In schools, leaders are asked to work beyond their school so that they can contribute not only to the success of their own school but to the educational system as a whole (ibid, 2008).

Educational leaders play a vital role in the organisation; the development, the culture and the commitment and motivation of the staff in the organisation (Bush, 2005). In order to lead people, they need to define the vision for their organisation and implement strategies to move towards that vision. However, to achieve the vision, promoting teamwork is crucial in their own organisation. It is important that their role is to cultivate team spirit; promote shared understanding, participative decision-making and responsibility for outcomes. As such, building teams encourage collaboration and handle conflicts in the organisation (ibid, 2005).

Educational leaders also act as coaches and mentors as they lead and guide people in the organisation. They inspire, challenge, motivate and empower others to maximize their potential. Leaders champion the development of creative-thinking and problem-solving. As such, they empower staff or future leaders by enabling them to grow within the organization.

This unit will examine the roles carried out by educational leaders that contribute to an understanding of the leadership function in an organisation. In this unit, educational leadership roles are divided into three main sections, namely, leading people, building the team and developing future leaders.

UNIT OBJECTIVES

After completing this unit current and future educational leaders should be able to:

1. Define their own vision and develop strategies towards that vision.
2. Motivate their staff and communicate effectively with people.
3. Build and manage successful teams in their organisation.
4. Empower the development of future leaders by coaching and mentoring.
5. Critically reflect and describe the role of educational leadership within society.
UNIT READINGS

As you complete this unit you are required to read the following chapters/articles:


ASSIGNMENTS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Read the three major topics in order and complete the self-reflection activities and record your response to the activity in your reflective portfolio.

2. Participate in the Unit discussion presented at the end of each topic.
**Topic 3.1 – Leading People**

**Introduction**
A central element of leadership is the process of influence (Leithwood, et. al, 1999). Educational leadership involves a social process whereby intentional influence is applied by one person over other people to structure the activities and relationships in an organisation (Yuki, 2002). This process of influence may be implemented by anyone in an organisation as it is something that flows throughout an organisation (Yuki, 2002). Leaders operate in schools by “communicating invitational messages to individuals and groups with whom leaders interact in order to build and act on a shared and evolving vision of enhanced educational experiences for pupils” (Stoll and Fink, 1998, p. 109).

Successful educational leaders involve developing and articulating a vision for the organisation. Vision needs to be specific to the organisation and to be embedded in the organisation (Bush, 2005).

**Objectives**
Upon completion of this topic you will be able to:

1. examine the vision of their organisation;
2. influence and inspire people to work through motivation and communication;
3. build an effective teamwork that promotes a shared understanding, decision-making and responsibility for outcomes; and
4. develop future leaders through coaching and mentoring.

**Influencing Others to Move Towards the Vision**

**Defining the Vision**

According to Bush (2005), a vision for leaders is not a dream; it is a reality that has yet to come into existence. Leaders confidence in and dedication to vision are so strong they can devote long hours over many years to bring it into being. In this way, a vision acts as a force within, compelling a leader to action. It gives a leader purpose, and the power of the vision and the leader’s devotion to work to inspire others (Bush, 2005).

An effective leader is supposed to have a vision, whereas an ineffective leader either lacks a vision or has an unclear one. Being visionary is far from an ordinary task, it is the ability to imagine different and better future conditions and the ways to achieve them. A vision is a lofty, long term goal. (Dubrin, 2010)

**Strategies to Move Towards the Vision**
Beare, et.al. (1989, p. 99) say that “outstanding leaders have a vision of their schools – a mental picture of a preferred future – which is shared with all in the school community”. They added that “the vision maybe a dream expressed in written form as the school will be a learning centre in the community, where every child will enjoy coming to school and will acquire the basic skills” (ibid, p. 107). Bennis & Nanus (1985) state that to strive towards the vision, leaders need to articulate and communicate effectively:

- **Vision must be communicated in a way which secures commitment among members of the organisation.**
  This is achieved by visionary leaders. Their visions or intentions are compelling and pull people towards them. Intensity coupled with commitment is magnetic.

- **Communication of vision requires communication of meaning.**
  The mastery of communication is inseparable from effective leadership. Symbols are important for the communication of meaning.

- **Attention should be given to institutionalizing vision if leadership is to be successful.**
  Articulation and communication of the vision need to be supported by a process of ‘implanting’ the vision; the principal should work with others to implant the vision in the structures and processes of the school, something that calls for the technical and human skills of policymaking and planning.

However, Fullan (1992, p.19) argues that “vision building is a highly sophisticated dynamic process which few organizations can sustain”. He adds:

> Visionary leaders may damage rather than improve their schools. The current emphasis on vision in leadership can be misleading. Vision can blind leaders in a number of ways. The high-powered, charismatic principal who ‘radically transforms the school’ in four or five years can be blinding and misleading as a role model. Principals are blinded by their own vision when they feel they must manipulate the teachers and the school culture to conform to it.

(Fullan, 1992, p.19).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self-Reflection</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How is the vision in your organisation articulated?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Record your response in your personal journal.</td>
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</table>
MOTIVATING AND COMMUNICATING

Motivating People

A preliminary definition of motivation is that it refers to individual differences with regard to the priorities, attitudes and aspects of life style that people seek to fulfil in work, that is, those things which drive them on and make them feel good about doing so (Fisher, et. al., 1998). They identify the process of motivation which consists of:

- Identification or appreciation of an unsatisfied need
- The establishment of a goal which will satisfy the need
- Determination of the action required to satisfy the need

(ibid, p. 516)

Handy (1993) and Foskett & Lumby (2003) refer to the ambiguity of the concept of motivation. It has attracted a ‘plethora of definitions’ (Foskett & Lumby 2003, p.76) and there is ‘no overarching or single theoretical model which explains [it]’ (Riches 1994, p. 224). Yet, Handy (1993) claims the importance of motivation for leaders and managers:

*If we could understand and could then predict, the ways to which individuals were motivated, we could influence them by changing the components of that motivation process.. Early work on motivation was indeed concerned to find ways by which the individual could be ‘motivated’ to apply more effort and talent to the service of his or her employer.*

(Handy, 1993, p. 29-30)

Reflection

Before reading further on motivation theories, you are invited to take Leadership Self-Assessment Quiz which deals with your understanding of motivation. See the next box.

Leadership Self-Assessment Quiz

My Approach to Motivating Others
Instructions: Describe how often you act or think in the way indicated by the following statements when you are attempting to motivate another person. *Scale: very infrequently (VI); infrequently (I); sometimes (S); frequently (F); very frequently (VF).*

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I ask the other person what he or she is hoping to achieve in the situation.</td>
<td>VI</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I attempt to figure out if the person has the ability to do what I need done.</td>
<td>VI</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. When another person is heel dragging, it usually means he or she is lazy.</td>
<td>VI</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I explain exactly what I want to the person I am trying to motivate.</td>
<td>VI</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I like to give the other person a reward up front so he or she will be motivated.</td>
<td>VI</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I give lots of feedback when another person is performing a task for me.</td>
<td>VI</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I like to belittle another person enough so that he or she will be intimidated into doing what I need done.</td>
<td>VI</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I make sure that the other person feels fairly treated.</td>
<td>VI</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I figure that if I smile nicely, I can get the other person to work as hard as I do.</td>
<td>VI</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I attempt to get what I need done by instilling fear in the other person.</td>
<td>VI</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I specify exactly what needs to be accomplished.</td>
<td>VI</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I generously praise people who help me get my work accomplished.</td>
<td>VI</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. A job well done is its own reward. I therefore keep praise to a minimum.</td>
<td>VI</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I make sure to let people know how well they have done in meeting my expectations on a task.</td>
<td>VI</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. To be fair, I attempt to reward people similarly no matter how</td>
<td>VI</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
well they have performed.

16. When somebody doing work for me performs well, I recognize his or her accomplishments promptly.

17. Before giving somebody a reward, I attempt to find out what would appeal to that person.

18. I make it a policy not to thank somebody for doing a job he or she is paid to do.

19. If people do not know how to perform a task, motivation will suffer.

20. If properly laid out, many jobs can be self-rewarding

Total Score: ____

Scoring and Interpretation: Add the circled numbers to obtain your total score.

90-100: You have advanced knowledge and skill with respect to motivating others environment. Continue to build on the solid base you have established.

50-89: You have average knowledge and skill with respect to motivating others. With additional study and experience, you will probably develop advanced motivational skills.

20-49: To effectively motivate others in a work environment, you will need to greatly expand your knowledge of motivation theory and techniques.


Motivation Theories and Practice

The essence of leadership is motivating others to follow and achieve. Motivation theories help leaders understand why people behave and provide a framework for thoughtful reflection about one’s own motivation, behaviours, leadership style, and values. Although there is not one single, definitive theory of motivation, there are common principles that emerge (Tomlinson, 2004).

Maslow’s hierarchy of needs is the most widely known theories of motivation which concentrates on a supposed needs hierarchy. Maslow (1970) suggests that human needs
are arranged hierarchically and that needs in which are low in the hierarchy must be largely satisfied before those which are higher in the hierarchy will motivate behaviour. These needs may be defined as:

- **Physiological**: for sunlight, sex, food, water and similar inputs which are basic to human survival
- **Safety-security**: for freedom from environmental threat, animals and people, for shelter, security, order, predictability and for a generally organized world.
- **Belonging or social**: the need to be associated with one’s own kind, for relationships, affection, giving and receiving love, for feelings or belonging
- **Esteem and status or ego**: for strength, achievement, adequacy, confidence, independence and for reputation, prestige and recognition
- **Self-actualisation**: the need to reach one’s ultimate goals in life, to fulfil one’s own destiny.

This hierarchy rests on two assumptions; a) unsatisfied needs motivate behaviour and b) as a particular need becomes satisfied, it becomes less of a motivator and the next in line takes on more importance (Riches, 1994). For most people the higher order needs will be less satisfied than the lower ones and differences in satisfaction will depend on cultures and individuals. While it may be useful to see the theory as operating over time, at a general societal level. Riches (1994, p.93) argues that at the individual level, it has serious drawbacks which include:

- There is a methodological issue: the theory was intended to predict changes in individuals’ needs but most of the research has been cross-sectional, comparing the needs of different people at one point in time.
- It is not easy for psychologists to define constructs such as self-actualization, let alone to test them.
- It is difficult to see how the theory can predict behaviour by assessing the amount of satisfaction that one has to achieve at one level before passing on to the next.
- People do not satisfy their needs, especially the higher order ones, through the work situation alone; they are satisfied through other areas of their lives as well.
- The hierarchy ‘may simply have reflected American middle-class values and the pursuit of the good life, and may not have hit on fundamental universal truths about human psychology’ (Buchanan & Huczynski 1985: 54).
- Individuals attach different values to the same need.
• Some outcomes at work satisfy more than one need.

• Even for people with the same hierarchical level the motivating factors may well be different.

• The theory seems to ignore the notion of altruistic behaviour.

• The theory does not acknowledge gender variables.

Handy (1993) divides motivation theories into three categories:

**Satisfaction Theories.** The assumption here is that satisfied workers are more productive but Handy says that there is little evidence to support this, although they are more likely to remain with the organisation. Much careers advertising refers to ‘satisfaction’, including the English Teacher Training Agency’s recruitment campaign in the early twenty-first century.

**Incentive Theories.** The assumption of these theories is based on the principle of reinforcement - the ‘carrot’ approach. Individuals work harder if given specific rewards or encouragement for good performance. Handy (1993, p. 32) says that incentive approaches might work if:

- the individual perceives the extra reward to be worth the extra effort;
- the performance can be measured and attributed to the individual;
- the individual wants that particular kind of reward; and
- the increased performance will not become the new minimum standard.

The incentive theory underpins the notion of the performance related pay, as we shall see later.

**Intrinsic Theories.** The assumption here is that people work best if given a worthwhile job and allowed to get on with it. The reward will come from satisfaction in the work itself. Foskett & Lumby (2003, p.78) claim that ‘teaching is rich in intrinsic motivation’. Certainly, the problem of teacher retention in many countries suggests that intrinsic motivation is insufficient to counter the perceived excessive bureaucracy, heavy workloads, low pay, and inadequate professional development. In England 30% of newly qualified teachers leave the profession within five years while in the USA 20% leave within the first three years (Bush 2005).

**Needs Theories:** the Maslow, McGregor and Herzberg theories all fit into this category, each based on the premise that basic needs or impulses within humans are the key to what motivates us. Maslow’s hierarchy of needs from ‘survival’ and ‘security’ through to ‘self-fulfilment’ is readily recognisable to many managers. The important aspect of this theory is that satisfaction of needs is sequential and therefore employees cannot be motivated by self-fulfilment unless lower-level needs have been met. There is value for leaders in recognising the range of needs. However, Maslow’s insistence on the need to meet these needs in strict hierarchical order is discredited. McGregor’s theory that either people must be pressured by managers because they seek to avoid work or they are self-directed and responsible can be useful in analysing underlying assumptions about the way people behave and may be implicit in staff policies.

Herzberg suggested that managers need to make staff positively satisfied and remove causes of dissatisfaction but that these two things are independent of each other. His extreme satisfiers were recognition, self-fulfilment and sense of achievement, whilst the main dissatisfiers were related to conditions at work (pay, relationships with employer), which Herzberg called the ‘hygiene factors’. However, the theory, whilst offering sensible insights into managing employees, can lead to motivation and satisfaction being confused.

**Goal Theories:** Handy (1993) suggested that all employees make a personal calculation of costs and benefits of how they act and perform accordingly.

**Equity Theories:** these suggest that employers are primarily motivated by a sense of fair play and those perceptions that they are being treated less fairly than others will demotivate them.

Middlewood & Lumby (1998) argue that many of these well-known theories originate in the west and probably do not pay enough attention to issues of race and culture. Hofstede’s (1980) research on certain kinds of leadership suggested that western models are not necessarily motivating in other cultures, a view supported recently by Dimmock and Walker (2002).

However, all these theories are based on the assumption that motivation is essential if organizations are to perform well. People are motivated in different ways and knowing what works for each person provides the potential for enhanced long-term performance. Tomlinson (2004, p.150) summarises the way in which motivation theories can help educational leaders when they apply the theories and their best practices in their organisations:

- Understand why people behave as they do.
• Identify environmental factors that affect behaviour.

• Understand how leaders’ behaviours impact others’ behaviours.

• Balance organizational needs with individual needs.

• Use communication strategies to motivate group and individual productivity.

• Prevent potential conflicts and facilitate problem resolution.

The theories explain that motivation is a process that originates from within the individual and generally explain behaviour as the result of an individual’s perceptions and interactions with their environment. Many theories examine basic human needs and the role these needs play in motivation. However, Tomlinson (2004) argues that for effective educational leadership, motivation theories call attention to the importance of environmental factors in organisations and how leaders’ behaviours influence the people’s behaviour in their organizations. Motivation theories are most useful when organisational philosophy and leadership style support and value open communication, feedback, and individual perspectives (ibid, 2004).

**IMPACT OF MOTIVATION AT ORGANISATIONAL LEVEL**

The potential for leaders and managers to make an impact on motivation at organisational level is significant (Bush, 2005). There are two main reasons.

The first is simply that motivation is an individual issue. The significance for leaders of organizations is in realizing that the people closest to the individual employee will have the most impact upon their motivation. In management terms, the actions of the person with direct responsibility for the employee’s work have a more direct impact than those of organizational leaders.

The second reason is that the more immediate the benefit of an action is perceived to be, the greater is its impact will be. Not only do people appreciate shorter-term goals (Kakabadse, et. al. 1988), but adult learners generally need to see practical and relevant outcomes for their learning to be motivated (Knowles, 1984).

The figure below illustrates the relative impact of external influencers on motivation (Bush, 2005, p.83).
COMMUNICATING EFFECTIVELY

Open communication between leaders and staff helps an organisation overcome problems and attain success. Effective communication skills contribute to inspirational leadership. Nonverbal skills are also important for leadership effectiveness.

Inspirational and powerful communication helps leaders carry out their roles. DuBrin (2010, p.318) suggested that for speeches and writing to be inspirational and powerful they need to:

- be credible;
- gear the message to your listener;
- sell group members on the benefits of your suggestions;
- use heavy-impact and emotion-provoking words;
- use anecdotes to communicate meaning;
- back up conclusions with data;
- minimize language errors, junk words, and vocalized pauses;
• use appropriate jargon, and
• write crisp, clear memos, letters, and reports.

LISTENING AS A LEADERSHIP SKILL
Listening is a fundamental management and leadership skill.

Listening also provides the opportunity for dialogue, in which people understand each other better by taking turns having their point of view understood. For a leader to support and encourage a subordinate, active listening is required. Effective leader-member exchanges require that each party listen to one another. The relationship between two parties cannot be enhanced unless each one listens to the other’ (DuBrin, 2010, p.326).

Harris (2004) points out that ‘today’s complex, fast-pace organization, effective communication – including listening- is essential. But all too frequently, messages are misinterpreted, ignored, or missed altogether. As a result, creativity is stifled, morale is lowered, and goals may go unmet’ (p. 12).

DuBrin (2010) adds that ‘making the rounds’ can lead to effective communication as leaders engage in face-to-face communication with staff, with an emphasis on listening. Making the rounds refers to ‘the leader casually dropping by constituents to listen to their accomplishments, concerns, and problems and to share information. Doyle (2006) provides suggestions for doing an effective job of dropping by to exchange information with employees:

✓ Get out of the office. Dedicate some time each week to get out and talk with your work force.

✓ Leave behind your cell phone and Blackberry. Minimize distractions that can tug on your attention and block effective listening. You want to demonstrate courtesy and respect during your time on the floor.

✓ Start slowly. Don’t feel the need to dive right into your discussion even if you have prepared an agenda. Effective listening requires you to focus on the person with whom you are speaking. Clear your mind of distractions.

✓ Make eye contact. Look directly at the people with whom you are speaking

✓ Make it two-way communication. When you’re asked a question that you can’t answer, tell the employee that you don’t have the answer but will get back to him or her.
✓ Be honest. If times are tough, don’t sugarcoat reality. For example, if the company lost a big contract, bring it up in your casual conversation.

✓ Process information. You may want to bring a small notepad with you to write down questions or comments that you’d like to remember or that require follow-up. You will learn some great new things about your people and operations.

✓ Show appreciation. Thank the person for his or her time and comments.

✓ Never quit. People may not be comfortable during the early months of the walk-around process. But as they see you more frequently and your willingness to be visible, comfort in the process will improve.

CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION

In today’s workplace, leaders communicate with people from different cultural, linguistic and religious backgrounds. Because of this workplace diversity, leaders who can manage a multicultural and cross-cultural work force are in strong demand. Therefore, overcoming communication barriers created by dealing with people from different cultures is another leadership challenge. DuBrin (2010, p. 343) suggested guidelines for overcoming cross-cultural barriers include the following:

1. Be sensitive to the existence of cross-cultural communication barriers.

2. Challenge your assumptions about cultural groups.

3. Show respect for all workers.

4. Use straightforward language, and speak slowly and clearly.

5. Look for signs of misunderstanding when your language is not the listener’s native language.

6. When appropriate, speak in the language of the people from another culture.

7. Understand and observe cross-cultural differences in etiquette.

8. Do not be diverted by style, accent, grammar; or personal appearance.

9. Avoid racial or ethnic identification except when it is essential to communication.

10. Be sensitive to differences in non-verbal communication.

11. Be attentive to individual differences in appearance.

SUMMARY

In this topic you learned that leaders play an important role in building teams in an organization, such as being expert in the team process, being facilitators, building trust and
inspiring teamwork, and enabling and empowerment team members to accomplish their work. The next topic will discuss the role of leaders in building teams in an organization.

REFERENCES


**Topic 3.2 – Building the Team**

**Introduction**

Effective leadership requires successful teams working in the organisation. Lashway (2003) links teamwork to shared leadership. He claims that ‘the task of transforming schools is too complex to expect one person to accomplish single-handedly. Accordingly, leadership should be distributed throughout the school rather than vested in one position’ (ibid, p.1).

Wallace (2001) identifies five reasons for shared leadership:

- **Shared leadership is morally just in a democratic country where individual rights are accorded high priority.**
- **Participating in shared leadership is a fulfilling experience for all involved.**
- **Team membership provides an opportunity for professional development.**
- **Co-operative relationships provide good models for children and students.**
- **Shared leadership is potentially more effective than principals acting alone, not least because staff ‘own’ the outcomes**


In South Africa, shared leadership provides the rationale for teamwork in South African schools. The role of the senior management team is ...to share the management tasks more widely in the school. This is necessary if the management of the schools is to become more democratic, inclusive and participatory. (Department of Education, 2008, p.2)

Cardno (2002), drawing on experience in New Zealand, describes the importance of teamwork in organisational management:

*Teams abound in schools because they are structured in ways that allow teachers to work together to make curriculum and management related decisions. In settings where the implementation of education reform has increased the complexity of school management through devolution, principals have embraced the opportunity to share new tasks and decision-making with teams.*

(Cardno, 2002, p.213)

It is evident that there is considerable support for the notion of teamwork in education. Indeed, the presence of teams in schools, is a ‘grass roots response’ (Wallace 2002, p.168). It is widely believed that team work is an important feature of a school’s organisation.
However, such assumptions are by no means sufficient to ensure that teams are meaningful and effective. As Bush, et. al. (2005) claim developing effective teams can be problematic.

This topic will explore the creation of teams in educational settings.

**OBJECTIVES**

Upon completion of this topic you will be able to:

1. Examine the role of successful teams in an organisation.
2. Develop and manage effective teams.
3. Analyse the pros and cons of teamwork in an organisation.

**DEVELOPING EFFECTIVE TEAMS**

Teams form part of an essentially normative framework for school leadership and management, with several overlapping assumptions:

- Principals should develop and communicate a distinctive vision for the school or college.
- Leadership should be transformational so that staff and the wider school community can be inspired to share, and to implement, the principal’s vision.
- Professional staff is encouraged to participate in teams, despite the hierarchical structures within which they all work.
- Teamwork is likely to lead to ‘better’ and more widely accepted decisions.

The reality is often rather different from this ‘harmony’ model. In England, and many other countries, governments are transfixed by ‘standards’, evidenced by test and examination scores. Teamwork and distributed leadership receive a measure of support because they are thought likely to contribute to the standards agenda. Yet the government’s policies compromise the transformational model, for several reasons:

- The school’s distinctive vision is subordinate to the government’s target driven approach.
- Accountability pressures have intensified, making it ‘risky’ for heads to share power with their colleagues.
- Teamwork may be limited to implementing external priorities instead of formulating ideas to meet the specific needs of the school and its pupils.
- Team processes may be perceived as valuable but they are vulnerable if they do not lead to the outcomes desired by the government.
Wallace (2002) points out that leadership and management does have an impact on student learning but the effect is indirect, or ‘mediated’, via classroom teaching. In smaller schools, where the principal is a full or part time teacher, there is the potential for direct effects but usually leadership exerts its influence on teachers who, in turn, seek to enhance pupil learning. Any single individual has a limited impact on outcomes but, if leadership is distributed widely, the potential effects are multiplied. ‘It is as foolish to think that only principals provide leadership for school improvement as to believe that principals do not influence school effectiveness’ (Hallinger & Heck 1999, p.186).

Middlewood (2003) mentions six obstacles to team effectiveness:

- Some teachers are unqualified and lack skills.
- Personality clashes.
- A frequently absent teacher.
- Intolerance by some team members.
- Shy staff dominated by teachers.
- Low morale and motivation caused by increased workload.

Bush, et. al. (2005) claims team learning is an important aspect of their effectiveness. Leithwood (1998, p. 204) adds that team learning is an important ingredient of effective teamwork and has two main dimensions:

1. A shared understanding of the team’s purpose.
2. The actions permitted by the larger organization for achieving the purpose.
As illustrated in the diagram, Tuckman’s (1965) model of team development assumes four stages of growth.

Each of these stages has a potential learning dimension as members engage in mutual adaptation and the team moves from initial formation to successful performance. Cardno (2002) points that team learning needs to be built into the culture of teamwork, that is, through leadership action. Cardno (2002) believes that strong leadership is needed to promote team development and organizational learning. Such leadership could lead to productive rather than defensive communication and could release the ‘unharnessed potential’ of teams.

Johnson’s (2003) research in four Australian schools found that there was evidence of conflict between those who wanted to work collaboratively and teachers who preferred their autonomy. “The former group was critical of these resistors, back stabbers and blockers. The process of implementing collaborative practices in the four schools produced disputes between some staff” (p. 348).

**Self-Reflection**

How do you manage conflicts in your organisation’s teams? Record your response in your personal journal.

**MANAGING CONFLICT**

Educational leaders must also be able to resolve conflict between or among them organizational members. The most useful approach is to get the members involved in a conflict to engage in confrontation and problem solving. ‘Confrontation refers to discussing the true problem, and problem solving refers to finding a way to resolve the conflict’. Dubrin points out that the leader sits down with the two sides and encourages them to talk to each other about the problem not talk directly to him or her. This approach is preferable to inviting each side to speak with the leader alone, because then each side might attempt to convince the leader that he or she is right (ibid, 2010). (Dubrin, 2010)

Leaders spend considerable time managing conflict. Resolving conflict requires collaboration. According to Dubrin (2010) five major modes of conflict management include: competitive, accommodative, sharing, collaborative (win-win), and avoidant. Each mode is based on a combination of satisfying one’s own concerns (assertiveness) and
satisfying the concerns of others (cooperativeness). The collaborative style of conflict management includes agreeing with the criticizer, and apologizing. When resolving conflict, people typically combine several of the five resolution styles to accomplish their purpose, such as dominating and accommodating. Which modes of conflict handling you should use depends upon a number of variables, as presented in detail in the following table.

Table : Appropriate situations for using the five modes of conflict resolutions (Dubrin, 2010, p. 338).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conflict-Handling Mode</th>
<th>Appropriate Situation</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Competing</td>
<td>When quick, decisive action is vital, such as in emergency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>On important issues when unpopular actions need implementing</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>On issues vital to organization welfare when you know you are right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Against people who take advantage of non-competitive behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborating</td>
<td>To fine an integrative solution when both sets of concerns are too important to be compromised</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>When your objective is to learn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To merge insights from people with different perspectives</td>
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<td></td>
<td>To gain commitment by incorporating concerns into a consensus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To work through feelings that have interfered with a relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict-Handling Mode</td>
<td>Appropriate Situation</td>
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</table>
| **Sharing (compromising)** | When goals are important but not worth the effort or potential disruption of more assertive modes  
When opponents with equal power are committed to mutually exclusive goals.  
To achieve temporary settlements of complex issues  
To arrive at expedient solutions under time pressure  
As a backup when collaboration or competition is unsuccessful |
| **Avoiding** | When an issue is trivial or more important issues are pressing  
When you perceive no chance of satisfying your concern  
When the potential disruption outweighs the benefits of a resolution  
To let people cool down and regain perspective  
When gathering information supersedes making an immediate decision  
When others can resolve the conflict more effectively |
| **Accommodating** | When you find you are wrong – to allow a better position to be heard, to learn, and to show your reasonableness  
When issues are more important to others than to yourself – to satisfy others and maintain cooperation  
To minimize the loss when you are outmatched and losing  
When harmony and stability are especially important  
To allow group members to develop by learning from mistakes |

Dubrin (2010) adds that conflicts can be managed through negotiating and bargaining. Specific negotiating techniques include the following:

1.listen first to investigate what the other side wants;
2. begin with a plausible demand or offer;
3. focus on interests, not positions;
4. search for the value in differences between the two sides; and
5. be sensitive to international differences in negotiating style.

SUMMARY
Teams have become significant features in many organizations. They provide one example of shared or distributed leadership, which is increasingly advocated, notably by the English National College for School Leadership (Bush, et. al., 2005). Teamwork can produce advantages in schools, for example, in raising teacher morale and contributing to organizational learning. Yet, as we have seen, it may produce problems which can outweigh the benefits. ‘Teams are not the solution to everyone’s current and future organizational needs. They will not solve every problem nor help top management address every performance challenge. Moreover, when misapplied, they can be both wasteful and disruptive’ (Katzenbach and Smith, 1998, p.24).

Hence, given the context-specific nature of the leaders and managers in any organisations, it is difficult to generalise about factors most likely to lead to successful teamwork. This depends on the skills and attitudes of individual leaders more than the formal structures (Bush, et. al., 2005).

REFERENCES


INTRODUCTION

Rajan’s (1996) study of leadership in 500 organisations showed that ‘coaching and mentoring’ were ranked as the most valuable means of promoting leadership development. Bassett (2001) distinguishes coaching from mentoring by stressing the skills development of the former:

*Mentoring has more to do with career and life development and cannot be successfully entered into between a learner and their manager or assessor. Whereas coaching is considered to be about enabling the individual to improve their performance in their chosen field and is commonly used in the sports and skills development arena.*

(Bassett, 2001, p.3)

In many countries, including Australia, England and Wales, Hong Kong, Singapore, and the USA, ‘mentoring’ has become increasingly significant as a mode of professional development (Bush, 2008). It is regarded as a crucial dimension in the preparation and ongoing development of leaders (ibid, p.157).

Mentoring is an ongoing process wherein individuals in an organisation provide support and guidance to others so that it is possible for them to become effective contributors to the goals of the organisation (Playko, 1995). It is also a significant part of the socialisation process for educators learning a new role. Crow (2001, p.3) distinguishes between two forms of socialisation:

- Professional – preparing to take on an occupational role, such as teacher or principal.
- Organizational – focusing on the specific context where the role is being performed.

Bush, et. al.’s (1996) research with head teachers in England concluded that the most appropriate mode was that of peer-mentoring. Unlike new teachers, principals are all senior professionals with substantial experience, leading to the view that mentors and mentees have ‘equal standing’. This perspective was adopted by all mentors in the research although some mentees favoured an ‘expert-novice’ model, recognizing the mentor’s greater experience of the headship role (Bush, et.al, 1996, p. 135-6).

The nature of mentoring is inevitably influenced by the context where the process takes place. While it is often regarded as a Western concept, Leung & Bush (2003, p.263) suggest that it has a long history within Chinese culture:
Lifelong mentoring, which is embedded in the Chinese culture and heritage, is the passing of the ancestor’s knowledge, values, attitudes and ethics to the successive generation... the best relationship between a mentor and a mentee is like water, a natural element that ultimately changes the shape of whatever it touches.

OBJECTIVES
Upon completion of this topic you will be able to:

1. Examine critically the role of leaders as mentors and coaches
2. Apply mentoring and coaching skills in developing future leaders.

Self-Reflection
Before starting this topic ask yourself how coaching and mentoring are understood in your organisation? How are you involved in coaching and/or mentoring? Record your response in your personal journal.

THE ROLE OF LEADERS AS MENTORS
Mentoring is commonly defined as a process whereby a more experienced person assists someone who is less experienced (Daresh, 1995). The advantage of a mentor has been the greater breadth of vision, specific knowledge and wisdom that they can often bring to support mentees at the start of their careers.

The role of mentors is inducting new staff more quickly, improving the recruitment and retention of key people, identifying high-potential managers more effectively and identifying their key competencies. Encouraging diversity, improving communications, leadership development and succession planning are all elements of this. The mentor brings experience, perspective and distance, has a long-term relationship and bridges the gap between individual learning and corporate learning.

(Tomlinson, 2004, p.99)

While this ‘expert-novice’ model of mentoring is common, Crow (2001) also refers to peer-mentoring where the process is mutual. The peer-mentoring model may be regarded as being similar to critical friendship in that neither party is seen to have more expertise or experience than the other (ibid, 2001). Day (1995) defines critical friendships as practical partnerships entered into voluntarily and based on a relationship of equals:

Critical friendship... can serve to decrease isolation and increase the possibilities of moving through stages of reflection to confrontation of thinking and practice ... In terms of the appraisal of classroom practice, for example, a critical friend may establish and sustain a responsive, mutually
acceptable dialogue through which situations will be created in which the teacher is obliged to reflect systematically on practice.

(Day, 1995, p. 123)

MENTORING IN PRACTICE

This section provides an overview of the mentoring process used in Singapore and England and Wales to develop future educational leaders (Bush, et. al., 2005, p.162-164):

**Mentoring for Aspiring Principals in Singapore**

Training for prospective school principals in Singapore was introduced in 1984, well ahead of most other countries. The Ministry of Education and the National Institute of Education (NIE) collaborated to develop the Diploma in Educational Administration (DEA) which had an annual intake of 50 vice-principals from primary and secondary schools. The programme was full-time for one year and participants were selected by the Ministry.

Mentoring is an integral part of the training programmes and occurs largely when participants are attached to a mentor principal’s school on a full-time basis for eight weeks. Mentees practice a range of leadership skills negotiated with their mentors. Participants are coached, reinforcing the links between mentoring, and coaching noted earlier, and given feedback on how they have handled their tasks. Mentors also model leadership behaviour through their own daily work. The mentoring pairs are supported by an NIE facilitator whose role is to ensure that learning objectives are clearly understood and pursued. Bush and Chew (1999, p.46) conclude that ‘the Singapore model of mentoring is ... working reasonably well, judging by ... feedback obtained from yearly cohorts of DEA participants, many of whom have assumed principalships after their training’. The DEA was replaced by the Leaders in Education programme in 2002 but this also includes a mentoring component.
Mentoring became a significant part of headship development from 1991 following the work of the School Management Task Force. This initiative was introduced at a time when there was no formal requirement for heads to be trained for their management role. Bush (1995, p.3) described this in-service model of professional development ‘as a substitute for training rather than forming part of it’.

This model of mentoring has been subject to significant research and comment (Bolam, et. al. 1995). These all point to the supportive nature of the scheme, as mentors in East Anglia suggest:

- A mentor is a sympathetic, trusted colleague or friend available to respond in confidence to the new head’s needs by listening, observing and offering support in a non-judgemental way.
- A mentor is able to listen and observe within a sensitive, non-judgemental, confidential relationship, being a sounding board as necessary to enable the mentee to find his or her own solutions and directions.
- A mentor is someone outside the immediate situation who is non-judgemental and is a listener and confidante.

**Benefits of Mentoring**
Mentoring has the potential to produce significant benefits for mentees, mentors and the education system (Bush, et. al. 2005). ‘Mentoring needs to produce benefits for both mentor and mentees if it is to be a mutually rewarding experience and provide motivation for both partners. Ideally, these benefits should extend to the schools involved in the relationship’ (Bush, 1995, p.7).

**Benefits for Mentees**

Pocklington & Weindling (1996) explore the use of mentoring as a leadership development strategy. They argue that ‘mentoring offers a way of speeding up the process of transition’ (p.189) and claim that is a powerful strategy:

As part of their organizational socialization, new heads are attempting to make sense of their role and to gain a clear understanding of what it is to be a head teacher. They also have to learn the complex task of managing change and reshaping the school culture to improve teaching and learning. We believe that mentoring, that holds up a mirror for self-reflection, offers a powerful means of assisting this process. (p.190)

Bush et al. (1996) describes four main benefits for the mentees:
- Listen and act as a sounding-board.
- Offered guidance and reassurance.
- Were non-judgemental.
- Could admit that they were also fallible.

Benefits for Mentors

Playko’s (1995) reflections as a mentor in the USA show that the gains go across national boundaries. ‘Perhaps the greatest benefit derived by mentors is the fact that relationships with protégés cause greater reflection to take place on one’s own behaviours, attitudes and values’ (p.86).

Comparative research on mentoring for new principals in England and Singapore demonstrates the satisfaction often gained by mentors:

- It offers me the satisfaction of helping a colleague’s professional development and also prompts me to reflect on my leadership role. (English mentor)……
- It is enriching and satisfying to know that someone is learning from you. (Singapore mentor)

(Coleman et al. 1996, p.8)

Benefits to the Education System

Mentoring has been encouraged by the governments because of its perceived benefits to the education system. Research in Singapore and England points to these advantages:

1. The (mentoring) relationship proliferates organizational norms and cultures, ensures hard-learned knowledge and skill are transferred to younger colleagues, improves the overall performance of the work group, and provides a steady supply of trained personnel. (Chong et al. 1990, p.21)

2. The mentoring process benefits the educational system by helping new heads to become more effective at an earlier stage in their careers, and by the espousal of a culture of mutual support and development among the wider community of heads. (Bush & Coleman 1995, p.67)

Playko (1995, p.89), in a discussion about mentoring in the USA points to two main benefits for schools and the wider educational system:
Mentoring programmes are an important way to ensure that a ‘culture of collegiality’ begins to emerge in a school or organisation.

Mentoring provides the potential to identify future generations of potentially effective school teachers.

**Limitations of Mentoring**

But mentoring is not the answer to all of the issues facing our schools today. Crow (2001) describes the following limitations of mentoring:

- Mentors often have their own agendas.
- Mentoring can create dependency between the mentor and the mentee.
- Some mentors attempt to clone mentees in their own image.
- Mentoring runs the risk of perpetuating the status quo. (p.13)

Bush & Chew’s (1999) research shows that the main problems of mentoring in England and Singapore are:

- Lack of time for the mentor to perform the role effectively.
- The risk of mentees becoming dependent on the mentor.
- An overemphasis on the notion of support leading to a lack of challenge and ‘rigour’.
- The risk of an inappropriate ‘match’ between mentor and mentee. (p.49-50)

Despite these potential problems mentoring research indicates that the limitations are outweighed by the advantages and that mentoring is normally highly successful in promoting the development of students, teachers, and practicing and aspiring leaders (Bolam et al. 1995, Daresh, 1995, Bush & Chew, 1999).
THE ROLE OF LEADERS AS COACHES
According to Dubrin (2010) effective leaders are good coaches, and good coaches are effective motivators. He states that “to coach is to care enough about people to invest time in building personal relationships with them. The organisation benefits from coaching because of the elevated productivity of many of the workers who are coached. Coaching is seen as a key vehicle for engaging (or motivating) workers” (p.300).

Good coaching enables a person to perform at their best and brings out the best of their ideas and achievements (Tomlinson, 2004). Executive coaching is helping professional people reflect upon their work in a frank and rigorous way to establish new patterns of behaviour as a consequence (Caplan, 2003). The qualities of a coach as consultant require her/him to be a good listener; capable of handling sensitively and neutrally both personal and professional issues; experience; the capacity to see the world through another’s eyes; the ability to change without threat (Tomlinson, 2004).

Tomlinson (2004) notes that coaching supports the authorship of self-development since the purpose of coaching is to help and support changes in practice that benefit the individual and the organisation. He states further that “effective leaders as coaches develop and articulate what the organisation is trying to do, create environments where employees believe in themselves, determine what needs doing, then do it. They know they cannot solve all problems so delegate real strategic power, authority and responsibility. The ideal outcome is for an individual to become a reflective, evidence-based practitioner who will continuously evaluate and develop his or her working practices.” (p. 99)

COACHING SKILLS AND TECHNIQUES
Dubrin (2010, p.302-305) suggested that leaders need to acquire basic coaching skills to help lead to the improvement in performance of individuals and groups. These skills should include:

1. **Communicate expectations to group members.** For people to perform well and to continue to learn and grow, they need a clear perception of what is expected of them.
2. **Build relationships.** Effective coaches build personal relationships with team members and work to improve their interpersonal skills.

3. **Give feedback on areas that require specific improvement.** To coach a group member toward higher levels of performance, the leader pinpoints what specific behaviour, attitude, or skills require improvement.

4. **Listen actively.** Listening is an essential ingredient in any coaching session. An active listener tries to grasp both facts and feelings.

5. **Help remove obstacles.** An important role for the leader of an organizational unit is to help remove obstacles such as rules and regulations and rigid budgeting.

6. **Give emotional support.** The leader provides emotional support to the group member who is not performing at his or her best. An effective way is to use positive rather than negative motivators.

7. **Reflect content or meaning.** An effective way of reflecting meaning is to rephrase and summarise concisely what the group member is saying.

8. **Give gentle advice and guidance.** Too much advice giving interferes with two-way communication, yet some advice can elevate performance. Part of giving gentle guidance for improvement is to use the word *could* instead of *should*.

9. **Allow for modeling of desired performance and behaviour.** An effective coaching technique is to show the group member by example what constitutes the desired behaviour.

10. **Gain a commitment to change.** Unless the leader receives a commitment from the team member to carry through with the proposed solution to a problem, the team member may not attain higher performance.

11. **Applaud good results.** Effective coaches give encouragement and positive reinforcement by applauding good results.

Leadership Self-Assessment Quiz will help you think through the development you need to be an effective coach. If you are already an effective coach, look for ways to improve.
Leadership Self-Assessment Quiz

Instructions: Following is a list of traits, attitudes, and behaviours characteristic of effective coaches. Place a check mark next to each trait, attitude, or behaviour that you need to develop along those lines (for example, whether you need to become more patient). On a separate sheet of paper, design an action plan for improvement for each trait, attitude, or behaviour that you need to develop. An example of an action plan for improving patience might be, “I’ll ask people to tell me when I appear too impatient. I’ll also try to develop self-control about my impatience.”

1. Trait, Attitude, or Behaviour
2. Empathy (putting self in other person’s shoes)
3. Listening skill
4. Insight into people
5. Diplomacy and tact
6. Patience toward people
7. Concern for welfare of people
8. Low hostility toward people
9. Self-confidence and emotional security
10. Non-competitiveness with group
11. Enthusiasm for people
12. Satisfaction in helping others grow
13. Interest in development of group members
14. High expectations for each group member
15. Ability to give authentic feedback
16. Interest in people’s potential
17. Honesty and integrity (or trustworthiness)
18. Friendliness
19. Develops trust and respect
Being Coached

Coaching for higher performance requires the commitment of those being coached (Tomlinson, 2004). Tomlinson notes that the skills that need to be included are (p. 103-104):

- Assertiveness – a need to have a clear views about what it is you want to learn,
- Taking initiatives – a willingness to actively seek out the coach.
- Openness and honesty – telling the coach the reasons for not completing a task successfully.
- Asking for feedback and suggestions – positively seeking feedback.
- Networking – developing supporting relationships.
- Clarifying objectives – as the focus changes.
- Taking responsibility – for your own learning.

Feedback

Feedback to reinforce success and correct mistakes is central to the process of coaching and mentoring. Tomlinson (2004) has provided a set of guidelines that can be applied by leaders as coaches and mentors in all contexts from informal daily contacts to the formal performance appraisal interview (ibid, p.106). They are:

- Be specific – provide evidence of any general conclusions by referring to actual events.
- Be constructive – if faults need to be discussed, concentrate on the lessons to be learned and on ways of improving.
- Avoid abstract comments about personality or attitude – concentrate on behaviour and the specific effects of good or poor performance, and on practical objectives for improvement or development.
- In the annual appraisal – do not attempt too much, too quickly. Highlight the key points. If there are many issues to discuss, consider having more than one meeting. Much of this should have been dealt with during the previous year.
- Encourage teachers examine and assess their own performance – feedback is more than simply telling.
Avoid being drawn into an argument – discuss the reason for any difference in opinion rather than just disputing the teacher’s views.

Do not play the amateur psychologist – avoid the temptation to offer ‘helpful’ suggestions about underlying psychological reasons for certain behaviour.

If change is needed – explain why. Help the teacher to work out an action plan.

Be prepared to change your own approach and views – learn from the teacher’s perception of your performance in whichever role you are playing.

Remain available for further advice – encourage the teacher to seek feedback rather than fear possible criticism.

**Self-Reflection**

1. How effectively do you give feedback?

2. How effectively is feedback given to you?

Record your response in your personal journal.

**SUMMARY**

Coaches and mentors are an essential part of every education system. Leaders and followers alike can assume the role of coach or mentor depending on the circumstance and personalities of the participants. Coaches guide and mentors develop personnel. The methods described in this topic will help educational leaders embrace their role as a coach and mentor.

**REFERENCES**


UNIT FOUR – ACCOUNTABILITY IN EDUCATION

UNIT INTRODUCTION

The term accountability has become a catchword of the twenty first century, a dominant theme in the continuing dialogue about education and its improvement. In the context of the current dialogue on educational reform, the term has many meanings for political leaders, education officials, teachers, parents and the general public.

Heim (1995) argues that the term appears at times to refer to those with oversight authority. It may also mean demonstrating compliance with established laws, rules, regulations, or standards; or establishing rewards and sanctions tied to results.

This unit explores the realm of accountability in the education system and places emphasis on the role of the educational leader in the process. By so doing, the responsibilities of the leader will be analysed in its different spheres: legal, ethical, moral. When one considers accountability, one must delve into the accountability framework, and consider the responsibility of the leader towards the educational system and stakeholders. Further, the role of the leader in managing finance, facilities and allocating resources and the deployment of resource will be explored. Accountability after all, assumes a great measure of responsibility, responsibility for the education of students in the education system.

In business and education circles, we can argue that one of the reasons for failure is the inability by leadership to establish and enforce accountability. Accountability is at the heart of empowering people to perform well, demonstrating initiative and acting responsibly.

Sets of concepts and insights into accountability will be explored that will help educational leaders in working with staff, in building collaborative relationships with others within and without the organization. It will also help these leaders to contend with critics. The Principal/Leader is the Chief Executive Officer of his organization and bears the brunt of responsibility to ensure that the demands for accountability- whether internally or externally generated are adequately met.

UNIT OBJECTIVES

After completing this unit, learners should be able to:

1. Critically evaluate the systems of accountability in the educational system in their country.

2. Delineate the components of the accountability framework.

3. Develop a monitoring mechanism/instrument that can be used by educational leaders to check accountability.
4. Assess the importance of accountability to the education system.

**UNIT READINGS**

From the materials in your course package, you are required to read and discuss the following:


Education Acts of Individual countries


**UNIT ACTIVITIES**

1. Read the five major topics and make reflective notes in your personal Journal.

2. Read the Education Act of your country and outline the responsibilities of the Principal/Leader.

3. Write a critique of an educational article.

4. Participate in the Unit discussion on the significance of Accountability in education.
**INTRODUCTION**

There is nothing new about the notion of accountability in education. In the United Kingdom national Inspectors were appointed in the early part of the nineteenth century, and external inspection of schools became an accepted part of education in North America and throughout the rest of Europe.

The increasing cost of education has resulted in increasing demand for accountability in education systems. Politicians, parents, the business community and the public are expressing concern, especially when schools are seen to be underperforming.

The term accountability describes a relationship in which one party has an obligation, contractual or otherwise, to account for their performance of certain actions to others. (Brundrett & Rhodes, 2010) This definition highlights the essential feature of accountability: that of responsibility. Leaders who have been given the responsibility to educate our nation’s children must be held accountable for the effective and efficient operation of the system and its supporting organizations.

**OBJECTIVES**

Upon completion of this topic, you will be able to:

1. Explain what is meant by accountability.
2. Discuss the significance of accountability in education.
3. Highlight the responsibilities of a leader as espoused in the Education Act.
4. Analyse the Education Act of their home country.
5. Describe the responsibilities of the Principal in your home country.
6. Produce a checklist for a Principal to assess his own accountability.

**WHAT IS ACCOUNTABILITY?**

When one considers accountability in education, especially in the context of multiple reforms and restructuring, one realizes that the concept may have many varying meanings. It is multifaceted and involves responsibility, authority, evaluation and control of all aspects of the education system; both at the national and local levels.

Methods of accountability have been developed in countries all over the world to such a degree that accountability is no longer simply one component of the education system. It is an integrated throughout the system. Ramson (2003) argues that accountability can now be considered “the system itself.” As pressure mounts on the public purse, governments of...
the United Kingdom, United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand (and others) are increasingly tying funding for schools to learning outcomes so that success or failure can be measured.

Kogan (1986) defines accountability as:

> a condition in which individual role holders are liable to review and the applications of sanctions if their actions fail to satisfy those with whom they are in an accountability relationship.” (p.25)

Heim (1995) defines accountability as the responsibility that goes with the authority to do something. The responsibility is to use authority justifiably and credibly.

Hyatt (2007) argues that in accountability, you accept responsibility for the outcomes expected of you – both good and bad. The leader is not expected to blame others for the results he or she has produced.

**ACCOUNTABILITY AND RESPONSIBILITY**

Accountability then is a form of responsibility. It involves at least two parties and a mutually acknowledged relationship between them. That relationship involves a delegation of authority to take some action from one party to another. Where no delegation of authority occurs, there should be no expectation of accountability. Brown (1990) argues that that authority is delegated, conditionally, at minimum, upon demonstrably credible performance occurs. Although one may hope for ideal performance, credible performance should be deemed sufficient. The credible performance must be achieved under the relevant conditions.

If one has been delegated the authority to engage in some activity, then one is responsible, at the least, for conducting the activity “properly”. It must be completed in accordance with prevailing expectations that guide how the activity should be conducted. This is called procedural accountability. Procedural accountability seems to encompass the definitions of accountability proposed by Darling-Hammond (1992).

The concept of accountability may extend to include responsibility for the consequences or results of one’s actions – whether positive or negative, intended or unintended. This is termed consequential accountability.

Different kinds of expectations might be more aptly characterized as sources of accountability expectations. The main categories of these expectations are: bureaucratic, legal, professional, political and market based. These sources of accountability expectations derive from different philosophical bases, traditions and settings. Heim (1995) offers an analysis of those.

**Type 1 - Bureaucratic.** Uses hierarchical structure and authoritative superior-subordinate relationships to enforce compliance with rules and regulations. The values
promoted are equitable resource allocation, equal access, planned management, uniform/standardized operations. The major weaknesses of this source are that it is unresponsive to individual client needs, minimizes professional autonomy and credibility of personnel.

**Type 2 - Legal.** This uses statutes, legislation and regulations to direct compliance and use of suits or injunctions to obtain redress for violations. The values promoted are establishment and enforcement of legal rights, maintenance of rights via a formal avenue of complaint. The major weaknesses are the costs of monitoring compliance, the reliance on punishment to induce compliance, and it is an adversarial process.

**Type 3 - Professional.** This source uses review by professional peers using the standard of “accepted practice” within the profession. The values promoted are professional autonomy to provide services to best meet client needs, responsiveness to variation in client need. The major weaknesses are that it is costly and difficult to establish the elements for developing and maintaining a professional culture.

**Type 4 - Political.** This uses the processes of democratic control (elections, political action, and public opinion) to influence and constrain the use of authority by elected officials. The values promoted are democratic control, responsiveness to constituents and inclusiveness. The major weaknesses are that public expectation may be vague, unclear, and unwieldy in diverse, pluralistic communities.

**Type 5 - Market based.** This option uses the choice of providers within a regulated market to obtain best services and induce quality improvement among providers. The values promoted are consumer rights, responsiveness to client preferences/need and competition among providers. The major weaknesses are that there is no assurance of the public’s equal access to services of comparable quality, providers are likely to be responsive only to their particular clients.

These five sources of accountability expectations delineate the different bases by which justification for the use of delegated authority is viewed or defined.
LEGAL RESPONSIBILITIES OF A LEADER
The actions of many educational leaders are dictated by their country’s Education Act and other supporting legislation. In this age of accountability, educational leaders must ensure that they are aware of their responsibilities as espoused by the Education Act. These Acts outline the administration of the education systems and the powers of the Administrators in the education system. Any educational leader must be every educational leader must be very knowledgeable of the Education Act, as his or her actions must never g contrary to that articulated by the Act.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF A PRINCIPAL
The responsibilities of a principal are similar in most school jurisdictions. For example, in Canada Ontario’s 1990 Education Act defines a principal’s responsibilities as:

- Determining the organization of the school and ensuring on-going maintenance of the school buildings.
- Administering the school’s budget.
- Student admission and placement.
- Maintaining student records.
- Developing a school safe arrival programme with the help of the school council, parents and the community(elementary schools).
- Ensuring student supervision and school discipline.
- Assigning teachers to classes and assisting and supervising them.
- Making recommendations to the school board on the appointment, promotion, demotion and dismissal of teachers.
- Selecting textbooks and other learning materials from the approved Ministry of Education list, with the help of teachers.

SUMMARY
Today educational leaders are legally accountable and responsible for the effective administration of the education system. Leaders must understand what they are accountable for and how they will be measured by their overseers and stakeholders. They must be expert in the legislation and regulations governing the education system. They must be aware of what responsibilities they delegate to others and what their role is in overseeing the execution of their subordinate’s duties. Finally they must understand that the “buck stops” at their desk.

RECOMMENDED READINGS
The following supplementary readings are offered to enhance your understanding of accountability.


http://www.paradigmlearning.com/subpages/impact5-The-Business- of Leadership-Game

http://www.edaccountability.org

http://www.pbs.org/newshour/btp/pdfs/stlouis-accountability_2005

http://www.ccsso.org

**Activity 1**

As you are studying this topic, you must make note of your perception of accountability and its importance in the educational system. This note must be made in your personal journal for review by your instructor. This note must be made at the beginning of the Unit, and a supplementary understanding recorded at the end of this topic.

**Activity 2**

For this topic, the students will analyse the Education Act of at least two countries to see areas of similarity and variation. They will also be expected to highlight the duties of the Principal as articulated by the respective Education Acts.

Learners will also compile a checklist that can be used by Leaders to assess their own accountability and how they are measuring up to the responsibilities delegated to them. (This checklist must be based on information obtained from the respective Education Act)

**TOPIC 4.2 - ETHICAL AND MORAL RESPONSIBILITIES OF LEADERS**

**Introduction**

Sergiovanni (1992) argues that truly effective schools are those with a shared covenant clearly articulating the school’s core values and providing a standard by which actions will be judged. When one examines the ethical and moral responsibilities of leaders, one
realises that the domain of leadership is one which is multifaceted. The leader’s moral duty expresses itself not only in the obvious day to day ethical dilemmas, but in the mundane policies and structures that may have hidden ethical implications.

Moral leadership is now proving to be a persistent theme in recent debates over the principal’s world. The literature is varied on the perceptions of the leader’s responsibilities, but most have focused not on the need for personal ethical behavior (although this is normally assumed), but on the importance of creating schools that serve moral purposes.

Ethical leaders are supposed to embody the purpose, vision and values of the organization and of the constituents, within an understanding of the ethical ideal. They connect the goals of the organization with that of the internal employees and external stakeholders.

When we speak of education leaders acting ethically, we may need to consider various levels as espoused by Starratt(2005):

- At the most basic level, as a human being. The educational leader considers what the humanly ethical thing to do might be, when dealing with another human being. He has to take into account the intrinsic humanity of that person.
- As a citizen-public servant. As a citizen-public servant, one acts for the good of one’s fellow citizens, one seeks the common good.
- As an educator. As an educator, the educational leader has specific responsibilities to know the content in the curriculum to such depths so as to understand the multiple applications and uses that knowledge provides to the community.
- As a leader. This involves a transformational ethic. The educational leader calls students and teachers to reach beyond self interest for some higher ideal, almost heroic.

**Objectives**

Upon completion of this topic, the learner will be able to:

1. Delineate the moral and ethical responsibilities of leaders
2. Reflect on their responsibilities as leaders
3. Critically evaluate the roles leaders are expected to assume.

**Moral Leadership**

Joseph Murphy(2001) has argued that progress in school leadership requires greater attention to “valued ends.” He advances three lines of development:

- Moral Stewardship (leaders keep the organization focused on core values of justice,
fairness and community.

- Educator (leaders keep the organization focused on its core task of instructing and educating the next generation

- Community builder (leaders nurture the life of the school by creating open access to parents and citizens as well as by creating communities of learning within the school.

In a world where schools are becoming increasingly diverse, Myrna, Ganter and colleagues (2000) have called attention to the importance of listening to the voices of teachers, parents and students whose concerns are sometimes drowned out by experts.

Stephen Gross and Joan Shapiro (2002) argue that leaders must balance accountability (legal obligations) against responsibility (concern for people). They documented leadership behaviours that helped teachers negotiate the demands of heightened accountability, by protecting what was good in the current curriculum and treating teacher concerns with respect and caring.

Sergiovanni (2000) posits that principals should protect and enhance the “lifeworld” of schools. The life world consists of the values, beliefs and purposes that knit the school community together and give significance to everyday activities. The systems world is concerned with the technical methods by which these purposes are carried out. Both domains are essential, but healthy schools are those in which the life world drives the systems world. He further argues that when leaders continually raise questions about purpose, institutionalizing shared values and motivating other by example, they help to establish a “moral voice” that infuses the school community.

A convincing case for moral authority is advanced by Beckner (2004) and Sergiovanni (1997). They both support the need for ethics and morals to be integral parts of leadership. Further, they claim that when moral authority overcomes bureaucratic leadership in a school, the outcomes are “extraordinary.”

**ETHICAL LEADERSHIP**

When one considers ethical leadership, one has to take into account not only the leader, but also the constituents (followers and key stakeholders), the context or situation that the leaders and constituents face, the leader’s processes and skills and the outcomes that result.

Freeman and Stewart (2006) posit that leaders must see their constituents as not just followers, but rather as stakeholders striving to achieve that same common purpose, vision and values. These follower and stakeholder constituents have their own individuality and
autonomy which must be respected to maintain a moral community.

Freeman and Stewart (2006) offer a list of the characteristics of ethical leaders. The list they offer highlight the fact that ethical leadership is more than just a matter of “good character and values.”

- Articulate and embody the purpose and values of the organization. It is important for leaders to tell a compelling and morally rich story, but ethical leaders must also embody and live the story.

- Focus on organizational success rather than on personal ego. Ethical leaders understand their place within the larger network of constituents and stakeholders. It is not about the leader as an individual - rather the goals and dreams of the organization.

- Find the best people and develop them. Ethical leaders pay special attention to finding and developing the best people because they see it as a moral imperative – helping them to lead better lives that create more value for themselves and for others.

- Create a living conversation about ethics, values and the creation of value for stakeholders. In organizations that have a live conversation about ethics and values, people hold each other responsible and accountable about whether they are really living the values. And, they expect the leaders of the organization to do the same.

- Create mechanisms of dissent. People will. Most of the time, obey what they perceive to be legitimate authority, even if there is no cost for disobedience. To avoid this “authority trap”, it is critical to have an established and explicit way for employees to “push back” if someone thinks that a particular market, region or internal process is out of line.

- Take a critical understanding of others’ values. Ethical leaders can understand why different people make different choices, but still have a strong grasp on what they would do and why. Instead of seeing ethical leadership as preventing people from doing the wrong thing, we need to view it as enabling people to do the right thing.

- Make tough calls while being imaginative. Ethical leaders have to make a lot of difficult decisions, from reorienting the company’s strategy and basic value propositions to making individual personnel decisions, such as working with employees exiting the organization. Ethical leaders do not attempt to avoid difficult decisions by using the excuse of “I am doing this for the business.”

- Know the limits of the values and ethical principles they live. All values have limits, particular spheres in which they do not work as well as others. The limits for certain
values, may be related to the context or the audience for which they are being used.

- Frame actions in ethical actions. Ethical leaders see their leadership as a fully ethical task. This entails taking seriously the rights of others, considering the effects of one’s actions on others (stakeholders) and understanding how acting or leading in a certain way will have effects on one’s character and the character of others. Ethical leadership requires an attitude of humility rather than righteousness: a commitment to one’s own principles, and at the same time, openness to learning and to having conversations with others who may have a different way of seeing the world.

- Connect the basic value proposition to stakeholder support and societal legitimacy. The ethical leader must think in terms of enterprise strategy, not separating “the business” from “the ethics”. The ethical leader must link the basic raison d’etre of the enterprise with the way that values get created.

Ethical leadership is about raising the bar, helping people to realize their hopes and dreams, creating value for stakeholders, and doing these tasks with the intensity and importance that “ethics” connotes. There must be room for mistakes and humour, and for a humanity that is sometimes missing in some leaders.

**Recommended Readings**


**ACTIVITY**

The learners will reflect on the qualities of ethical leaders as advanced by Freeman and Stewart and analyse to what extent they possess or display those characteristics, and the areas in which they need to improve. These will be documented in their journals.

The candidates will also critically analyse the article by Schmidt (2004) on Accountability, Educational Leaders and Emotions, and to see to what extent this is applicable to their particular island setting.
**Topic 4.3 - Accountability Framework**

**Overview**
When one considers accountability, one thinks of responsibility by one person to another. In the educational sphere, this accountability is of increasing concern, because of the huge cost of funding education, and the demands for improvement in student performance. In the context of educational leadership, the focus of the framework will be on the responsibility of the educational leader to parents, teachers, and the community.

McIntyre (2001) refers to an “audit culture” to refer to the system of accountability. Under this system, schools are held accountable for the quality of their provision. Under the audit culture, measurable outcomes are significant: student performance, acquisition of information and communication technology skills, and those areas often gathered under the global descriptor of risk management such as child protection, student safety, workplace health and safety, and employee relations.

**Objective**
Upon completion of this topic, learners will be able to:

1. Critically evaluate a leader’s role in an accountability framework.
2. Delineate the components/facets of an accountability framework.

**Responsibility to Learners, Teachers, Parents and Community**
A powerful organizing concept in accountability is the basic accountability question, “Who is responsible for ‘What and to Whom?’” The question is addressed in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Who is Responsible?</th>
<th>For What?</th>
<th>To Whom?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education Officials</td>
<td>Accountable for use of programme funds.</td>
<td>The Board of Education/Ministry of Education, public and federal governments for federal monies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom Teacher</td>
<td>Maintaining student grade and attendance records</td>
<td>Students, parents, principal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Heim (1995) the ‘Who is Responsible? And To Whom?’ requires numerous accountability providers and recipients. They include:

- Policymakers
- Parents
- Funding agencies
- Government agencies
- Education officials
- School staff
- Students
- The general public
- Community organizations
- Special interest groups

For What? The scope of accountability addresses the following:

- Funds
- Personnel
- Facilities
- Protection of primary clients (safety, due process)
- Direct services
- Support services
- Other administrative services
- Organizational management

Heim (1995) also offers the following as a Conceptual Accountability Model.

The above model contains the three elements of the basic accountability question: Who is responsible for What and to Whom? Consideration of “relevant limiting conditions” is necessary. Judging whether performance was “credible” means evaluating whether the performance was at least as good as might be expected, given the relevant conditions.
The Leader/Principal is the chief liaison between the school and the outside world, both parents and the wider community. In this role, the Principal teams with the parents to provide the best educational outcomes for their children, as well as responding to any parent problems or complaints. The Principal is also one who encourages a close relationship with the community and creates a safe school environment for the children. Nakpodia (2009) writing from the Nigerian experience, claims that the Nigerian perspective of the doctrine of in-loco parentis, is based on the assumption that by sending their children to school, parents agree to delegate to school officials the power of parental authority to control their children’s conduct in a manner that will be to the best interest of the child. School leaders must create guidelines and systems to support this doctrine.

Leadership as focused on accountability for learning is the subject of Du Four’s (2002) work. He refers to “learner centred accountability.” This assumes that leaders will direct their attention to ensuring that all components and actions within the educational system support the learning of students. Arguing for this type of leadership, Waters, Marzano & McNulty (2003) further state that this leadership does have a positive impact in student learning.

Evidence suggests that school improvement can be achieved if a school has a commitment to its community. By developing a deep and mutual relationship with people and organizations in the local community, schools gain not only information, knowledge and support, but a sense of moral purpose (West-Burnham & Gelsthorpe, 2002). These writers further see a shift in the focus of the school. The school, they argue, must move from a school in the community, to a school of the community.

When one considers the leader’s responsibilities to teachers, one may want to consider the principal as an instructional leader. Blasé & Blasé (2000) identified specific behaviours, such as making suggestions, giving feedback as sound instructional leader practices. Other practices include: modelling effective instruction, soliciting opinions, supporting collaboration, providing professional development activities and giving praise for effective teaching.

Whitaker (1997) identifies different skills that Principals need:

- **Resource provider.** It is not enough to know the strengths and weaknesses of faculty, but also to recognize that teachers desire to be acknowledged and appreciated for a job well done.

- **Instructional resource.** Teachers count on their principals as resources on information on current trends and effective instructional practices. Principals must be tuned in to issues relating to the curriculum, effective pedagogical strategies and assessment.
• **Effective communicator.** Leaders need to communicate essential beliefs regarding learning, such as the conviction that all children can learn.

• **Create a visible presence.** There must be a commitment to living and breathing a vision of success in teaching and learning.

**SUMMARY**

All educational leaders must understand and work within their own system’s accountability framework. Principals must understand their roles and responsibilities and must share accountability with their subordinates, parents and stakeholders. Educational leaders must articulate their school’s accountability framework throughout the school. All participants in the education system must understand who is accountable and who is responsible.

**RECOMMENDED READINGS**


**ACTIVITIES**

At the beginning of this topic, you should note your perception of the persons in the education to whom the educational leader is responsible and for what, and compare those with the literature provided in this topic.
After completing this topic, you should assess to what extent you are fulfilling your responsibility to persons in the education system and other stakeholders. This should be recorded in your journal for review by your instructor.

Discussion of a New Zealand scenario involving school/community partnerships. Participants will submit initiatives from their respective countries. This can form part of their journal entries. The New Zealand scenario can be found at [http://www.educationalleaders.govt.nz/Partnerships-and networks/building-community relationships/Building-partnerships](http://www.educationalleaders.govt.nz/Partnerships-and networks/building-community relationships/Building-partnerships).
TOPIC 4.4 – THE ROLE OF THE LEADER IN MANAGING RESOURCES

INTRODUCTION
Educational leaders operate in an environment in which many demands are placed on them. Their environment is also one in which there are persistent challenges. On the one hand, they face rising expectations for student performance and increasing pressure to demonstrate a marked improvement in student test scores or grades. On the other hand, they must meet these expectations in the face of high mobility among staff and students, an inadequate supply of high quality teachers and a limited authority to act. (Plecki, Alejano, Knapp & Lochmiller, 2006)

Allocating and developing resources to support improvement in teaching and learning remains a leadership issue. At each level of the educational system, the roles, responsibilities and authority of leaders have an impact on whether and how they are able to allocate resources to particular districts, schools, programmes, students and teachers. Educational leaders must take seriously the charge to become more learner focused. They need to critically examine existing resource allocation policies and practices and make judicial decisions regarding the ways in which resources might be re allocated in more productive ways.

OBJECTIVE
Upon completion of this topic, you will be able to:

1. Highlight the challenges educational leaders face in the management of identified resources.

2. Suggest ways to overcome the challenges leaders face.

3. Critically evaluate the role of educational leaders in the management of resources.

ALLOCATING RESOURCES
When allocating resources to support learning improvement, authors have noted the following (Plecki, Alejano, Knapp & Lochmiller, 2006):

- Use resources to target achievement gaps. The leader needs to make resource related decisions that seek to close achievement gaps and have good prospects for enhancing the equity of educational outcomes.

- Organize schools and districts to enable the alignment of resources with learning improvement agendas. The leader needs to structure time, the nature and assignment of staff and programmes so that they collectively emphasize learning improvement practices.
• Manage the politics of learning-focused leadership. The leader must mediate the political pressures associated with decision making about resources that emphasize learning improvement and with the redistribution of authority to act.

• Develop the human capital of the school or district. Provide supports, incentives and opportunities for learning that build motivation and expertise, thereby fostering higher performance.

Further, these writers have identified three main categories of resources that form a part of the daily ritual of educational leaders:

• Money – All activities at the several levels of the educational system typically occur in annual cycles. These activities determine both the amount of money that is available to support education and what it will be used for.

• Human Capital – This refers to people who have been paid with the allocated funds to do the work of the educational system and bring the different levels of motivation and expertise, developed over time, through training and experience.

• Time – People’s work together happens within an agreed upon structure of time (and assignments of people to tasks within time blocks). Hours are allocated within the day and across the year to different functions, thereby creating more or less opportunity to accomplish goals. Some leaders claim that they spend quite a bit of their time on administrative duties, while there is hardly any time for supervision of instruction.

**Budgeting**

The Principal’s budgeting role can be classified into four categories. Rebore (1988) identifies the categories as the following:

• Budget planning – assisting with the Superintendent or District Education Officer in identifying budget priorities and focusing on school needs at the planning stage.

• Budget analysis – dealing with goals, objectives and evaluative criteria, suggestions for curriculum materials and instructional equipment and communicating concerns of the students, teachers, parents and community about specific expenditures or special purposes.

• Budget requesting – involving a review of requests by different groups such as teachers or parents, establishing programme priorities, submitting a total budget and negotiating specific items.

• Budget controls – dealing with inventory expenses, receipts and disbursements, monthly reporting and balancing the books at the building level. This activity deals
with the regular operation of the schools and involves on-going paper work and record keeping.

**STRENGTHENING TEACHER RECRUITMENT, DEVELOPMENT & RETENTION**

The analytical framework for OECD’s “Attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers Project” (OECD, 2002) states that a skilled and well supported leadership team in schools can help foster a sense of ownership and purpose in the way that teachers approach their jobs. The OECD further states that conferring professional autonomy to teachers will enhance the attractiveness of the profession as a choice career and will improve the quality of the classroom teaching practice.

Spencer (2001) advances that the single most powerful recruiter of teachers are schools themselves. He opines that people who have had positive experiences in school can prolong that experience by becoming teachers. Blasé & Blasé’s (2002) study of 50 exemplary teachers in the United States and Canada found that these teachers felt they had experienced significant principal mistreatment. The adverse effects of this included early and long term psychological and emotional problems. It was also reported that physical and physiological problems damaged schools and resulted in the teachers ultimately leaving their jobs. These researchers also found that workplace abusers often target the bold, best and brightest teachers.

The OECD (2002) also advance ways in which school leaders can strengthen the recruitment, development and retention of effective teachers:

- School systems and their leaders need to consider conferring professional autonomy to teachers. It has been shown to enhance the attractiveness of the profession as a career. Teachers are attracted to and stay in the profession if they feel they belong and believe they are contributing to the success of their school and its students.

- Identification and development of potential leaders need to be formalized, rather than be left to chance. The process needs to include provision of early leadership experiences for young teachers.

- Educational interventions need to target not only the effective implementation of national programmes/priorities but also the need to progress through the inevitable developmental stages of any implementation. In targeting interventions, recognition needs to be given to the fact that it is a journey and that actions (including evaluation of success) at one stage may be inappropriate, or even counterproductive, at another stage.

- As part of their roles, school principals need to value and support teachers. They need to work with, rather than through them. Further, principals need to buffer teachers against the excesses of mounting and sometimes contradictory external
pressures. Finally, they need to focus on sustaining school improvement by building teacher and school capacity.

**SUMMARY**

Principals and other leaders within the education system are accountable to their superiors, the teachers, and students and their parents for the effective and efficient operation of the school and educational system. They must effectively manage the budget, the human resources and the learning outcomes. They will do this using a variety of resources and personnel support. They must master the tools need to manage the accountability system.

**RECOMMENDED READINGS**


[www.oecd.org.edu/teacherpolicy](http://www.oecd.org.edu/teacherpolicy)

**ACTIVITY**

At the end of the topic, you should reflect on the problems you encounter as a leader in the management of facilities, money and human resources. These problems can be documented in your portfolio, with suggestions on how they can be overcome, supported by literature.
UNIT FIVE: UNDERSTANDING YOUR LEADERSHIP STYLES

UNIT INTRODUCTION

A leader is a person who motivates and guides his subordinates, so that they perform to the best of their ability, to achieve a given set of goals. All leaders have their own leadership style for getting things done by the people working under them. Some leaders prefer that their team members merely follow and do what they have planned for them. While others believe in the theory "Two brains are better than one." and seek input from their entire team before taking important decisions. (D., Aastha, 2011).

Leadership styles refer to the broad approach adopted by a leader. A leader’s style of leadership is often based on a leader’s own beliefs, personality, experiences, working environment and the situation at the time. Some leaders work flexible and can adapt their style of leadership to meet the needs of different situations.

A number of researchers have developed leadership models based around decision-making. Each of these models look at a range of styles from ones in which the leader makes all the decisions (and imposes them on the followers, what we would call an autocratic leadership style), to ones in which the followers are allowed to make decisions on their own (what we would call a facilitative leadership style).

A key element in each of these models is the assessment of which style is most appropriate at a given point and situation and whether the followers are able and willing to make decisions without guidance. If the leader chooses the wrong style the followers may not respond the way the leader had hope. Another element is that the more flexible one is as a leader and the more able one is to judge the needs of the situation, the more likely the leader will adapt to a style that will work for the followers and the situation.

This unit will examine the different leadership styles and present instruments for assessing your own leadership styles.

UNIT OBJECTIVES

After completing this unit current and future educational leaders should be able to:

1. Compare and contrast the different leadership styles and suggest the most appropriate style/s for organisational improvement.

2. Critically analyse your own leadership style.

TOPIC 5.1 - LEADERSHIP STYLES
INTRODUCTION
A leader is a person who rules, guides and/or inspires others to achieve a common set of goals. This description effectively underlines the three main types of leadership styles, viz authoritarian, participative and delegative. To achieve organizational goals, various leadership styles and leadership attributes come into play. From Mahatma Gandhi to Warren Buffet, there are as many leadership styles as there are leaders which would make the whole aspect of leadership styles terribly confusing.

Educational leadership studies attempt to address long-standing concern of students, educators, and society as a whole. As the need to understand which types of leadership styles in education will work best, alone or in combination, it is imperative to understand these types individually in regards to their methods and what they offer.

OBJECTIVES
After completing this topic current and future educational leaders should be able to compare and contrast different leadership styles and suggest the most appropriate style/s for their organisation.

LEADERSHIP STYLES
Education leadership styles are based on the understanding that certain characteristics, such as physical energy and/or social interaction play a part in the way education is imparted. Effective leadership styles in education are about strengthening the performance of education leaders, primarily the educators, and to improve student achievement. Hence, effective leadership is crucial for teachers and students to enhance performance at the highest level.

There is no denying the fact, that there is no single best way to lead and inspire in the field of education. Each educator, as well as each school, view leadership strategies differently, based on certain situations, features and actions which seem to be far more favorable based on specific situations and personnel.

AUTHORITARIAN LEADERSHIP STYLE
The Authoritarian Leadership approach is widely considered to be the classical approach where the leader has absolute power over his workers or team. Also known as the autocratic leadership style, here the employees have no say whatsoever in the decisions made. All the decisions are taken by the leaders and the employees are expected to follow the orders without any suggestions or questions. All the decisions regarding the various questions like what, who, when, how, where are taken by the leaders. Management of the organization is based on the hierarchy of leadership.

There is no opportunity for the employees to give suggestions or use their creativity under this leadership style. This type of leadership style tends to make employees discontented
and unhappy as they are not allowed to use their decision making skills and abilities. It also leads to high levels of absenteeism and employee turnover. Hence, this leadership style in business should be rarely used. It is appropriate to use this leadership style only when decisions have to be taken quickly, when there’s no need for input, and when team agreement isn’t necessary for a successful outcome or when the job to be done is routine and unskilled. A leader can be successful only if he can wisely decide when to and when not to use this leadership style. (U., Aparna, 2010)

An autocratic leader is the one who believes in taking all the important decisions himself. It is the leader who decides how the work has to be done and by whom. Once the decision has been made, there is no scope of any change. The subordinates simply carry on with the works assigned to them. They are not allowed to give any input regarding how they should do their work or conduct daily activities. Every detail is pre-decided by the leader himself. In case some changes in the work schedule have to be made, they are made by the leader without consulting anyone else.

Autocratic leadership style works well if the leader is competent and knowledgeable enough to decide about each and everything. Authoritative methods are considered one of the most effective leadership styles in case there is some emergency and quick decisions need to be taken. If there is no time left for discussion or weighing various options, then this type of leadership style gives the best results. Authoritarian leadership styles examples can be found in the real world in people like Bill Gates and John F Kennedy. Bill Gates followed the authoritarian leadership style and steered Microsoft towards unbelievable success. According to Bill Gates, he had a vision when he took reins of the company and then used all the resources available to make that vision a reality. His success can be judged from the way personal computers industry has advanced in America today. (D. Aastha, 2011)

**PARTICIPATIVE LEADERSHIP STYLE**

In participative leadership, the leader involves his team in the decision making process, though the authority for making the final decision still rests with the leader. The leader may take the decision as per his/her opinion or may take the decision as per the consensus in the group. Also called the democratic leadership style, this style is highly appreciated by the employees as their creativity is called for and used. This type of leadership style is normally used when the leader has a part of the information, and the employees have the other part. The leader is not expected to know everything and that is where the role of the employees comes into picture.

The knowledge and skills of the employees are utilized optimally in this type of leadership style. This leadership style leads to a feeling of job satisfaction in the employees as their suggestions and creativity is valued. Though one of the most effective leadership styles, it should not be used if the decision has to be cost and time effective. Sometimes, different
ideas and perspectives from different people may lead to confusion and a delay in decision making.

Participative leadership style involves the leader taking into consideration the opinions of some of his employees before arriving at the final decision. This leadership style earns the leader immense respect and loyalty among his/her subordinates, as they feel that their opinions matter too. This leadership style is useful for the leader as he/she gets to see a given situation from all directions, before deciding on the final course of action. This leadership style works really well in situations when the leader does not know everything and he/she relies on his/her subordinate’s knowledge for taking decisions. The biggest advantage of this leadership and management style is that it helps identify future leaders among the subordinates. It also keeps a team’s spirit and morale high, as the team members feel that their opinions are valued by their leader.

**Participative Leadership Style Example**

An advertising manager approaches his team members on how to promote a particular product of a company. The team members brainstorm over the issue, some suggest print media, and others suggest direct mails to the prospective clients. The participative leader takes all these suggestions, weighs their pros and cons and then takes the final decision after considering his team members’ opinions. He shares his decision with his team members. (D. Aastha, 2011)

Participative leadership style is at its best when it is carefully executed. In such a situation, it can actually promote the growth of the organization as well as that of the employees. In simple terms, as the organization progresses, so do the employees who work towards this goal. In this process, the manager or leader learns how to take the right decision at the right time, but must ensure that the reason for siding with a particular decision is clearly explained. There is no need to be apologetic because there is a valid reason for the stand the manager is taking. A good way to make this leadership style work is to remain focused on the topic of discussion and not allow it to veer into personal or uncomfortable zones as it may sometimes. As a leader who follows such a style, you will learn to master the art of doing so over time. There are a lot of critics of the democratic leadership style, but these criticisms can be proven wrong if the style is executed intelligently and responsibly. (L., Puja, 2011)

**Delegative Leadership Style**

In this leadership style, the employees are allowed to make the decisions without any interference from the leader. However, the leader remains responsible for the outcome of the decisions made by his employees. This type of leadership style is best suited when the employees are highly motivated and skilled and have proved their mettle previously.
Understanding and confidence are the two main leadership attributes that the leader must possess to be successful in this leadership style. In a delegative approach employees may resent interference as they possess the best of knowledge and skills to make appropriate decisions and interference by a manager may lead to degradation in performance. This leadership style should only be used if the leader has utmost confidence in his employees and on his own leadership qualities. This leadership style has to be used wisely because if the employees are not capable of good decision making, then it can lead to disastrous consequences.

**Delegative Leadership Style Example**

A manager has newly joined a firm. He is still learning how various things function in the organization. In such a situation, he relies on the suggestions and opinions of his team members and lets them do the things the way they are used to, till the time he is able to gain sufficient knowledge and can suggest some more feasible changes.

A delegative leadership style is very rarely followed in modern organizations today. This leadership style gives full freedom to the subordinates while decision making or doing the tasks at hand, in any given manner they find suitable. This leadership style is mostly followed when the leader places immense faith in each and every member of his team and if he is sure that the team members are capable enough to run things themselves. This style of leadership should however be used very wisely, because if the team members lack decision making or analyzing skills, it can backfire very badly.

**DEMOCRATIC LEADERSHIP STYLE**

In a setting that allows for democratic leadership, the decision-making process and overall responsibility among the group members is shared. No decisions are made without consultation from group members by the leader, so that the final result is an outcome of group effort, and not individual choices. Tasks are delegated to subordinates where the implementation of the task is entirely in their hands. Feedback is always welcome and every member is encouraged to function as a leader in terms of decision-making and execution of decisions.

The democratic leadership style can be used in a variety of fields that involve service such as nursing and health care, creative fields where brainstorming is essential to produce effective results, and fields that involve consultancy so that various points of view help in arriving at the best decision possible. Even in the field of manufacturing or any other organization for that matter, this style facilitates the process of arriving at solutions for say cost-cutting, improvement in product quality, or improvement in the quality of customer service. This leadership style may also be applicable in the field of education in some cases.

The democratic leadership style enforces a work environment where everyone is allowed to contribute to the decision-making process. This not only gives a certain amount of
importance and authority to the group members, but also makes them more responsible as the burden of executing the choices they have made rests on their own shoulders. Involving more members in the decision-making process enables the group to reach the best solution possible.

The variety of viewpoints allows the group to deal with every challenge after analyzing each perspective, and provide solutions in the same manner. By allowing everyone to be a part of the process, this leadership style permits creativity and creative thinking. As mentioned earlier, with a multitude of brains working on any one particular project, the democratic leadership style challenges their creativity, thereby making them go beyond the usual to come up with innovative solutions. Such creativity is required and appreciated in any kind of setting. Finally, in such a setting, employees or group members learn to respect each other’s viewpoint, including that of the leader and vice versa. Since everyone is given equal opportunity, a conflict of interest is less likely when this leadership style is implemented.

One of the biggest disadvantages of the democratic leadership style as pointed out by many is the amount of time the entire decision-making process takes. Since a green signal is awaited from every member of the group, it can be a long-drawn process before any consensus is arrived at. Further, there are always chances that the manager or leader of the group may just encourage group participation and ask for their opinion on important matters, but may eventually do exactly what she/he thinks is appropriate. This means the democratic leadership styles are just a cover up for an actual autocratic leader. While a conflict of interest may be less likely, it cannot be ruled out altogether. When there are so many minds at work, it is natural for opposing points of view to be placed on the table. At a time like this, it is the leader’s job to ensure that the situation does not go out of hand. The leader will have to take a stand regarding which point of view or idea is more acceptable.

**Transformational Leadership Style**

Transformational leadership styles are based on the concept of working together to put in place a mechanism that will not only reap immediate benefits but future ones too. Although, most decisions are taken individually or by a small group of people, this leadership style opens the door wide for intellectual excitement, motivation through values and a shared vision by participation in leadership activities. A leader who follows transformational leadership fosters a sense of purpose and meaning to unite people for a better cause.

In the transformational leadership style, the leader sells his/her vision to his/her subordinates, by bringing it forth in the most passionate and appealing manner. The transformational leader motivates his/her subordinates to work for a given task with great enthusiasm. The leader genuinely cares for the welfare of his/her subordinates and wants them to learn new things and progress by working with him/her on the leader’s vision. (D. Aastha, 2011)
OTHER LEADERSHIP STYLES

Pace Setting

A pace setting leader is one who sets the pace or the rate of achieving the predetermined goals. The goals of the organization, on the whole, dictate the policies and the targets that have to be accomplished by all the team members under the supervision of the leader. A pace setting leader often disregards the potential of the employees while allocating targets. In other words, personal and professional aspirations and growth may be sacrificed at the altar of beliefs and convictions of the team leader.

Coaching

This style of leadership involves a bit of hand-holding. The leader aims to provide the necessary support and reassurance to the team members in order to help them develop their strengths and align their goals with the goals of the organization. In other words, the leader adopts a focused approach and coaches the team members thus minimizing the risk of possible deviations from predetermined goals.

Visionary

A visionary leader is one who envisions the future, revels in the possibilities of what could be and inspires people to perceive things the way they ought to be. A visionary leader has the capacity to foresee the future and hopes to accomplish a distant dream. In other words, these leaders chart their own path and undertake calculated risks hoping to make today's dream tomorrow's reality.
Affiliative

This style of leadership focuses on renewing a sense of kinship and building trust among various factions whose cooperation is desirable for promoting the goals of the organization. An affiliative leader tends to adopt an empathetic approach. However, in an effort to appease people and help them realize their true potential, there is a danger of the goals of the organization getting side tracked.

Commanding

The futility of this style of leadership has been realized over time and has resulted in abating the popularity of this style of leadership. A commanding style of leadership is akin to dictatorship where there is no room for expression or willful action. A commanding leader is effective in war like situations where time is of the essence. Communicating decisions and waiting for the appropriate response is a luxury that cannot be afforded.

SUMMARY

Depending on the situation, one has to choose between the different leadership styles and settle on an effective leadership style. Pace setting leadership is a must when people are in doubt regarding the suitable course of action. Democratic leadership is appropriate when team members have attained a high level of consciousness and can contribute constructively towards the attainment of goals. Coaching is feasible when the organization is at the mature growth stage and leaders can afford to contribute towards the overall development of the employees. An environment where people have conflicting views requires the mediation of an affiliative leader. A visionary leader hopes to achieve a target that is at best a distant dream, an inconceivable reality for others, and hence is an asset to any organization. (L., Aparna, 2010)

What works best for which institution and how it needs to be, is based on careful strategic planning and consideration of its vision. Ideally, a leader should use strategies and options flexibly to balance both; short-term and long-term goals, and above all, must serve the institutional values. To ensure that different types of leadership styles in education is delivered in the best manner, and the way it has been designed to be imparted by the teachers and perceived by students, policy makers and educational leaders are providing state-of-the art programs for leadership courses that help in learning to do service towards the field of education. (R., Loveleena 2011)
**Topic 5.2 - Measuring Leadership Styles**

**Introduction**
There is little doubt that leadership is a critical catalyst for driving value. However, one thing that seems to be missing is some form of measurement. If we fail to measure leadership, how can we understand if it exists and to what extent does it influence and drive performance.

The good news is that many of the characteristics of leadership are well documented; allowing researchers to create models to measure leadership styles. Since leadership tends to be very intangible, thus the approach to leadership measurement is more casual when compared to traditional measurements such as financial metrics. For example, simple feedback may suffice over hard measurements, such as a peer review survey. However, just like any measurement process, researchers look for consistent trends to flag action items for improvement.

Before you embark on measuring your own leadership style, let's make sure that you understand what the instruments capture. Leadership is basically the capacity of someone to bring about change. Using this definition, we need to make sure we cast a wide net with our measurement of leadership. This helps ensure that we recognize where the real leadership is at which in turn allows us to leverage it for greater organizational performance.

**Objective**
After completing this topic current and future educational leaders should be able to use the most appropriate instrument/s to measure his or her leadership style and recommend areas for improvement.

**Measuring Leadership**
One of the most accepted models for measuring leadership comes from James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner, authors of the book ‘The Leadership Challenge: How to Keep Getting Extra Ordinary Things Done in Organizations’. Kouzes and Posner have devised the so-called Leadership Practices Inventory or LPI.

The LPI Measurement Model uses a series of questions to assess leadership effectiveness. People under a designated leader are observers, evaluating leaders on a series of qualities, such as:

- Discusses future trends on how I can change my work
- Provides positive feedback on accomplishments.
- Follows through on promises.
• Treats others with respect.
• Solicits feedback and opinions from others.

The leader is also required to assess his or her leadership based on several behaviours, such as:

• Sets a good personal example.
• Actively listens to other viewpoints.
• Supports others in their decisions.
• Willing to take certain risks and experiment.

Collectively we can take these answers and assess leadership effectiveness. The LPI Model also establishes several best practices in leadership, such as:

• Challenge an existing process in a positive way.
• Share your knowledge and power, enabling others to act.
• Openly recognizing performance so as to encourage others to perform.

For organizations not interested in formal models such as LPI, the organization might want to fall back on self-awareness tests such as Meyers Briggs or evaluation forms for assessing Emotional Intelligence, or the 360degrees feedback. Regardless of how your organization measures leadership, the key is to have some basis for measurement. Leadership is way too important to ignore and given all the published materials available about leadership, there's no excuse for not measuring it.

Finally, don't restrict your leadership assessments to just management positions. The overall goal should be to capture and report the essence of what leadership is – the capacity to produce change. Using this broad definition, your organization may want to measure leadership at several organizational levels since all types of positions can qualify. By casting a wide net, the organization will leverage and maximize the benefits of measuring leadership.

**Measuring Leadership Style**
There are three broad categories of leadership measurement. The first category of leadership measurement is in the subjective realm. When subjective measurements are mentioned, people have the tendency to dismiss them. But can the subjective measurements of your organization tell you how effective the leadership is? Absolutely.
First you must take an honest look at the overall morale of the organization. Is it deflating or non-existent? Or is morale high, even in the face of new challenges and obstacles? Low morale is a good indicator that leadership is not effective. What about participation and attendance? For example, if you begin to offer "town hall" style meetings or "brown bag" lunch sessions, are you hard pressed to find anyone who is interested? If you have to beg people to communicate or improve, that's another subjective measurement of leadership. Is innovation a part of everyday life at your organization? What about continuous process improvement? Do people feel comfortable speaking out when they see inefficiency better ways to do things? If not, this is a definite sign that leadership needs to step up.

From subjective observations, you can move into numbers-based metrics. Often, the numbers of the organization can tell you if leadership is effective. For example, what does productivity look like now as opposed to last year? Is a temporary "dip" occurring, or is the trend headed down? Other areas of measurement for leaders can be efficiency and mistakes. Are employees making fewer or more mistakes now? Are the errors being corrected in a timely manner, or are they being left to languish? How are student grades? Are numbers up or steady, even when times are bad? Take a close look at your student services, both internally and externally. Are there numerous complaints making it to your level, or are they being resolved at lower levels? You can look at the metrics that are used to determine the health of the organization and make a link back to leadership, especially on those metrics that are not linked to pay or bonuses. Remember that poor organizational performance can be related to many issues, such as change in demographics, poor positioning, or just bad economics. But also keep in mind that by taking a serious look at these metrics, you can adjust leadership accordingly.

Another method of measuring leadership effectiveness is the implementation of a leadership index. An index is a targeted measurement tool that associates/subordinates complete regarding their managers or leaders. Essentially, it's an evaluation of the leader using the skills, behaviors, and attitudes that are found to be appropriate for the organization. In simple terms, you may see questions such as; the person "treats me with respect" and "helps me work on continuous improvement". The evaluator is asked to give anonymous, confidential answers about the leader. The leader gets to see his or her results and can work on a development plan from those results. There are numerous systems that can create the leadership index for the organization, or you can do it on your own. The main thing to remember is that using generic leadership behaviors, skills, and attitudes will not give you the best picture of effectiveness. The organization must determine what skills and behaviors are most appropriate to its leaders.

One of the final methods of measuring leadership effectiveness is related to the leadership index. You can measure leadership potential. Using a similar index, the organization can measure how leaders are being groomed and encouraged at lower levels. A large number of potential leaders tell you that leadership is effective at the organization - and that it is
catching on at all levels. The fact that a leadership pool is developing on its own tells you that your leaders are indeed leading effectively.

The most common measures are self-administered paper-and-pencil instruments. These typically ask subjects to agree or disagree with statements about their behaviours or beliefs, often using a Likert-type scale (1 means "always" and 5 means "never"). In some cases, a similar instrument is given to superiors or subordinates, asking them to rate the leader on the same criteria. Scoring of these instruments is done in several ways. In some cases, the test must be sent to the publisher for scoring; sometimes it can be scored locally; and sometimes it can be scored by anyone who has received special training or certification. The meaning of the scores is determined by comparing the scores to others who have taken the test or to a group of proved leaders. In most cases, certain answers are presumed to be better (more predictive of future success); a high score on "problem-solving" is considered preferable to a low score. (Lashway, 19997).

**THE MULTIFACTOR LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE**

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) measures the concepts of transformational and transactional leadership. The MLQ has undergone various revisions over the years and has achieved a set of items that are clear, behaviourally based, and so central to the concepts that there are only four items per concept (scale); and yet the MLQ consistently shows excellent validity and prediction of leader and organizational performance.

The MLQ has become the benchmark measure of Transformational Leadership. The MLQ measures and the MLQ report make personal to individuals how they relate on the key factors that set truly exceptional leaders apart from marginal ones. Valid across cultures and all types of organizations, it is easy to administer, requires 15 minutes for a rater to complete the 45 questions. It has been extensively researched and validated, documented in numerous journal articles and independent studies. Among leadership assessment methods, the MLQ provides the best relationship of "survey data" to "organizational outcome".

The classic form (MLQ 5X Short) of the MLQ includes both self and rater forms. The self-form measures self-perception of leadership behaviours. The rater form is used to measure leadership as perceived by people at a higher level, same level, or lower level in the organization than the leader. Each form is 45 questions. The ideal number of raters for a leader is 8-10, with at least 3 in the subordinate category. The MLQ also includes 9 outcome items rating the leader’s effectiveness and the satisfaction the rater has for the leader. The rater form is at the heart of the MLQ and may be used without the leader form if desired. The leader form serves to provide a contrast between how the leader perceives herself/himself and how others perceive him/her. Validity is documented for the rater...
form, however there is no relationship between a leader's self-rating and organizational performance.

The MLQ, in its measurement of Transformational and Transactional Leadership, reflects on leadership behaviour. It provides a contrast between how the leader sees himself or herself versus how others see him or her. The perceptions of others form critical feedback to the leader and provide specific information to that leader to provide a basis for growth and change. Frequently, the MLQ is administered before and after leadership training programs to focus the training and to measure the effect of these programs.

THE 360 DEGREE FEEDBACK

360 Degree Feedback is a system or process in which employees receive confidential, anonymous feedback from the people who work around them. This typically includes the employee’s manager, peers, and direct reports. A mixture of about eight to twelve people fill out an anonymous online feedback form that asks questions covering a broad range of workplace competencies. The feedback forms include questions that are measured on a rating scale and also ask raters to provide written comments. The person receiving feedback also fills out a self-rating survey that includes the same survey questions that others receive in their forms.

360 Feedback can also be a useful development tool for people who are not in a management role. Strictly speaking, a "non-manager" 360 assessment is not measuring feedback from 360 degrees since there are no direct reports, but the same principles still apply. 360 Feedback for non-managers is useful to help people be more effective in their current roles, and also to help them understand what areas they should focus on if they want to move into a management role.

How is 360 Degree Feedback Used?

- **360 Feedback as a Development Tool to help employees recognize strengths and weaknesses and become more effective.**

  When done properly, 360 is highly effective as a development tool. The feedback process gives people an opportunity to provide anonymous feedback to a co-worker that they might otherwise be uncomfortable giving. Feedback recipients gain insight into how others perceive them and have an opportunity to adjust behaviours and develop skills that will enable them to excel at their jobs.

- **360 Feedback as a Performance Appraisal Tool to measure employee performance.**

  Using a 360 degree feedback system for Performance Appraisal is a common practice, but not always a good idea. It is difficult to properly structure a 360 feedback process that creates an atmosphere of trust when you use 360
evaluations to measure performance. Moreover, 360 feedback focuses on
behaviours and competencies more than on basic skills, job requirements, and
performance objectives. These things are most appropriately addressed by an
employee and his/her manager as part of an annual review and performance
appraisal process. It is certainly possible and can be beneficial to incorporate 360
feedback into a larger performance management process, but only with clear
communication on how the 360 feedback will be used.

Competency Models for 360 Feedback Surveys

The first thing to decide is whether you want to work from an existing competency model
or develop your own. Resist the temptation to re-invent the wheel. Many companies
spend a great deal of time and effort creating a "unique" competency model for their 360
degree feedback program which ends up looking quite similar to our existing competency
model.

If you will use 360 feedback surveys on a limited basis in your organization, consider using
an existing competency model, perhaps with some minor adjustments to the evaluation
form as needed.

For a company-wide 360 degree feedback program, you may want to spend some time
developing a more unique competency model that incorporates your organization’s
leadership model and core values as well as the behaviours and performance standards
that are expected of all employees.

Establishing the Core of your 360 Competency Model

Some aspects of your competency model will be the same for all employees, regardless of
function or level within the organization. We will call this your "core". The core of your 360
survey will include the following:

- Items related to the institution values, mission, and vision.
- Competencies and expectations that apply to all employees, from the leaders down
to the individual contributor.

Many competencies or behavioural categories will apply to employees at all levels, but the
specific behaviours in each area will often differ. For example, "Interpersonal Skills" are
important for everybody, but the expectations and requirements related to "Interpersonal
Skills" will be quite different at different levels in the organization.

Other competencies will only be relevant at certain levels. For example, "Building Talent" is
an important area for mid-level management and above, but not at all relevant to non-
managers.
BEYOND THE CORE
It is less important to distinguish between functional area, especially for mid-level management and above. Focus on identifying 3 or 4 distinct vertical levels within your organization. For example:

1. Senior Leaders.
2. Mid-upper Managers.
3. Lower-level / First-line Managers.
4. Individual Contributors (Non-managers).

For each of the 3-4 levels, the competency model will start with the "core", but also include the specific behaviours needed to succeed at each level.

Remember - don't reinvent the wheel. As you develop your competency models, reference our standard competency model as it will help you fill in the gaps as you create your own. The top-level categories that we use are based on statistical analyses and field experience. Our top-level 360 categories are:

- Knowledge/Strategic.
- Character.
- Interpersonal.
- Innovation/Change.
- Building Talent.
- Leadership/Motivation.
- Execution.

TEN MISTAKES THAT CAUSE A 360 DEGREE FEEDBACK PROGRAMME TO FAIL

1. Ineffective Assessment Items

If you are not asking the right questions, how can you expect to get good data? You need to consider organisational expectations as well as job-specific competencies. Moreover, your assessment items need to be well written to gather the data you are looking for. Poorly written items will yield useless data. Garbage in-Garbage out....

2. Lack of Alignment with the Organization's vision, Mission, and Strategy
If the things you are measuring are not important to the organization’s vision, mission, and strategy, then employees will not be developing competencies that are aligned with the direction of the organization.

3. Lack of Senior-Level Support

If the leaders of your organization do not vocally support and encourage participation in the feedback programme and express their belief in the benefits it will provide, your 360 initiative will never get off the ground.

4. Lack of Communication

You MUST communicate with both the people receiving feedback and the people getting feedback. If you do not tell them what, why, how, and when, they will not be comfortable with the programme. You must get buy-in at all levels of your organisation to make it work.

5. Fear/Lack of Trust

If participants are afraid to get feedback or if respondents are afraid to provide feedback, you will be fighting an up-hill battle. Communication helps reduce fear. One of the most effective ways to reduce anxiety is to use a neutral third party to administer your feedback programme.

6. Poor Planning

If your feedback programme is not well thought out, it will not run smoothly. There are many logistical issues to consider before launching a feedback programme. If your employees perceive that the programme is not well planned, your credibility will be undermined.

7. Inappropriate Delivery of Feedback

The idea of a feedback programme is to help employees perform better. Negative feedback can be demoralising and counterproductive. If feedback is not provided in an appropriate manner, your programme could backfire. We recommend using professional, neutral coaches to deliver feedback.

8. No Development Plan

So what if you run a smooth 360 degree programme? If you fail to do anything with the data, you have wasted your time as well as the time of both participants and respondents. Every person who receives feedback needs to create some developmental goals based on the feedback he or she received—and remember—those goals need to be both measurable and achievable.
9. No Accountability

Developmental goals are meaningless unless people are held accountable for achieving them. Make sure your employees and their managers understand how to create S.M.A.R.T goals-specific, Measurable, Attainable, Realistic and Timely.

10. No Follow-Up

How will you know if your programme has been a success if you do not follow up? How will the participants know that they are improving without follow-up feedback? Plan to solicit additional feedback six to twelve months after the initial data are collected.

NB: Sample of a 360 Degree Feedback Survey is provided in Appendix One.

360 Degree Evaluation-Delivering Feedback

You should start planning how feedback will be delivered before you even start gathering data. The plan should be communicated to those people who will be receiving feedback and perhaps also to those people providing the feedback. Once you are prepared to present the feedback results to participants, keep in mind the suggestions below.

Remember your purpose

Remember why you are asking employees to go through the 360 evaluation process. If your mission is employee development, make sure feedback is provided in a confidential, non-threatening manner. If participants feel threatened by getting feedback, they will be less open to receiving it.

Assuming your 360 evaluation programme is focused on development; do not provide feedback in a vacuum. Consider hiring professional and neutral consultants who are experienced at delivering 360 feedback and coaching employees to improve. If feedback is negative, it can be demoralising and counterproductive. Employees should have access to a neutral person who can help them understand their feedback and create a plan for development. If consultants are not in your budget or the scope of your project, make sure employees have a trusted HR person available.

Do not provide feedback in a vacuum

Yes- we are repeating ourselves….. Feedback can be very demoralising if it is negative. Often, feedback includes indications of both strengths and weaknesses, and it is easy for a recipient to focus on the negative, even if he or she is generally doing a good job. A professional coach or HR representative can help employees identify their strengths and weakness and create a development plan that helps the employee become more effective.

Create a Development Plan
The 360 evaluation process and feedback should lead to developmental goals. These goals should be tailored to each participant, and they need to fit with your organization’s vision, mission, and strategy. Remember that developmental goals need to be measurable and achievable. Ideally, a participant should focus on about 3 to 5 goals in key areas that need improvement. Be sure you have a process in place to hold people accountable for achieving their goals.

**Follow Up**

How are you going to know if your 360 programme is working if you do not follow up? Plan to follow up with another round of feedback anywhere from 6 to 12 months after the initial feedback is collected. This is the only way you will be able to see if employees are benefiting from the feedback they received. Also, be sure to communicate to participants that they will be getting follow-up feedback. This will help create a sense of accountability. In order to ease the burden on respondents, you might want to consider an abbreviation version of the original 360 for the follow-up feedback that focuses on these competencies related to the participant’s developmental goals.

**Ready to Launch?**

Double check that you have thought through the entire process before you start collecting feedback. Careful planning and communication are essential to a successful 360 evaluation programme. Timely delivery of the data is also important, so do wait until the data is in to think about what you are going to do with them.

360 degree is a great tool for measuring leadership qualities and for fast and effective improvement. If handled right by the facilitator, and if the subject (the leader) actually uses the results, 360 degree feedback can lead to greater self-awareness, powerful skill-building and inspired and inspiring leaders.

**Final Advice**

It is helpful to ask someone in your organization to brainstorm with you other action steps you can take. In addition, we recommend that you ask this person to help hold you accountable for carrying out these steps. We recommend that you fill out this instrument again in three months to check on your progress.

NB: Sample of ‘The leader behaviour checklist’ as Appendix two.

**CONCLUSION**

Using an assessment instrument as the foundation for a leadership development initiative can be very beneficial for an organization. It provides a level of knowledge and insight that cannot be gained in any other way, and the data collected can be extremely helpful in both
individual and organizational development. However, it is absolutely critical to use an instrument that will provide accurate and meaningful data. (Sawgen, C., et al. 2010)

Activity

Take the time to look at your organization, its size, and its leadership requirements and then determine what measurement/s will be appropriate to measure the leadership style. Use the most appropriate measurement to collect data on the style of leadership, analyse the data and make recommendations. Draw your action plan for improvement and monitor. As you progress through your action plan make your entries in your journal.

REFERENCES

Dogra, A., (2011), Different styles of Leadership-Six Leadership Styles. Available at:www.buzzle.com/articles/leadership-


COURSE SUMMARY

**Summary**

Effective and situation appropriate leadership is essential to the success of any education system. Leaders must establish a vision and choose a leadership style that encourages teachers and other stakeholders in the organization to move towards that vision. An effective leader will employ a variety of leadership methods and techniques.

As a future educational leader you must become familiar with the various leadership styles described in this course. You must continue to grow as a leader by reading more about successful educational leaders. You must be willing to experiment and try different leadership styles. You must gauge your employees and your organization and embrace a leadership approach that is suited to your audience and to organizational goals and vision.

Hopefully this course has started you on the path of becoming an effective leader.

**Final Assignment/Project**

A Final assignment or major project will be assigned by your course instructor. Some potential assignments/projects could include:

1. Completing a self-analysis of your current leadership style and exploring how you must change based on your current organization and its human resources.

2. Interview three successful educational leaders within your educational system. Determine their type of leadership approach. Compare and contrast their leadership styles. Describe their vision and goals for their organization. Describe their employee population and their reaction to their leader’s style of leadership. Examine how they succeeded where others have failed.
APPENDIX ONE - THE LEADER BEHAVIOUR CHECKLIST

PURPOSE
The Leader Behaviour Checklist is a self-improvement tool to help people in leadership positions recognise and improve critical behaviours that are known to be effective in setting direction and inspiring others in an organization.

HOW THIS INSTRUMENT IS DIFFERENT
This instrument is designed to measure “leadership” behaviours as opposed to “management” behaviours. Examples of management behaviours are the tasks involved in planning, budgeting, organizing, staffing, controlling and problem solving. Leadership behaviours are characteristically different. As Bemis has said, leaders define what the future looks like, align people with that vision, and inspire them to make it happen despite the obstacles. Managers ensure organizations run smoothly, leaders create change.

In most leadership positions, people must be effective as both a manager and a leader. The most effective people are those who can easily switch back and forth between these two roles. The purpose of this instrument is to help people focus and improve their performance in the leadership role required by their position.

FACTORS MEASURED BY THE CHECKLIST
The factors assessed by this instrument are derived from a leadership model based on the following definition of leadership:

Leadership is an interpersonal influence process of setting direction and inspiring others to achieve goals.

The factors on this instrument all help define the kinds of behaviours involved in “setting direction” and in “inspiring others,” and is based on published research, the ideas of various authors in the leadership literature, and our own experience in observing and developing leaders in organizations across a variety of industries for the last fifteen years.

INSTRUCTIONS
The following Leader Behaviour Checklist will ask questions about behaviours you may or may not exhibit. You will rate yourself on a scale from 1-4, based on the degree to which you perform each behaviour. The behaviours are divided into several categories so you can determine your strengths and weaknesses in the various different aspects of leadership.

NOTE
This instrument is designed to be generic enough to be applicable for all levels of leadership.
Therefore, a senior executive, a department head, a supervisor, and even a team leader should be able to fill out this checklist. The word “organization,” as mentioned on several items, should thus be interpreted to refer to a company, division, department, or team, depending on your leadership role in the organization.

**Scoring the Leader Behaviour Checklist**

**STEP 1** - Calculate the total number of points for each of the nine factors measured on the instrument. Enter each score, called the “raw” score, in the space provided in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Factor Raw Score</th>
<th>Raw Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Communicating Purpose and Direction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Communicating and Behaving According to Values</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Showing Enthusiasm for People</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Instilling in People the Belief they are Powerful</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. Being Consistent in the Face of Adversity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. Planning and Leading Change</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. Releasing Potential and Energy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. Creating a Flexible and “Ready-for-Change” Culture</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I. Developing Leaders in the Organization</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**STEP 2** - Determine a “Converted Score” for each Factor by looking up the raw score range in the columns of the Table below. Table entries are raw score ranges for each Factor.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Factor</th>
<th>Converted Score = 1</th>
<th>Converted Score = 2</th>
<th>Converted Score = 3</th>
<th>Converted Score = 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>(8 – 12)</td>
<td>(13 – 20)</td>
<td>(21–28)</td>
<td>(29 or higher)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>(10 – 15)</td>
<td>(16 – 25)</td>
<td>(26 – 35)</td>
<td>(36 or higher)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>(6 – 9)</td>
<td>(10 – 15)</td>
<td>(16 – 21)</td>
<td>(22 or higher)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>(7 – 11)</td>
<td>(12 – 18)</td>
<td>(19 – 24)</td>
<td>(25 or higher)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>(3 – 4)</td>
<td>(6 – 8)</td>
<td>E (9 – 11)</td>
<td>(12 or higher)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>(8 – 12)</td>
<td>(13 – 20)</td>
<td>(21 – 28)</td>
<td>(29 or higher)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
STEP 3 - Enter the Converted Score for each Factor in the Table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Factor</th>
<th>Converted Score = 1</th>
<th>Converted Score = 2</th>
<th>Converted Score = 3</th>
<th>Converted Score = 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>(7 – 11)</td>
<td>(12 – 18)</td>
<td>(19 – 24)</td>
<td>(25 or higher)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>(8 – 12)</td>
<td>(13 – 20)</td>
<td>(21 – 28)</td>
<td>(29 or higher)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>(4 – 6)</td>
<td>(7 – 10)</td>
<td>(11 – 14)</td>
<td>(15 or higher)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**YOUR LEADER BEHAVIOUR PROFILE**

The Leader Behaviour Profile is a graphical representation of your scores on the Leader Behaviour Checklist. To draw your profile, plot the “Converted Score” for each Factor by circling the appropriate number below. To complete your “picture,” draw lines to connect the circles.

A. Communicating purpose and direction 1 2 3 4

B. Communicating and behaving according to values 1 2 3 4

C. Showing enthusiasm for people 1 2 3 4

D. Instilling in people the belief they are powerful 1 2 3 4

E. Being consistent in the face of adversity 1 2 3 4

F. Planning and leading change 1 2 3 4

G. Releasing potential and energy 1 2 3 4

H. Creating a flexible and “ready-for-change” culture 1 2 3 4

I. Developing leaders in the organization 1 2 3 4

**INTERPRETING AND USING SCORES FROM THE LEADER BEHAVIOUR CHECKLIST**

Scores on each factor range from Level Four (the highest) through Level One (the lowest). In terms of leadership effectiveness, factor scores of 3 and 4 indicate areas of strength, whereas scores of 1 and 2 indicate opportunities for improvement. In general, the more scores of 3 and 4 that an individual has, the more likely it is that they are engaged in behaviours that are known to be characteristic of effective leaders.

Brief interpretative notes on each factor are given below:

**A. Communicating purpose and direction**

---

*Foundations of Educational Leadership*
This factor measures the extent to which a leader is engaged in the behaviours that are needed to ensure that the organization has a clear understanding of its purpose (mission) and direction (vision). Further, this factor assesses if the leader has done those things that are needed to ensure that the organization stays focused on the items with the highest priority. Scores of 3 or 4 indicate that the leader has introspected about these issues and has spent time figuring out the best way to communicate these important concepts of purpose and direction throughout the organization.

B. Communicating and Behaving According to Values

There is considerable evidence that people admire and are inspired by leaders that behave consistently according to values, and in particular, the value of integrity. This factor on the checklist measures the extent to which a leader is doing those things that will ensure that others in the organization unambiguously understand the principles for which the leader stands. Scores of 3 or 4 indicate the leader has communicated and acted according to values, and that people in the organization understand those values.

C. Showing Enthusiasm for People

Many effective leaders have an ability to show support and enthusiasm for people in the organization. This factor on the checklist captures those behaviours that best characterize this trait. Leaders with scores of 3 or 4 on this factor are more likely to show trust in people, show enthusiasm for people, fight for resources people need to be successful, and use expert power and reference power to influence people rather than position power, reward power, or coercive power.

D. Instilling in People the Belief They Are Powerful

Research has shown that one main effect that extraordinary leaders have on people is to make them feel as if they can accomplish anything. This checklist factor measures the extent to which the leader engages in the behaviours that will help people feel important and powerful. Leaders with scores of 3 or 4 are more likely to spend time on arranging conditions so that people experience success. This includes putting the right people in the right jobs, putting in place the support they need to be successful, and then giving people the discretion to act.

E. Being Consistent in the Face of Adversity

This factor was included based on research showing that people tend to admire and follow leaders who hold to a course of action, even in the face of adversity. Thus,
leaders with scores of 3 or 4 on this factor tend to persevere during difficult times and take stands on issues, even when their decision might not be the easiest or most popular course of action.

F. Planning and Leading Change

The checklist items on this factor assess the extent to which a leader carries out the behaviours needed to produce change in organizations. Most leadership authorities understand that leading change is a quintessential leadership role. Leaders who score 3 or 4 on this factor tend to effectively communicate a vision and reason for change, as well as a sense of urgency for the change. They also act to involve key stakeholders, ensure that expectations and roles are defined, and that the support structure is in place for change to be successful.

G. Releasing Potential and Energy

This factor assesses the extent to which the leader carries out the actions needed to “release” the full potential and energy of the organization. These behaviours include tearing down internal “silos” in the organizations, improving communication across the organization, and ensuring that people have interesting and challenging things to do. Leaders with score of 3 or 4 have the ability to create “intrinsic” motivation in an organization, which includes providing autonomy for people in their jobs, encouraging the use of the variety of talents that group have, and helping people feel a sense of “ownership” in the organization.

H. Creating a Flexible and “Ready-for-Change” Culture

This factor measures a different aspect of the leader’s role in leading change than measured by Factor F. The emphasis on this checklist factor is on leader behaviours that are needed to create a business literate organization that is better able to understand and react quickly to any change. Leaders who score 3 or 4 on this factor are those who are able to install the cultural elements that are needed to allow change to “emerge” from anywhere in the organization.

I. Developing Leaders in the Organization

This factor measures the extent to which the leader understands that a critical leader role is to teach, coach and develop the talent within the organization. Leaders who score 3 or 4 on this factor put an emphasis on developing others and spend time teaching and coaching their staff and peers.

**Using the Leader Behaviour Profile for Self-Improvement**

Profile Interpretation
Look first at the factors with the highest scores. These are the leadership strengths that you have, particularly those that have a score of 4. Next, look at the factors with the lowest scores. These are the areas where you could make improvements. As effective you are as a leader, these are the areas that, if you can develop them, will help make you even more successful.

**Improvement Goals**

In the space below, list the two or three leadership factors in which you would like to further develop as a leader. These should be your three lowest scores from the profile.

1. __________________________________________________
2. __________________________________________________
3. __________________________________________________

**Action Steps**

To help you identify more specific behaviours you can work on, return to the individual items under each Factor on the Checklist that you want to develop. Use the lower scores on these items to help you develop specific action steps you can carry out. For example, if under the Releasing Potential and Energy Factor, you scored low on #6- “I demonstrate listening by seeking input and following through on discussions.” Then, an action item might be: “I will work over the next 3 months to seek input from my staff and follow-up on action items that result from meetings with my staff.”

List below one or more specific actions you can take to make improvements in the leadership areas specified in your improvement goals above. Be sure to include a timeframe in which you intend to work on the items so you can monitor your improvements.

1. __________________________________________________
2. __________________________________________________
3. __________________________________________________
4. __________________________________________________
5. __________________________________________________
APPENDIX TWO: SAMPLE OF 360 DEGREE FEEDBACK SURVEYS

The evaluation forms for employees at different levels will have a lot of overlap in some areas, but differ significantly in other areas. Listed below are some sample 360 survey categories, with examples of how the assessment items might differ for senior leaders and non-managers.

Note that neither of these lists is a complete 360 degree feedback survey. A complete 360 feedback evaluation form would include additional categories.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Middle- to Upper-Level Manager, Organizational Leader</th>
<th>Non-Manager</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Character</td>
<td>• Character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Eagerly pursues new knowledge, skills, and methods</td>
<td>• Patient when necessary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Knows own strengths and limitations</td>
<td>• Self confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Personally committed to the strategy</td>
<td>• Open to feedback and criticism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Makes decisions based on business needs rather than personal agenda</td>
<td>• Avoids negative politicking and hidden agendas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Self confident</td>
<td>• Willing to take a courageous stand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Open to feedback and criticism</td>
<td>• Trusts others appropriately</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Avoids negative politicking and hidden agendas</td>
<td>• Respected by others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Willing to take a courageous stand</td>
<td>• Sincere and straightforward</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Trusts others appropriately</td>
<td>• Serves others; avoids selfishness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Respected by others</td>
<td>• Accepts responsibility for own mistakes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Sincere and straightforward</td>
<td>• Can be trusted with sensitive information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Serves others; avoids selfishness</td>
<td>• Eagerly pursues new knowledge, skills, and methods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Accepts responsibility for own mistakes</td>
<td>• Knows own strengths and limitations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle- to Upper-Level Manager, Organizational Leader</td>
<td>Non-Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can be trusted with sensitive information</td>
<td>Avoids bias in attitude or treatment of people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patient when necessary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoids bias in attitude or treatment of people</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Interpersonal Skills**

- Resolves conflicts among team members
- Brings conflicts into the open for resolution
- Listens effectively
- Encourages open dialog
- Gives personal attention; is accessible
- Adjusts to changes without frustration
- Preserves others’ self esteem
- Earns respect without being overbearing
- Recognizes the value of people with different talents and skills

**Building Talent**

- Gives me enough feedback
- Gives feedback accurately and fairly
- Makes performance review a meaningful experience
- Develops a talented team
- Judges the capabilities of people accurately
- Keeps talented people challenged
- Develops bench strength for the future
- Develops career paths for talented

**Interpersonal Skills**

- Recognizes the value of people with different talents and skills
- Brings conflicts into the open for resolution
- Listens effectively
- Adjusts to changes without frustration

**Building Talent**

- none
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Middle- to Upper-Level Manager, Organizational Leader</th>
<th>Non-Manager</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>employees</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Knows employee needs for development</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Provides cross-training and job rotations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership/Motivation</td>
<td>Motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Makes a compelling case for his/her point of view</td>
<td>• Makes a compelling case for his/her point of view</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Effectively persuades others in order to build commitment for ideas</td>
<td>• Effectively persuades others in order to build commitment for ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Communicates an inspiring vision</td>
<td>• Conducts effective meetings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Helps people develop passion for their work</td>
<td>• Sensitive to satisfaction and morale in the group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Recognizes employee contributions and ideas</td>
<td>• Provides a positive example; &quot;walks the talk&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Sensitive to satisfaction and morale in the group</td>
<td>• Tolerates honest mistakes as learning experiences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Generates urgency in others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Recognizes and rewards high performers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Provides a positive example; &quot;walks the talk&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Creates an atmosphere that inspires others to achieve at a higher level</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Helps staff define clear objectives</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Regularly reviews objectives with staff</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Involves employees in decisions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Delegates enough work</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Delegates authority; encourages independence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Sets clear deadlines</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle- to Upper-Level Manager, Organizational Leader</td>
<td>Non-Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Facilitates rather than dominates</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Manages costs without alienating work force</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Communicates reasons for changes and decisions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Conducts effective meetings</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Manages people according to their unique needs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Tolerates honest mistakes as learning experiences</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Articulates the strategy in plain language</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX TWO: THE LEADER BEHAVIOUR CHECKLIST

Instructions: Place a checkmark in the appropriate column.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behaviour</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>A. Communicating Purpose and Direction</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I have developed a way of describing our overall purpose (mission)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that is brief and easily understood by people</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I have developed a vision of what we can become as an organization</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that is both brief and inspiring to people</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I take every occasion I can to discuss our purpose (mission) and our</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>direction (vision) and relate it to what we are presently doing.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I can communicate a sense of urgency around what we do as an organization or what priorities we are focusing on now.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I ensure that we develop a small set of annual priorities that will</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>focus our energy and resources, rather than a large set that will diffuse</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>our efforts.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I work hard on how best to communicate our annual priorities in a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clear and succinct way throughout the organization.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Our communication is such that all people in the organization both</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>understand and can cite our annual priorities, if asked.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I will take a stand, when needed, to ensure the organization stays</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>focused and on course.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>B. Communicating and Behaving According to Values</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I have thought carefully and have identified the principles that I</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stand for personally.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I have written these principles on paper and tested them against</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>people who know me well.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Behaviour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4 – I have done this very well</th>
<th>3 – I have done this somewhat well</th>
<th>2 – I need some improvement</th>
<th>1 – I have not yet started to do this</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3. I have worked hard to reduce these principles to a small set of ideas that can be easily communicated.</td>
<td>4. I communicate these principles to others as often as I can.</td>
<td>5. I behave consistently according to these principles.</td>
<td>6. I make important decisions according to these principles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I take a stand when violations of these principles are at stake.</td>
<td>8. I try to be the source and model of integrity and values in the organization.</td>
<td>9. I keep the commitments I make as a model to the organization.</td>
<td>10. If you were to ask a sample of people in the organization what I stand for, they would accurately give you the ideas I stand for.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### C. Showing Enthusiasm for People

1. I take the time occasionally to express publicly the pride I have for the people of the organization.
2. I influence people through my ideas and my behaviour, rather than through the use of my position power.
3. I show trust in the people who work in the organization.
4. I show enthusiasm for individual and group accomplishment.
5. I fight for resources for the people in my organization (team, department, division, etc.).
6. I vary my leadership style to match the abilities, needs, and level of maturity of the person with whom I’m dealing.

### D. Instilling in People the Belief They are Powerful

1. I have learned to step aside and let others do their jobs.
### Behaviour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behaviour</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. I work hard to make people feel needed, important, and powerful.</td>
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<td>3. I develop the skill levels of people so they can accomplish their objectives.</td>
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<td>4. I arrange conditions so that people can experience success.</td>
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<td>5. I set clear boundaries, and then allow people the discretion to act within those boundaries.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. I ensure that I have the right people in the right jobs to match their abilities and maximize success.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. I put in place the necessary support structures (training, staffing, procedures, equipment, etc.) so that people experience success.</td>
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</table>

#### E. Being Consistent in the Face of Adversity

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<th>4</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I encourage people to persevere during difficult times.</td>
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<td>2. I hold to a course of action, even in the face of adversity.</td>
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<td>3. I take difficult stands (unpopular) when they must be taken.</td>
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</table>

#### F. Planning and Leading Change

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<tr>
<th>Behaviour</th>
<th>4</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I provide the organization with a vision for the change that they can rally around.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. I successfully communicate the “what,” “why,” “who,” “how,” “when,” and “how long” of a change initiative.</td>
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<td>3. I put together the right coalition of internal change agents.</td>
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<td>4. I involve people at all levels of the organization in implementing a change initiative.</td>
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<td>5. I ensure expectations and roles are set for those involved in change.</td>
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<td>6. I communicate often about the change, before, during and after.</td>
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<td>7. I can establish a sense of urgency for the need for change.</td>
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</table>
### Behaviour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4 – I have done this very well</th>
<th>3 – I have done this somewhat well</th>
<th>2 – I need some improvement</th>
<th>1 – I have not yet started to do this</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8. I always ensure there is a support infrastructure (training, release time, budget, etc.) for a change initiative to be successful</td>
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</table>

### G. Releasing Potential and Energy

1. I ensure that all jobs have intrinsic motivation potential by installing feedback, skill variety, autonomy, job identity, and a sense of importance in the jobs we do.

2. I demonstrate listening by seeking input and following through on discussions.

3. I help people believe in themselves by arranging conditions so they can experience success.

4. I ensure that people in the organization have intrinsically motivating goals that create a sense of challenge and ownership.

5. I provide appropriate direction and support to ensure high performance work teams thrive and produce dramatic business results for us.

6. I support communication across departments at all levels of the organization.

7. I work to tear down silos in the organization and to provide an environment in which people work together for the good of all.

### H. Creating a Flexible and “Ready-for-Change” Culture

1. I am personally open to change and lifelong learning.

2. I work so people understand the business and the strategic context of their tasks and the decisions they make.

3. I help people see the link between their individual performance and the company’s operational and financial success.

4. I help people see the link between their individual performance and customer satisfaction.

5. I encourage change to “emerge” at any level of the organization.
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<tr>
<td>4 – I have done this very well - 3 – I have done this somewhat well</td>
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<td>2 – I need some improvement - 1 – I have not yet started to do this</td>
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<td>6. I give people the authority to make the changes they need to be</td>
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<tr>
<td>successful.</td>
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<td>7. I encourage a culture of “straight talk” and constructive</td>
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<td>disagreement that allows diverse and opposing opinions to be</td>
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<td>expressed, even to the leader.</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. I work hard to constantly increase the business literacy levels in the</td>
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<tr>
<td>organization.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>I. Developing Leaders in the Organization</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>1. I play an active role in teaching others in the organization.</td>
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<td>2. I devote time to coach others to develop and improve performance</td>
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<td>3. I provide opportunities and support for developing leaders.</td>
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<td>4. I am good at diagnosing organization and individual performance</td>
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<td>issues and coming up with corrective action plans.</td>
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