Self-leadership of school principals in the Kavango region, Namibia

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It all starts here ™

ABSTRACT

There is an increasing demand for the use of self-leadership as a model for leadership effectiveness. In the context of schools, self-leadership is an important element for the improvement of teaching and learning, and leadership capacity building in schools. The purpose of this study was to examine how self-leadership is used by principals in secondary schools in the Kavango region in Namibia. The study also integrates transformational, transactional, instructional and distributed leadership which hinges well on self-leadership.

A qualitative research design underpin by interpretive paradigm was used in this study. A purposeful sampling design was used to select eighteen participants, i.e. six principals and twelve teachers from six secondary schools. The data was generated by means of semi-structured interviews, observation and document analysis. Data analysis utilized the content analysis to show the relationships between school principals as the main unit of analysis and the teachers' performance as supporting unit of analysis.

The findings show that school principals employ self-leadership in their work, especially in their relations with teachers. The findings revealed that the school principals' potential self-leadership virtues may be restrained by the hierarchical control processes of the ministry of education that requires them to comply with directives and policies.

This study challenges the school principals in the Kavango region and Namibia in general to re-examine their leadership styles in the context of self-leadership. School principals should ask questions such as: how am I leading and how am I using self-leadership to improve my practice in my day to day work?

This study therefore challenges all leaders to rethink on how they can become effective leaders through the lenses of self-leadership.

Key words:
Distributed leadership, instructional leadership, Kavango region, leadership, self-leadership, school improvement, leadership development, school principals, self-knowledge, shared leadership, transactional leadership and transformational leadership.

ABSTRAK

Onder leierskapkundiges bestaan daar 'n indringende debat of self-leierskap as 'n leierskapmetode gereken behoort te word. In skoolverband is self-leierskap 'n belangrike element in die verbetering van onderrig en leer. Die doel van die onderhawige studie was om die wyse waarop self-leierskap deur skoolhoofde in sekondêre skole in die Kavangostreek in Namibië gebruik word, te ondersoek. Die studie integreer transformerende, transaksionele, instruksionele en gedeelde leierskap deur die gebruikmaking van self-leierskap.

'n Kwalitatiewe navorsingsontwerp vorm die basis van die interpretatiewe paradigma waarbinne die studie onderneem is. Doelgerigte steekproeftrekking is aangewend om agtien deelnemers te kies, te wete ses skoolhoofde en twaalf onderwysers van sekondêre skole. Data is met behulp van onderhoude, waarnemings en dokumentanalise gegenereer. Inhoudanalise is tydens die data-analise ingespan om die verband tussen die skoolhoof as hoofeenheid van analise en die onderwysers as ondersteunende eenhede vir die analise, aan te toon.

Die bevindings toon dat hoofde self-leierskap spesifiek in hulle verhouding met die onderwysers gebruik. Die bevindings toon voorts aan dat die hoof se potensiële aanwending van self-leierskap moontlik deur die hiërargiese prosesse (via die Minister van Onderwys wat op die uitvoering van beleid en prosedures aandring) beperk kan word.

Die studie daag hoofde in Kavango in Namibië uit om hulle leierskap binne die konteks van self-leierskap in heroënskou te neem. Die hoofde behoort vrae soos die volgende te stel: Hoe lei ek my skool en hoe gebruik ek self-leierskap om my werk in die praktyk te verbeter?

Die studie gaan verder deur leiers in die algemeen uit te daag om hulle eie leierskap deur die lens van self-leierskap te herbevraagteken.

Sleutelwoorde

Deelnemende leierskap, instruksionele leierskap, leierskapontwikkeling, self-leierskap, skoolverbetering, skoolhoofde, self-kennis, transaksionele leierskap, transformerende leierskap.

SOLEMN DECLARATION

I ENM Katewa, hereby declare that the work contained in this thesis is my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any university for a degree.

Signature...........................

Date..... 2015. 10. 22 ....

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ACE:	Advanced Certificate in Education
Adv. Dip. ELM:	Advanced Diploma in Education in Leadership and Management
ALI:	African Leadership Institute
BEdHons:	Bachelor of Education (Honours)
B.A.:	Bachelor of Arts
BETD:	Basic Education Teachers Diploma
DL:	Distributed Leadership
EI:	Emotional Intelligence
ELCIN:	Evangelical Lutheran Church in Namibia
GM:	General Manager
GRN:	Government of the Republic of Namibia
HED:	Higher Education Diploma
HoDs:	Heads of Departments
IL:	Instructional Leadership
ISSP:	International Successful School Principalship
KRC:	Kavango Regional Council
LRCs:	Learners Representative Councils
M. Ed:	Masters in Education
MBEC:	Ministry of Basic Education and Culture
MCA:	Millennium Challenge Account
MEC:	Ministry of Education and Cultured
MGSLG:	Mathew Goniwe School of Leadership and Governance
NBC:	Namibian Broadcasting Corporation
NGOs:	Non-governmental Organizations
NMMU:	Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University

NWU:	North-West University
OECD:	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
PAAI:	Plan of Action for Academic Improvement
PDP:	Personal Development Plan
PGDE:	Postgraduate Diploma in Education
PhD:	Doctor in Philosophy
PLC:	Professional Learning Community
RSLQ:	Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaires
SADC:	Southern Africa Developing Community
SDF:	School Development Fund
S-L:	Self-leadership
SMT:	School Management Team
SWA-Namibia:	South-West Africa, Namibia
SWAPO:	South West Africa People's Organization
T-A:	Teacher A
T-B:	Teacher B
T-C	Teacher C
T-D:	Teacher D
T-E:	Teacher E
T-F:	Teacher F
T-G:	Teacher G
T-I:	Teacher I
T-J:	Teacher J
T-K:	Teacher K
T-L:	Teacher L
TL:	Transformational Leadership
TPLC:	Teachers Professional Learning Community
TRL:	Transactional Leadership

UJ:	University of Johannesburg
UK:	United Kingdom
UNAM:	University of Namibia
UNISA:	University of South Africa
USA:	United States of America
USAID:	United States Agency for International Development
UTACA:	Ukwangali Traditional Anti-Corruption Advisors

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated in memory of my beloved parents, Otate Johannes "*Mundiro*" Namwira, Onane Bibiana–Mariane "*Sivhuye*" Namvhura, and my late brother Clemens *"Sitji Songora"* Ruhungo Namwira. I also dedicate my work to the late Governor, Mr Maurus Nekaro Sipipa who also inspired me to study and promised to attend my graduation but could not do so because of his demise.

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1.1 Introduction

Namibia has made impressive strides in addressing the major goals of education: access, quality, democracy and equity as benchmarks for future education of development to redress the past imbalances (MEC, 1993). However, the Namibian education has been characterized by leadership and management challenges and problems of those who are entrusted to run the schools. In more recent times there has been public outcries regarding the declining quality of education in Namibian schools and some of the preliminary observations suggest that part of the problem lies in the supposedly unproductive relationships between school principals and teachers (MEC, 1993; Presidential Commission on Education, Culture & Training, 1999).

The declining quality of education has been attributed to lack of poor leadership and management among those entrusted with the responsibility to run schools. It is within this context that the concept of self-leadership in relation to quality education has to be interrogated. The Minister of Education acknowledges the role the older or retired principals played, who diligently performed and competently delivered good services of leadership during their days as principals which must be retained by the Ministry (Iyambo, 2011).

Whilst South Africa has developed courses for management and leadership at institutions such as Mathew Goniwe School of Leadership and Governance (MGSLG) in the University of Johannesburg (UJ), General Motors (GM) Foundations and Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU) as well as an Advanced Certificate in education leadership (ACE) provided by most universities in South Africa striving to update schools leaders with new models; Namibia seems not to have formal management training as precondition for promoting teachers to become school heads or heads of departments (World Bank Report, 2005).

In this report, school principals have expressed a strong demand for training that will enable them to:

- lead others so that school plans and objectives are achieved;

- promote achievement of the school's mission;

- act in accordance with the Constitution, relevant laws, rules, regulations, service codes, and codes of conduct for schools;

- initiate and manage changes necessary for the development of the school;

- develop annual school objectives, and plan how to achieve set objectives;

- assess the school's effectiveness in meeting learning objectives;

- provide advice and guidance to professional staff on educational issues; and

- prepare a budget for a school and use it to guide spending (World Bank Report on Education, 2005).

Given these demands, it is not surprising that there are several problems in the education system as some of the young graduates from the university, unlike the older teachers, were appointed as Heads of Department or school principals after teaching for just months or few years. They had to lead schools without or with little support from the various Regional Offices (Kapapero, 2007).

Miller and Miller (2001) suggest that through the transforming process, the motives of the leader and follower merge. Starr (2011) also supports Miller and Miller's assertion by contending that leading any organization requires a principal to be the leader for the successful running a school as principals are focal players in the educational change and reform. A successful school principal signifies successful and effective leadership. An investigation by Bush and Heystek (2006) indicates the close relationship between successful and effective schools. In their inquiry, they advocate that leaders are made not born and those schools should have high quality leadership that their learners, educators and communities deserve (Bush & Heystek, 2006).

Evidently, this suggests the need for high quality principals to play more significant roles and take on more responsibilities as change agents who can bring about major transformations and motivate demoralized followers. Increasingly, it is successful principals that are required, especially as schools become more self-managed (Bush & Heystek, 2006). In exploring the pursuit of leadership, intrinsic motivation is the fundamental factor in the leadership style of the principals.

For Namibian schools, this is a crucial factor because it necessitates that the principal be self-motivated, self-confident and has self-esteem so that they in turn motivate their teachers so they can reach self-actualization as advocated by Maslow's hierarchy of needs. I argue that principals have to lead by example as evidence shows that it is invariably a leader who can influence the followers. What this suggests is that the tradition of inflexible leadership style, directive and top-down models of leadership and management behaviour of principals is obsolete and ought to be replaced with modern leadership style (Manz & Neck, 2004).

Leading people is considered to be a complex process in a complex system. It is also true that being a leader in an organization whether it is in a team or business; it requires an individual person within the organization to lead him or herself. As articulated by Drucker (2001), a leader can only learn to lead one person - him/herself. He further stresses that only if you can lead yourself, can you be expected to lead others. He concludes by stating the importance of self-leadership (S-L) when he claims that only if you understand yourself, can you expect to lead yourself. It is in this context that the concept of self-leadership becomes a prerequisite in contemporary organizations including schools.

Self-leadership has existed for the past three decades. It was Manz (1986) who for the first time popularized and conceptualized the work of self-leadership. Neck and Manz (2004) see self-leadership as the process of influencing oneself to establish self-direction and self-motivation needed to perform. Self-leadership denotes that an individual can self-regulate, self-manage, and self-motivate to become an independent, creative and innovative person. Moreover, self-leadership requires school principals to be good self-leaders that are characterized by high self-esteem and self-knowledge, flexible and fast learners who can cope in the ever changing contexts (Sydanmaanlakka, 2004).

Extensive study across various settings, including the educational domain has shown that the practice of effective self-leadership by employees can lead to a plethora of benefits including improved job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and mental performance (Manz & Neck, 1999; Neck & Manz, 2004). Self-leadership encompasses "leading oneself" through the utilization of both behavioural and mental techniques. Behavioural self-leadership techniques involve self-observation, self-goal-setting, management of antecedents to behaviour (e.g., cues), modification of consequents to behaviour (e.g.,

self-reinforcement, self-punishment), and the finding of natural rewards in tasks performed (ibid). Chapters 2 and 3 will shed more light on self-leadership strategies.

For schools to excel and for the school principals to reach their fullest potential in leading their schools effectively, self-leadership should be applied. Self-leadership is a westernized leadership concept that is embedded in individualistic philosophy of the United States (US) which may have cultural conflicts when it is introduced in any African country, including Namibia. Adler (1997) argues that leadership and culture are not without controversies and complexities. Blunt and Jones (1997) observe that the US and Western models of leadership do not match and is discrete to East Asia and African developing countries as they have a different viewpoints in terms of authority, loyalty and interpersonal relations. Jung and Avolio's (1997) study also supports this view that cultural differences and influence of leadership styles that emphasize the relationships between leader and followers plays a critical role in performance in collectivist cultures.

Viewing with different lenses, Mulunga (2006) cautions that there is a plethora of larger important initiatives from the West that tend to have only a limited application to the specific African context and culture in which they operate. Mulunga contends that African culture is best ignored and worst viewed simply as a negative obstacle to good leadership but is optimistic that new ideas be grafted onto existing indigenous cultures rather than simply uproot them and transplant foreign models (ibid, p. 2). Dimmock (2007) too clarifies the cultural aspect on issues of successful policies and practices that cannot simply be replicated and transplanted from one society to another even with some adaptation but look for a need to know why it is working in other societies and with what effect. This demands an understanding of the culture, its value, beliefs, customs and ways of life, all of which interact (ibid, 2007, p. 54).

The inclusion of self-leadership in other countries other than US is found in many literatures (Alves, Lovelace, Manz, Matsypura, Toyasaki & Ke, 2006; Ho & Nesbit, 2008). It is revealed that a cross-cultural consideration of self-leadership is a worthwhile pursuit to explore the ways in which the practice of self-leadership is shaped by culture-dependent ways of thinking and acting (ibid, 2006, p. 341). Their study concludes that self-leadership style is applicable in Eastern Asia countries with some modification on the self-leadership strategies (ibid). Given the leadership and cultural dichotomy highlighted by the self-leadership theorists, I argue that the inclusion and application of

self-leadership in a cross-cultural context is highly likely to the Namibian schools that give school principals opportunity to adapt it in their rural communal schools context.

Therefore, school principals utilizing self-leadership direct their attention and focus towards the goals they determinedly want to pick; take initiative in choosing their goals; keep focus on their goals and are aware of the possible hindrance that may distract them from achieving these goals, and above all to take responsibility for motivating themselves especially when working on unpleasant or difficult tasks that have little immediate intrinsic value but great long-term benefits (Manz, 1986; Manz & Neck, 2003).

In this regard, self-leadership may present an alternative contingency model of leadership approach and can subsequently influence follower self-leadership (Yun, Cox, & Sims Jr., 2006). It is in this context that I have chosen the self-leadership of school principals in the Kavango Region, Namibia as the topic of my doctoral research. Since the work of school principals and teachers interact with each other as well as with teaching and learning processes, the study also examines the use of self-leadership in management of teachers; the response of teachers to use of self-leadership by principals; and the contribution of self-leadership to improvement in teaching and learning in the schools in Kavango region. Authors have suggested new forms of leadership in many dysfunctional schools (Bush, 2004; Msila, 2008).

It is also important to note that self-leadership started as the theory about an individual. In this sense, I argue that, it should not be seen as an autocratic leadership or egocentric leadership because it is about the individual and the self as it is defined in the American concept. It should be noted that the self-leadership that has put the emphasis on the self exemplifies an individual who is looking for self- recognition because he or she is self-leading, self-developing, self-motivating and is not an autocratic leader. However, self-leadership that is grounded in self-centredness, egoistic leadership is autocratic leadership.

But, if self-leadership is a self-development and self-motivation strategy so that he or she can better lead the followers, I would argue, that this leadership style is relevant in Namibian schools context. So, my contention of self-leadership as a former principal is not about self-centredness, or about egoistic leadership but I make sure that as a good leader, I develop and motivate myself, so that I can better lead my followers in the

context of my work. One can thus conclude that the self-leader sets a good example, walks in front of the followers and motivates them as he/she leads and understands him/herself better and can be able to work with other people, and has enough self-esteem to withstand the negative or disrespectful inclinations.

1.2 Background of Namibia

Source: http://www.vidiani.com/?p=9408

Figure 1-1   Map of Namibia

This part introduces Namibia. It gives emphasis on the geographical, historical and educational background before and after independence. As the study was carried out in the Kavango region, another section is needed to shed more light on the brief

geographical, demographical, historical, and socio-economical contexts of the Kavango region that may have an effect on education in the region.

1.2.1 Historical and geographical location of Namibia

The historical background of Namibia is traced back from the colonial time to independence. South-West Africa (SWA, Namibia) as it was known, was first colonized by German (1884 – 1915) and later by South Africa occupation (1915 – 1989). Namibia, prior to independence in 1990 Namibia was regarded as the fifth province of South Africa. She gained her independence on 21 March 1990 after a long struggle for independence from illegal occupation and apartheid rule of South Africa. SWAPO won the first election overwhelmingly.

Namibia has been described as the most democratic and peaceful country in the African continent. Its annual population growth stands at 2, 6 percent. The country is divided into 13 regions namely Karas, Kavango[1], Khomas, Otjozondjupa, Oshikoto, Oshana, Ohangwena, Omusati, Hardap, Erongo, Zambezi (former Caprivi[2]) and Omaheke regions. The regions are characterized by differing stages of development giving rise to inequities (Government of the Republic of Namibia, 2002).

Geographically, Namibia is located in the southwest part of Africa. It is bordered by other four Southern African Development Community (SADC) countries. Angola is in the northern part while South Africa is in the south. Namibia is connected to Botswana through the Kalahari Desert to the east, while Zambia and Zimbabwe through the Caprivi Strip to the north-eastern part. On the western part of the country lies the South Atlantic Ocean marked by the contrast landscape of the Namib Desert along the west coast. The country is vast but sparsely populated with a population of 2,113 077 people which stretches over the total area of 824,292 square kilometres (Namibia Population and Housing Census Main Report, 2011). Statistics of the National Planning Commission shows that there are 903,434 people in the urban whereas the majority of 1,209,643 live in rural areas, notably from the northern and north-eastern regions (ibid, 2011).

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[1] During my study this region was known as Kavango region until the announcement of the two regions, Kavango-East and Kavango-West by the Delimitation Commission in 2013.

[2] The former Caprivi region has been renamed Zambezi region on the recommendation of the 4th Delimitation Commission, in 2013.

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1.2.2 Educational background

Education provision in the country before independence was administered by different authorities. It was based upon ethnic, racial and tribal lines which was unfair, discriminatory and fragmented in that eleven education authorities existed in the country, each one catering for a particular tribal or racial group (Kasanda & Shaimemanya, n.d. http://boleswa97.tripod.com/kasanda_shaimemanya.htm accessed 18 September 2015.).

The education provision in Namibia has been influenced by the past developments in the history of Namibia. This country went through various education systems: Missionary Education, Bantu Education, and the National Christian Education where each determined what should be taught in the schools and colleges, and how it ought to be taught and examined. The main reason for Bantu Education in the country was the entrenched apartheid system introduced by the South African regime. South Africa regarded Namibia as its fifth province. As a result of this set up, the racial and discriminatory policies in South Africa had to be enforced in Namibia (Kasanda & Shaimemanya, n.d.).

All these developments impacted on the post-colonial education provision in Namibia. The political system in colonial Namibia which was based on apartheid as well as the negative socio-economic conditions which prevailed during the colonial and post-colonial periods also had a major influence on the current education provision in Namibia's post-Independence in 1990, and the introduction of the new educational system (Ministry of Basic Education & Culture (MEC), (1993).

At independence in 1990, the new government embarked on a massive reform of the education system. This was based upon the realization that an education system that emphasized separate development of the people would not serve the interests, needs and aspirations of a new and independent Namibia (Kasanda & Shaimemanya, n.d.). The education reform therefore, placed emphasis upon unifying the eleven education authorities into a single unitary education system, a new and unitary curriculum, provision of equal chances to attend school for all Namibians, in addition to using English rather than Afrikaans as a medium of instruction from grade 4 to grade 12 (ibid).

Education management in the post-independent Namibia in 1991 saw the overhauling of the ministry of education. The ministry was divided into six departments and six regional directorates. The establishment of the regional directorates was a first step towards decentralization of the education management. Eleven years later, in 2002, the Government of the Republic of Namibia (GRN) subdivided the six directorates into 13 regional education directorates to be on par with the central government's policy of decentralizing function.

1.2.3 The Kavango region

Kavango region is located in the north-eastern area of Namibia. It is bordered with Angola to the north, and the Zambezi (former Caprivi) region to the east. To the west, the region borders with the Ohangwena and Oshikoto regions and to the south the Otjozondjupa region. The region comprises of nine constituencies: Mpungu, Kahenge, Kapako, Rundu Rural West, Rundu Urban, Rundu Rural East, Mashare, Ndiyona and Mukwe.

Traditionally, Kavango region is comprised of the following traditional authorities: Kwangali, Mbunza, Shambyu, Gciriku and Mbukushu where one of them is depicted in chapter 3. In this context, school principals in the Kavango region are expected to closely work with the traditional authorities, church leaders and Non-governmental Organizations (NGOs). Oral history of the Kavango shows that the three tribes of the Kavango people, the HaMbukushu, VaGciriku and VaShambyu originated from Mashi in what is known today as western Zambia whereas the Kwangali and the Mbunza had their origins from Makuzu gaMuntenda in present-day Angola (Akuupa, 2010).

Some literature indicate that Kavango region has six tribes or traditional leaders and areas (Mendelsohn & El Obeid, 2006), while only five tribes are recognized by the government and this had sparked a lot of debate surrounding the five tribal groups that are found in the Kavango region (Brinkman, 1999, Akuupa, 2010). These are the Nyemba, Chokwe and Ovimbundu who have migrated into Kavango from Angola. Although the Khoisan-speaking groups are said to be the first inhabitants of Namibia, which the Kavango region is part; no recognition is given to them in terms of their leadership. The San community is sparsely living between the Kavango and Zambezi regions in the Bwabwata areas.

Table: 1-1   Statistical data of the Kavango region

Demography size	
Population size	223,352
Population density	4.6 square km
Urban areas	29%
Rural areas	71%
Climate	
Rainfalls	450 – 600 mm per annum
Temperatures	Minimum mean 8°C
	Maximum mean 36°C
Sectoral development	
Fishing	Three fish farms had been established
Agricultural	Small-scale farming on few hectares of mahangu, goats and cattle.
Physical infrastructure	
Main centres	Rundu, Nkurenkuru, Ndiyona, Kayengona, Mukwe, Kapako and Mpungu
Water resources	Rivers, wells and boreholes
Social infrastructures	
Education	255 primary schools, 54 combined schools, 14 secondary schools, 1 vocational training Centre, 1 university campus (Rundu Campus).
Health facilities	4 hospitals: Rundu State Hospital, Nankudu Hospital, Nyangana and Andara
	6 Health Care Centres: Mpungu, Tondoro, Rupara, Mupini, Shambyu and Mupapama.
Main languages spoken	Rukwangali, Rumanyo and Thimbukushu now known as Rukavango. Other languages such as Runyemba, Oshiwamba, Silozi and Chokwe are also spoken in the region.

(Sources of data: Namibia: 2011 Population and Housing Census: Kavango region, 2011, p. 12 and Education Management Information System (Emis), Ministry of Education, Namibia, 2012, p. 13).

Table 1.1 shows that the Kavango region is overwhelmingly rural, with less than 30 percent of the population living in urban areas. It has a population of 223,352 people in the Kavango region with a population area of 48, 463 km². The perennial Kavango River forms the border with Angola in the north and cuts across the region into the Okavango Delta, mainly situated in Botswana. The rainfall range in the region is around 450 mm and 600 mm on a south-west to north-eastern gradient. Average maximum temperatures of the Kavango region are between 32°C and 34°C, whilst average

minimum temperatures are around 8°C to 10°C. The livelihoods of the people in the Kavango region are based, amongst others on agriculture, livestock and crop production, local fisheries, craft production and thatch production (Mendelsohn & El Obeid, 2006).

Provision of services in the past 25 years in the Kavango region in terms of water, transport networks, telephones, education and health has somewhat improved. There are 323 schools in the region, 42 clinics, 8 health centres and four hospitals. There has been upgrading of roads. Many major roads have been tarred from Mururani to Rundu, Rundu to Divundu, Rundu to Erundu in the Ohangwena region. Another completed road is from Tsumeb to Nkurenkuru to link Kavango region to Oshikoto region. Cell phone coverage and electricity supplies have expanded in most densely populated areas and also the supply of electricity at Dirico, Calai and Port Cuangar in the southern towns of Angola (Mendelsohn & El Obeid, 2006).

This region faces a number of challenges, among others, HIV and AIDS, malaria and teenage pregnancy. The Namibia Demographic and Health Survey data shows that Kavango region topped the nation in the incidence of teenage pregnancy of about 30 percent in 2007. It is revealed in this Survey that Kavango region has more than twice the national average of 15 percent and three times the rates of her neighbouring regions of Ohangwena, Omusati and Oshana (Eloundou-Enyegue & Magazi, 2011). The HIV and AIDS pandemic affect the socio-economic development of the region, including education. Sick principals, teachers and learners, for instance, cannot deliver to the best of their ability.

The regional government at Rundu as the administrative capital has a directorate of education. The educational directorate in the Kavango region divides schools into eleven inspection circuits or districts. School inspectors are the head of each of these circuits and also manage cluster centres in collaboration with cluster centre principals and cluster management committees (Dittmar, Mendelsohn & Ward, 2002). The main functions of school inspectors are *inter alia*, to monitor and evaluate the quality of education offered in schools according to government regulations and guidelines (MEC, 2004).

In 2000 Namibia introduced school clustering system for school principals to manage school supervision and in-service training for school leaders and teachers (Dittmar et

al., 2002). Opportunity was created for schools to be managed, supervised and guided as networks rather than individual entities through shared and collaborative leadership and to improve the efficiency use of resource. Pomuti (2008) describes the benefits of school clustering as a means for improving teaching through establishment of cluster-based groups that provide teachers with the opportunity to share ideas, lesson plans, good teaching practices, examination questions and teaching resources. In other words, a school principal as a chairperson of the cluster management committee co-ordinates activities, manage and supervise other schools.

The analysis of the context suggests challenges that may impact self-leadership of school principals in the Kavango region. In order to cope with the rapid growth of the Kavango region, the challenges of the HIV and AIDS, teenage pregnancies and of course the legacy of colonial education and its hidden curriculum that is still haunting the region, school principals need to strengthen and develop their self-leadership skills (Van Zyl, 2009).

1.3   Statement of the problem

The concept of self-leadership hailed from the United State of American three decades ago (Alves et al., 2006). Despite recent attention to alternative leadership globally (Bush, 2008; Manz & Neck, 2004), many Namibian principals may still use the instructional leadership (Ministry of Education, 1993, MCA, 2014). School principals define their leadership styles in relation to their own self-development, management of teaching staff, response of teachers to school management and teaching and learning. However, on the basis of the demands of the principles outlined above, it was not certain whether or not the poor performance in grades 10 and 12 in Kavango schools were attributed to the type of leadership adopted by the school principals.

As a result it was essential to have a thorough investigation of the self-leadership of school principals in their own self-development, relations with teachers, teachers' response to leadership styles of the principals, and the contributions of the leadership styles to improvements in teaching and learning. The study intends to examine how self-leadership is operationalized as a style for effective leadership in schools in the Kavango region in Namibia and how this leadership style contributes to sustainable quality education through behavioural-focused strategies, natural rewards strategies, and constructive thought strategies (Manz & Neck, 2004; Neck & Manz, 2010). The

rationale of the study was to investigate if self-leadership was practiced by school principals in the Kavango region and also to understand how self-leadership style was used by these school principals. The study was not to compare high and low performing principals' self-leadership it was generally to understand the self-leadership of school principals from different perspectives.

There is little study conducted on the self-leadership of school principals in the context of the Kavango region. Available studies in Namibia in the area of leadership and management examined professional development for school principals (Mushaandja, 2006) and the leadership and management practices in schools in the Kavango and Caprivi regions (Mabuku, 2009; Muronga, 2011). However, these studies have been limited to professional development and the role of school principals in the management of schools.

The literature on self-leadership in Africa is from other field of studies. In South Africa for example, Van Zyl (2011, 2013) has written two research papers on self-leadership. One is a full length research paper on self-leadership on the way forward for African managers and his second conceptual and theoretical research focused self-leadership and happiness within the current African working condition. Another South African researcher Jooste (2014), on the other hand examined the nurses' experiences on their self-leadership during a leadership development programme and it was centred on emotional intelligence (EI) in self-leadership. The findings have shown that self-leadership development programme of nurse leaders have led to increase in self-confidence which was converted into action, taking on new leadership roles, job satisfaction and provided clarity about career direction.

None of these studies methodically investigated the self-leadership as a style for effective leadership in Namibian secondary schools. In the absence of studies in the Namibian context that explored the influence of leadership styles on effective leadership (Coleman & Earley, 2005), this study aims to examine the self-leadership on improvement in educational services as a style for effective leadership in schools by using a case study of six secondary schools in the Kavango region.

Schools in Kavango region are currently experiencing leadership problems as a result of the legacy of apartheid in educational system. This has impacted unfavourably on the relationship between principals and teachers and hence the functioning of schools

(World Bank Report, 2005). The literature review in this study suggests that this may be due to a lack of individual self-leadership practice among school principals. The empirical study carried out on the basis of the reviewed literature has generated insight on the dynamics and changes of the past and contemporary relationships between principals and teachers in order to improve the quality of education in the Kavango region.

1.4 Research question

The research question for this study was developed from the background and rationale of the study objectives concerning self-leadership of the school principals in the Kavango region. The main research question that guides the study is:

How is self-leadership understood as a style for school principals in the Kavango region in Namibia?

In order to answer the above main research question, the following sub-questions were also formulated:

- How do school principals and teachers understand the concept of self-leadership as a leadership style in the Kavango region?

- To what extent do principals in the Kavango region employ self-leadership strategies in their relations with teachers?

- How do teachers respond to self-leadership in the schools in Kavango region?

1.5 Aim and objectives of the Study

The aim of the study is to examine self-leadership as a model for effective leadership in schools in the Kavango region.

The objectives of the study are:

- To understand the extent to which school principals and teachers understand the concept of self-leadership.

- To determine how school principals in the Kavango region employ self-leadership strategies in their relations with teachers.

- To analyze the responses of teachers concerning the use of self-leadership in Kavango schools.

- To examine the potential relation between self-leadership and improvement of teaching and learning in the Kavango region.

1.6 Research methodology

The purpose of the study is to gain understanding of the self-leadership of school principals in the Kavango region, Namibia. The study employed a qualitative research design underpinned by interpretive paradigm. The case study methods were selected to enable the researcher to gain in-depth understanding of the self-leadership application to the day-to-day lives of school principals developing themselves, as well as to the interactions of principals with teachers and the effective teaching and learning in schools.

The sample of the participants comprised of six secondary school principals and twelve teachers. The schools were purposively sampled using the following selection criteria: three secondary schools that have consistently produced high results, which is above 60 percent as compared to three secondary schools that have continuously produced poor results, i.e. below 60 percent. The selection criteria are listed and explained in Chapter 4. As a qualitative study, it was important for the researcher to gain in-depth understanding of the self-leadership of school principals in the Kavango region.

The study collected data through case study utilizing interviews, observations and document analysis with six school principals and twelve teachers in the six secondary schools in the Kavango region. Semi-structured interviews and observations were the primary instruments for data generation while document analysis was a secondary data generation instrument. By the selection of these three instruments it was envisioned that a bigger picture of the phenomenon would emerge as they will help each other in confirming the data.

Permission to interview the participants in the Kavango region was obtained from the Ministry of Education in the Kavango Regional Council through the Directorate Education in Rundu. Permission was sought to conduct the research for the purpose of eliciting information from the participants about the self-leadership of their school principals in the Kavango region. As part of the ethical considerations, participants in

the study were informed about their voluntary participation, anonymity and the sensitivity of information. . A strict code of ethics was adhered by the researcher where schools and principals were given pseudonyms such as Hamutima secondary school, Léonard secondary school, Mantjodi secondary school, Needling secondary school and Runnella secondary. Fictitious names of principals such as Mr Brutus, Mr Mbware, Mr Mpepo, Mr Pharaoh, Ms Carmel and Ms Mirabel were used in this study. For teachers TA – TL was used to ensure anonymity and to protect their identity.

Data were analyzed by means of content analysis exhibiting the relationships between school principals as the main unit of analysis on the one hand, and the support they have given for teachers to perform, on the other hand. This involved identifying, coding and categorizing the primary patterns in the study. Data were analyzed based on the themes identified from the participants. Mouton (2001) shows that analysis involves "breaking up" the data into manageable themes, patterns, trends and relations. No other software was utilized to analyze the data, however; the key ideas and the recurrent themes were extracted as quotes from participants to illustrate these recurrent themes.

1.7 Clarification of concepts

Definitions and clarification of key concepts and terms that are central to the study are explained in detail in chapter 1, 2 and 3.

These key terms and concepts are: distributed leadership, instructional leadership, Kavango region, leadership, self-leadership, school improvement, leadership development, school principals, self-knowledge, shared leadership, transactional leadership and transformational leadership.

1.8 The Organization of the thesis

This thesis is divided into seven chapters that are centred on the self-leadership of school principals in the Kavango region, Namibia.

Chapter One: In chapter the researcher introduces the reader to the field of study. It contains the background of the problem, justification of why the topic area is worth investigating, the research objectives, the research questions and the research methodology. The significance of the study is summarized and the methods used in

collecting data are stated and explained. It also looks at the limitations and the lay out of the study of the study.

Chapter Two: Examines the theories underpinning the leadership that matters in the Namibian context. The conception of leadership as it provides a deeper understanding of the difference between the concepts of leadership and management; and underscores the major conceptual framework of the four leadership styles that have a link with self-leadership. The explanation of what constitutes the concept of self-leadership is highlighted and what makes self-leadership a distinctive leadership theory is addressed in this chapter.

Chapter Three: Self-leadership and school development form part of this chapter. The first part of this chapter depicts the story of a traditional leader from the Ukwangali chieftainship who shows his attributes such as self-belief, dedication and persistence to achieve the positive results for his people. This leader also demonstrates his strengths and utilises them for the benefit of his subjects while inspiring them through his actions. The remainder of the chapter is devoted on the different leadership preparation internationally, regionally and in the Namibian contexts as well as the critique of the leadership preparation.

Chapter Four: This chapter explains in details the methodology in the qualitative research approach that was used to conduct the study. The research design, research participants, procedures, instruments and data analysis are described. This chapter also reflects on the ethical considerations and the limitations of the study.

Chapter Five: Presentation and analysis of data: This chapter is devoted to the presentation of data. It highlights the responses of the participants in the study. Inductive analysis was used, whereby the main trends, patterns, recurring meanings, topics, categories and subcategories and connections emerging from the data are discussed.

Chapter Six: This chapter examines the results and discusses the research sub-questions on how principals provide leadership that contributes to effective teaching and learning in the Kavango region; how self-leadership contributes to the improvement of teaching and learning in the six secondary schools in the Kavango region; how principals in the Kavango region employ self-leadership strategies in their relations with

teachers; how school principals and teachers have perceived self-leadership as a leadership style in the Kavango region.

Chapter Seven: The final chapter gives the synthesis the main components of the preceding chapters. It looks at what has evolved with respect to the self-leadership of the six school principals in the Kavango region. The chapter also addresses inter alia, issues of relevance and practicality. It further draws conclusions from the findings; discusses the contributions of the present study to the existing knowledge base and makes some recommendations.

CHAPTER 2   LEADERSHIP MATTERS IN NAMIBIAN CONTEXT

2.1 Introduction

The chapter undertakes the theoretical framework of self-leadership of principals in the Kavango region, Namibia. It looks at the work of the principals' and teachers' interaction with each other as well as the teaching and learning processes; examines the use of self-leadership in managing teachers, the response of teachers to the use of self-leadership by the principals and the contribution of self-leadership by the principals to the improvement of teaching and learning in Namibian schools.

It also offers an in-depth theoretical framework of the previous work on the construct of leadership which informs the study. In this regard, review of existing scholarship suggests that global and regional contexts have useful insight on leadership and the school performance (improvement) that can be tested in the study such as this one.

The major topics included in this leadership in the Namibian context are: 1) the definition of leadership, 2) the difference between leadership and management, 3) the leadership theories, and 4) the description of self-leadership and how it fits in the current leadership theories.

2.2 Conceptualization of leadership

Leadership is a difficult concept to define as it has numerous definitions. For century's researchers, writers, and scholars have tried without success to reach consensus on what leadership is all about. We see on a daily basis how people use the concept leadership differently at different contexts and settings. It is very fashionable and complex these days how people discuss leadership and the role it plays in their lives. Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinbach (1999), notice, for example, how people use adjectives such as 'good', 'effective', 'exemplary', 'poor', and 'terrible' when talking about leadership. At a glance, websites produce more than a million articles on leadership. It is in this context that I argue the importance of educational leadership today. The search for a word leader on the internet produces more than 40 million articles and web pages. My intention in this context is to show the importance of the usage of leadership in the world of education today.

Many scholars find controversy and ambiguity in the concept of leadership. Yukl (1994) aptly argues that it is neither feasible nor desirable at this point in the development of the discipline to attempt to resolve the controversies over the appropriate definition of leadership. Like all constructs in social sciences, 'the definition of leadership is arbitrary and very subjective' (Yukl, 2002, p. 4-5). Some definitions are more useful than others, but there is no 'correct' definition.

Despite disagreement on the precise meaning of leadership, Yukl (ibid) recognizes a fundamental agreement across definitions - similar to what Bass (1981) identified a decade earlier - and claims that leadership 'reflect[s] the assumption that it involves a social influence process whereby intentional influence is exerted by one person [or group] over the other people [or groups] to structure the activities and relationships in a group or organization' (Yukl, 1994, p. 4). Although others have viewed leadership as a dominant concept it is to be understood to affect policy, values and vision. Some authors have argued against the existence of ambiguity in the definition of leadership (Richmon & Allison, 2003). Kruger (2010) echoes Richmon and Allison in that leadership may be perceived as a process of influence, leading and following; a matter of personality, a way of persuasion; a manner of interacting; a process of goal attainment; a way of creating structure; as negotiation in power relations and as stimulating change (p. 1-2).

The conceptualization of leadership is more abstract. Bass (1990) however, concludes that leadership is the art of inducing compliance; a personality concept; a form of persuasion; a set of acts or behaviours; an instrument of goal achievement; an effect of a group interaction; a differentiated role; and the exercise of influence. The argument for leadership as both an art and a science is a strong one.

The conception of whether leadership is art or science requires a deeper understanding of quantifying the function of leadership. Daft (2011) argues that leadership is an art as many leadership skills and qualities are not learned from textbooks. Leadership that is based on practice and hands-on experience is characterised by personal exploration and development.

While leadership as an art looks at practical experiences of the leader, leadership as a science focuses on a growing body of knowledge and objectives facts that describe the leadership process and how to use leadership skills to attain organizational goals (Daft,

2011). For example, a Principal with listening skills has the art of effective leadership. Principals who listen to their teachers open the door to true team vision; one develops by taking the best ideas that teachers can bring. In quantifying leadership as a science; a leader can be assessed by creating measurable goals that can be pursued on a daily, weekly, monthly or yearly basis, giving tangible information as to whether strategies are working. Simply put, leadership as an art gives leaders freedom to express themselves. As a science, leadership demands that leaders think before they act.

Both Early and Weindling (2004) and Bush and Glover (2003, p. 10) define leadership "as the activity of leading people, which implies that things are done through people, with the emphasis on relations, communication, motivation and emotional intelligence. The leader is more inclined to open communication and risk-taking, and less restricted by prescribed policies".

Christie (2010) suggests that leadership is to be understood as a relationship of influence directed towards goals or outcomes, whether formal or informal (p. 695). Furthermore, although leadership is more of a personal quality, a social relationship of power is seemingly present to some who influence others. In other words, leadership underscores influence over power. Even so, power is inevitably present as it involves ethical consideration (Bottery, 1992; Grace, 1995). Because it is a way of achieving goals, leadership is frequently connected with vision and values.

The notion of leadership is anchored in the central concept of influence as opposed to authority. Bush (2008) notes that influence and authority are dimensions of power, but points out that influence could be exercised or exerted by anyone in the school or college while power tends to reside in formal positions, such as in Principals. Moreover, Principals have legitimate power to take decisions or to play key roles in the policy-making process by virtue of their official position. An outsider may not notice the difference when a principal uses influence or when using authority.

The process of leadership is also intentional because the person looking for influence is at liberty to achieve certain purposes. Bush, Bell and Middlewood (2010) agree that the notion of influence is neutral in that it does not explain or recommend what goals or actions should be pursued. Leadership has increasingly been associated with values. In view of this, leaders are expected to translate their actions into clear personal and professional values (Bush, Bell & Middlewood, 2010). Leadership is crucial as it begins

with the character of the leaders, expressed in terms of personal values, self-awareness, and emotional and moral capability. To this end, these values underpin leadership actions and contribute to determining leaders' sense of purpose (Greenfield & Ribbins, 1993).

Bush, Bell and Middlewood (2010) found that leadership is closely linked to vision which provides the essential sense of direction for leaders and organizations. Southworth (1993) argues that Heads are motivated to work hard because their leadership is the pursuit of their individual visions. However, Christie (2010) contends that the vision and values do not imply that leadership is necessarily moral or effective or even well done, but leadership is often "a valorized" concept associated with success rather than mediocrity or failure; there certainly exists examples of leaders as controlling individuals, ineptly dealing with complex contexts, and winning support on the basis of shallow or immoral visions of a desired future (p. 695).

From the body of scholarship studied, the notions of influence and authority are used for leaders. Although influence is an important dimension of leadership, it is not by itself leadership. It should explicitly state the kind of influence a leader should demonstrate because influence can be either positive or negative. I argue that in educational leadership, principals should have both authority and influence because principals are appointed to the position of power to make decisions or to play a key role in the policy-making process; as Bush (2011) argues, their influence to affect outcomes which depend on personal characteristics and expertise make their roles more complicated.

A leader in this case should be seen as a person who has the ability to lead and influence himself or herself well so that others (followers) are motivated and inspired to do the same in their lives. In other words, principals should be self-motivated and be effective communicators in order to inspire their teachers to follow them. It is imperative to note that a principal who does not inspire his or her teachers using the effective leadership skills ends up using his or her professional or positional influence to coerce and control his or her staff members (Bush, 2008).

I have however taken Joseph and Richard's (1993) simple definition for my study. They (1993) conceptualize leadership 'as an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes and outcomes that reflect their shared purpose' (p. 102). I therefore concur with Hills (2013) who acknowledges that it is difficult to reach an

exact definition of leadership as many literatures seem to compete for the definition of leadership. Given the complexity of leadership, the next section will address the difference between leader and manager.

2.3 Leadership and management dualism

It can be deduced from the Table 2-1 below that there is a growing need for a self-leader to take cognisance of the differences between the task of a manager and leader when performing tasks in the schools.

Table: 2-1   Differences between management and leadership

Management	Leadership
Administers	Innovators
Is a 'copy'	Is an 'original'
Maintains	Develops
Focuses on systems and structure	Focuses on people
Focuses on control	Inspires trust
Takes a short-range view	Has a long-range perspective
Asks how and when	Asks what and why
Imitates	Originates
Accepts the status quo	Challenges the status quo
Is a classic 'good soldier'	Is his or her own person
Does things right	Does the right thing

Source: Gill (2014)

The most widely overlapping language and lexicon in leadership discourse is leadership and management. Leadership exponents point out that much of what we know today as leadership and management evolved from administration (Gunter, 2001). The geographically difference also has influence on which term to use. For example, USA uses the term administration whilst the UK prefers management (Bush, 2011). Historically, Namibia being the former colonial state of South Africa favours management over administration, which they inherited from Britain.

Those who have written and researched have found that leadership and management are intimately linked and it is not different in the case of principals in Namibia. However, there is an insignificant difference between leadership and management. While leadership and management are often used interchangeably, I think it is important to distinguish them and also show how they relate to one another. Bush (2008a) sees

leadership and management as an issue of semantics. Hoyle and Wallace (2005, p. viii) note that 'leadership' has surpassed 'management' to describe the running of schools and how to improve them. Principals are by definition leaders who cannot be divorced from managerial duties of effectively and efficiently implementing policies and procedures, which normally comes from either government or other official bodies outside school (Bush, 2011). I am convinced that the difference between the two concepts is marginal and hence principals in Namibia are expected to be leaders and managers of their schools.

Fullan (2001) shows the overlapping of leadership and management and how both qualities are needed. Fullan (2001, p. 2) argues that the "the big problems of the day are complex, rife with paradoxes and dilemmas" and contradictions which are also observed by Homer-Dixon (2000):

> *We demand that [leaders] solve, or at least manage, a multitude of interconnected problems that can develop into crises without warning; we require them to navigate an increasingly turbulent reality that is, in key aspects, literally incomprehensible to the human mind; we buffet them on every side with bolder, more powerful special interests that challenge every innovative policy idea; we submerge them in often unhelpful and distracting information; and we force them to decide and act on ever faster pace (p. 15).*

The above insertion demonstrates the links between the growing difference between leadership and management so as to differentiate that leadership deals with change while management is about maintenance functions in organization. Moreover, Bush (2008) shows that leadership is linked to values or purpose while management relates to implementation or technical issues (p. 328). From Bush's assertion presented above, principal's leadership is virtually to influence teachers' actions in achieving desirable ends, shaping the goals, motivating teachers, initiating change to reach existing and new goals and at the same time maintaining efficiently and effectively managing the current organizational arrangements.

The dual role of the school principals is noticeable that principals are at the same time administrative leaders and professional leaders. Administrative leadership means that a principal is a manager who efficiently and effectively manages and maintains daily activities in the school context. This is what it means that principals should be good

administrators whose management effort is focused on the nuts and bolts of making an organization work, in terms of hiring, distributing resources, and enforcing policy and procedures. In some schools, including Namibia, principals tell teachers exactly what to do and how to do, and many teachers expect this kind of directive and control (Daft, 2011). Principals as professional leaders, on the one hand, are perceived to have vision, mission, purpose, direction and aspiration for their schools and management, on the other hand they are to implement plans, arrange resources, coordinate and see that things get done effectively and efficiently (Cordeiro & Cunningham, 2013). In a nutshell, both leaders and managers are necessary for organizations to function and hence one cannot replace the other.

It is evident how the authors use metaphors or frames in describing teachers as human resources, parents and students as clients; education as a product to be bought and sold on the market; principals as managers (Christie, 2010); organizations as machines, organisms, brain, cultures, and political systems (Morgan, 1997). These fashions, according to Christie (ibid), gave rise to the shift of school-based management in the late 1990s to sharpen the notion of school principals as managers - a collection of management skills is required to run schools as organizations. The term leadership is imported from business literature as a fashion to hide management as a dominant term (Christie, 2010).

There has been a change in the conceptualization of educational leadership from 'educational administration' to 'educational management'. Many authors seem to agree that there is no major difference between leadership and management; it is an issue of language (Bush, 2011; Bush, Bell & Middlewood, 2010; Christie, 2011).

 Christie puts the use of semantics into perspective:

> *For, as Foucault (1969) points out, discourse systematically and actively forms that about which it speaks. In a Foucaudian, approach, discourses establish relationships between language, power, meaning and subjectivity. They demarcate what counts as knowledge, who the 'experts' are, and how 'problems' should be identified and understood. Thus they provide shared social meanings. Where the discourses are drawn from business and industry, their terminology and ways of understanding issues inevitably sets out particular understandings of the world, subject positions and relationships of power/knowledge (Christie, 2010, p. 698).*

In the same vein, the principal is emphasized in the shift discourse of leadership as an individual whose work is to influence others in visionary if not 'transformational' ways (ibid). Christie (2010) further argues that leadership, unlike management, can take outside of formal organization as well as inside them, and it can be exercised at most level of organization and in most activities (p. 696). A study in South Africa suggests that good management is essential for the functioning of schools (Christie, 1998, 2001; Fleisch and Christie, 2004; Roberts & Roach, 2006; Taylor, 2007). Christie's study in South Africa confirms that if schools are not well-managed, the primary task and central purpose of the school which is teaching and learning is likely to suffer (Christie, 2010, p. 696).

Heystek, Nieman, Van Rooyen, Mosoge and Bipath (2008) support the principal's role in management and leadership that "in line with situational theory, a person may move between management and leadership depending on the situation" (p. 7). Muijs (2011) criticizes other writers for over-reliance on dualistic model which only describes one set of practices as good and other ones as bad. However, he argues that we should go beyond the tendency of 'dualism' stressing leadership at the expense of management (Muijs, 2011, p. 55). In the school context, the concept that is closely associated to leadership and management is principalship or headship. In Namibia, principalship is the equivalent term for the head of the school. Like management and leadership, principalship, is an organizational concept. Christie (2010) sums it succinctly:

> *It designates a structural position which carries with it responsibilities and accountabilities. Whereas the power of leadership is expressed through influence, the power of headship may be legitimately extend beyond consent and influence to compulsion (though not to the use of force which, in Weberian analysis, is the legal prerogative of the state). Those who are in structural positions within an organization, as managers and head/principals, are bound by the goals and primary tasks of the organization, and their successes and failures are judged in terms of these. They are officially accountable for the operations and outcomes of the organization – in this case, schools. The principal represents the school formally, and it is principals who are also usually responsible for symbolic roles such as ceremonies and assemblies (p. 696).*

From the above, one can see the importance of the concepts: leadership, management and principalship. It simply means that in real life, schools ought to have good leadership at all levels; be well-managed in cooperative ways, and principals should integrate the functions of leadership and management and possess skills in both. This implies that leadership cuts across the school; management activities must be delegated with proper resources and accountabilities, and principals should embrace vision and values with the structures and processes by which the school realizes these (Christie, 2010).

Given the difference between the concepts of leadership, management and headship we start to notice how the three components complement each other very well in schools context. Interestingly, Christie's argument shows the complexity of integrating leadership in schools in the "three dimensions in the practices of running schools, to bring a coherence that links substance to process and deeper values to daily tasks" (Christie, 2010).

In order for principals to overcome the difficulties of integrating leadership, management and principalship, they must understand the notion of their self and identity. It is of utmost importance that principals have many faces suited for different situations and requirements (Lumby & English, 2009). Lumby and English (2009) argue that contemporary leaders must have multiple identities to work with an increasingly differentiated clientele and to move within and across multiple groups within his/her spheres of work and influence. If leadership changes as situation demands, we may start to see how the leader moves from leadership to management which suggests that this person is effective.

Taking the issue of effectiveness into consideration, many of the arguments regarding the differences between leadership and management can be simplified. Effectiveness, despite being contested and challenged, describes a good principal (MacBeath, 1998). The author argues that effective leadership means sustaining good relationships within a school community in which all its members are heard, and taken care of (MacBeath, 1998). Nahavandi (2000) contends that an effective manager involves performing many functions that are attributed to leaders with or without some degree of charisma. Competencies are one of the aspects an effective principal should depict to help him or her to take initiative, set goals, delegate effectively and show skills in order to fulfil the principalship role effectively (Nahavandi, 2000).

Simply put, the distinctions drawn between leadership and management may be more related to effectiveness than to the difference between the two concepts (Nahavandi, 2000). From an organizational culture's perspective, actions are important values to achieve the mission of the organization, productivity and efficiency. For example, the roles of the leader and manager fit within the organizational culture. All we know is that the role of the leader is to carry out the vision, giving direction, stimulating actions and providing people with opportunity to realize the vision by providing them with means and space necessary to achieve the mission (Kruger & Scheerens, 2012). In the same vein, the manager determines what will happen and when, planning, organizing, giving feedback and skills needed to carry those important tasks. An organizational culture facilitates how demands and goals are to be carried out.

An effective school principal is expected to work in integrative way; must not only be a good leader but must also possess a high level of interpersonal and administrative skills (Kruger & Scheerens, 2012). Thus, an effective principal in a school ought to be a manager who acts like a technician and a technocrat spearheading the implementation of the vision and mission of the school. Leading is not the only requirement but managing as well, because principals need an abundance of skills, energy, creativity, and imagination to enable them to translate the visions and missions into workable plans in order to change their school performance for quality education. When principals' skills and knowledge are not well utilized, they become ineffective leaders or managers. However, a closer look at the position of principals in Namibia, whether they are leading or managing, Hallinger (2003) sums it up that leadership perspective on the role of the principal does not diminish the principal's managerial roles. We need to fill this leadership gap.

In this study, the focus is on self-leadership of school principals in the Kavango region, Namibia. It is also to determine how the principals develop themselves; their relations with teachers; teachers' response to leadership styles of the principals; and the contribution of self-leadership styles to improvements in teaching and learning. Given the background of the leadership in general, I will look at leadership theories before specifically focusing on self-leadership in education.

2.4   Leadership theories associated with self-leadership

This theoretical framework discusses and synthesizes empirical research relevant to the leadership theories: transformational, transactional, distributed and instructional leadership. I have identified these leadership theories as my theoretical framework because of their potential in generating insight on the dynamics and changes of the past and contemporary relationships between principals and teachers in Namibia and the impact on the quality of instruction and performance of grades 10 & 12 in the Kavango region, Namibia.

There are a good number of theories used in educational leadership. This study adopted four theories of leadership: transformational, transactional, instructional and distributed leadership. Within this framework, each of the four leadership theories presents distinct leadership perspectives that are well established within educational leadership (Houghton & Yoko, 2005). The choice of these theories is based on the linkage between transformational, transactional, distributed and instructional leadership with self-leadership on the unfavourable relationship between principals and teachers and hence the functioning of the schools in Namibia. These theories are more appropriate in addressing the challenges of school leadership in Kavango region (Bush, 2011). It is considered that these four leadership theories are foundational to the analysis of the theoretical framework.

Self-leadership is the starting point to initiate other leadership styles. As transformational leaders, school principals encouraged teachers to be innovative, creative and to take risks. Moreover, school principals have motivated teachers to perform above expectations and beyond their self-interest for the sake of the schools. Whereas transactional leadership expect school principals to be effective negotiators who reach consensus, instructional leadership focused on supervision and evaluation of instruction, coordination of curriculum and monitor of learners' progress. In a nutshell, principals who applied instructional leadership style in their schools have ensured effective teaching and learning. It is important to stress that instructional leadership cannot be done without distributed leadership. Distributed leadership describes how principals share their leadership to increase teachers' self-efficacy that contribute to team expertise which is the core function of self-leadership. The key aspects of distributed leadership centred on collaboration and shared leadership which aimed to improve school and learners' outcomes. Harris and Jones (2010) emphasize

professional learning communities that are concerned with the generation of new knowledge and new practice through sharing, collaboration and joint inquiry which is critical elements of self-leadership. Each of these theories is briefly discussed below.
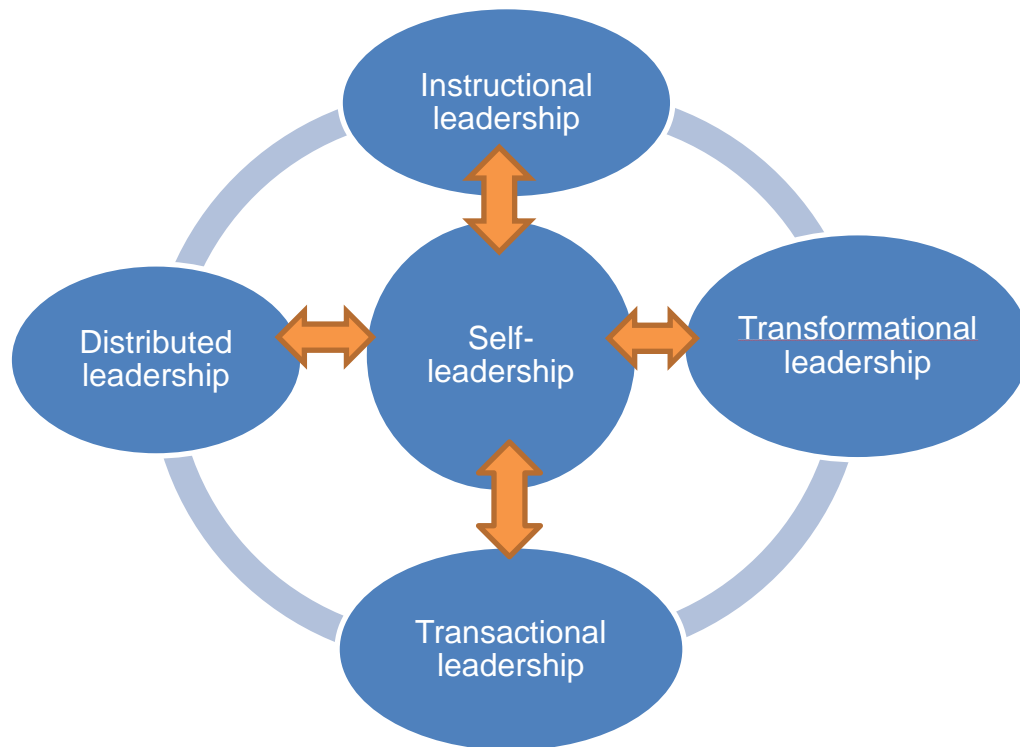
Figure 2-1   Theoretical Framework

Figure 2-1 illustrates the structure of the theoretical framework. It sets to explore the leadership that is used in this theoretical framework.

2.4.1   Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership has become a fashion because it presents emphasis on vision as the main element of leadership. In this conceptual framework, transformational leadership is perceived to be a leadership style that characterizes people-orientation. Thus, an effective leader encourages the followers to be innovative, creative and to take risks. Burns (1978) conceptualizes transformational leadership as leadership that has an effect on transforming followers' attitude, beliefs and behaviours. An examination of transformational leadership reveals a positive effect on employees' job satisfaction, satisfaction with the leader, organizational performance and perceptions of leader effectiveness (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Lowe et al., 1996).

Transactional and transformational leadership styles are viewed as complementing each other in order to get things done but it does not mean that they are important equally (Bass, 1985; Seltzer & Bass, 1990). Nonetheless, what is equally important between the two is that transformational leadership builds on transactional leadership to produce levels of follower effort and performance that exceed what would happen with a transactional approach alone. It suggests that if you are a good transactional leader, but does not have transformational qualities, you are possibly a less successful leader. Therefore, it is expected that best principals should be both transformational and transactional, which denotes they are good leaders and managers.

An effective leader embraces the four transformational leadership characteristics in order to motivate the followers to perform above expectations and go beyond their self-interest for the sake of the organization (Leithwood et al., 1999). A National Leadership Study done in South Arica shows that leaders who spend more time managing and rewarding performance, showing individual consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation and idealized influence tend to be more effective than those who demonstrate corrective or transactional leadership (Maritz, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 1990).

Some forms of leadership styles that have similarities but in reality different from transformational leadership are transactional, servant, and emotional leadership. What transpires from transformational leadership is the fact that principals are the ones to initiate processes and structures within the school to enable teachers' collaboration and participative decision making. This requires that the input of principals be minimal with regards to curricular and instructional affairs but indirectly transform the school culture to facilitate collegial planning, collaboration and implementation aimed at improving the school (Kruger & Scheerens, 2012). In view of this, school principals' main tasks are to create a working environment in which teachers collaborate and identify themselves with the school's mission.

Transformational leadership, although has long-term effects, and sometimes influences teachers' behaviour better than transactional leadership, is very important for conveying fundamental beliefs and values. However, the persistent use of transformational leadership can lead to over controlling and may create reaction from teachers. Cordeiro and Cunningham (2013) note that transformational leadership lacks an explicit focus on curriculum and instruction.

However, the empirical study of Andressen, Konradt and Neck (2012) shows that there is a link between self-leadership and traditional leadership. The finding of this study reveals that traditional leadership describes forms of leadership where a leader exerts social influence on the followers to accomplish a common goal. Moreover, self-leadership shows autonomous work organization but includes controlling influence of the supervisor. Andressen et al. (2012) assert that self-leadership uses diverse strategies that are proposed by the leadership forms and may be cultivated by external leaders.

Like other forms of leadership, self-leadership embraces a process of self-goal setting and motivation as dimensions of leadership, which is the basis of Bandura's (1991) social cognitive theory. Transformational leadership (Bass, 1985) is one of the forms of traditional leadership that seem to promote employees' self-leadership by motivating them to think independently, develop their own ideas, and critically question their results. By looking at the combined influence of the two leadership forms one is able to add to the understanding of how leadership works (Andressen et al., 2012). Leadership research for instance accentuates the success factors like communication styles, personality and behaviours to correlate with and predict positive outcomes such as job performance and effective commitment (Yukl, 2002).

2.4.2   Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership has been frequently explained as a cost-benefit exchange between leaders and their followers (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1978). Ordinarily, this exchange or transaction encompasses what the leaders possess or control and what the followers want in return for services (Yukl & van Fleet, 1992). It is worth noting that in transactional leadership, leaders clarify goals and objectives, communicate to organize tasks and activities with cooperation of their employees to ensure that wider organizational goals are met (1981). Avolio and Bass (2004) define transactional leadership as setting up and defining agreements or contracts to achieve specific work objectives, discovering individuals' capabilities and specifying the compensation and rewards that can be expected upon successful completion of the tasks.

Although transformational and transactional leadership complement each other, writers argue that transactional leadership is known for its managerial approaches applied to school systems (Leithwood et al., 1999; Volante, 2012).   This leadership style is

associated with 'micropolitics' in the schools. The foundation of transactional leadership sets up a series of rewards and punishments to motivate members of the organization. For this reason, individuals who adequately meet the leader's goals and expectations will be rewarded for their hard work, for example giving them salary, bonus, or other incentives and punish those who fail or violate these goals and expectations with demotion, or termination of employment, etc. Therefore, principals are encouraged to exhibit these two leadership styles, as Miller and Miller (2001) persuasively describe the scenario:

> *Transactional leadership is leadership in which relationships with teachers are based upon an exchange for some value resource. To the teacher, interaction between administrators and the teachers is usually episodic, short-lived and limited to the exchange transaction. Transformational leadership is more potent and complex and occurs when one or more teachers engage with others in such a way that administrators and teachers raise one another to higher levels of commitment and dedication, motivation and morality. Through the transforming process, the motives of the leader and follower merge (p. 182).*

In this description, Miller and Miller (2001) see transactional leadership as an exchange process whilst Judge & Piccolo (2004) state that transactional leaders 'focus on the proper exchange of resources' (p. 755). Principals vested with positional power and authority may use transactional leadership to control rewards and manipulate the behaviour of teachers as the former requires the co-operation of teachers in securing the effective management of the school (Bush, 2011). In the end, though, the leader and employees must continue to share a common understanding of the importance of the leader's goals and expectations for transactional leadership to work. In the transactional exchange, one can see the contingent reinforcement between the principal and the teacher.

Bass and Avolio (1994) identify two dimensions of transactional leadership, i.e. management by exception and contingent reward. Avolio (2011) describes active management by exception more succinctly:

> *When active, the leader arranges to actively monitor deviations from standards, mistakes, and errors in the follower's assignments and to take*

> *corrective action as necessary. Such leadership involves a constant*
> *vigilance for possible mistakes (p. 64)*

Management by exception is divided into three forms namely management by exception-active, management by exception-passive, and constructive transactional leadership. As their names suggest, management by exception-active characterizes a leader who takes a more active role in spotting and directing problems before they become major issues, while the management by exception-passive the leader waits until problems become more noticeable. Marzano, Waters and McNulty (2005) note that constructive transactional leadership is the most effective style as leaders set goals, clarify desired outcomes, exchange rewards and recognition for accomplishments, suggest or consult, provide feedback and give employees praise when it is deserved.

Bass (1990) further notes that contingent rewards involve setting work objectives and performance standards, providing feedback, and also providing financial or psychological rewards in exchange for performance that meets expectations. Leaders using contingent reward leadership, management by exception whether active or passive, fall under the category of laissez-faire and are not effective. Therefore, the disadvantage of the three is that they do not get their teachers to go above and beyond the call of duty. And because transactional leadership has a highly structured environment and a strong emphasis on managerial authority, it has its limitations, particularly when it pertains to the creative expansion of the organization (Bush, 2011).

Transactional leadership is found on the basis that a leader is offering rewards and incentives in exchange for followers' compliance which emphasizing a one-way process of leaders over followers (Pearce & Manz, 2011). However, self-leadership model does not engage principals in rewarding the teachers as in the case of transactional; but rather use natural rewards to show feelings of competence, self-control and purpose as incentives to build into the task of presenting a good lesson. Neck and Manz (2010) argue that "talking about a person's area of expertise contributes to that person's feeling of competence and is therefore naturally rewarding". These authors further put things into perspective "most of us would prefer to make important decisions that directly affect us, rather to have someone else dictate these things to us" (p. 43). Thus, because transactional leadership is ineffective if exclusively applied without transformational

leadership, I posit that it cannot be the alternative leadership model for change and improving quality education in the Kavango region.

2.4.3 Instructional leadership

Instructional leadership is unique from other leadership styles as it focuses on the direction rather than the process of leadership (Gupton, 2003; Bush, 2011). Instructional leadership emerges as a result of the increasing emphasis on management teaching and learning as primary activities of schools. Instructional leadership is one of the three modes of school leadership that are said to improve school leadership capabilities. Apart from other three types of leadership, there is in fact a problem with no clear definition of instructional leadership and its practice.

Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinbach (1999) note that the existing studies lack the explicit descriptions and suggest that there may be different meanings of this concept. These authors define 'instructional leadership…typically assumes that the critical focus for attention by leaders is the behaviour of teachers as they engage in activities directly affecting the growth of students' (p. 8). While other scholars find it is difficult to grasp the definition of instructional leadership, Bush and Glove's (2002, p.10) definition stresses the direction of the influence process as:

> *Instructional leadership focuses on teaching and learning and on the behaviour of teachers in working with students. Learners' influence is targeted at student learning via teachers. The emphasis is on the direction and impact of influence rather than the influence process itself.*

Moreover, in broader view, instructional leadership shares with other leadership style such as transformational leadership. Whereas transformational leadership is more oriented on secondary processes aiming to improve organizational structures, culture and processes; instructional leadership has a bias towards the primary process of teaching and learning (Ogawa & Bossert, 1995; Pounder et al., 1995). The concept of integrated leadership is the relationship between instruction and transformational leadership where the expansion and increased autonomy of schools is more visible. However, this emphasis on the basis of integrated leadership between instructional leadership and administrative leadership is not effective if it excludes all the domains such as personnel and finance (Kruger & Scheerens, 2012).

Leithwood (1992) as an advocate of integrated leadership argues that this approach is efficient and effective for school leadership to adopt, which is the foundation for the questions regarding what to do to improve the school and how to do it. This implies that administration leadership and instruction leadership are different in theory but not in practice. Marks & Printy (2003) also support the integrated leadership as they argue that school leaders should be both transformational and instructional leaders. There is a contestation whether instructional leadership is a style or not. It is noted by Bentley (2011) that instructional leadership is not a leadership style as much as a leadership paradigm that spells out explicit responsibilities and task requirement of an educational leader.

In his analysis, Lynch (2012) cautions us that "the principal as an instructional leader must possess the ability to determine the type of leadership needed and implement it in a manner that treats all teachers with equal support and respect" (p. 19). Principals who rely on leadership like instructional leadership are likely to show managerial hierarchy. For example, they are the boss and teachers are subordinates. Also they have the tendency of telling what teachers are supposed to do because they say so. Seemingly, teachers in turn comply to avoid consequences.

Empirical studies in US show that integrated schools, in which both principals and teachers displayed both instructional and transformational leadership skills, performed higher on both pedagogical quality measures and authentic achievement measures; indicating that the integration of transformational and instructional leadership was required for the development of school achievement (Bentley, 2011).

Yet, although instructional leadership compels a leader to understand teaching, learning and assessment to effect improvement, it seems to have some several obstacles. It is hierarchical, which gives emphasis to power of the principal in taking the role of curriculum expert and supervisor of curriculum and instruction (Goddard, 2003). Secondly, Hallinger (2003) challenges the capability of one principal in all areas of the curriculum; thirdly, the principal being an educator and a leader at the same time lacks time to effectively engage in instructional leadership without committing significant time off the clock (Cuban, 1984; Hallinger, 2003). I now look at the distributed leadership as a possible answer.

2.4.4 Distributed leadership

The distributive leadership is a popular and standardized leadership theory in recent years that have substituted the collegiality approach as preferred new model in schools. Some writers brand distributed leadership as transformational leadership, participative leadership, shared leadership and democratic leadership (Cordeiro & Cunningham, 2013). There seems to be an assumption that because leadership shared or distributed reflects a more democratic and collaborative approach, then it is necessarily a "good thing", and that once we accept this conclusion such forms of leadership are easily achieved.

However, distributed leadership stresses the inclusion of decision making, team work and work allocation (Cordeiro & Cunningham, 2013). The clearest definition of distributed leadership that has emerged to date is found in Harris (2004) who says that distributed leadership concentrates on engaging expertise wherever it exists within the organization rather than seeking this only through formal position or role (p. 13). This combines the two definitions of Hartley (2010) who argues that its popularity may be pragmatic: to ease the burden of the overworked head teachers, and Lumby (2009) who adds that distributed leadership does not imply that school staff is necessarily enacting leadership any differently to the time when heroic, individual leadership was the focus of attention, which is more relevant in our context.

Although no literature is found on the relationship between self-leadership and distributed leadership, Cordeiro and Cunningham (2013) compare distributed leadership to shared leadership. Pearce and Conger (2003) describe shared leadership as dynamic, interactive and influencing processes among and between individuals in teams. It is however very explicit when one looks at the definition of Fletcher and Kaufer (2003) that shared leadership encourages a more explicit focus on the egalitarian, collaborative, mutually enacted, and less hierarchical nature of leader-follower interaction. In this regard I will examine the distributed leadership as a shared leadership which links with the notion of self-leadership.

Pearce and Manz (2011) contend that while self-leadership helps to create the potential for decentralizing managerial leadership, shared leadership helps to create a set of leadership checks and balances. Bligh, Pearce and Kohles (2006) argue that self-leadership skills coupled with the shared leadership, individual skill in self-leadership

may be more likely to possess self-motivation and self-efficacy and self-direction needed to step forward and contribute when they have a particular expertise that is needed at a point in time by a team that shares leadership influence.

However, Manz and Neck (2004) contend that self-leaders must be aware of the ineffectiveness of group think as opposed to team think which is the balancing of the "me" and "we". Many authors criticize the ineffectiveness of homogenous groups as opposed to diverse groups. However, even a diverse group has its own disadvantage. Nevertheless, Manz and Neck, Surowieck (2005) argues that the diversity of people and their information helps in coming to a better decision or resolution because it adds perspectives that would otherwise be absent if the decision was made by one person, even by an expert, and it takes away, or at least weakens, some of the destructive characteristics of group decision making, for example, group think. Neck and Manz (2010) encourage leaders when making decisions to engage with others who have different knowledge bases and perspectives because "the total results are greater than the sum of what each member could accomplish individually" (p. 97).

2.5 Understanding the concept self-leadership and how it is distinctive from the current leadership theories

With the high speed of change, leadership today is characterized by its dynamism and competition. Pearce and Manz (2005) observe that many institutions are shifting away from a top-heavy centralized leadership paradigm to embrace a new style of leadership that empowers employees at all organizational levels. Other authors argue that the traditional style is not authentic given its top-heavy, heroic model of leadership and questioned its persistence in contemporary organizations with severe competition (Meindl et al., 1985; Pfeffer, 1977).

However, Pearce and Manz (2005) emphasize that today's highly-educated and motivated workers are inspired to lead themselves and to share critical leadership roles that were once filled by a traditional vertical leader. This is in sharp contrast with the initial leadership literature that focuses on the leaders and the influence they exert to foster the accomplishment of organizational goals (Bass, 1990; Nahavandi, 2000; Yukl, 2020). The argument advanced by these authors reveals that they view leadership as consistent and supportive. They also have a tendency to treat leadership as a

centralized process that is restricted to a person occupying formal leadership positions in an organizational hierarchy.

2.5.1 What is self-leadership?

Self-leadership is a relatively new concept in the leadership discourse. While other scholars define leadership as a process of influencing others, Manz and Neck (2004, p. 5) describe self-leadership "as a process of influencing oneself" through which people can and do achieve self-motivation necessary to perform their tasks and work. These authors further show that many scholars state that all leadership begins with self-leadership. Yun, Cox and Sims (2006) take this argument further by stating that self-leadership looks at both thoughts and actions that people use to influence themselves and implies that people look within themselves for the sources of motivation and control.

Further, many authors have described self-leadership as a process of influencing oneself to establish the self-direction and self-motivation that are needed for effective performance (Neck & Houghton, 2006; Neck & Manz, 2010). This definition has many meanings. Humphrey (2014) has identified two ways to explain the part of self-direction and self-motivation of self-leadership: first, it implies that self-leaders have to direct their attention and focus towards the goals they want; in other words, the ones they consciously picked. This means that leaders have to take initiative in choosing, keeping their focus and working on their goals instead of being distracted. Second, self-motivation means that self-leaders take responsibility for motivating themselves. Self-motivation is the key especially when working on unpleasant or difficult tasks or tasks that have little immediate intrinsic value but great long-term benefits (p. 233).

It is observed that leaders adopting Bandura's (1986) social cognition theory are influenced and being influenced by the world they live in. This theory requires the leader to manage or control him/herself especially when faced with difficult but important tasks. Neck and Manz (2010) note 'that social cognitive theory recognizes the human ability to learn and experience tasks and events through vicarious and symbolic mechanisms' (p. 7). Intrinsic motivation theory emphasizes the natural rewards that we enjoy from doing activities or tasks that we like (Deci & Ryan, 1980). This means that principals as well as teachers should be intrinsically motivated and be capable of making full use of their abilities, talents and potentials to perform their daily duties with confidence and autonomy. Drawing from these well-established theoretical foundations, self-leadership

comprises specific sets of behavioural and cognitive strategies to shape individual outcomes.

Self-leadership strategies are divided into three categories: behavioural-focused strategies, natural reward strategies and constructive thought patterns (Neck & Houghton, 2006).

- The first strategy is the self-leadership's behaviour-focused strategy that incorporates four sub-categories such as self-observation, self-goal setting, self-reward and self-correcting feedback. (1) Self-observation involves the process of assessing one's own behaviours to identify behaviours that need to be changed, enhanced or eliminated (Mahoney & Arnkoff, 1978; Neck & Manz, 2010). (2) self-goal setting engages individuals to set up own goals and deadlines instead of relying on others to set goals for you. Research shows that setting goals increases motivation (Lock & Latham, 2002) while Boss & Sims (2008) regard this as the most important part of self-leadership. (3) Self-reward strategy involve creating reward contingencies associated with self-goal setting to energize and direct the effort necessary for goal attainment (Mahoney & Arnkoff, 1978, 1979). The core issue here is the praising of oneself for a job well done. (4) Self-correcting feedback looks at constructive self-evaluation of failures and unproductive behaviour to refocus effort in more positive directions (Manz & Sims, 2001).

- The second strategy of self-leadership is the natural reward strategy which involves tasks that one enjoys doing. Self-leaders focus on the intrinsically interesting parts of their jobs while diverting their attention away from the more routine, boring parts. It is where leaders appreciate the positive and downplay the negative aspect of their work. Neck and Manz (2013, pp. 43-44) claim that jobs are naturally rewarding when people have feelings of competence, feelings of self-control and feelings of purpose. Additionally, pleasant tasks that focus on the intrinsic aspects of the job help self-leaders feel in control of what they do and have a sense of self-determination which leads to higher self-efficacy.

- The third strategy of self-leadership is the constructive thought patterns strategy designed to help reshape certain key mental processes to facilitate more positive and optimistic thought patterns that have a significant impact on individual performance (Neck & Houghton, 2006; Neck & Manz, 1992, 1996). This includes

engaging in positive self-talk, constructive mental imagery and eliminating dysfunctional beliefs and assumptions. Self-talk is defined as what individuals covertly tell themselves in their internal dialogues whereas pessimistic self-talk corresponds with negative emotional states and dysfunctional cognitive process (Neck & Manz, 1992).

One can therefore suggest that principals who apply these strategies of the self-leadership may intrinsically motivate teachers. To be effective self-leaders, a principal needs to recognize the interdependent relationships with his or her teachers as well as the way he or she influence him or herself (Neck & Manz, 2010). It is reasonable to argue that self-leadership is necessary for school principals to model the self-leadership strategies with their teachers which will enable teachers to be innovative and creative in order to improve performance.

Personal effectiveness is an accomplishment of what one sets out to do with own life. It is developing a healthy belief in one's capabilities and values as a person and developing a fundamental and fair stable satisfaction with life (Neck & Manz, 2010). For us to better understand personal effectiveness we also need to know how self-leadership embodies self-efficacy. According to Bandura (1977) self-efficacy is our level of effectiveness in dealing with our world. If one uses his/her self-efficacy, it implies that one has the ability to decide which activity to take or to leave based on your understanding of self-efficacy.

Apart from that self-leadership enjoys continuous and increasing acceptance, there are developmental problems and criticisms (Markham & Markham, 1998; Andressen et al., 2012). Two major criticisms level against self-leadership are: (a) it cannot be distinguished from classical theories of motivation such as self-regulation and motivation, and (b) relatively few empirical studies that examine self-leadership in organizational settings (Neck & Houghton, 2006).

However, Neck and Houghton (2006) provide answers why self-leadership continues to be a distinctive model from other classic theories of motivation and personality. There is a claim that self-leadership is a normative model rather than a deductive or descriptive theory. It is normative in using the business principle to describe how things should be done rather than giving a description that explains the phenomena and fails to give specific normative advice for managing the given process. The distinctive nature

of self-leadership is embedded in a particular set of behavioural and cognitive strategies that are based on and related to but different from other theories of personality, motivation, and self-influence such as self-regulation theory and social cognitive theory (Neck & Houghton, 2006, p. 220).

Van Zyl (2009) shows that self-leadership and leadership are needed in Africa especially Southern Africa. For Van Zyl (2009), the implementation of self-leadership and leadership development is cardinal and puts it as "…especially in the rural areas where leaders have not yet discovered and do not understand their potential". Focusing on the exposure of self-leadership concepts like self-evaluation, self-knowledge and self-development from young age will however help Africans realize the importance of self-leadership and leadership development strategies (p. 83).

In view of the foregoing, I am inclined to state that despite self-leadership being a contested concept, this concept and the possible application and implementation processes may be a possible alternative for leaders in the Namibian school context. In this regard a brief outline of the origin of the concept will suffice.

2.5.2   The Origin of Self-leadership

Self-leadership concept arises from the idea of self-management as a process relates to influencing oneself (Manz, 1983, 1986, 1992; Manz & Neck, 1999, 2004; Manz & Sims, 1990, 2001). The idea of self-management was introduced by Manz and Sims (1980) with the aim of viewing employee self-management as a substitute for leadership. Manz and Sims (cited in Bligh, Pearce & Kohles, 2006) define self-management as the degree to which an individual takes responsibility for the managerial aspects of his or her job above and beyond the mere execution of traditional role responsibilities, such as working toward pre-set goals and self-administration of consequences such as rewards and punishments (p. 299).

A comprehensive history of self-leadership shows that it is different from the concepts like self-regulation and self-management. Self-regulation theory is a framework to describe and explain how people behave while self-management framework suggests how people should behave (Neck & Houghton, 2006). However, self-leadership provides the answers on what should be done and why, as an alternative to how the

task should be completed which was not the case with self-regulation and self-management (Manz, 1992).

Introduced in the early 80's, self-leadership as a process of influencing oneself and as a kind of leadership approach for performing more effectively has attracted substantial amount of attention (Neck & Houghton, 2006). An increasing body of research on self-leadership has been published (Blanchard, 1995; Drucker, 2005; Manz & Sims, 2001; Neck & Manz, 2010; Sims & Manz, 1995; Wailey, 1995) and many scholars have written quite a numbers of academic journal articles over twenty years (Boss & Sims, 2001; Konradt, Andressen & Ellwart, 2009; Manz 1996; Manz & Sims, 1987; Markham & Markham, 1995; Prussia, Anderson & Manz, 1998; Roberts & Foti, 1998; Stewart, Carson & Cardy, 1996).

Leadership is intricately linked to culture. North America, and Northern and Western Europe are examples of individualistic culture (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Self-leadership model comes from United States of America and it is grounded in the United State of American cultural values as defined by Hofstede (Alves, Lovelace, Toyasaki & Ke, 2006). Although self-leadership is a theory that underpins self-influence and intrinsic motivation of individuals, literature review on self-leadership model indicates its inapplicability in a different culture and, as a result is less relevant to Eastern Asia and Africa (Alves et al., 2006; Bligh et al., 2006).

2.5.3   Individualism

There is a clear boundary in the individualists that separate the self from others and place higher priority on personal goals rather than group goals/interests. It is further pointed out that in individualistic cultures people are self-motivated, independent and autonomous to satisfy their own interests, which denotes short-term goals- and rewards-oriented. Therefore, self-leadership from the US point of view is embedded in an individualistic orientation with different worldviews in terms of their authority, loyalty and capabilities and interpersonal relationships (Alves et al., 2006; Ho & Nesbit, 2008).

However, the study of Alves et al. (2006) shows that self-leadership is also relevant to collectivist cultures of Easterners such as Japanese, Chinese and Korea. In addition, Ho and Nesbit's (2008) observe that the application of self-leadership theory and measurement is also relevant to Chinese culture. Hamaguchi (1985) argues that self-

leadership in collectivistic cultures is not in the inner self but rather in the relationship one has with others. Thus, collectivists are motivated to work in harmony with each other which shows a high degree of self-control and agency that is directed to effectively adjusting oneself to other groups in order to reach their goals, which is contrary to the individualistic ideology (Ho & Nesbit, 2008).

2.5.4   Confucianism and self-leadership

In Chinese cultures, more attention is given to the issue of relationships and collective effort in self-leadership. This collectivist's belief is deeply influenced and linked to Confucian ideology which has shaped social interaction of people in Eastern and South-eastern Asian countries for years (Bond & Wang, 1983; Wright, 1962). Confucianism means "righteous people" guided by five hierarchical relationships ("wu lun") referred to as: emperor-subject, husband-wife, parent-child, older brother-young brother and older friend- young friend (Farh et al., 1997). Both Tu (1985) and Chu (1985) maintain that the self in Confucian is defined in the context of significant others and hence is contrary to the American individualistic concept of self (Bellah et al., 1985; Hsu, 1981; Leung, 1996).

African culture like East Asian countries, is collectivist, where the self is seen in relationships one has with others. The relationships in the African context are characterized by social interdependence. Therefore, collectivists are motivated to find a way to fit in with relevant others in order to fulfil and create obligation to be part of various interpersonal relationship (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Leung (1996) postulates that the self-observation approach by collectivists shares the Confucian belief that the future of individuals from the same in-group is inter-related and that each person's well-being depends upon the results of collective effort.

2.5.5   Ubuntu and self-leadership

Ubuntu is often taken synonymously with Confucian - the equivalent term used in Eastern and South-eastern Asian countries. Like Confucian, Ubuntu of Africa challenges the American individualistic concept of self. The concept self in Africa means 'us' rather than 'I'. Mbiti (1990) argues that 'personhood and identity of the traditional African is totally embedded in his/her collective existence' (p. 106). Khoza (2011) puts it very simple to say "it declares that each of us, in our separate lives, draws existence

from collective and we are only persons through other persons" (p. 84). Mbigi (2000, p. 6) conceptualizes Ubuntu as "I am because you are – I can only be a person through others." Ubuntu worldview contains the basic values of humanness, caring, sharing, respect and compassion (Broodryk, 2006; Khoza, 2011). Similarly, Broodryk (2006) further stresses these core values that are associated with other positive values such as warmth, empathy, giving, commitment and love.

Msila (2008) argues that the concept of Ubuntu is very crucial for a number of institutions in the society. Msila (ibid) describes how Ubuntu philosophy and strategies help South African school leaders do things together in organizations using Ubuntu as the best practice leadership style. This is supported by Khoza (2011) who opines that Ubuntu has practical implications for the work place such as creative cooperation, empathetic communication and team work. Using the philosophy of Ubuntu, one can argue that Namibian schools striving for success can adopt this philosophy to enhance effective leadership and meaningful followership that may translate to a collective solidarity among colleagues (Msila, 2008).

Like any other leadership concepts, self-leadership is applicable in Africa especially in Southern Africa. Van Zyl (2009,) succinctly summarizes self-leadership in African context "as a set of behavioural actions and mental strategies which individuals apply in order to discover and know themselves better. This information can be used to develop yourself and others (by means of self-influence and other approaches) to maximize abilities, which will eventually lead to higher performance and effectiveness" (p. 85).

In this context, the leader develops the virtues of practicing good leadership to get much of the credit as people talk about him/her focusing on the followers and the community in the light of Ubuntu philosophy. Self-leadership can therefore be associated with key concepts such as motivation, flexibility, self-esteem, humanness, dedication and interdependence which are also important in Ubuntu philosophy.

Although self-leadership is a foreign-based concept, as argued from an African perspective, self-leadership in Namibia should be seen to translate the leadership traits of leader on how they: (1) define leadership, (2) the role of leaders in motivation, and (3) the followers' expectation from the leader. Therefore, it is evident that a school applying the three dominant categories of strategies benefits in the discourse of self-leadership which represents a good relationship between principal and the teachers. Since I am

interested in self-leadership, the effective leadership style of principals in the management of their schools should be promoted in Namibia in order to address the principals developing themselves and the teachers' response to leadership styles of their principals and the participation in leadership.

2.5.6   The need for autonomy

The study of Yun, Cox and Sims (2006) suggest that people with high need for autonomy are likely to be engaged than people with a low need for autonomy. This study shows that when leaders empower their followers and encourage them to lead themselves, those followers high in need for autonomy are likely to engage in self-leadership. Similarly, the study of Roberts and Foti (1998) demonstrates that people scoring low in self-leadership were more satisfied in a highly structured job environment with little autonomy; whereas people scoring high in self-leadership were more satisfied in unstructured autonomous work environment that provided opportunities for individual initiative.

Given the background, the study of Neck and Manz (2010) suggests that not everyone is interested in leading themselves. Moreover, some people may be happier taking direction from others and working in a highly structured environment. However, in today's world with high speed of change, technology, diseases, corruption etc., the ability to lead oneself is becoming more and more important. Even people who are low in the need for autonomy and who may not naturally be interested in leading themselves will benefit from learning and utilizing self-leadership strategies. In a nutshell, self-leadership strategies can be learned and used effectively even by people who are not natural self-leaders.

2.5.7   Self-leadership and Emotional Intelligence (EI)

Self-leadership has been described as a process of influencing oneself to create self-directing and self-motivation that are needed for effective performance (Neck & Houghton, 2006; Neck & Manz, 2010). Emotional Intelligence (EI) may be related to self-leadership. Known as the 'intelligence of the heart' (Goleman, 1998), emotional intelligence constitutes the main repertoire of emotional skills, which represent our ability to recognize our emotions and those of other people in order to motivate and manage ourselves and our relationships. EI is the ability to perceive, understand, and

regulate our own or another person's emotions (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000). Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee (2002) developed the model EI. This model EI consists of four distinct dimensions – two internal and two external – that are related to the regulation of emotions.

These three dimensions include self-awareness – accurately assessing and understanding one's own emotions; self-management – effectively controlling or redirecting one's emotions and impulses; social awareness - empathizing with and being sensitive to the emotions and feelings of others, and relationship management – influencing and shaping the emotions of others. Although EI and S-L focus on similar processes of self-influence, EI is primarily concerned with the ability to self-regulate emotions whereas S-L focuses on the self-regulation of thought processes and behaviour. People scoring high in EI can control their emotions and will be more effective in leading themselves.

There is a widespread belief that great leaders have become leaders in the process, and are not born, as during the course of their lives and careers, they attain the skills that make them effective leaders (Goleman et al., 2002). Hence, emotional intelligence can therefore be developed, fostered and taught (Goleman, 1998).

2.5.8 Self-identity

Avolio and Gardner (2005) argue that one of the keys that differentiate characteristics of true leaders is their deep sense of self. The self or the self-concept has been conceptualized as the knowledge a person has about own self. Many writers argue that the self as a knowledge structure helps people organize and give meaning to their behaviour (Kihlstrom, Beer & Klein, 2003). Numerous authors assert that a person's overall self is naturally represented as a set of categories each of which represents a distinct self or identity (Marcus & Wurf, 1987; Showers & Zeigler-Hill, 2003). Hall (2004) rightly points out that self and identity as features in psychological literature are reflexive concepts which refer to the person's image or view about own self. It is therefore multidimensional and includes concepts such as self-esteem, self-knowledge, self-efficacy, self-confidence and self-consistency (Klenke, 2007).

Schlender (1985, p. 68) defines identity as a theory (schema) of an individual that describes, interrelates and explains his or her relevant features, characteristics and

experiences. According to Schlender (1985) self-identification is the process of "fixing and expressing one's own identity, privately through reflection about oneself, and publicly through self-disclosure, self-representations and other activities that serve to project one's identity to audiences" (p. 66). Baumeister (1986) describes identity as a way of seeing self, a personal construction or interpretation of the self. In emphasizing further the notion of self and identity, Marcus and Nurius (1986) point out that the possible selves such as an ideal self (how we would like to be), an ought self (how we think we should be) and the actual self. The authors argue that these possible selves are the future-oriented schema of what people think they could potentially become (Marcus & Nurius, 1986).

2.5.9 Self-awareness

A closely related concept to self and identity is self-awareness. Self-awareness is a construct that appears in most conceptualizations of self-leadership that assume that self and leadership require amplified levels of self-awareness. Whereas a person may be unconscious of all the components of identity, self-awareness refers to the extent to which people are aware of various aspects of their identities and the extent to which their self-perceptions are internally integrated and congruent with the ways others perceive them (Klenke, 2007).

Klenke (2007) also postulates that the identity is a description of what the sense of self is, while self-awareness contains an evaluative component which refers to quality and accuracy of those self-perceptions. What the author describes above is that self-awareness is a measure of the person's ability to be truly conscious of the components of self and to observe them accurately and objectively (Klenke, 2007). Moreover, Silvia and Duval (2001) concur that self-awareness occurs when individuals are cognizant of their own existence and what constitutes that existence within the context in which they operate over time.

2.5.10 Self-leadership and effectiveness

Personal effectiveness is contextual and depends on the individual. Neck and Manz (2010) describe a person as being personally effective when he or she is able to accomplish reasonably what he or she set out to do with his or her live. In other words,

if he or she develops a healthy belief in his or her capabilities and value as a person, he or she will develop satisfaction with life.

The idea of personal effectiveness is embodied in the concept of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy is the level of effectiveness in dealing with the world. Bandura further elucidates that our perceptions of our own ability to deal with and overcome situations and challenges we face in life have a major impact on our performance (cited in Neck & Manz, 2013).

Available evidence indicates that self-efficacy judgments influence the activities that are chosen to undertake or to avoid, how much effort to expand, and how long that will persist in the face of difficult situations (Neck & Manz, 2013). It must be remembered that low self-efficacy judgments of teachers; for example, the lack of the ability to deal with a difficult subject leads to anxiety and stress, and can detract teachers from producing desired academic results/performance. However, developing teachers' natural rewarding and desirable patterns of thought through constructive beliefs, self-talks, and imagery help them become effective self-leaders and achieve personal effectiveness.

In order to augment the effectiveness of teachers in the classrooms, Neck and Manz (2013, p.160) advise school principals to distinguish the four sources of perception of self-efficacy:

- Observation of the performance of others and their successes and failures. If we observe others with whom we can reasonably identify as they successfully overcome a particular challenge (earn a degree), our own self-efficacy judgments concerning the type of challenge involved should be enhanced.

- Verbal persuasion: An inspiring speech by renowned personality or a leader at work sometimes can convince the listeners that they can succeed and can move them to execute the action necessary to do so.

- Physical reactions: If we feel calm and relaxed in the face of a challenge, for example, we are more likely to judge ourselves capable of overcoming the challenge than if we feel anxious and stressful.

- Our own performance history: This is the most important source of perceptions of self-efficacy. In other words, if teachers experience successes in difficult situations their perceptions of self-efficacy will be improved; the reverse is of course true that if they experience failure, their perceptions of self-efficacy will be demoralized.

It can be further stated that if school principals or teachers seek people with whom they identify themselves; for instance, their peers or the colleagues with the same ability, who use their talents well and overcome the challenges they face, they are providing themselves with a good source of developing positive judgments of their own self-efficacy. Similarly, purposefully exposing themselves to constructive verbal persuasion and gaining control over their physical reactions to difficulties help them to improve their self-perceptions, which in turn facilitate their performance. It can be deduced from the above that personal effectiveness and self-efficacy of principals and teachers may lead to improved teaching and learning in the classrooms.

Defining and outlining the concept of effectiveness indicates that the emphasis is on the improvement of teaching and learning through personal effectiveness and self-efficacy of teachers and school principals. However, there is also a need to look at the aspect of the natural rewarding as feeling of competence which underscores the knowledge self-leadership.

2.5.11 Knowledge self-leadership

Given the speed and the change in the world today, the sea of information given to school principals by new technologies require them to have knowledge of self-leadership in order to gather and analyze countless information in their organizations. Glick, Anand and Manz (cited in Neck & Manz, 2013) state that knowledge as a feeling of competence must be developed which is necessary for building natural rewards in tasks that teachers are performing. Recently, knowledge of self-leadership has been found to be more relevant than simply education and training.

In order to cope with the knowledge environment, school principals need to adopt approaches that enhance their personal knowledge with external knowledge i.e. knowledge obtained on demand from other individuals. This approach becomes important as school principals are viewed as part of a knowledge network that includes their peers, subordinates and colleagues. School principals as effective self-leaders

make use of this approach to expand their knowledge network and make them more efficient at seeking information.

Therefore, Anand, Glick and Manz (2002) recommend that teachers and school principals need to adopt this approach that comprises of four steps to supplement their personal knowledge.

- *Willing to seek knowledge* – this implies that when other individuals in the network acquire new skills, the knowledge potentially available to them is expanded. Apart from expanding their own knowledge base, knowledge of self-leadership approach requires leaders to encourage their followers to become more knowledgeable.

- *Invest in building relationships and social networks* – It is required that leaders possess reliable and accurate knowledge that is relevant to the numerous decisions encountered in a day to day life. Leaders are expected to have a wider knowledge network to attract people with the required expertise or information. What is important in building relations and social networks is that leaders develop relationships by making extra efforts to get to know their colleagues or people from outside the organization with whom they can collaborate.

- *Need to motivate people in the knowledge network to share knowledge with* – In this respect; the intention is for the leaders to share their knowledge and information with other individuals at their time of need. Doing so creates a bond and motivates people in the knowledge network and helps them when they need it as at times some people are tempted to hoard knowledge. Principals as self-leaders should discourage teachers from hoarding knowledge as it is counterproductive. For example, acknowledging and appreciating contributors with a simple action such as a note as a reward will motivate them to repeat the actions in the future.

- *Augmenting personal knowledge* – This implies that to develop knowledge network, leaders should continuously focus on learning efforts that increase their personal knowledge. In this sense, principals and teachers become more knowledgeable in their areas of expertise and increase their attractiveness to other members in their network, and increase the probability to receive the desired information when needed. This is significant in that the increasingly continuous personal knowledge

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base increases their ability to use knowledge provided by members of their knowledge network (Neck & Manz, 2013, p. 55).

Knowledge and improvement is interrelated. To accomplish the objective of improving teaching and learning in Namibian schools, school principals must ensure that knowledge of self-leadership is significantly expanded to all educational stakeholders that will enable them to cope with the increasing information and knowledge demands of the twenty-first century when making critical decisions.

2.5.12 Self-leadership and followership

At the centre of self-leadership and followers lies mutual relationship. Leadership and followers are said to be the two sides of the same coin. Khoza (2011) refers leadership as consisting of a leader and followers and the attitudes that are adopted towards them. He further says that leadership can be described as the qualities that are seen in the leader. In other words, strong, good, weak or poor describe leadership while followership may be understood as the nature of the support shown, for example; enthusiasm, or lukewarm in adhering to the leader. This study focuses more on the common usage of the term followers. This simply describes followers as those who come along behind, willingly or unwillingly (Khoza, 2011).

In order to qualify as followers, it is expected to take a firm stance towards a leader which may translate into the effectiveness of the leader. It is argued that leadership at the top must establish reciprocal relationships with those in the middle and lower ranks to generate understanding and commitment. Followers are therefore considered to be active participants in the project of the leader. This implies in my context that principals are given great responsibilities to allow teachers to participate in major decisions that were supposed to have been taken solely by the management of the school. In other words, participative leadership plays an important role in maintaining good relations among the members to effect good results.

Rampur (2012) argues that participative leadership allows followers to give suggestions and some crucial decisions together with their leaders. However, the final decision rests with the leaders. In an ideal situation, the self-leader is perceived to have accomplished the best results in terms of the performance of a school whether the self-leader is autocratic or democratic. However, the participative leader enables the followers to play

a major part in any decision-making process, which is needed to make the followers perform better.

The above statement confirms Khoza's (2011) point, stressing the case in modern complex organizations where there has to be a shared sense of purpose focusing on mutual learning and the development of techniques to accommodate change. This change and development that the self-leader spearheads inspires, and motivates the followers to improve the quality of their performance and subsequently leads to the improvement of education. This can be a paradigm shift to many school leadership teams since they will be seen as facilitators and hence change agents. Khoza (2011) illuminates that change has come about because the tasks of leadership in modern organizations have grown more complex, resulting in great dependence on skills and insights of the followership.

A study of Bjugstad, Thach, Thompson and Morris (2006) presents a different version to leadership and followership. It suggests that the effectiveness of followers requires doing away with the misconception that leaders do all of the thinking and followers merely carry out commands. It further states that with the interconnecting of styles of leaders and followers, organizations can maximize the strengths and minimize the weaknesses of leader-follower relationships. In other words, when a leader communicates trust and respect for followers' abilities to perform and achieve, the internal motivation of the followers takes over and drives them to succeed (Bjugstad et al., 2006). I argue that if the concept of leadership cannot be separated from followers is valid, as contended by Grayson and Speckhart (2006), then the disparity that exists between the two should be narrowed because all leaders are also followers. For instance, principals reporting to school inspectors are also followers in their own right; therefore, followers want trust from principals because they understand the aspirations of the people they purport to lead.

2.6 Conclusion

This chapter has presented an account on the theoretical framework of self-leadership of principals in the Kavango region, Namibia. In this chapter different writers have attempted to define the concept leadership differently and no agreement seems to be forthcoming. The literature review reveals that leadership is about the process of directing and influencing the tasks-related activities of group members. This study has

shown the difference between leadership and management. It also clarifies the misunderstanding between a manager and a leader. The issue of effectiveness and competencies of school principals were depicted to understand how clearly they take initiative, set goals, and delegating in order to fulfil the principalship role effectively.

It chapter also shows the complexity of how to integrate the leadership in schools in the three dimensions in the practices of running schools, to bring a coherence that links substance to process and deeper values to daily task. The chapter also discusses other leadership styles that can well be integrated with self-leadership such as transformational, transactional, instructional and distributed leadership. The chapter concludes by defining the concept self-leadership as a distinctive leadership style from other leadership theories and highlighted its original and the relationship between self-leadership and followership.

CHAPTER 3   SELF-LEADERSHIP AND SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents self-leadership and school development in Namibia. The Ukwangali chieftainship shed more light on narrative of an individual traditional leader self-leadership style such as self-belief, his dedication and persistence to achieve positive results for tribe and people. This chapter also paints a picture of the strengths and abilities of the chief to lead his people while inspire them through his actions. While the chapter focuses mainly on self-leadership of the traditional leader, other important sections in this chapter are devoted on different leadership preparation internationally, regionally as well as the Namibian context.

The major topics included in this chapter focus on the following: (1) the global perspective of school leaders, (2) school leadership in Africa, (3) self-leadership and development, (4) the relationship between leadership and followership.

3.2 Ukwangali Kingdom/Chieftaincy (The Royal Genealogy of the Ukwangali)

Since 1700, Ukwangali Kingdom had produced twenty kings and queens[3] of whom six were females, not quasi-leaders but truly leaders. Interestingly, Ukwangali kingdom in the early days of 17th century was ruled by queens in successive years from 1750 – 1886. According to the genealogy of the Ukwangali kings and queens; queens ruled in the following order: Mate I ruled from 1750 – 1775, queen Nankali from 1775 - 1784, queen Simbara from 1785 - 1800, queen Mate II from 1800 – 1818 while queen Mpande 1880 – 1886.

Hompa[4] Daniel Sitentu Mpasi is the current leader of the VaKwangali Royal in the Kavango west of the Namibia. He has been at the helm of leadership for almost three decades now and is the 20th hompa of the VaKwangali, a descendent of a lineage of Hompa Kandjimi Murangi. His father Mpasi served as chief councillor for both hompa Mbandu and Kandjimi Murangi. Hompa Sitentu learnt great skills from his father about great leaders of the world and how to resolve conflicts. Hompa Sitentu, in the context of

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[3]   Vahompa wovagara nava wovakadi is the Rukwangali equivalent terms for kings and queens and its usage is abounded only in early year 1700.
[4]   Hompa has currently lost its significance title to a mere *'chief'* during 1970s.

the VaKwangali people, was a daring leader with a strong personality who had an unfriendly attitude towards the former South African Administration in Namibia.

Under the leadership of Hompa Sitentu, the Ukwangali Kingdom[5] experienced political upheaval for the liberation struggle of Namibia; and his community, including other people from different backgrounds, demanded for his courageous leadership. In his inaugural speech as Hompa he promised his fellow Ukwangali men and women that he would lead them through the troubled waters and take them through the striking valleys for prosperity. This noble promise was well-received by the followers who in turn pledge to follow him if he had to live by his promise. It is for this reason that he had earned respect from his followers and they had high expectations from him as a hompa. Everywhere where one went during this period; people, mostly from his tribe, would refer hompa Sitentu as "*olyo egara*"[6] to adore his leadership.

On the recommendation of his father, Hompa Sitentu firmly appointed notable *marengas* (chief councillors) from the greatest *masimbis* (senior councillors) who were individuals with extraordinary skills and knowledge from their respective communities to run the Ukwangali Traditional Authority[7] with him. These contingents of masimbis and marengas were strong people with business acumen; lineage and teaching background; skills that allowed them to help hompa Sitentu to maintain some degree of unity among the VaKwangali people. Masimbis handled minor cases while hompa would tackle all the major ones. However, followers had free access to have their cases heard by hompa. At village and district level trials were conducted by the vibrant masimbis among others; Mr. Karel Kasiki (deceased), Mr. Severinus Siteketa and Mr. Alex Muranda zaHamunyera (deceased) who were commonly known as the 'trio advocates' of the Ukwangali court.

The elevation of Mr Ngondo as an erenga lyahompa[8] was hailed by the kingship and the entire Ukwangali populace. Hompa Sitentu trusted his erenga so much that he could represent hompa in every important gathering, meetings and events. Mr Ngondo was the most powerful man who had the oratorical ability to use metaphors (Fumanti, 2003) when delivering speeches to invoke the values and sentiments of the Ukwangali people.

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[5] It is the period between 1970 to 1989 before Namibia's independence from South Africa
[6] Hompa Sitentu was accorded status as a 'heroic man' by his people.
[7] Traditional Authority is a term introduced by the former South African Administration in the early 1970s in place of kingdom.
[8] Mr Ngondo was hompa Sitentu's personal aide and chief councillor from 1989 – 2010.

Meetings with government officials and army officers attested to the impact of the strength of the Rudi roVakwangali[9] of the VaKwangali through this erenga. Many followers welcomed the appointment of Mr. Ngondo and praised hompa Sitentu as true leader of his people.

The genesis of his leadership depicted some significant events to remember. At the pre-independence period[10], he was known as an independent hompa who did not fear the former South African army. Whenever his people were arrested for harbouring Swapo combatants, he would personally intervene and subpoena the army commanders to his palace for explanation. Because of his commitment to the cause of his people, particularly to mingle in the politics of his people, the army was discontent and had attempted to assassinate him. For example, at some point, with the support of his followers, he ordered the removal of the army base which was located in Kandjimi Murangi secondary school at Nankudu area. Hompa Sitentu was so defiant to the extent of condemning the notorious activities of the South African soldiers through Radio Kavango. It is at this point that he reached his successful leadership crescendo as a top leader in the Kavango region where he received accolades from his people for leading them during the precarious times[11].

At independence[12], he became unpopular with some of his followers as these disgruntled individuals felt that hompa Sitentu was no longer living up to his expectations and requested him to renounce the throne. The demand was not in line with the Ukwangali tradition which created tensions between the hompa and some followers. Hompa Sitentu suspected that there was a conspiracy to overthrow him, a plan he thought must have been worked out by his trusted masimbis and marengas in conjunction with Ukwangali Traditional Anti-Corruption Advisors (UTACA). Hompa sacked his erenga for the purported involvement and establishing of UTACA. This dramatic event signalled the fulfilment of the Rukwangali maxim which says that '*urenga kurenguruka utenya kutenyunuka ano "hompa no ku mutjidasi"*[13]. Hompa Sitentu

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[9] This term Rudi means kingdom/traditional authority or the lineage of a certain clan of the VaKwangali people.

[10] It is the transitional period after Namibia's independence in 1990 as Kavango region still has five chieftainships namely, VaKwangali, VaMbunza, VaShambyu, VaGciriku and HakaMbukushu.

[11] Of the five Hompas in Kavango region hompa Sitentu was reckoned with as the strongest traditional leader in entire Kavango prior to Namibia's independence in 1990.

[12] This suggests that hompa Sitentu demonstrated good leadership qualities during the three decades of his chieftainship despite internal problems.

[13] Literally means that the office of erenga may cease; the consortship may cease, but hompa remains.

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passed away on the 17th of December 2014 at the Nkurenkuru mission hospital in the Kavango West region.

3.3 Leadership in the Namibian Context

Namibia has made remarkable progress in addressing the major goals of education: access, quality, democracy and equity to redress the past imbalances as benchmarks for future education and development (MBEC, 1993). However, the Namibian education has been characterized by leadership and management challenges for those who are entrusted to run schools. The government of the Republic of Namibia also noticed the importance of the role of the principals to improve the quality of education in Namibia. The policy document *Towards Education for All* (MEC, 1993, p. 38) resonates the government intention:

> *For teachers to be effective in structuring and managing the learning process, supervision must be supportive, not punitive. Principals, inspectors, subject specialists, and others must all see their roles as using their expertise to improve what happens in the classroom. The need to be imaginative in helping teachers to overcome the obstacles they encounter. And where they find that particular teachers lack expertise or skills, they must be creative in helping those teachers see additional work they need, not as a sanction, but as an opportunity to improve their own abilities, to do their own job more competently, to be better respected by colleagues, learners, and parents.*

The above explains the daunting tasks and responsibilities that the principals face in terms of their supervision and support to improve the quality of education in Namibia. The Namibian government also acknowledges that good educators are necessary. Good managers also need training and development to run their schools effectively. In this regard, the MBEC (1993, p. 161) sums it up:

> *As we develop and modify this organizational structure, we are also learning how to operate it effectively. Many educators and administrators have assumed responsibilities for which their professional preparation and experience was limited. That has the value of forcing them to examine their responsibilities with fresh eye not yet encumbered by years of service in a bureaucratic setting. […]. Hence, we must be sure that we develop an*

effective programme of in-service education not only for our teachers, but also for our managerial and administrative personnel at both national and international levels.

In order to align with the demand, the Presidential Commission on education, culture and training (1999) recommends that schools deserve good principals who can realize the challenges of the 21st century. With rapid changes globally and political landscape in Namibia, education requires school principals with high level of skills and new competencies.

Bolden and Kirk's (2009) studies on leadership styles in sub-Saharan Africa suggest that a preference was shown for charismatic/value-based team-oriented, participative and humane approaches. The overall findings of these studies (Bolden & Kirk, 2009, p. 72), which also includes data on Namibia, points out to 'a very crude indication of cultural preferences within these [sub-Saharan African] regions but offer little insight into how people come to conceive of, and take up, a leadership role, or the impacts of this on society'.

From all indicators, several countries have made significant strides and efforts at giving professional training to teachers who aspire to make a career of school principalship (Bush & Oduro 2006). A closer look at the developed countries shows that year of experience and seniority are no longer a requirement to appoint people into administrative responsibilities. Regrettably, professional training of school principalship has not received any serious attention in Namibia. The Republic of Namibia (2007) confirms that Namibia does not require management training as pre-condition for promoting teachers to become principals or heads of department and acknowledges the deficiency of professional staff development for managers.

Even though the University of Namibia (UNAM, 2012) offers modules and courses to equip student teachers and aspiring principals in educational management and leadership, Mushaandja's (2013) study reveals that principals fell short on how to manage and lead people – be it subordinates or superordinate parents which is the most crucial challenge they face. They resolve to maintain the status quo of playing the role of managers rather than that of leaders. This suggests that modules and courses on educational management and leadership offered by UNAM is generic managerial

skills and knowledge, which engages principals only in administration and bureaucratic work, instead of real management and leadership (ibid, 2013).

A need for a thorough investigation of the self-leadership for school principals in the Kavango region of Namibia in their own self-development, their relationship with teachers, the teachers' response to leadership styles of the principals, and the contributions of the leadership styles to improvements in teaching and learning is paramount. Principals in Namibia are required to be self-leaders as they need to be role models of effective self-leaders in their schools in order to sustain quality education through behavioural-focused, natural rewards and constructive strategies (Manz & Neck, 2004; Neck & Manz, 2010).

For Namibian schools, this is a crucial factor because it necessitates that the principal be a principal with self-motivation, self-confidence and self-esteem so that they in turn motivate their teachers so that teachers reach self-actualization as advocated by Maslow's hierarchy of needs in the contexts that is functionally from the outside people (Humphrey, 2014). I argue that principals have to lead by example as evidence shows that it is invariably a leader who can influence the followers. What this suggests is that the tradition of inflexible leadership style, directive and top-down models of leadership and management behaviour is obsolete and ought to be replaced with modern leadership styles (Manz & Neck, 2004).

3.4 The Current Leadership Development Programme

3.4.1 The Difference between of Preparation and Development

Bush and Moloi (2008) define leadership preparation as a process of acquiring appropriate knowledge and skills before taking up the position of principal. In general terms, preparation implies that leadership learning begins before appointment to a senior position such as headship. In other words, teachers with the necessary qualifications and experiences must go through processes in order to reach the position of principalship. In many countries such as Canada, England, France, Singapore and the USA, aspiring principals complete an approved pre-service qualification before being considered for appointment, whereas in several countries in Africa is not the case.

The concept of development is sometimes used to describe the growth process. Daresh (2004) identifies various developmental concepts underlying mentoring: professional

development, cognitive development, professional development and adult development. Gibb (2008) views development to differ from both training and education and defines it as learning which changes the whole person in some substantial way and helps people grow, not just changing their vocational skills or academic knowledge.

For the purpose of this study, professional leadership development will be discussed. Where preparation is a pre-requisite for seniority in most developed nations, leadership development is understood to be a broader concept that involves the whole process in educating leaders. Day (2001, p. 582) presents a clear clarification of development as a concept of 'expanding the collective capacity of organizational members to engage effectively in leadership roles and processes'. The alternative terms for leadership development are inductions, workshops, mentoring and coaching. In the same vein, the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2008) asserts that leadership development is a continuum that includes phases such as initial leadership training, induction programmes, and in-service training. Gronn (2003) warns about the 'designer leadership development programmes' that is based on achieving certain competencies and standards, which does not create the types of leaders for this new regime - what Lupton (2004, p. 31) refers to 'as the wide variation between [institutions] that may give rise to differentiated strategies'.

3.4.2 Claims for Leadership Development

It has been observed that in most countries, school principals begin their professional careers as teachers and progresses through a range of leadership tasks and roles often called 'middle management' to principalship. The advocates of leadership development argue that principals remain teachers who do both teaching and administration concomitantly and that teaching is still the main activity (Roeder & Schkutek, 2003) and that teaching qualification and teaching experience are the only requirements for school leadership (Bush & Oduro, 2006). In terms of capable principals, Kitavi and van der Westhuizen, (1997, p. 252) argue that 'good teaching abilities are not necessarily an indication that the person will be a capable educational leader'.

Bush (2008) suggests that the 21st century requires principals to be specialists and hence the need for specific preparation. Equally, Arikewuyo (2009) resonates that school principals are no longer to function as passive managers but are increasingly expected to respond to the growing dynamism and unpredictability of external school

environment to steer their schools forward as innovative leaders. Thus, Bush (2012) regards this as a paradigm shift that includes the expansion of the role of the school principal, the increase in complexity of school contexts, recognition that preparation is a moral obligation and acknowledgment that effective preparation and development make a difference.

Generally, the central argument for the school leadership development is grounded on the roles of school leaders as middle management, the school contexts, moral obligation, effective leadership and school outcomes. From the abovementioned argument, there seems to be an increasing demand on the role of school leaders. That is, principals are facing immense accountability pressures and expectations from government, parents and wider communities (Crow, 2006). Drawing on evidence from 23 countries, the OECD (2008, p. 11) comments that 'school leaders need specific training to respond to broadened roles and responsibilities'.

Bush and Oduro (2006) clearly stipulate the challenges of the African principals in terms of schools with poor buildings, little or no equipment, untrained teachers; lack of basic facilities like water, power, sanitation and learners who are often hungry. Brundrett et al (2006) show that the scope of leadership and management in many countries has expanded from governments to local, regional or national bureaucracies to school principals as result of devolution of power. In the same vein, Barber et al. (2010, p. 5) say that the international trend ... towards the devolution of school management...makes decisions at school level progressively more important to the success of the system'. In the Namibian context, the power of school principals is still at micro level and thus confirms the assertion by Watson (2003) who argues that devolution produces increasing complexity for the head.

The fundamental argument of leadership development is the increasing complexity of school contexts. As Hallinger (2001) notes, the rapid change around the world is unprecedented. The change in the world has affected Namibia and other African countries in terms of economic integration, leading to widespread recognition that education holds the key and remain competitive. Principals are pressured in schools to deal with increasing complexity and change. Adding to the discourse, Crow (2006, p. 315) notes how technological and demographical change contribute to the complexity affecting school leaders and the impact on the nature of leadership preparation. As a matter of fact, it should not be seen as what Watson (2003, p. 13) calls 'entitlement',

meaning being qualified for classroom teaching and competent as a teacher is sufficient for principalship. Rather, potential principal must be given a right to be developed appropriately as a moral obligation to lead schools, manage staff and care for learners (Bush, 2012).

A research study by Sackney and Walker (2006), on the beginning principals in the US, finds that they are not prepared for the pace of the job, the amount of time it takes to complete tasks and the number of tasks required. The same study reveals that principals felt unprepared for the loneliness of the position. Equally, Daresh & Males (2000) research with first-year principals in England and in the United States of America identifies the 'culture shock' of headship for the first time. Both of these research studies provoke a debate as they discuss the challenges of leadership preparation and development and the role they play in schools. Brundrett et al. (2006, p. 90) assert that leadership development is a 'strategic necessity' for the growth of the principal's role. Additionally, Avolio (2005) stresses the case for leadership development on the grounds that leaders are 'made not born'; if leadership is systematically prepared, it will more likely lead to the production of effective leaders.

Effective leadership development is fundamental for school outcomes. Similarly, high quality leadership makes a difference to school outcomes and learning performance. Huber (2004, pp. 1 - 2) is of the opinion that 'schools classified as successful have competent and sound school leadership'. Although Crow et al. (2008) differ; they caution others that leaders do not have control over all elements which contribute to school improvement. Leithwood et al. (2006) observe 'that school leadership is second only to class teaching as an influence on pupil learning'. Moreover, the impact of leadership is significant in recent research reports. Hallinger and Heck (1998) show that leadership account for about 3 – 5 percent in student achievement, whereas the Leithwood et al. (2006) widely-cited reports that leadership gives 5 – 7 percent difference in pupil learning.

The meta-analysis study of Robinson et al. (2008) clearly shows that instructional leadership better captures the impact of school leadership on learning than transformational leadership as applied to education, but does not appear to measure all the processes by which leaders' impact on teaching and learning. Other studies that suggest strong impact of leadership is that of Barber et al.'s (2010) analysis of studies in England and North America and Bush, Kiggundu, Moorosi (2011) study of the impact of

South African's National Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE). It is reported that school principals involved in the ACE programme improved their matriculation (school-leaving) results twice as fast as other schools between 2006 and 2010 (Bush et al., 2011). Other studies highlight that schools must incorporate an educational focus that is lacking in transactional leadership model in order to be successful (Hallinger, 2003; Robinson et al., 2008).

3.4.3 Leadership Preparation and Development: Critique

While it is widely accepted that leadership development promotes good leadership (Bush, 2008), some reviews of the leader development have largely ignored the unitary and one-dimensional notion of the self as a leader (Collinson, 2003). Exponents of educational leadership challenge the traditional conceptualization of the self and identity in leadership preparation and development (Lumby & English, 2009). Consequently, the main argument is for a multifaceted model that goes well with the realities of leadership in schools which have the potential to tell the "dark secrets" of leadership preparation of self. Simply put, the dark secrets are things such as racism, gender, minority and culture that exist but are not explicitly addressed although they are very important. Goffman (1956, p. 141) describes the notion of 'dark secrets' in leadership preparation as "the facts which are known but not openly acknowledged and which are incompatible with the image that is desired".

There are on-going narratives and on-going relationships in the education leadership discourse. Lumby & English (2009) continue to argue that identity can be self and the co-constructed. In other words, self cannot change but identity changes depending on the situation where leader finds him or herself. The on-going narrative is that self as a leader has to contextualize the mythical narrative while the on-going relationships look at the adaptation of multiple identities as an effective leader is able to adapt his or her leadership style to the needs and aspirations of their followers and situation (Lumby & English, 2009). In order to accomplish the realities of leadership in schools, the leader has to do three things: (a) he has to construct identity, (b) he has to develop narrative that portrait him or her as a leader and (c) he has to adapt multiple identities.

Comparably, Lumby and English (2009) add on the notion of 'dark secrets' as in line with mythology that is widespread and 'still operational needs and practices that humans, everywhere and all times, appear to possess and require in their need for

leadership' (p. 96). It is charged that the model of leadership preparation is overshadowed by normal norms fail to adequately account for the 'dark side' of the development leadership because they lack a moral theoretical component (ibid, 2009). This implies that school leadership development must be aware of both the 'dark secrets' and the 'dark side' to understand leadership identity and development of self.

Routinzation and ritualization are the two concepts used in Lumby and English's review. According to them, the former removes the need for human agency while the latter requires it. They further assert that rituals establish meaning in the world of action and define the values within which leaders work, connect the dynamic tension and relationships between leaders and followers as all become players in the landscape of human theatre (Lumby & English, 2009). Given that today we may have a class of people with multiple cultural backgrounds probably with different rituals, their paper however, does not seem to tell us how the different rituals should be addressed.

3.5 Global Perspective of School Leadership

Leadership preparation and development for principalship began in the developed countries. Countries such as America, England, Sweden and Australia have formally institutionalized colleges which offer training for school principals before and after appointment to school leadership. An organized preparation and development of aspiring principals occur before their appointment, which follow by the constant development after appointment to increase performance of their duties. Preparation and development in these contexts is compulsory and is a need for anyone aspiring to become a principal.

Preparation and development for principals in Asia, for instance, Hong Kong and Singapore has taken a different form. Principals from Asian countries attend their principalship programme in the developed countries. In Hong Kong, the foundations for leadership education for principals started by Hong Kong Education Department in 1999 after visits to similar programmes in England, Scotland, Austria and Singapore (Wong & Chung-Chi, 2004). Newly appointed school principals receive a nine-day compulsory introduction course presented by the education department.

Drawing from the International Successful School Principalship Project (ISSPP) study (2001), there is evidence that excellent and quality leadership does create successful

schools. The study conducted in the developed countries such as Australia, Denmark, Sweden, England, Norway, Canada and US reveal that successful school principals influence school improvement and thus student learning and achievement in direct and indirect ways (Moos, Day & Johansson, 2011).

In Australia, leadership development relies on an apprenticeship model where school principals gain their skills and experience on-the-job as they move up the ranks to principalship (Su, Gamage & Mininberg, 2003). Principals do not need masters' degrees but possession of such qualifications may lead to promotion to leadership roles (Anderson et al., 2008). There has been an increasing quality of leadership programmes for services and experienced school leaders, formal and informal coaching, mentoring, and shadowing programmes, regional-based internships and paid up leave to attend professional learning programmes and conferences in Australia and overseas. The study of Gurr, Drysdale, Ylimaki and Jacobson (2011) shows that active involvement in formal and informal leadership preparation programme enable principals to be better leaders and help create successful schools.

Preparation and development in USA and UK have come under scrutiny for having overlooked the self and identity or the need for 'self-reflection' (Shipman et al., 2007, p. 9). Gardner (1965) reveals that 'More often than not we don't want to know ourselves, don't want to depend on ourselves, [and] don't want to live with ourselves'. Csoka (2012) concurs that a leader development approaches, overlooked in literature and in practice, focuses on the development of mental skills that are essential for developing greater self-control and self-regulation, so critical for exceptional performance in extreme conditions (p. 216). The same sentiment is expressed by Lumby and English (2009) that leadership preparation and development are not about normalizing and routinizing decision-making but about improving situations of great complexity which need at least a pluralistic notion of identity.

3.6 School Leadership in Africa

There is a great demand that principalship plays an important role in bringing about school improvement and effectiveness which may lead to quality education. At the core of school effectiveness centres the leadership preparation and development of school principals to make a difference in both effectiveness and efficiency of schooling. Studies

show that good preparation and development of school principals may lead to school effectiveness and improvement (Bush, Kiggundu & Moorosi, 2011).

All indicators show that professional training of school administrators for principals, for example, secondary schools in Nigeria have not been given any serious attention in educational policies (Arikewuyo, 2007). Like in many African states, it is generally believed that experienced teachers can be promoted to the rank of principals in secondary schools. In fact, teachers who have spent a minimum of 10 years of teaching experience are usually promoted as principals and vice principals. The Federal Republic of Nigeria (2004) declares that "all teachers in educational institutions shall be professionally trained. Teacher education programmes shall be structured to equip teachers for the effective performance of their duties" (pp. 39 – 40).

Customarily, the government in Nigeria only pays attention to the training of teachers and no mention has been made of the training of heads of schools. There is a wide held believe that those who would be principals should rise to the position from among the products of teacher education. Arikewuyo (2007) argues that the length of teaching experience is the major yardstick in the appointment of principals of schools. There is a mismatch between teaching and school administration which are not necessary the same thing. According to Arikewuyo (2007) school administration is an art, and like all other arts, has its intricacies which must be learnt and mastered by anyone who wants to make a success of the system.

In Kenya, Ibrahim (2011) highlights expectations of a school principal undergoing as an accounting officer, the principal is expected to interpret, implement policy decisions pertaining to training, overall organization, coordination and supervision of activities in school to maintain high training and learning standards.

A study carried out by Mathibe (2007) shows that South African principals are not appropriately skilled and trained for school management and leadership. This initiative is to serve the incumbent principals, the deputy principals and school management team as well as those members aspiring to become effective principals. Van der Westhuizen et al.'s (2004) study in Mpumalanga province of South Africa shows that 'wide-ranging changes in the education system have rendered many serving principals ineffective in the management of their school. Many of these principals lack basic management training before and after their entry into headship (p.1). South Africa is

praised for having introduced a new qualification for aspiring school principals, badged as the Advanced Certificate in Education for School Leadership (ACE).

The content of the ACE programme was heavily criticized for focusing more on management rather than leadership and that the government has control over principals' training through a tightly structured programme with a specific format and outcomes (Christie, 2010). Heystek (2007) argues that while this may be positively interpreted as a signal of the government's political will to improve the system, at the same time it is questionable whether such a control and managerialist approach can be accurately identified with leadership.

Petriglieri (2012) echoes Heystek that leadership development remains limited, focusing on abstract knowledge and behavioural competencies and offering little insight into the ways leaders are made or broken, in the space between their personal history and aspirations, and the dynamics of groups and the social systems in which they live. The crux of the matter is what English, Papa, Mullen and Creighton (2012) describe "…that in the preparation of leaders, we have grounded them not in principles of learning and teaching, but in models of managerial efficiency, order, and organizational harmony (p. 105).

3.7 Self-leadership and School Development

Manz and Sims (1980) conceptualize self-leadership as a substitute for external formal leadership. However, leadership is often a necessary component for facilitating self-leadership to an extent that it empowers employees and allows them to exercise influence over work processes. Accordingly, more modern approaches to leadership emphasize the need for leaders to assist employees in leading themselves (Manz & Sims, 1987). It is for this reason that Deci, Connell and Ryan (1989) argue that leadership that supports self-determination, for example, a sense of choice in initiating and regulating one's own actions, results in more attitudes on the part of the employees is important. Transformational leadership aims to develop employees through increased participation and empowerment (Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003).

The concept of knowing oneself has many terms in the leadership literature. The common argument is that in order to be an effective leader one must have inbuilt knowledge of oneself and must be able to self-reflect, self-evaluate and self-direct

(Drucker, 1999; Goleman et al., 2002; Kouzes & Posner, 1995; Manz & Sims, 2001; Yukl, 2002). This practice can be openly modelled as the behaviour that the school principals want teachers to emulate. This practice is essential for schools as organizations (Senge, 1990) and is supported in the self-leadership literature (Manz & Neck, 2004; Manz & Sims, 2001). It is very important that school principals be aware of the practices that influence self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation because these are vital factors in influencing individual action (DiLiello & Houghton, 2006). Moreover, knowing oneself has been further developed as "knowing who we are as leaders is as important as, if not more important than, whom we lead" and consequently that "leading ourselves at the most basic level is the most mastery over what we think, say and do" (Csoka, 2012, p. 215).

This seems to supersede the generic leadership conceptualization that looks at influencing others as opposed to self-leadership that gives more emphasis on a person. This is in line with empowering people to lead themselves as they are their own ultimate leaders. A self-leader is characterized by high self-esteem and self-knowledge that has the ability to work independently; highly intrinsically motivated and an autonomous individual who has a great self-control and self-regulation for exceptional performance in extreme conditions. School principals in Namibia ought to displace these major characteristics of self-leadership in order to empower and lead themselves. Manz and Neck (2004) argue that an effective self-leader is not egoistic but strives to balance between focusing on cohesiveness of a work group and/or organization and focusing on the value and identity of each individual. Consequently, self-leadership does not only favour the work group or organization but encourages individuals to find their own personal identity and mode of contribution as part of establishment of a group or organization that produces synergistic performance (Ibid, 2004).

The appropriate most frequently asked question of self-leadership in literature is 'if you are not able to lead yourself, how can you lead others?'(Csoka, 2012; Sydanmaanlakka, 2004). An advocate of Self Ltd Model and Total Wellness Model Sydanmaanlakka (2002) argues that self-leadership is the foundation of all leadership. In attempting to answer the question, Sydanmaanlakka (2004) explains that self-leadership is an enabling process whereby a person learns to know him or herself better and through this better understanding is able to steer own life better. Sydanmaanlakka's assertion brings to mind that there is a need to develop principals to have a common feature of

self-leadership through self-development so that they develop high self-esteem, self-knowledge, flexible and fast learners to cope with the totally unexpected situations (Sydanmaanlakka, 2004).

Prokopenko (1998, p. 532) recognizes that self-development 'is a process in which individuals take the initiative, with or without the help of others in diagnosing their own needs. Self-development is effective as people who take initiative in developing their competences learn more things, and learn better, than do people who sit at the feet of teachers passively, waiting to be taught. They enter the process with more purpose and with better motivation'. Furthermore, self-development in this context means that principals can build up their self-awareness that support their self-efficacy as the ability to mobilize their motivation, cognitive resources and courses of action needed to meet given situational demands (Bandura, 1986). Prokopenko claims that self-development is natural as it is a thread within which people become competent. This is required by Namibian school leaders to grow professionally as they also develop a strong need to be competent.

Van Zyl (2009) affirms that the notion of self-leadership and leadership development in Africa, especially in rural areas is crucial as leaders have not yet discovered or understand their potential. Exposure to self-leadership concepts such as self-evaluation, self-knowledge and self-development, may help school principals realize the importance of self-leadership and leadership development strategies (ibid, 2009). Neck and Manz (2010 p. 96) identify two ways self-leaders can demonstrate a clear self-knowledge: (1) lead others when they possess relevant knowledge; and (2) be led by others when they possess relevant expertise. The notion of self-development is critical for this study as it provides an understanding of how school principals are developed in the Namibian context. It is argued that self-development is particularly relevant in the Namibian context as there is a lack of support in the form of organized leadership development programme.

The key element advocated by the exponents of self-leadership is the process in which people direct and motivate themselves to behave and perform in a desired way (Houghton & Neck, 2002; Manz, 1992; Neck & Manz, 2010). Lovelace, Manz and Alves (2007) argue that self-leadership is one of the potentially strong ways for leaders to improve active work environment that can foster self-leadership in themselves and their employees. Through effective leadership of self, leaders gain great control over their

own motivation, coping and overall effectiveness and in turn facilitate this capacity in others in order to reduce unnecessary demands on the leaders (Lovelace et al., 2007).

The fundamental advantage of self-leadership is not only that school principals exert influence over themselves but how much control they have over themselves in times of difficulty. In this context, the school principals may exercise choice rather than being controlled by environment. Csoka (2012) contends that leaders must not only exercise influence but should make a distinction between influence and control. By saying this, he acknowledges that the ultimate goal of leadership is to influence people to do the best of their abilities. Self-control also enables leaders to be at their best (Csoka, 2012, p. 216). However, controlling people is a myth because people are free to make own choices even if it is harmful or can even resist control to their death (Csoka, 2012; Neck & Manz, 2010).

This requires that leaders' development of skills that promote followers' capacity take more responsibilities for their own direction. Motivation can also increase the effectiveness of their followers influence. In the same vein, Manz and Sims (2001) argue that leaders' influence efforts are not only focused on leading themselves but also leading others to lead themselves. Empowerment is the key point in self-leadership. Empowerment emphasizes employee self-influence processes rather than hierarchical control processes and actively encourages the utilizing of self-leadership strategies (Cox, Pearce & Perry, 2003). Cox, Pearce and Sims (2003) describe empowerment as "a robust, flexible and dynamic leadership infrastructure" (p. 172).

Both Pearce and Sims (2002) and Pearce, Yoo and Alavi (2003) find a positive relationship between empowering leadership and performance related outcomes, which include problem-solving quality and overall team effectiveness. Empowering leadership also shows strong effects on individual and team behaviour (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades & Drasgow, 2000; Srivastava, Bartol and Locke, 2006). Empowering and shared leadership are interlinked which involve an interactive dynamic influence process among group members who lead one another to help reach the goals of the group or organization (Pearce, 2004; Pearce & Conger, 2003; Pearce & Manz, 2005). Research recommends that performance in work teams significantly enhances the sharing of leadership (Ensley & Pearce, 2000; Hooker & Csikszentmihalyi, 2003; Pearce, 1997; Pearce & Sims, 2002; Pearce, Yoo & Alavi, 2004; Shamir & Lapidot, 2003).

Fostering a continuing shared leadership does not only free the leader from the demands as a source of influence but also frees various employees with different backgrounds, training and experience to step up and lead as the work requires (Lovelace et al., 2007; Stewart, Courtright and Manz (2010). Shared leadership connects individual self-leadership with issues related to work teams (Pearce, Manz & Sims, 2009). Neck and Manz (2010) argue that an effective shared leadership requires all team members to trust that each will follow with his or her specific responsibilities; thus, all members need to be capable self-leaders. It is further argued that capable self-leaders have self-confidence and self-awareness to know their abilities and their limitations (ibid, 2010).

A commonly related characteristic of self-leadership is engagement and that is related to flow. Engagement is vigour, dedication to and absorption in work. Maslach and Leiter (1997) describe engagement as the high levels of energy, involvement and efficacy that one experiences from their work. Csikszentmihalyi (1997) describes flow as a state of harmonious consciousness that is goal oriented and in which people want to pursue an activity for its own value. Flow creates a state of joyous self-forgetful involvement and often includes stretching personal skills in the pursuit of overcoming meaningful challenges (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997). He further contends that when people are fully and completely engaged in work they believe in and feel passionate about, they are in the state of flow (ibid, 1997).

This may create a tendency of workaholic whereby leaders experience excessive demands from the responsibility of leading others, given the complexity, dynamic and highly competitive conditions found in the contemporary organizations. Promoting self-leadership in others and sharing leadership may be the answer to balance engagement work situation for themselves and those they lead (Hooker & Csikszentmihalyi, 2003). Lovelace et al. (2007) emphasize that leadership development fosters the experience of flow and the subsequent outcome of increased engagement through the practice of self and shared leadership.

3.8 Relationship between Leader and Followers

Defining from a business perspective, Lewin and Regine (2000) state that "this new science, we find at our work, leads to a new theory of business that places people and relationships – how people interact with each other, the kinds of relationships they form

– into dramatic relief. In a linear world, things may exist independently in predictable ways. In a non-linear, dynamic world, everything exists only in relation to everything else, and the interactions among agents in the system lead to complex, unpredictable outcomes. In this world, interactions or relationships, among its agents are the organizing principle" (pp. 18 -19).

Relationships are not the product of networking, but genuine relationships based on authenticity and care (Lewin & Regine, 2000). They further contend that "Actually, most people want to be part of their organization; they want to make a difference. When the individual soul is connected to the organization, people become connected to something deeper: the desire to contribute to a larger purpose, to feel they are part of the greater whole, a web of connection" (ibid, p. 27). It is important that school principals change their perspective as Lewin and Regine, (2000, p. 27) assert "to pay as much attention to how we treat people – co-workers, subordinates, customers – as we now typically pay attention to structures, strategies and statistics".

On the other hand, Bishop (2000) argues that leadership in the twenty first century must move from a product-first formula to relationship-first formula and offers answer to the question Goffee and Jones (2000) ask, "Why should anyone be led by you?" To this end, Fullan (2003, p. 55) expresses that teachers and co-workers should be led by those who inspire them by (1) selectively showing their weakness (revealing humanity and vulnerability), (2) relying on intuition (interpreting emergent data), (3) managing with tough empathy (caring intensively about employees and about the work they do) and (4) revealing their differences (showing what is unique about themselves). In order to continue improving, leaders are required to create relationships in the organization and thus, leadership and followers are relational.

Fullan (2003) uses the notion of task-relationship which is similar to the term of Bryk and Schneider (2002) 'relational trust' by which their research pegs to student achievement. Robinson et al. (2009, p. xv) suggest steps that relational trust should include "establishing norms of integrity, showing personal regard for staff, parents and students; demonstrating role competence and personal integrity through modelling appropriate behaviour, following-through when expectations are not met, demonstrating consistency between talk and action, and challenging dysfunctional attitudes and behaviour". Bishop (2011) indicates that qualities in classrooms and across the schools where teachers and school leaders are, create learning relationships in which learners'

culturally generated sense-making processes are used and developed so that they may successfully participate in problem-solving and decision-making interactions.

Goffee and Jones (2013) describe the relational as a social construct that is re-created by the relationships between leaders and those they aspire to lead. Effective leaders are not simply those who have mixed traits but those who are active and mutually engaging their followers in a complex series of relationships that require cultivation and nurture. Also, the self-leader enables the followers to play a major part in any decision-making process, which is needed to make followers perform better. Research shows that successful school leaders are devoted to the maintenance of particular kinds of relationships with their followers, despite setbacks in the organization; as they need to know how to excite their followers to become great performers (Goffee & Jones, 2013).

It is imperative though that a successful self-leader should foster interaction among his or her followers who need to be involved, to increasing interdependence among their people, supporting the value of disagreement and debate, increasing access to information and resources and helping them to get innovative ideas to implement in the organization (ibid, 2013). The centrality to leadership relationships as argued by Goffee and Jones (2013) is the fact that effective self-leaders should desist from dominating or suppressing the interaction and exploration needed to produce creative solutions and also to prevent processes from creating destructive conflicts or undermining the essential mission of the organization.

Tiedt and Anand (2010) identify four steps of knowledge self-leadership as a way leaders expand their knowledge network that can make them more efficient: (1) be willing to seek knowledge from the network when occasion arises; (2) knowledge self-leadership approach requires leaders to invest in building relationships and social networks; (3) motivate people in the knowledge network to share their knowledge with each other when needed, and (4) developing knowledge network is not substitute for augmenting personal knowledge but must be treated as a supplement and continuously focus on learning efforts that increase personal knowledge (Neck & Manz, 2010, p. 56).

3.9 Conclusion

The chapter began by introducing the self-leadership of a particular traditional leader of the Ukwangali chieftainship. It paints a picture on traditional leader' self-leadership

which showed his attributes such as self-belief, dedication and persistence to achieve the positive results for his people. This leader also demonstrates his strengths and utilises them to the benefit of his subjects while inspire them through his actions. The second aspect was focusing on leadership development in Namibia, the difference between the preparation and development, where the claim for leadership development took the centre stage.

This chapter revealed that despite leadership development promotes good leadership; there is a lack of awareness of the unitary and one-dimensional leadership notion of the self as a leader. Leadership preparation and development for principalship is mostly prevalent in the developed countries than in the developing countries. Notwithstanding the fact that the Advanced Certificate in Education for School Leadership (ACE), which is unique in Africa, has been heavily criticized to have focused more on management rather than in leadership, South Africa is praised for having introduced this qualification for aspiring school principals. It is vital to acknowledge that an organized preparation and development of aspiring school principals as a paradigm shift that includes the expansion of the role of school principals, the complexity of school contexts, and recognition of moral obligation to make a difference.

CHAPTER 4   RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter addresses research methodology, presents the methods and procedures for data collection and the selection of participants. This study employed a qualitative research method with an interpretive research design to determine self-leadership for principals in the Kavango region, Namibia. The organization of this chapter has the following sections: research design and approach, selection of the schools, population and sampling, data collection procedures, research methods and techniques, trustworthiness, data analysis, methodological challenges, limitations of the study, and summary of methodology. In conforming to the ethical consideration, schools and principals were given pseudonyms fictitious names (pseudonyms) such as Hamutima secondary school, Léonard secondary school, Mantjodi secondary school, Needling secondary school and Runnella secondary, whereas principals were called Mr Brutus, Mr Mbware, Mr Mpepo, Mr Pharaoh, Ms Carmel and Ms Mirabel. For teachers TA – TL was used to ensure anonymity and to protect their identity.

4.2 Research Design and Approach

Many authors are in agreement that there is no fixed structure to design a qualitative research (Nieuwenhuis, 2007; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Fouché & Schurink, 2011; Creswell, 2013; MacMillan & Schumacher, 2014). A research design for many writers refers to 'some idea of what one wants to know', a guide, a 'plan' or a 'map'. Research design is sometimes used as a synonym of research genres or types (Henning, 2004). Nieuwenhuis (2007, p. 70) conceptualizes research design "as a plan or strategy from the philosophical assumptions for specifying the selection of respondents, the data gathering techniques to be used and the data analysis to be done". Yin (2008) corroborates with others and defines research design as "a logical plan for getting from here to there, where here may be defined as the initial set of questions to be answered, and there is some set of conclusions (answers) about these questions" (p. 26).

It can be inferred from the statement above that a research design in qualitative approach requires a researcher to develop his or her own designs as he or she goes along, using one or more of the available strategies or tools as an aid or guideline

(Fouché & Schurink, 2011). Thus it is the planned architecture of inquiry. In essence, it means that research design is a precursor of the research methodology. In this sense, Van der Walt and Potgieter (2012, p. 220) posit that "Even before issues such as research approach/paradigm, design, orientation, methods and type of generalization can be contemplated, the researcher should ideally provide evidence that the inquiry logics buttressing his or her gaze (methodology) as well as the strategies and tools that he or she will be using to conduct the actual research are supported convincingly by a particular philosophical assumptions or stances".

In this study the research design was a blueprint that defined the plan that was followed to collect research data; the approaches that were adopted as well as methods that were used to collect and analyze data to provide answers to the research question focused on the school principals' self-leadership.

Given that the study was to analyze the extent to which school principals employed self-leadership strategies in their relations with teachers; discuss the extent of the use of self-leadership in the management of teachers; analyze the responses of the teaching staff on the use of self-leadership, and to examine the interaction of self-leadership and improvement of teaching and learning in the Kavango region, this study shows components of naturalistic paradigm. Noting the importance of self-leadership for school principals as a focus of the study, I found this approach particularly suitable to explain social, behavioural, and physical phenomena as they steer researchers to a better understanding of a particular action (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Babbie, 2007). In spite of this, and seeing that the objective of the study was to gain a deeper understanding of principals' self-leadership in the Kavango region of Namibia, the study is located in the interpretive paradigm. The following section proffers an account on the interpretive paradigm.

A qualitative research design underpinned by interpretive paradigm was the most suitable. It allowed me to explore and understand the principals' self-leadership application to the day-to-day lives of principals developing themselves, as well as to the interactions of principals with teachers and teaching and learning in schools. This interpretive paradigm claims that people's interaction with social world construct their own realities. Nieuwenhuis (2007) explains that as reality is a social construction, human life can only be understood from within, and not from external reality. Creswell, (2009) says the interpretivism holds the fundamental assumption that individuals seek

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understanding of the world in which they live and work. This means that people develop subjective meaning of their experiences, which make the researcher to look for complexity of views rather than narrow meanings of ideas (Ibid, 2009).

A qualitative research approach is used in this study because as a researcher I wanted to understand the self-leadership of the school principals. I preferred an interpretive paradigm as the research method to collect data. Creswell (2009) aptly claims that an interpretive paradigm is about making an interpretation of what the teachers and principals see, hear, and understand. In other words, the principals and teachers' interpretation cannot be separated from their own backgrounds, history, contexts and prior understanding (Creswell, 2009). This research method was adopted with the intention not only to enhance the benefit of qualitative approaches but also to obtain a clear picture of the principals' self-leadership as a style for effective leadership in schools in Kavango region of Namibia.

The underlying advantage of the qualitative approach leans in its interpretive character; that of discovering the meaning of events for individuals who experience them; what De Vos, Strydom, Fouché & Delport (2011, p. 65) claim as, "understanding social life and the meaning that people attach to everyday life". The focus of this study was to gain a deeper, clear understanding of teachers and principals' interpretation of self-leadership of school principals in the Kavango region of Namibia.

Qualitative study is concerned with describing and understanding rather than explaining or predicting human behaviour and the subjective exploration of reality from the perspective of an insider (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Firestone (1987, p. 16) concludes that the interpretive approach holds the view that "reality is socially constructed through individual or collective definition of reality". In adopting this approach, I attempted to understand the subjective reality from the perspective that is predominant in the qualitative approach (De Vos et al., 2011; Henning, 2004).

The alternative quantitative method was not used for the research as it relies on statistics, and as such, it is inadequate for capturing the context, experiences and expectations of participants in the context of self-leadership. Quantitative research design uses surveys that embody cross-sectional and longitudinal studies using questionnaires or structural interviews for data collection with the intent of generalization from a sample to a population (Creswell, 2003). The purpose of the study was more of

the meaning, context and process of school principals' self-leadership; and using data collection methods such as semi-interviews, document analysis and observations to generate rich data. Creswell (2014) argues that the intention of the researcher is to make sense or to interpret the meanings teachers and principals have about the self-leadership of the principals.

On the contrary, the positivist paradigm could not provide the meanings of the participants as it seeks to generalize findings through testing of hypotheses and applies quantitative statistical methods. In interpretivism, however, the researcher tries to interpret the understanding or 'verstehen' and explanation of the participants through the meaning that participants give to their world. Therefore, the objectivity of the method as well as the larger samples increases the ability to generalize the findings to a small population, which cannot be applied in the interpretive paradigm.

4.3 Selection of the schools

In Namibia the function of the Ministry of Education has been decentralized under the Regional Council of the Ministry of Regional and Local Government and Housing. Under the overarching notion of decentralization, the Kavango Regional Council through the directorate of education in the Ministry of Education has the responsibility to run all the schools in the region. The Kavango Regional Council has the overall responsibility over the schools in the Kavango Region. There are twelve public senior secondary schools and two private secondary schools in the Kavango region where I had to choose only six schools for the study.

It is however acknowledged that in a small scale study of this type where ten out of more than 100 schools were selected, generalization to a national level is difficult to make. Moreover, purposive sampling of 10 teachers where more than 200 teachers were present means the ten participants by definitions are not representative of the population. All the senior secondary schools are from Grade 08 to 12 with the exception of one secondary school which had a combination of primary and secondary phase; in other words, from Grades 1 -12. This study was focused only on public schools. The selection criteria were devised to select schools that would participate in the study.

I had many considerations when choosing the six secondary schools for the study and hence the two approaches were used to identify the schools. I studied the 2010

Kavango Regional Council at the day of the conference where the director of education presented the National Examinations results to school principals and inspectors. The analysis of the national examination results showed that Kavango region had poorly performed as compared to other regions in Namibia.

The results of the national examinations in Namibia also showed that of the 14 senior secondary schools in the Kavango region only four senior secondary schools had performed well while the other eight senior secondary schools performed poorly. The Kavango regional results placed the schools in the following categories: the best performing schools were those schools that scored between 60 & 100 percent; the zigzag-schools as those schools which were considered to be fluctuating in different years; in other words, some years they performed well and other years they did badly, and the poor performing schools were those schools whose performance varied from 25 percent to 55 percent in grades 10 and 12.

The rural-urban geographical location of schools was also considered as one of the factors in selecting schools for the study. After studying the list of schools in Kavango region, it was noticed that there were many secondary schools in the urban area as compared to the rural schools. My consideration was that if rural-urban geography could be the route to select schools, it would mean that, more rural secondary schools would be included in the study than the rural ones. In order to have a balance, I decided to consider how schools had performed during the years 2010 – 2013.

On the grounds of the performance of the schools in grades 10 and 12, I identified six senior secondary schools in the Kavango region for this study of which four were rural and two urban secondary schools. The selection of the sites is in congruence with what Patton (2002) describes "that the logic and power of purposeful sampling lies in selecting information-rich cases for the in depth study. Information-rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the inquiry" (p. 230); hence the criteria for selection of the six schools (see table 4-1).

Of the fourteen senior secondary schools in the Kavango region, only six secondary schools were selected after the utilization of purposive sampling. The schools were purposive sampled using the following as the main selection criteria for schools: three secondary schools that had consistently produced high results from 60 to 100 percent as compared to three secondary schools that had continuously produced poor results,

ranging from 14 to 55 percent. It was believed that the six secondary school selected had the potential of generating insight on the dynamics and changes of the past and contemporary relationships between the principals and the teachers in order to improve the quality of education in Kavango region.

Table 4-1   Justification for selecting the six schools in the Kavango Regional

Sites	Justification for Selection
Hamutima senior secondary School offers from grades 08 – 12.	This school was selected because of a continuously poor performing below 60 percent in the Kavango region in terms of grades 10 and 12 results. This school represented a rural remote school and was to bring to the study an in-depth understanding of a remote rural teachers' perception about the principals' self-leadership application to the day-to-day lives of principal's developing themselves as well as to the interactions of principal with teachers and the teaching and learning in schools.
Léonard senior Secondary school offers grades 08 – 12.	This school was selected because of its historical continuously poor performance of below 60 percent. As a rural school, it represented rural perceptions and bring to the study an in-depth understanding of the extent to which the principal employed self-leadership strategies in their relations with teachers; the extent of the use of self-leadership in the management of the teachers; the response of the teaching staff to the use of the self-leadership and the interaction of self-leadership and improvement of teaching and learning in the Kavango region of Namibia.
Mantjodi senior secondary school offers grades 08 – 12.	This school also represented a historical continuously poor performing school in the rural eastern part of the region, which is below 60 percent for both grades 10 and 12. It also bring to the fore an in-depth understanding of a rural setting the extent to which the principal employed self-leadership strategies in relations with teachers; the extent of the use of self-leadership in the management of the teachers; the response of the teaching staff to the use of the self-leadership and the interaction of self-leadership and improvement of teaching and learning in the Kavango region of Namibia
William secondary school is offers from grades 08 – 12.	This was a rural remote school, the only best school in the region and has a consistently high performance rate of over 60 percent for both grades 10 and 12. It also bring to the fore an in-depth understanding of the extent to which the principal employed self-leadership strategies; the extent of the use of self-leadership in the management of the teachers; the response of the teaching staff to the use of the self-leadership and the interaction of self-leadership and improvement of teaching and learning in the Kavango region of Namibia.
Needling secondary school runs from grades 01 – 12.	This school was selected because of the consistently performance of higher than 60 percent. This school was also selected to bring an in-depth understanding from the urban perspective of the extent to which the principal employed self-leadership strategies in their relations with teachers; the extent of the use of self-leadership in the management of the teachers; the response of the teaching staff to the use of the self-leadership and the interaction of self-leadership and improvement of teaching and learning in the Kavango region of Namibia.
Runnella senior secondary school runs from grades 08 – 12.	This school was selected because of the consistently high performance in both grades 10 &12 over the 60%. This school was also selected to bring an in-depth understanding from the urban perspective of the extent

Sites	Justification for Selection
	to which the principal employed self-leadership strategies in relations with teachers; the extent of the use of self-leadership in management of the teachers; the response of the teaching staff to the use of the self-leadership and the interaction of self-leadership and improvement of teaching and learning in the Kavango region of Namibia.

4.4 Study Population and Sampling

Table 4-2 below shows the population and sampling of the biographic data of the teachers who participated in the study. The table also displays the study population and sampling in terms of the participants' gender, age, home language, academic and professional qualifications, teaching experience, number of years spent with the current school principals and post hold by them. T-A – T-L stands for teachers who participated in the study.

Table 4-2   Teachers' biographic data

Details	T-A[14]	T-B	T-C	T-D	T-E	T-F	T-G	T-H	T-I	TJ-	T-K	T-L
Gender	M	F	F	M	F	M	F	F	F	M	F	M
Age	35	25	37	38	44	55	28	32	27	45	46	30
Home language[15]	RUM	OSHIN	OSHIW	RUK	OSHIK	RUK	NYE	PORT	SIL	NDE	OSHIW	RUK
Academic qualification	Gr 12	Gr 12	Gr 12	Gr 12	Gr 12	Gr 12	Gr 12	Gr 12	Gr 12	O' level	Gr 12	Gr 12
Professional qualification	B. Ed	BETD	B. Ed	BETD	BETD	BETD	BETD	BETD	BETD	B.A.	B. Ed	BETD
Teaching experience	15	5	20	15	20	20	10	15	5	20	15	5
No. of years with this principal	10	5	20	15	5	10	5	5	5	5	10	5
Post hold at school	HoD	T	T	HoD	T	T	T	T	T	T	HoD	T

The teachers were purposefully selected to represent the population of the secondary schools in the Kavango region. This analysis in table 4.3 shows that the numbers of those teachers who participated in the study were about 60 percent female teachers and 40 percent male teachers. This is somewhat unusual for rural schools in the

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[14]   TA-TL stands for Teacher A, B, C, D etc. for instance
[15]   Teachers' home language: Rum – Rumanyo, Oshin – Oshindonga, Oshiw – Oshiwambo, Ruk – Rukwangali, Oshik – Oshikwanyama, Nye – Nyemba, Port – Portuguese, Sil – Silozi, Nde - Ndebele

Kavango region to have a high number of female participants and their participation was triggered by the qualifications they possessed. Another significant feature was the age of the teachers. Almost 70 percent of the teachers who participated in the interviews were under the age of 40 years which indicates their optimism about the profession and the need to achieve more in their personal career. Neck and Manz (2013) argue that younger people, who are still in the process of creating an identity for themselves in their careers and personal lives, are generally more goal oriented, more pragmatic and self-reliant than the older generation.

Of the twelve teachers interviewed in the six schools (Table 4-2), only three (25 percent) had B. Ed which is the initial degree for teaching in secondary schools and one with a B.A. degree specializing in English language while the majority (75 percent) had a BETD diploma. This raises concern that such a number of teachers who purportedly junior secondary teachers were deployed to teach at senior secondary phase which was not in line with their qualifications (MEC, 1993). It is not surprising to see how this affects the (examination results) performance of learners in grade 12 for example.

Although these teachers had lower qualifications, their teaching experiences which range from 10 to 20 years qualified them to highlight the extent to which school principals had managed and led these schools. There were three HoDs among the twelve teachers who participated in the study. The HoDs as members of the school management teams, unlike teachers, presented their perspectives from the management point of view about the self-leadership of school principals. It is interesting to note that these schools in the Kavango region embraced the cultural value of diversity as can be seen on the various languages, colours, ethnics, and regions of the participants.

Sampling is the way of selecting people from the population to participate in the study. The use of sample, despite a quantitative idea, is in line with a purposeful selection of which Palys (2008) calls a purpose sampling as another common term for settings and individuals participating in the study. However, Weiss (1994) uses the term 'panels' in the qualitative research as an alternative to samples. Weiss furthermore argues that "people who are uniquely able to be informative because they are expert in an area or privileged witnesses to an event", form of purposeful selection (ibid, 1994).

The selection of my participants as panels of experts was deliberately done to provide information that was particularly relevant to the research questions. In the context of the study, six secondary school principals and twelve teachers were identified as units of analysis to represent the population. Merriam (2009) argues that using a purposeful sampling allows a researcher to discover, understand and gain insight and selects a sample from which the most can be learned (p. 77).

The use of purposeful sampling in this study was necessary to illuminate the understanding of school principals' self-leadership in their own self-development; relations with teachers; teachers' response to leadership styles of the principals; and the contributions of the leadership styles to improving teaching and learning that was bounded in the Kavango region of Namibia (Merriam, 2009). The study therefore examined how self-leadership is operationalized as a style for effective leadership in Namibian schools to ascertain how this leadership style contributes to sustainable quality educational services. Creswell (2007) avers that this form of sampling is used in qualitative research, and that participants and the sites are selected that purposefully inform and understand the research problem.

Given the fact that it was a qualitative study, it was important to gain in-depth understanding of the self-leadership of school principals in the Kavango region. Purposive sampling of principals was most appropriate as it enabled me to identify the principals and teachers that would provide me with information-rich data (Patton, 2002). In establishing the number of teachers and/or the members of the management team to participate in the interviews, I held meetings with the school principals. In these meetings, principals explained the purpose of the study as well as the research questions and the criteria to be used for selecting the potential participants before the actual interviews.

In order to reach the desired number of participants who participated in the interviews, principals were requested to identify four teachers as per selection criteria. These participants were either teachers or members of the management team who represented the six secondary schools of the Kavango region. In the context of the study, the selection criteria were used as the means to select the final teachers and/or member of the management team from the larger population. The inclusion of teachers in the study was to provide well-triangulated responses that enhanced the

trustworthiness of the study. The next section explains how these selection criteria were operationalized.

The main selection criteria for selecting the teachers were:

- two male and two female – the intention was to purposively select participants to include equal numbers of male and female teachers,

- members of school management team or teachers – in order to understand and have a clear picture of the principals' self-leadership by the teachers or school management team,

- teachers with five or more years of experiences with the specific principal – this particular criterion addresses the longevity of school principals which gave teachers or the management team the ability to understand principals self-leadership styles better,

- teachers who show responsibility and commitment to effective teaching and produce 60% results for grades 10 & 12 – this was the benchmark for high performance,

- teachers with no disciplinary problems and always willing to perform extra work (volunteering) – this was another benchmark for high performing teachers,

- teachers who regard principal as an individual who lead them to the best of his or her ability – an aspect of trust in their relationship with principals

Creswell (2007) claims that pre-selection criterion is essential in qualitative research for teachers to provide rich details in order to maximize the specific information under investigation.

As purposive sampling is also known as judgmental sampling (Rubin & Babbie, 2005; Neuman, 2014, p. 273), the final selection of two teachers who participated in the interviews rested with the researcher. The reason for using criteria was to avoid subjectivity by the school principals who could give any teacher whom they thought would speak well about them. This decision was wisely used to get the best participants with elements that contain the most characteristic, representative or typical attributes of the population that served the purpose of the study (Grinnel & Unrau, 2008, p.153;

Monette, Sullivan & DeJong, 2005, p. 148). The choice of purposive sampling as explained by Creswell (2013) was appropriate to select individuals and sites for study because they can purposefully inform an understanding of the research problem and central phenomenon in the study.

4.5   Data Collection Procedures

In order to get the rich data from the interview, pilot interviews were deemed crucial. I conducted pre-test interviews with two principals: one South African principal doing his PhD and another Namibian principal who was pursuing his M. Ed studies at the North-West University (NWU), Potchefstroom Campus in South Africa. Not only did I want to practise interviewing, I wanted to learn new techniques to avoid ambiguous questions, and to ask questions that yielded useful data. This was also done to test the practicality of my instruments. The feedback I got from the two interviewees necessitated a review in order to determine the types of questions to be asked in the field and some changes were made on the final interview schedules. Greeff (2011) perceives pre-testing interviews "that a researcher has to come to grips with some of the practical aspects of establishing access, making contact and conducting the interview and becoming aware of the level of ones' interviewing skills" (p. 349).

After the North-West University, Potchefstroom Campus, Ethical Committee granted the ethical clearance number NWU-00057-13-A2 (see Appendix E), the interviews were scheduled. Before the commencement of the study, a letter was sent to the regional director informing him of the purpose of the study. In this letter, the objectives of the study were explained alongside data collection processes and the selecting of senior secondary schools in the Kavango region. The interviews and observations took place in the respective schools in the Kavango region as the self-leadership of school principals could best be understood 'within the context in which they are studied' (Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Seidman, 1998; Yin, 2008).

The collection of data for this study began in July 2013 and ended in September 2013 in the Kavango region. As Strydom (2011) argues that the roles of the researcher have to be "negotiated and renegotiated" beforehand, the access to schools was negotiated through the offices of the regional director and school principals. I wrote a letter to the Kavango Regional education requesting and informing him of my fieldwork to interview teachers and school principals during working hours and permission was granted (see

Appendices A & B). The interviews were conducted in the six senior secondary schools in the Kavango region.

The arrangement was that a day before interviews, meetings with school principals were to be held to explain the purpose of the study, the participation of the teachers in the study and their rights to withdraw from participating in the study. During the same meetings, principals were made aware of confidentiality regarding the information obtained from both principals and teachers and were assured that their identities would remain confidential unless they granted the researcher permission to disclose (see Appendix D).

4.5.1 Interviews

DeMarrais (2004) defines an interview as "a process in which a researcher and participant engage in a conversation focused on questions related to a research study" (p. 55). Interview as a primary mode of data collection was used to solicit from the participants. The primary aim of interviews was to gain particular information from the teachers and principals relating the self-leadership of their school principals. I conducted one-on-one interviews with six principals and twelve teachers to find out their understanding of self-leadership of principals in the Kavango region of Namibia (Merriam, 2009).

In this study, a semi-structured interview was used to gain a detailed understanding of the participants' beliefs, perceptions or story about the topic under study. This semi-structured interview provided a strategy for understanding the teachers' perception of the self-leadership of school principals and allowed them to express themselves freely and provided additional information. As semi-interview lies between standardized and unstructured on the continuum, it afforded flexibility to probe questions and enable me to follow-up particular responses that were unclear and ambiguous from the teachers and principals about self-leadership of their principals. Greeff (2011) stresses that semi-structured interviews give the researcher and participants much more flexibility where the researcher is able to follow up particular interesting avenues that emerge in the interview while the participant is able to give a fuller picture (p. 352).

Before interview sessions commenced in the schools, I had few minutes to establish a pleasant rapport with all participants. I informed the participants about the purpose of

the interview, the kind of questions that would be asked and at the end I asked if there was anything else the participants wanted to say or add. The participants were informed that they could talk freely on the questions that they were asked and I did not follow the sequence of the questions as they were written on the interview guide. My participation as a researcher was limited to being a guide and clarifying questions and statements when needed. This was done to reduce tensions and anxiety during the interviews.

A good relationship between me and the participants accorded me the opportunity to negotiate for the venues which were convenient to them. While the interviews for the school principals took place in their offices, interviews for teachers were conducted in different venues. One interview was conducted in the school counsellor's office, two in the labourers' offices, and the majority were conducted in the school libraries (see Table 4-3).

All interviews were conducted in the morning except one principal whose interview took place on Sunday morning as he was set to travel for a national workshop. However, the participant preferred to be interviewed in his office and I had to offer him transport to his school which was closed to 12 km from Rundu town.

Participants were given sufficient chance and freedom to express their views and opinions freely without limiting them into a particular viewpoint but I made sure to give them specific directives to stick to the issues under discussion. Neuman (2000) argues that relationships should be built on mutual trust, cooperation and the knowledge that the relationship would be terminated at some stage when the inquiry has been completed. Interviews at all schools lasted for one and a half hour.

In order to ensure accuracy of data, permission to use a tape recorder was from participants and was granted. The use of the tape recorder allowed me to concentrate on the interview. I used open-ended questions as opposed to fixed questions in eliciting richer information. Thus, open-ended questions allowed me to have a greater understanding of how teachers and principals experienced self-leadership of school principals in their contexts.

In order to maintain consistency, I asked the same questions to participants without following the same order in which the questions were asked. This was done for consistency and to minimize the subjectivity of the interviews. Some questions I posed

to the participants were informed by insights I gained from research questions; and the related literature on leadership and self-leadership as well as my expectations regarding teachers' understanding and interpretation of self-leadership of the principals.

There were few participants who repeated information being reported during the one-on-one interview and was classified as saturation. The richness of data could not be seen as information redundancy or saturation. I continued as long as interviewing challenged my perception of the phenomena and adding something new to the phenomena directed my questions in the next interviews. Eventually, I could recognize similar patterns in the answers of different participants and decided that I had enough data. The data reached saturation level after interviewing eighteen participants in the Kavango region. Sandolowski (in Strydom, 2011) openly warns that qualitative research does not permit anyone the licence to claim that she or he has reached information redundancy or saturation of a theoretical category after talking with or observing a few people of vastly different social circumstances on one occasion only.

Table 4-3   Profiles of semi-structured interviews with participants

Participant	Gender	School	Venue	Date
Mrs Carmel	Female	Nettling secondary school	Principal's Office	25/07/2013
Mrs Mirabel	Female	Runnella secondary school	Principal's Office	08/08/2013
Mr Mbware	Male	Léonard Secondary school	Principal's Office	13/08/2013
Mr Brutus	Male	Mantjodi secondary school	Principal's Office	18/08/2013
Mr Pharaoh	Male	William secondary school	Principal's Office	06/09/2013
Mr Mpepo	Male	Hamutima secondary school	Principal's Office	18/09/2013
Teacher A (HoD)	Male	Needling secondary school	HoD's Office	26/07/2013
Teacher B	Female	Needling secondary school	School Counsellor's Office	26/07/2013
Teacher C	Female	Runnella secondary school	Library	15/08/2013
Teacher D	Male	Runnella secondary school	Library	15/08/2014
Teacher E	Female	Léonard Secondary school	Labourer's Office	13/08/2013
Teacher F	Male	Léonard Secondary school	Labourer's Office	13/08/2013
Teacher G	Female	Mantjodi secondary school	Library	19/08/2013
Teacher H	Female	Mantjodi secondary school	Library	19/08/2013
Teacher I	Female	William secondary school	Library	06/09/2013
Teacher J	Male	William secondary school	Library	06/09/2013
Teacher K (HoD)	Female	Hamutima secondary school	HoD's Office	18/09/2013
Teacher L	Male	Hamutima secondary school	HoD's Office	18/09/2013

In order to adhere to the ethical clearance, I have used fictitious names for the participants as well as pseudonyms for schools.

4.5.2 Observation

Observations, like interviews, are a primary source of data collection in qualitative research. However, Merriam (2009) identifies two distinctive ways in which observation differs from interviews; firstly, observations take place in the setting where the phenomenon naturally occurs instead of a location designated for the purpose of interviewing, and secondly observational data represent a first-hand encounter with the phenomenon of interest rather than a second-hand account of the world obtained in an interview (p. 117). Despite these differences, I used observations as both first and second-hand data-gathering technique to collect information about principals' self-leadership before and during the interviews and staff meetings.

I follow the three relevant ways or reasons suggested by Merriam when gathering data through observation:

- as outsider, I noticed things that have become routine to the participants themselves, things that led to understanding the context, to triangulate emerging findings; in other words, with interviews and document analysis to substantiate the findings;

- to provide knowledge of the context, which was used as reference points for subsequent interviews. It is where I noticed how the school principals reacted to the information provided by the teachers; and

- some data were collected through private discussions with either teachers or support staff who did not participate in the interviews.

Merriam (2009) contends that observation is the best tool to use when an activity, event, or situation is observed first-hand, with fresh perspective or when participants are not able or willing to discuss the topic under study. Hence, observation was used to gain a deeper insight and understanding of the phenomenon being observed (Maree, 2007).

I used observer as participant where I observed how the principals and teachers were interacting and the way principals conducted meetings. Maree (2007) explains that the researcher may look for patterns of behaviour in a particular community to understand the assumptions, values and beliefs and to make sense of the social dynamics, but the researcher remains uninvolved and does not influence the dynamics of the setting (p. 85).

During the observations for both interviews and staff meetings, I took notes for patterns of behaviour the principals demonstrated to their staff members. This observation was done afterward to record in detail what has been observed during the interviews. With regard to staff meetings, a tape recorder was placed in the middle of the room in order to capture all the deliberations which took place in the staff meetings. I played the tape recorder after arriving at my place to listen while comparing the notes.

I developed an observation of activity or meeting adopting Merriam observation checklist. Adopting this checklist allowed me to observe the following:

- physical set up of principals' offices, staff rooms, and school surroundings;

- the participants in terms of their roles, frequency of interactions, and the direction of communication patterns;

- activities and interactions during the meetings, the norms and rules structures,

- conversations in terms of who spoke to whom, who listens, and non-verbal behaviour;

- subtle factors such as non-verbal communication, dress and physical space conversations, and

- observer's comments, such as own behaviour, the role as an observer affecting the scene and thoughts about what was happening in the setting.

4.5.3 Document Analysis

Document analysis was the third technique that was used to collect data. Document analysis is regarded as a process of analyzing documents so as to gather facts. The conceptualization of document as an umbrella term refers to variations of written, visual,

digital and physical material relevant to the study. Given a clear distinction between the literature review of a study and document analysis as data gathering strategy, Nieuwenhuis (2007) stresses the importance of using documents as a data gathering technique when researchers are focusing on written communications which shed more light on the phenomenon under investigation.

It is an instrument that focuses on all types of written communications that may shed light on the phenomenon under study such as records, policy documents, reports, news articles, journal articles, textbooks and speeches. The most recent account of document analysis is clarified by Ritchie and Lewis (2003, p. 35) who define document analysis as the study of existing documents, either to understand their substantive content or to illuminate deeper meanings which may be revealed by the style and coverage. In this context, I used this tool to review by reading and quote from books, newspaper, published and unpublished documents with the purpose of providing background information of self-leadership of school principals and to support the data collected from the fieldwork.

I consulted sizeable documents dealing with school principals' manual as a major source of information, which described the responsibilities of principals. The other documents I analyzed include the past academic records, policy documents such as the Handbook for Instructional Leaders in Namibian schools, Guidelines of School Principals, the ministerial circulars and newspaper, The Namibia, to understand the self-leadership of school principals in the Kavango region. In educational leadership, documents provide valuable information about the context and the culture of the schools as another window to triangulate information. I also obtained these documents on the principals' leadership from the schools, Ministry of Education and library.

4.6 Establishing Trustworthiness

Applying multiple research instruments assisted me to improve the trustworthiness of research and evaluation of findings. Although the concept of validity is perceived to be closely related to quantitative research, Lincoln and Guba (20002) argues for the rethinking of other terms such as validity, generalizability, and reliability in other types of qualitative research. The advocate of qualitative research argued that assessment or evaluation of validity in the qualitative research is not gauged in terms of its reliability but its trustworthiness, credibility, comparability and transferability (Lincoln & Guba,

2002). These are the main four components of trustworthiness and are equivalent to internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity which are part of the quantitative research paradigm.

Trustworthiness in qualitative study renders a vivid picture to the reader on how a researcher arrived at the conclusions. Firestone (1987) says that trustworthiness in qualitative study provides the reader with depiction in enough detail to show that the author's conclusion "make sense" (p. 19). Under the overarching notion of sense making Maxwell (2013, p. 122) describes the term validity as "a fairly straightforward, common sense way to refer to credibility of a description, conclusion, explanation, interpretation or other sort of account". This is a qualitative case study that focused on describing specific self-leadership of school principals in Kavango, Namibia and findings cannot be directly generalized to apply to other similar context.

4.6.1 Credibility

In my study I established credibility through member checks. Member checking is a strategy employed by qualitative researchers to ensure validity of the research findings. I solicited feedback on the emerging findings from some of the principals and teachers I had interviewed. It is the process where I involved teachers and principals in the study to check the accuracy of the statements. The majority of teachers responded by saying that the transcripts had the information they presented.

Of the ten participants, only four made changes, indicating that their transcripts were accurate. The comments I got from the participants were finally integrated into the final report. Maxwell (2005) explains that member checking is the most important way of ruling out possibility of misinterpreting the meaning of what participants say and do and the perspective they have on what is going on as well as being an important way of identifying your own biases and misunderstandings of what you have observed (p. 111).

I used triangulation in two ways: first, I used three methods to explore the same issue by asking different participants the same questions; the second was to validate the collected data through different methods of interviews, observations and document analysis. I used this method by comparing and cross-checking data that I collected from teachers and principals in interviews against what I had observed in the schools and compared it with what the documents said about self-leadership of the principals. I used

triangulation to augment trustworthiness which aided me in the elimination of bias. According to Creswell (2014, p. 283) triangulation is the process of corroborating evidence from different individuals, types of data or methods of data collection in descriptions and themes in qualitative research.

4.6.2 Transferability

Lincoln and Guba (1999) consider transferability as an alternative to external validity or generalizability. Findings from this study may not be transferable or generalized to other settings because the schools and participants were selected through purposive sampling. It is the discretion of the reader to relate the lessons learned from this study to other schools and judge after reading the report whether this report can be applied to other schools or not. To this end, my role as a researcher is to provide as much explanatory data so that the reader can make judgments. Schurink, Fouché and De Vos (2011) confirm that transferability and generalizability pose problems to a qualitative study. Nonetheless, the application of the lesson learned from the study to other settings can be applied by the reader whose judgment is based on the report and see whether the report applies to other situations or not.

Transferability in qualitative research makes the researcher include descriptive, content-relevant statements for a reader who hears or reads about the report to identify with the settings. Consequently, I have constructed thick descriptions of time, place, context and experiences of the research to explain when and where the data were collected and also described the documents and the participants in details. I collected detailed descriptive data so that the reader can compare the six schools to other possible contexts to which transfer could be contemplated. Thus, I have given as much description on the data sources in order to make the context of the research clear to the readers.

4.6.3 Dependability

Dependability is the substitute for reliability in quantitative research where a researcher attempts to account for changing conditions in the phenomenon. Reliability in quantitative research refers the extent to which findings can be replicated, which means that, if a study is repeated it will yield the same results. In qualitative research, reliability seems problematic as human behaviour and experiences are not static. This implies

that replication in qualitative research will not yield the same results; however, the results in a particular study is not discredited as data are bound for many interpretations. Dependability in qualitative research is that an outsider gets the same results as he or she concurs with the collected data that the results make sense as they are always consistent and dependable (Merriam, 2009).

I used dependability in the form of my critical friends and professional colleagues to do peer examination or peer-review by spending hours reading the data, the analysis and the interpretations. Peers critiqued the analysis as well as the interpretations. This process made it possible for a critical friend to act as an external auditor to examine the processes of data collection, analysis and interpretation (Gay, Mills & Airasian, 2011).

Seminars, symposia, conferences and colloquia were used as another way to validate the findings. Henning (2004) argues for 'neighbourliness' as a way to validate findings by presenting them in meetings, seminars or colloquia where one interacts with other peers. International Conferences were other platforms where I participated and presented my findings to peers for critiquing the validity of my findings. This was the platform where I traded and tested the findings in the public view where participants asked questions on my research theories and findings.

4.6.4 Conformability

Conformability is the final construct in the qualitative paradigm which is the parallel to the objectivity in quantitative research. Lincoln and Guba (1999) describe conformability as the need to ask whether the findings of the study could be confirmed by another. In other words, researchers remove their evaluation from some of their inherent characteristic and place it entirely on the data. It is the process that requires the researcher to provide evidence which corroborates the findings and interpretations by means of audit (Schurink, Fouché & de Vos, 2011).

To establish conformability in qualitative research, I reflected on my position as a researcher and on the research processes. I was well-known to all principals as a lecturer and therefore had a good relationship with the principals and teachers in Kavango region. As such, I anticipated cooperation, openness and willingness on their part to give me reliable information. Moreover, I was also aware of the possible effects of bias because of the preconceptions and presuppositions from my part as a

researcher. In this case, I minimized my bias through "phenomenological brackets" and therefore collected and analyzed data in the ways they make sense within their context (Marshall & Rossman, 2011; McMillan & Schumacher, 2001; Patton, 2002).

Like any university, North-West University adheres to all the prescribed processes to ensure the standard of research ethic is maintained. I defended my research proposal at the faculty level and was granted clearance from the Ethics Committee of the university in order to embark with the empirical study in Namibia in the Kavango region.

4.7 Data Analysis

This study shows how data were collected through interviews, observation and document analysis. It is the process which explains how data were managed, organized and analyzed as they were collected. The analysis of data was an on-going and iterative process where data were transformed into findings. This implies that data were collected and analyzed throughout the research process, which made data collection and analysis a simultaneous activity (Merriam, 2009). Patton (2002) maintains that data analysis involves reducing the volume of raw information, sifting trivia from significant patterns, and constructing a framework for communicating the essence of what data reveal. The use of analysis data was a way of bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data. The carrying out of data analysis was a way to tease out essential meaning from the data and share the findings with the reader. Schwandt (2007) describes this process as "the activity of making sense of, interpreting and theorizing data" (p. 6).

Because of the complexity of analysing different opinions, understandings and interpretations teachers and principals had about self-leadership of school principals; this study was based on content analysis (Nieuwenhuis, 2007). Content analysis was seen as a strict and systematic set of procedures for the rigorous analysis, examination and verification of the contents of written data (Flick, 1998; Mayring, 2004).

Due to the fact that this was a qualitative study, semi-structured or open-ended questions for school principals and teachers were analyzed using content analysis. In addition, the analysis and the interpretation of the participants' responses to open-ended questions were undertaken using existing knowledge from leadership and management literature and subjectivity judgment by the researcher. I therefore, contend

that the use of content analysis enabled me to analyze interview transcripts, newsletters, newspapers and documents as a process of looking at data from different angles in terms of identifying keys in the text in order to understand and interpret raw data (Nieuwenhuis, 2007).

When transcribing interviews, I applied the approach of analysis in three ways. First, I used the audio tape to record the interviews. I listened to all the recorded interviews and transcribed them to generate insights and hunches such as non-verbal cues, silence, laughter or gestures that added meaning to the spoken words. As I was re-reading the recorded interviews several times, I corrected and edited the interview transcripts and at the same time making sure that the ideas were coherently presented. Secondly, I colour-coded all statements after listening to the recordings several times. Thereafter, I cut them out and tried to match them with each other in different groups of statements. This was done through an inductive process where I looked for data that had similarities and differences in the text that would corroborate or invalidate the theory.

After transcribing the interviews, the next step was to involve the coding of data. As I read I was also thinking of themes, concepts and ideas that I was trying to explore in each document and interview transcript. As soon as I had done this process, I started looking from the answers given by the participants and identified categories within the patterns. It was a way of selecting words or phrases that described particular aspects of the lived experiences of teachers and principals about self-leadership of the school principals in Kavango region. This process yielded themes and categories from which meanings of participants' perceptions regarding self-leadership as a model of effective leadership in the Kavango region was determined. As Maxwell (2005, p. 96) submits that coding is "to fracture and re-arrange them into themes that facilitate comparison between things in the same category and that aid in the development of concepts".

4.8 Methodological Challenges

No research comes without challenges. In my case I had few cases where I encountered challenges that were related to information generation:

- Some of the school principals in the study had during the interview process caused interruptions. For example, at one school, although the researcher informed the participants in advance to either put their cell phones off or on silence, this school

principal has continuously engaging his client on the phone while the interview was in progress. The challenge was how this school principal could be better informed to respect the time and information which were lost in the process of the conversation he had with someone else.

- As most of the interviews with teachers (see Table 4-3) took place in the library, at some schools learners, other teachers as well as cleaners were not informed about the interviews and had constantly knocked at the door or entered the room in search of their colleagues for information. This prolonged the interviews unnecessarily.

- Member checking as one of the method to establish the credibility of the data was used. In this case, I emailed and made telephone calls to solicit some feedback on the emerging findings from school principals, few of them responded positively to the email while some promised to come back and never done it.

- A further challenge was the selection of teachers for interviews. Some of the school principals selected teachers who did not meet the criteria and as result were limited in providing the rich-information the researcher was looking for.

4.9 Ethical Considerations

A broader discussion on the issue of ethics has been advanced by Jarvis (1997) who argued for the universal good of respect an overriding moral principle that should guide all educational practice, including research. De Vos, Strydom, Fouché & Delport (2005) identified ethical issues such as: avoidance of harm, voluntary participation, informed consent, anonymity, confidentiality among other things as significant in any research. In this study, ethical considerations were viewed as standards to evaluate the conduct of the researcher in order to ensure that acceptable rules and conduct were followed.

Due to the fact that this research dealt with personal traits in effective self-leadership, it was equally critical to consider ethical issues highlighted above. This study considered the following ethical dilemmas:

- After permission was granted by the Ministry of Education and Regional Director, the process of the study was explained to all the participants before the interviews and observations were conducted. Merriam (2002) argues that ethics begins with

the conception of the research project and ends with how we present and share with others what we have learned.

- I made sure that informed consent was granted (de Vos et al., 2005) from each of the participants through the signing a formal informed consent form. Informed consent in this context means that participants were legally and psychologically competent to give their consent and were aware of their liberty to withdraw from the study at any time (Babbie & Mouton, 2001; Grinnell & Unrau, 2005).

- As a result, the research took into account the respondents' rights to confidentiality and anonymity in the process of data collection. Confidentiality and anonymity were viewed as privacy for every participant to have the right to decide when, where and to what extent his or her attitudes, beliefs and behaviour will be revealed. Participants were assured of confidentiality and anonymity and promised that their identity will only be known by the researcher and such confidentiality should be seen as a privileged (Robinson, 1991).

- During interviews participants were kept at ease and confidentiality ensured, since no information that would lead to the identification of the respondents was required. In conforming to the ethical consideration, schools and principals were given fictitious names (pseudonyms) such as Mr Brutus, Mr Mbware, Mr Mpepo, Mr Pharaoh, Ms Carmel and Ms Mirabel whereas teachers were referred to as T-A and T-L to ensure anonymity and to protect their identity. Instructions on the instruments such as interview guide and observation sheets were clearly indicated and well explained before interviews and observations were conducted.

- As participation in this study was on a voluntary basis, participants were informed that no compensation was available. I explained to the participants the potential benefits that would help them in the motivation of teachers and principals in terms of staff development or enhance their teaching and learning practice.

4.10 Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to discuss the design of the study, outlined how data sources for study were employed, population and sampling were done, the roles of the researcher and the participants in the study. A description of data collection instruments and procedures used in the analysis of data were identified and discussed.

Trustworthiness is defined and explained in detail. This case study was designed to explore the key six senior secondary schools stakeholders' understanding of the concept of self-leadership and how it enhances the interaction between teachers and the school principals in the six senior secondary schools in the Kavango region of Namibia. The participants included six school principals and twelve teachers. Data were collected through interviews, observation and document analysis.

CHAPTER 5   DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of self-leadership of school principals in the Kavango region in Namibia. The collected data was informed by the records gathered through semi-structured interviews and observation. This chapter attempts to answer the main research question: How is self-leadership implemented by school principals in the Kavango region in Namibia?

In order to answer the research question, the chapter is divided into three parts. The first part presents the analysis and presentation of biographic data of school principals and teachers. The second part provides a summary of the school profiles while the third part consists of data presentation that focuses on the emerging themes and the strategies for effective teaching and learning from the participating schools in the Kavango region.

In this section, the participants' voices are being presented as they said it. Since one of the research objectives is to determine the strategies the school principals have used which contributed to effective teaching and learning in the six schools of the Kavango region, I included in this chapter a section of the information of what teachers and school principals said.

5.2 Presentation of biographic data

It is imperative and relevant to include biographical data of the six school principals and twelve teachers who participated in the interviews to understand the context under which the results were analyzed. There were six senior secondary schools chosen for this study. The table below depicts the details and characteristics of the participants.

Table 5-1   Biographic data of principals

Details of the Principals	Mr Mpepo	Mr Mbware	Mr Brutus	Mr Pharaoh	Mrs Carmel	Mrs Mirabel
Gender	M	M	M	M	F	F
Age	51-60	41-50	41-50	41-50	41-50	41-50
Home Language	Subia	Thimbukushu	Rumanyo	Silozi	Afrikaans	Afrikaans
Academic & professional qualification	Grade 12 & B. EdHons	Grade 12 & BETD	Grade 12 & B. EdHons	Grade 12 & B.A. & PGDE	Grade 12 & HED	Grade 12 & HED
Teaching experience	15 years	25 years	15 years	15 years	25 years	20 years
No. of years as principal	10 years	10 years	5 years	5 years	5 years	5 years
How many years in this specific school	9 years	9 years	15 years	15 years	25 years	15 years
Stages of promotion	HoD	Deputy Principal	HoD	HoD	HoD	HoD
Principal induction received	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	No
Duration of principal induction	Two weeks training	None	None	Three days workshop	None	None
Leadership course/training attended	ALI	ALI	ALI	Workshop	ALI	ALI
Principal self-development	Yes	Yes, Adv. Dip. Lead & Man[16]	Yes	Yes, UNISA	Yes	Yes, B. EdHons

Table 5-2   Summary of school profile

Characteristics of schools	Hamutima secondary school	Leonardo secondary school	Mantjodi secondary school	William secondary school	Needling secondary school	Runnella secondary school
Location	Rural 200km west of Rundu	Rural 30km west Rundu	Rural 20km east of Rundu	Rural 200km east of Rundu	Urban	Urban
Numbers of leaners	467	591	666	637	999	1168
Numbers of teachers	20	29	27	24	33	42
No. of school management teams	3	4	6	5	3	7
Grades offered	08 – 12	08 – 12	08 – 12	08 – 12	01 -12	08 – 12
Grade 10 results	28% – 40%	14% – 48%	20% – 24%	76% – 95%	80% – 85%	60% – 66%
Results per year	2007 - 2009	2007 - 2009	2007 - 2009	2007 - 2009	2007 - 2009	2007 - 2009
Cultural diversity	Black	Black & coloured	Black & coloured	Black	Black, white & coloured	Black & coloured

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[16]   Advanced Diploma in Education in Leadership and Management

As can be seen from the above tables, a total number of six school principals at the six schools participated in the study. School principals were asked about the way they led their people. Twelve teachers responded to questions on the way their school principals led them. Table 5.2 shows the six senior secondary schools in the Kavango region; namely, Hamutima, Léonard, Mantjodi, William, Needling & Runnella; whereas Table 5.1 describes the biographic information of school principals in terms of gender, age, home language, academic and professional qualification, teaching experiences, etc.

While the majority of the secondary schools in the region offered courses from grade 8 to 12, Needling Secondary School is an integrated school that runs from grade 1 to 12. However, Needling & Runnella were the only two urban secondary schools in the study that had the largest number of teachers and learners compared to the other four rural schools. It can also be observed from the table that the four other secondary schools in the rural areas were headed by male principals while two urban secondary schools were led by female principals.

5.3   Presentation of data of the context of the six secondary school principals

5.3.1   Mr Mpepo principal of Hamutima secondary school

Hamutima Senior Secondary Schools opened its doors in the early 1990s. Mr Mpepo was appointed as the School Principal who he held a grade 12 with a B. EdHons degree, which was the basic requirement for secondary school principalship. Before his appointment, Mr Mpepo had served as a teacher for 15 years. At the time the data were collected he had served this school as a Principal for more than 10 years. In addition, he ascended from teacher to HoD before being appointed as School Principal. Although Mr Mpepo has served his school for more than 10 years as School Principal, his training rarely prepared him for leadership. He had only attended both the African Leadership Institute and a two weeks induction programme organized by the Ministry of Education.

Hamutima Secondary School housed 467 learners from grades 8-12 with a teacher-learner ratio of 23 learners per teacher. The school had 20 teachers including members of the school management team. The school management team consisted of the hostel superintendent, two HoDs and the School Principal. As a rural school, Hamutima Secondary School has boarding facilities, providing accommodation to many learners.

The main responsibilities of Mr Mpepo were to manage and lead approximately 80 percent teaching staff, mainly black teachers; non-teaching staff and learners, predominantly from the same ethnic group.

The school has modern classrooms, library, computer laboratory, specialized classrooms and administrative offices. The hostel has a dining hall which is used by the school for multipurpose activities. Since its inception, the school has never received any academic awards for the grades 10 & 12. Given the poor results of grade 10 from 2007 – 2009, Hamutima Senior Secondary School has been labelled as one of the zigzagging school in the region. However, the recent results of 2013 show that Hamutima Senior Secondary School has improved from 40 to 60 percent. This means that school performance of the learners has gradually improved as the School Principal has grown in the way he leads and manages the school.

5.3.2   Mr Mbware principal of Léonard senior secondary school

Léonard Senior Secondary School is in a remote area in the western part of Rundu town. Mr Mbware has been at the helm of Léonard Senior Secondary School for 10 years as School Principal. He is one of the long serving teachers with 25 years teaching experience and has served as HoD and Deputy Principal prior to his appointment as School Principal at Léonard Senior Secondary School. Léonard Senior Secondary School offers courses for grades 8 to 12 with 591 learners and 29 teachers with a teacher-learner ratio of 20 students per teacher.

The academic qualification of Mr Mbware is a grade 12 with a three-year (BETD INSET) Basic Education Teachers Diploma-in-service training and has recently completed an Advance Diploma in Educational Leadership and Management (Adv. Dip. Lead & Man). Unlike other school principals in this region, Mr Mbware attended leadership training which was part of his self-development programme offered by the University of Namibia (UNAM). Léonard Senior Secondary School has a predominantly male school management team consisting of three heads of department and the school principal. The school has a diverse cultural background for teaching staff while 70 percent of the learners come from the same ethnic group.

The school and hostel buildings were completely old and major renovation were underway during the course of the study on the classrooms, computer laboratories,

library, school hall and administrative offices. Statistically, Léonard Senior Secondary School has been characterized as one of the poor performing and zigzagging secondary schools in the region when it comes to grades 10 & 12 external examinations. Despite the poor performance, this school has won the best awards for the most improved school in Mathematics and Agriculture for grade 12 in 2008/9 in the region. The other successful story of Léonard Senior Secondary School is the purchasing of a new school minibus and the international exchange programme with Switzerland in 2012.

5.3.3 Mr Brutus Principal of Mantjodi senior secondary school

Mantjodi Senior Secondary School is also another rural school in a remote area in the eastern side of Rundu town in the Kavango region. Mr Brutus is the principal of Mantjodi Senior Secondary School. He possesses a grade 12 as an academic qualification and a 4-year Higher Education Diploma (HED) secondary and B. EdHons degree as his professional qualifications. He has 15 years teaching experience and was a HoD before being appointed as school principal. Prior to his appointment as a school principal at Mantjodi, Mr Brutus was a School Principal at Mbanze Senior Secondary School (an alias) for 5 years.

Established in the late 1990s, Mantjodi Secondary School is a well-function school with good classrooms, library and administrative office. The major project at Mantjodi Senior Secondary School at the time of the study was the construction of school hall and the wall fence. Mantjodi Secondary School is a house for 666 learners from grades 8 – 12 and 27 teachers with a ratio of 25 learners per teacher. The principal and five heads of departments are the six members of the school management team of the Mantjodi Senior Secondary School with four males and two females. In the past, this school was known for excellent academic results but has steadily dropped to a poor performing school in the Kavango region in recent years. This secondary school has black and coloured teachers.

Despite his professional qualifications and training and having attended workshops and seminars, Mr Brutus has never received formal leadership training or induction from the Ministry of Education. However, the African Leadership Institute (ALI) prepared him in the general educational leadership. The Mantjodi Senior Secondary School has a

diverse cultural background in terms of teaching staff but, the majority of the learners (70 percent) are from the Kavango region.

5.3.4 Mr Pharaoh Principal of William senior secondary school

William Senior Secondary School is one of the rural remote schools situated in the eastern side of the Kavango region. Mr Pharaoh possesses a grade 12 and a B.A. degree as academic qualifications and his professional qualification is a post-graduate diploma in Education (PGDE). Like many of his counterparts in the Kavango region, Mr Pharaoh has 15 years of teaching experience and has grown from a teacher to HoD through to school principal. He has been a school principal at William Senior Secondary School for five years.

As a change agent, Mr Pharaoh has requested the ministry to renovate his school with the assistance of the Millennium Challenge Account (MCA). Another milestone Mr Pharaoh has made to his school is the purchase of a minibus for sport and exchange programme. Since Mr Pharaoh has been at the helm of William Senior Secondary School, a striking improvement of grades 10 and 12's national examinations has been observed and has been the best performing rural school in the region in the successive three years.

William Secondary School has been and still is the only rural school that performed well between 76 and 95 percent in succession from 2007 – 2009. The school management team consists of five males as HoDs and the Principal. The school hosts 24 teachers and 637 learners with a ratio of 27 learners per teacher. The majority of teachers are black and about 95 percent of the learners are boarders.

Even though Mr Pharaoh does not have official leadership training in education, he has attended a three-day workshop as induction arranged by the ministry. At the moment, Mr Pharaoh's self-development is in the form of pursuing a post-graduate programme with UNISA. William Senior Secondary School is a diverse cultural background for both teachers and learners.

5.3.5 Ms Carmel Principal of Needling Secondary school

Ms Carmel is the Principal of Needling Secondary School which was opened in the early 1970s as an affluent white-only school. It is an urban school which is situated in

the heart of town. She has a long teaching experience and has served as a teacher for 25 years at Needling Secondary School. She served as a HoD before being appointed as School Principal. In spite of her accumulated teaching experience prior to her appointment as a principal, she has only served five years as School Principal. Ms Carmel holds a Higher Education Diploma (HED) for secondary schools. Needling Secondary School is the only secondary school which has primary, junior and secondary phases from grades 01 – 12. The non-boarding secondary school has a total population of 999 learners and 33 teachers with a ratio of 30 learners per teacher. The academic staff at Needling Secondary School comprises of black, white and coloured teachers

As a public school, Needling Secondary School has old classrooms, library, computer laboratories and school hall which were renovated few years ago. Needling Secondary School also has amenities like the swimming pool; thriving gardens, rugby field and tennis court albeit outside the school yard which make this school a distinctive one from other government schools in the region. Needling Secondary School was the first to buy a school bus and a school newsletter entitled "*Yearbook*" in the entire Kavango region. The school has good reputation for its excellent academic performance for grades 10 and 12 behind the two private schools in the region.

Needling Secondary School has undergone transformational changes after independence and has evolved into a full-fledged integrated secondary school to reflect the Namibian identity. It is a multicultural school in the region with mixed ethnic groups of which the white learners' population has sharply dropped to a mere 5 percent since the independence of Namibia.

Even more surprising was the fact that this school had undergone radical changes since independence. Prior to independence Needling Secondary School was a white secondary school in the region and at the dawn of independence the school also opened to other races. More black teachers and learners had joined the school because of the facilities and good performance. Ms Carmel had been a teacher before and after independence and had experienced the leadership turbulences at Needling when leading black and white teachers. Given the fact that Ms Carmel had acted at Needling Secondary School for few years, she had learnt a lot of how to handle different people by using different leadership styles.

Although Mrs Carmel did not have formal training in educational leadership before her appointment as a School Principal, she indicated that attending African Leadership Institute Training (ALI) was an eye opener for her in the field of educational leadership.

5.3.6 Ms Mirabel Principal of Runnella senior secondary school

Runnella Senior Secondary School is the oldest secondary school in the north-eastern Namibia which was built in the 1960s. Ms Mirabel is the youngest school principal who accumulated teaching experience over 16 years and 5 years as School Principal at Runnella Senior Secondary School. Like her counterparts, her academic qualification is grade 12 and her professional qualification is a four-year Higher Education Diploma (HED) secondary. Serving in school management as HoD made her eligible for the position of principal. Thus, like her colleagues, she met the basic requirements when she was appointed as a principal, that is, many years of teaching experience with a relevant teaching qualification.

Runnella Senior Secondary School has received many recognitions and awards for the outstanding performance of grades 10 and 12 students. Historically, many notable leaders in the Kavango region matriculated at Runnella Senior Secondary School. As the largest secondary school, Runnella Senior Secondary School has a ratio of 28 learners per teacher with a total of 1168 learners and 42 teachers. The school management team consists of a seven males and Mrs Mirabel the only female member.

Although she attended some leadership workshops offered by the African Leadership Institute (ALI) Mrs Mirabel claimed to have lacked some skills in leadership and needed some assistance on how to effectively lead her people. According to her, she wanted the gift that the former President Nelson Mandela had to inspire her people. Ms Mirabel considered herself an excellent manager who managed her school very well and is a capable and competent leader.

She is currently studying for her postgraduate B. EdHons degree which she considers a self-development programme. About 65 percent of the learners at Runnella Secondary School are from the surrounding area of the Kavango region; however, the teachers are of a mixed cultural background.

5.4 Data presentation and analysis

This section presents the perspectives of school principals and teachers on the implementation of self-leadership as a model for effective leadership in Namibian schools. The aim of this study was to examine the extent to which school principals employed self-leadership strategies in the management of teachers in their execution of teaching and learning to improve the education in the respective schools.

As this research is conducted in an interpretive qualitative paradigm, the challenge was to find the best ways to analyse the data in terms of categories, meanings and patterns for the analysis. Because of the voluminous collected data, I needed to organize them in acceptable units. Owing to the principle that content analysis is a process of looking at data from different angles to identify a key in the text that will help me to understand and interpret the raw data (Nieuwenhuis, 2007c), an analytical technique was preferred in this study. The process I adapted was to code the transcripts manually by highlighting the text into the workable units which enable me to look for patterns and repetitive ideas.

Thereafter, based on themes I categorized and organized the similarities and relationships with each other. It was deemed to be the best approach to adopt in order to be able to understand and interpret teachers and school principals' responses. In order to arrive at the themes, I managed to code the transcripts manually by reading and highlighting the text into workable units.

The themes that have emerged from the participants are presented. In this section I will also present the combined patterns of meaning making that have emerged from the teachers and the school principals as they all responded to the same questions. It should be pointed out from the onset that this section attempts to organize the common issues of the transcripts. I will therefore use the topic heading that have arisen from the data to support the discussion as presented by the participants themselves.

5.5 Teachers and principals perspectives on self-leadership

This subunit analyzes the data of the six school principals. It further discusses the challenges that each of these school principals encountered and the school principals' leadership styles, and the teachers' observations on the leadership style of their school principals.

5.5.1 The leadership style of Mr Mpepo

During the interview Mr Mpepo expressed that he experienced few challenges. The main challenge at his school was the under-qualified teachers who were only qualified to teach up to grade 10 whom he also used for grade 12, and encountered problems in sciences and languages. As result many teachers spent long hours on certain topics which they were supposed to cover in a short period of time. Learners' discipline was a challenge in his first days as school principal.

The leadership style at Hamutima Senior Secondary School has been described by the Mr Mpepo as an exemplary who emphasized the participatory leadership style. Mr Mpepo further expressed that he does not normally require teachers to do things that he himself does not feel like doing and hence the use of participatory leadership. In participatory leadership, teachers are expected to participate in the leadership roles, for example, to be leaders in the classrooms and in the departments. The teachers' leadership skills development that necessitated them to be self-motivated was placed at the centre of his leadership style. This is how the principal described his leadership style:

> *I normally lead my school by example and I believe in a participatory leadership. In fact I want everybody to be a leader in his or her own department or in the classroom. Wherever you find yourself whether in the classroom or in the department, you are a leader* (Mr Mpepo).

It is clear from observation above that the approach adopted by Mr Mpepo is for teachers to value their professional fulfilment by participating in leadership in the classrooms. Involving all the teachers and heads of departments and considering everyone as a leader seems to be the approach favoured by Mr Mpepo. He wants the teacher-principal followership to be a shared responsibility between teachers and the principal. The positive outcome of such a relationship is support for one another.

Clearly, Mr Mpepo considers followership as a requirement or an obligation. Requirement or an obligation for him refers to the duties and responsibilities of teachers to help learners in the classrooms. For him it is senseless to prescribe what teachers should do in their class as they almost do the same thing at school. It is in this light that Mr Mpepo argued that his teachers' main responsibility at the school is virtually the

same; that is, teaching and supporting learners to improve the results. The critical part of his leadership style is to lead them by example. Mr Mpepo said this with firm and unequivocal emphasis:

> *If I have to go to the class and teach they are also doing the same. When time comes to support learners in the class to improve the results, they also do the same. But the most important thing is what I am doing myself, leading them by example (Mr Mpepo).*

Positive responses from the school principal show that Mr Mpepo opted for a participatory leadership because teachers participated in the decision making process. The latter made the implementation of school programmes easy. In other words, teachers participated in the leadership as they also shared their knowledge and skills with other teachers to improve classroom practice.

Mr Mpepo sought out and provided opportunities for his teachers to learn and grow. For example, he supported teachers to develop their skills so that once promoted as HoD or principal they would have less challenges to run the schools. Through personal discussions with one of teachers at this school became obvious that more teachers were encouraged by the school principal to study and that he was optimistic to have enrolled for his M.Ed. degree. His quest to develop others' skills and knowledge was central to his self-leadership according to his observation below:

> *I feel in developing other people to become leaders so that when I am no longer at the institution there is continuity. But if you are not there what will happen to the institution? (Mr Mpepo).*

From the above statement, I can see how serious the school principal was on the development of his teachers to acquire qualifications that are relevant to the field to sustain quality education in schools in the Kavango region.

Teachers at Hamutima Secondary School presented different opinions on the leadership style of their School Principal. One of the two teachers at Hamutima described the leadership of his School Principal as follows:

> *In most cases our principal does not stand on his own decisions but rather consults the two HoDs. When it comes to decision making he is not*

Response from a teacher who is a member of the management team classifies Mr Mpepo as an autocratic leader while another one simple describes him as leader who consults others. Despite the contradiction that Mr Mpepo heavily relies on his HoDs and not follow other people's ideas, both hold the view that he is a soft-hearted Principal.

Responding to the question why Mr Mpepo led them in this way, teachers averred that the soft-hearted character of the School Principal could be the result of his being an elder member of his church. They argued that Mr Mpepo's Christian background allowed him to exert his influence on both teachers and learners with humility which many people take for granted. Although Mr Mpepo was an effective communicator, teachers noted a limitation that he fell short to implement the policies pursued by the school.

5.5.2 Leadership style of Mr Mbware

One of the major challenges of Mr Mbware leadership was the habitual defiance of instructions by the teachers and their failure to complete their tasks on time. He also relates the lack of teachers' working spirit to achieve high percentage in their subjects while learners also lack the culture of studying hard. It was clear in the interview with Mr Mbware that some community members who did not purportedly contribute to the school upgrading project at Léonard Secondary School had continuously destroyed the school fence.

Like his counterparts from other secondary schools, Mr Mbware revealed that he operated in a democratic leadership where everyone was involved in the running of the school. According to him, all stakeholders such as teachers, learners and non-teachers were involved in the democratic practices. As a person at the helm of the school, he regarded himself as a democratic principal who normally consults and engages all stakeholders in the discussions before decisions are taken by the all staff members. He singled out that there were some exceptional cases where the management had to make decisions and then provide feedback to the staff members.

Adopting a democratic principle was the effective approach at this school as Mr Mbware engaged his teachers in academic discourses. Mr Mbware did not only apply democratic leadership but also used his cultural and educational background as leadership styles to understand the attitudes and behaviour of his followers. He felt that there was a need for his followers to also understand his leadership style:

> *You find some teachers do it the way they feel is comfortable for them and I am not comfortable to shout at people because I never went through those things. I have learned many things through my educational background on how to deal with different people (Mr Mbware).*

Mr Mbware pointed out that he only followed teachers with good ideas. It is stated that the school principal indiscriminately followed teachers with good proposals or ideas because the institution only benefited from the good interaction between teachers and principal. Mr Mbware had sometimes used what he termed "*executive decision*"[17] as opposed to the democratic principles to get the results. He always reprimanded those teachers who were not meeting the deadlines.

Interviews with teachers showed that Mr Mbware involved almost everyone, including the management, teachers with responsibilities; and those in the sub-committees such as the Hostel superintendent, the chairpersons of the disciplinary, the financial committees and learners. The school had a team spirit that worked very well with all the stakeholders. Mr Mbware acknowledges that he sometimes delegates his HoDs to do class visits while he attends to administrative matters. He contended that, unlike him, HoDs know better of what is going on in the class or in the departments as they are in direct contact with the teachers on a daily basis. To him it is how he empowers his managers to account to the departments.

The interview with the teachers showed that democratic governance had been practiced at this school. Coupled with the democratic leadership as described by the teachers was the sharing of the needed information from the office of the school principal. The lack of Mr Mbware' visibility on the school premises, however, has been a concern for teachers' progress in the classroom which had negatively impacted on the learners' performance. In as much as Mr Mbware attended to administrative tasks, teachers were

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[17]   Mr Mbware used this style to instruct teachers to attend to urgent work or tasks that needed to be done as soon as possible on a specific day.

of the opinion that visiting classes is one of his responsibilities to have first-hand information whether teachers were really teaching or not. As one of his teachers pointed out:

> *He has a good leadership style but owing to a certain point he spends too much time sitting in his office rather than going outside to observe what is really going on in classes. I want the principal to go out on his own without waiting feedback from the head of department (Teacher E).*

The sentiment shared by the teacher revealed the reality that the school principal leaves class visits in the hand of HoDs where teachers believed that the presence and visibility of the school principal around and in classrooms is important to establish the real situation in the classrooms.

5.5.3 Leadership style of Mr Brutus

The major challenge at Mantjodi Secondary School was the teachers' negative tendencies associated with their attitudinal problems. Leading young teachers with the majority being ladies was another challenging task for Mr Brutus. He was of the opinion that teachers had the tendency of personalizing matters of accusing the management and the school principal of disliking them. Mr Brutus indicated in the interview that some teachers were passive which send the wrong message that he was a dictator. Mr Brutus explained why he leads in this particular way.

> *I lead in this specific leadership style because it is the one I discovered that my people understand me. When I use a style of autocratic I learned that I divide my people. My intention is not to divide them but to make them feel at home. Once they feel at home they feel free and should not feel the stigma that I am from this area or tribe. That is the reason I use the democratic style (Mr Brutus).*

Mr Brutus considered his style as democratic leadership at Mantjodi Senior Secondary School. However, Mr Brutus says that he rigorously followed the policy framework of the ministry at his school. In other words, he made use of the School Principals' Manual, the Public Service staff rules and regulations which were drawn from the Public Service Act, to guide him on how to run his school effectively. In addition to the policy framework, the

School Principal also used the leadership style which he calls "own leadership style" to influence his followers.

While the Principal pointed out that he frequently used policy to control his teachers, the use of a democratic leadership style was appropriate to harmonize his teachers as opposed to the use of an autocratic leadership which according to him could divide his people. This explains why he was not only a leader, but was also a subject specialist who demonstrated his subject knowledge by producing results above the teachers thus leading by example. By doing so, he equally had the right to demand teachers to perform well in their subjects so that they produce good results with limited resources.

While the School Principal said that he applied a democratic leadership, teachers at this school had different views. One teacher said that the Principal applied the democratic leadership but was lenient to learners while another teacher contended that although Mr Brutus was not trained in leadership he had adapted leadership styles that fit the person he was dealing with at a particular time. However, all of them agreed that the School Principal meticulously followed the policies of the ministry like the Guidelines for School Principals, the Public Service staff rules and other regulations to help him run the school successfully.

Teacher G from this secondary school confirmed this view:

> *I think he is always leading the school by following the policies. He likes referring us to policies in whatever he says. He also engages teachers to give their suggestions but sometimes dictates because of the attitudes of some teachers. Leading a big organization such as our school requires a strong leadership from the principal who can control teachers' attitudes to get things done in the correctly way. But all in all, I think, this principal is a policy-oriented person (Teacher G).*

This quote from the Teacher G demonstrates that the School Principal cannot lead his people without referring them to the rules and regulations. School principals as implementers of policies emphasize the importance of teachers' compliance with the rules and regulations of the school that guide them to do the right thing and by doing so the school principals have the authority to evaluate or assess them how they implement the said rules and regulations at the school level. Attending briefing and staff meetings conducted by Mr Brutus, it became clear to me that he wittingly or unwittingly made

references to policy documents as proof to convince his staff members to do the right thing.

5.5.4 Leadership style of Mr Pharaoh

In the interview with Mr Pharaoh, it appeared that he experienced a leadership and cultural shock. Right after he took office as the new School Principal of William Secondary School, many of the teachers questioned his leadership to lead them as he was regarded as an outsider. In the previous years, demonstrations at William Secondary School were a common phenomenon after teachers, learners and parents demanded the removal of the former two school principals. Mr Pharaoh's other concerns were many bars surrounding the school and the low qualification of his teachers.

In spite of the challenges, the Principal of William Senior Secondary School preferred leading by example. His argument for choosing this style was based on the premise of leader personality although he admitted that leading by example was not a leadership style. Therefore, his leadership trickled down from his office to teachers who in return filtered their leadership styles through to the learners. To illustrate, he contended that his leadership style had impact on the performance through the teachers to the learners who had done well in the national examinations. As pointed out, following the mutual trust created between the principal and teachers a healthy relationship emerged. Mr Pharaoh had indeed shown care for his people and respect for his social dynamic of leader-followers relationship.

Mr Pharaoh had reasoned that motivation and trust were important elements for teacher-principal followership. However, he pointed out that in the rural school, there was a need for a school principal to strike a balance between the two leadership styles where leaders need to combine the two leadership approaches i.e. autocratic and democratic in order to address the level of development of the teachers. He argued that using one leadership style at the expense of the other styles may have consequences such as failing to get the best results out of the teachers and hence the relevance of using integrated leadership styles.

In this regard, the School Principal maintained that:

> *If you use more democracy you may likely to fail later, [cough] but to integrate the two approaches is inevitable for a principal, for example democracy and a bit of autocracy. In order to succeed the people must really see the seriousness of their leader and that's why I am using the concept of leading by example by doing things right. If it studies times, I am always number one [hitting the table to stress the importance of it] (Mr Pharaoh).*

The sentiment above indicates that Mr Pharaoh had used either democratic or autocratic leadership approaches. The issue of the School Principal using integrated leadership styles was also emphasized by one of his teachers at this school. Given the context of the school, both the learners and the teachers needed the integrated style of the School Principal. As a way of controlling learners, Mr Pharaoh emphasized that the school had erected the fence around the school and the hostel to make sure that during the lessons learners were within the premises.

On the other hand, teachers felt that the School Principal was compelled to use his authority to contain and control discipline and performance of learners at William Senior Secondary School. While teachers at this school agreed on his leadership style, there was some antithesis on the followership of the School Principal with teachers. Teachers argued that Mr Pharaoh was able to lead them because of his knowledge and teaching experience but was a very difficult person to follow others. According to teachers Mr Pharaoh was a candid and self-regulated person who analyzed things before making independent decisions, and that teachers needed to convince him to follow their ideas. One of the participants at William Secondary School elaborated on this saying that:

> *He is not very easy, you know, for him to be a follower of others. Not really, he normally says that he needs to be advised correctly not wrongly (Teacher I).*

From the above it is obvious that there is a strong feeling from the teachers about the followership of their School Principal. While teachers said that Mr Pharaoh was not an easy principal to follow others' advice, they argue that he normally seeks the correct advice from teachers. The School Principal is clear that he only follow people's advices that are relevant and relates to policy that benefits the school and people.

5.5.5 Leadership style of Ms Carmel

Ms Carmel relates that communication was the big issue at her school when she took over as School Principal. The main trouble she encountered was the misunderstanding among the staff members who were not only fighting but backbiting and blaming each other. As she narrates her story, she remembered how she tried to convince teachers and other staff members to forget the past and look forward.

Regardless of these setbacks, Ms Carmel was determined to bring teachers from different background together because of her humoristic personality. Responding to the selected leadership styles, Ms Carmel commented that she was a positive and a motivated Principal who loves to be in contact with the learners to realize their purpose in life. Despite her evasive response, Ms Carmel argued that she had a good relationship with her teachers and learners as they followed her as a result of her positive attitude and personality.

Regarding following teachers, she stated that she was involved in the teaching and marking activities where she always sought the needed information from them. She stated that she always asked for teachers' opinions and listened to them when making decisions of what to do next. Talking about the reasons why she led her school with that leadership style, Ms Carmel said that she had gone through difficult times in the past and had learnt lessons on how to handle conflicts with care. Ms Carmel explained this in the following terms:

> *I cannot say it is a weakness. It is my style. I am not that really rough or strictly principal. Sometimes I feel like am I really in this post of mine to take decisions or making the right choices for the school. But I don't know. It just come spontaneous with me…I don't force myself to be in conflict. I am just myself and now I have to prove may be on certain thing and tell myself how to handle a teacher in my office and let him or her to sign a warning letter for instance (Ms Carmel).*

On the contrary, teachers at Needling Secondary School had different views on the leadership style of their Principal. One teacher who was an HoD said his School Principal exercised a democratic leadership style that comes from the grassroots or from the people themselves. In addition, according to this teacher, Ms Carmel first

reflects and listens to other people's opinion before reacting or taking a decision. Another one stated that Ms Carmel's leadership created opportunities for teachers to come up with good ideas or ways on how to deal with learners. She was characterized as a principal with good humour who treated her teachers equally which resulted in a good relationship between teachers and her.

One of the strengths of Ms Carmel is that she knows how to handle herself and also treat individual teachers with compassion according to the level of their ability. In the interview teachers related how Ms Carmel treated them equally. Moreover, they agreed that she had created an enabling environment that allow teachers to work independently and was able to listen to their opinions before decisions were made. One of the teachers explained the way the School Principal had led her people:

> *She is not really rally behind every teacher. She is not the principal that gives rules to do this and this. But instead she gives teachers opportunities to be comfortable with what they think will help learners and their subjects. She is not really behind and instruct us to do A or B. So long you are doing the right thing she is fine (Teacher B).*

It appears from the excerpt above that the School Principal empowers teachers to do the right thing and at the same time grant them freedom to interact with their learners by creating conducive teaching and learning environment. This implies that the School Principal trusted her teachers who were doing the right thing. Interestingly, according to teachers, Ms Carmel handled sensitive cases with extra care. They contend however, that she led them this way because of the conflicts that happened in the past at Needling Secondary School. Teachers gave three more reasons, which may account for the style of their Principal. First, the school was too big for her to rally behind every teacher. Secondly, she was overloaded with too much administrative work. Thirdly, she preferred to give a chance to the teachers to come up with their own ideas or ways of how to deal with learners.

5.5.6 Leadership style of Ms Mirabel

As stressed by Ms Mirabel, when she took over as Principal, people had a lot of expectations but it was not that easy to change things overnight. She recalled that Rome wasn't built in one day. Ms Mirabel described her leadership during the first three

years as having had many challenges and bumps, which were caused by the lack of leadership induction. The other challenge was with the teachers who were lazy and not committed. In the absence of leadership preparation, her leadership was characterized by mainly directing teachers and learners what to do. She admitted to having taken unilaterally decisions, which, as a consequence, had frustrated teachers, which she put as follows:

> *I was this close to quitting [laughing] probably because I was just thrown in at the deep end without any induction. I was trying to show people that I am the boss and then at the end of the day I realized sometimes it is frustrating people when I sit in my office and make decisions and just go and tell them [hitting the table] that this is what I want you to do. And that is what caused the resistance from the teachers (Ms Mirabel).*

Even with challenges, Ms Mirabel remained a very optimistic Principal who reflected on her style and quickly adopted a democratic leadership style. Her democratic leadership style was anchored on the principle of consultation. According to Ms Mirabel, democratic leadership required a leader to have the mandate of the followers before decisions were taken, and hence the choice for consultation. But, Ms Mirabel was aware of the fact that she had the ultimate right to stamp authority in leading people in the right direction after consulting the stakeholders. This means that she needed the right knowledge to make the right decision which was in the interest of the organization and its people. Ms Mirabel was clear about her leadership and responded enthusiastically:

> *I am definitely the principal [laughing] so I am… I would want to believe that I am leading the people…I get people on board to follow me …let's say I will link it to democratic style where people are consulted but then eventually it is me the principal that steers them in the right direction (Ms Mirabel).*

Both teachers at Runnella Secondary School agreed with the School Principal that her leadership style is of democratic nature that is based on consultation. One of the teachers at this school describes the principal's leadership style:

> *I am saying that our principal is more of a democratic type of leader. Any decisions that she makes she is always coming from us. First the management team, then the teachers and the learners. I am very much*

happy with her democratic type of leadership. I like it because it gets everybody involved in decision making and it is like everybody feels the ownership of the school. They feel that everybody owns the school not only one person (Teacher D).

Steering people in the right direction was an important aspect as she knew where to lead them. It was publicly acknowledged at Runnella Senior Secondary School that teachers and the Principal followed each other. This was based on what each person contributed to the success of the school. Both teachers and the School Principal agreed that following one another was based on the trust they have for each other to improve the quality education. However, there was a general perception among people that leaders were not supposed to follow their followers. What I have found from Ms Mirabel was the opposite as she explained:

Sometimes people see or view leaders differently. And it might be said that if you follow for instance a teacher then you are not a strong leader of which I do not agree with. As much as you are the principal and the head of the school, you also have other people with very brilliant ideas and very good vision for the school that also carries just as me the same interest of the school at heart. So sometimes you get an ordinary teacher who wants to take the lead in a certain direction and for me as a principal to follow him or her does not make me a bad principal or someone with poor leadership qualities (Ms Mirabel).

It is clear from above that the School Principal of Runnella Secondary School is ready to follow other people who have good vision for the school. It is not just following people that matters but also looking at the benefits the teachers bring to school and how this relationship benefits the learners. Ms Mirabel had used participatory democratic leadership to support and motivate teachers who were more disciplined, committed and hard-working to produce better results.

5.6 Emerging themes from the participating schools in the Kavango region

5.6.1 Leading themselves by example

It is interesting to note that the results shows that three School Principals from performing and two under-performing indicated strong feelings in leading themselves by

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example. Five out of the six school principals led themselves by being punctual, committed, hard-working and capable managers and leaders; showed exemplary leadership to the teachers. School principals from the performing schools on the one hand argued that they had significantly transformed the teachers' attitudes into disciplined, committed and dedicated teachers which was a big stumbling block in the past. In one way or the other, principals leading themselves by example were more prevalent in the performing school principals than in the under-performing schools. Interviews show that school principals wanted teachers to do the same like their leaders are doing. While all the school principals were perceived as champion of exemplary leadership, performing school principals were more specific on how they were doing it. Ms Mirabel related how she applied the exemplary leadership since she took over office as school principal.

> *From the time that I was appointed as a principal up to where I am sitting now talking to you, I can definitely see the change that came in and I would want to believe that it was me who inspired my teachers in order to change their attitude also towards being a teacher and what exactly it is that they need to do (Ms Mirabel).*

Another of the inspiring school principal from the performing school shared the following exemplary leadership experiences:

> *I'm using the concept of leading by example by doing the right thing – if it is study time I must be there as a principal. I'm always number one in my class to show them good example [hitting the table to stress the importance of it]. Sometimes I tell the teachers you see today what I'm going to do and I will do it correctly. So my teachers are really learning good things from me as a leader (Mr Pharaoh).*

Interesting to consider was that even though the performance in the under-performing schools was not as good as the performing schools, school principals from the under-performing schools were determined that they have displayed exemplary leadership.

This is what Mr Brutus had to say:

> *I am setting the tone for my managers and teachers to follow me. When you are punctual at your class you will be able to see who is coming late and*

> *then you can start reprimand especially learners in the end they will know that if is it 07h00 and Mr Brutus is coming to the class they must be there 10 minutes to 07H00. After that he will not allow you to enter his class. It is what I normally do* (Mr Brutus).

In a manner that was similar to Mr Brutus, the school principal of Léonard secondary school echoed the same sentiment.

> *Teachers emulate good things that they see from me as their leader. For instance, teachers imitate good examples that I set for them and I can still say that there are something good that teachers are learning from me or they get from me. You know teachers are good judges who only take good things from their principals but I am sure there are good lesson they are learning from me (Mr Mbware).*

One principal reiterated what other school principals have said but put more emphasis on the importance of exemplary leadership that relate to instructional leadership which have a link with self-leadership of school principals. He stated the following that:

> *We are almost doing the same thing. As a principal, I am teaching so teachers are also teaching. They follow me because we are doing the same thing. If I go to class and teach, they also do the same. Teachers learn good example from me because they follow my examples. They normally learn from me (Mr Mpepo).*

The reference above illustrates that school principals have set a good example for teachers to improve their teaching practices by being committed and dedicated as they met the deadlines and even went an extra mile to help out other teachers. A good example offered by the school principal obligated teachers to finish their work on time and also not only assisted new and young teachers but also dripped to the learners who also have shown commitment and discipline.

In one way or the other, teachers gave the impression that principals leading by example were more prevalent in the performing schools than in the under-performing schools. Teachers from the performing schools, on the other hand, had mirrored the good examples from their school principals who cascaded the feeling of confidence and commitment to their learners. In other words, motivated and disciplined teachers, had

committed and well-disciplined learners who showed self-discipline and dedication towards their work. Teachers from the good performing schools confided in their school principals whom they were referring to as effective and role models as they consolidated their schools as winning teams.

One of the teachers from the performing schools stated it as follows:

> *I can compare our school with a team that kept on losing, but after the coach was fired and a new coach took over, the team starts winning. This means that there was nothing wrong with the team, but something was wrong with the previous coach (leadership) and with the new coach (Mrs Mirabel's leadership) the team is now performing. That is effective leadership. True leadership determines the commitment of the followers* (Teacher C)*.*

A teacher from Needling secondary, one of the performing schools, spoke with high regard about the principals' role as effective role models.

> *Ms Carmel is the type of person who does not go late to her classes. She always gives a lot of activities to her learners and marks it on time and gives feedback to learners. Because teachers see what she is doing is good they also follow in her footsteps. She always sets good examples for us teachers to follow (Teacher A).*

The teacher's explanation here shows that the current School Principal plays an important role in motivating teachers to perform beyond their expectations. Although the three school principals from the under-performing schools indicated in the interviews that they led themselves by example, the majority of the teachers of these schools claimed the opposite. These teachers refuted that their school principals did not provide them with the necessary resources that allowed them to commit themselves to the teaching responsibilities. Teachers therefore developed negativity towards the teaching profession and neglected their responsibilities. This was attributed to school principals' short-temperedness, soft-heartedness and leniency which had led to the indiscipline of learners and thus resulted in poor performance at these schools.

Distinct from the five school principals who claimed to be exemplary leaders, teachers from the under-performing schools disputed that short-temperedness, soft-heartedness

and leniency indeed existed at these schools.   Teachers at these secondary schools expressed the following that:

> *I think our principal is a short-tempered person. We feel discourage to participate and contribute to the discussions on the table for fear that the principal will get angry if we give different views from his ideas. It is important that Mr Brutus should allow us to say differ with him and respect our viewpoints (Teacher H).*

> *When I came here one thing that I learned from his leadership is that he is a soft-hearted person. That is one thing I have noticed. Early in 2008, I remembered when I joined this school as we experienced disciplinary problems for both learners and teachers because our principal could not manage it well (Teacher L).*

Teachers from the under-performing schools opined that no leadership examples were provided by the school principals who never moved out of their offices but delegated their responsibilities to the HoDs.

> *Mr Mbware is using the HoDs most of the time and they (HoDs) are the ones who give him feedback on what is happening in the classrooms. He is using HoDs too much. From my side I want him to do it himself without waiting feedback from that is getting from his HoDs to address the problem of the teachers (Teacher F).*

> *In most cases our principal does not stand on his own decisions but rather consult his two HoDs all the time. When it comes to decision making he is not determined to take decision on his own as a principal to decide what is right and what is wrong (Teacher L).*

The two views of the teachers confirmed that School Principals at the under-performing schools delegated their responsibilities to the HoDs and that they could not make independent decisions without consulting members of the management team. This simply means that school principals are not direct addressing teachers' needs that were they encountering in the classrooms. Contrary to this, one teacher from the performing schools acknowledged that some of the HoDs were not competent to sustain quality education in schools.

This teacher commented that:

> *I doubt the competence of HoDs because they must be experts or specialists in the subjects they are heading. Principal may deal with the HoDs but when it comes to technicality of the subjects, these HoDs must be competent which I doubt and that is the reason why the teaching and learning are not as effective in the classrooms (Teacher J).*

This shows, according to teachers, that school principals did not care about classroom practices. Compared to other under-performing schools, two teachers from the Hamutima Secondary School accredited their School Principal that after attending leadership workshops in Okahandja his leadership style improved, which changed the attitudes and commitment of the teachers toward their work. It is even evident from examination result that the performance at Hamutima Secondary School had improved for grade 10 immensely from 40 percent in 2009 to 60 percent in 2013.

One teacher from the under-performing school elaborated as follows:

> *After Mr Mpepo returned from workshop he has attended in Okahandja last year, there is some improvement on how he runs and manages the school as opposed to when he started as a new principal. The school has begun to improve in terms of grade 10 performance as compare to five years ago when I joined this school and we are benefiting from his improved leadership skills (Teacher L).*

Teachers L raises an important point about school improvement of school principal who acquired new skills and knowledge after attending educational training and workshops. In this context, it is argued that there is a strong sense of principals as reflective practitioners premised on their wealth of experience and their desire to acquire new knowledge which implies that experiences are used as a leadership learning platform. Despite the restrictions to attend courses, they were eager to become independent leaders who took initiative of their own development and became agents in their own right in order to get the job done and bring about change. Through this intervention, this school has benefited hugely and as result, the performance of the grade 10 has increased from 40 to 60 percent.

5.6.2 Leadership style of the school principals

Table 5-3 Views of school principals of their leadership styles

Leadership style	Mrs Carmel	Mr Brutus	Mr Mbware	Mrs Mirabel	Mr Mpepo	Mr Pharaoh
Autocratic/authoritarian		✓	✓			
Democratic	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Integrated (democratic & autocratic)		✓	✓			✓
Participatory	✓			✓	✓	
Consultative	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Example	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Table 5-4 Views of teachers on school principals' leadership styles

Leadership style	TA	TB	TC	TD	TE	TF	TG	TH	TI	TJ	TK	TL
Autocratic/ authoritative									✓		✓	
Democratic	✓			✓	✓							
Integrated												
Participatory			✓	✓	✓	✓		✓		✓	✓	✓
Consultation	✓			✓	✓		✓			✓	✓	✓
Example	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓		✓

As can be seen from the above Tables 5-3 & 5-4, the perceptions of all the participants interviewed indicate that school principals used different leadership styles, either democratic, participatory or the combination of democratic and autocratic. This presents a fairly perplexing picture of the school principals' views on their own leadership styles. Nevertheless, it is very clear from the majority of the school principals that they preferred either democratic or participatory styles while the minority opted for either the integrated or autocratic leadership. It is clear from the table that the three male school principals used authoritative and autocratic and integrated (democratic and autocratic) leadership while two, in this case female school principals, were more pronounced in democratic, participatory and consultative leadership. Only one male school principal out the six indicated that he also applied the participatory leadership style.

According to four school principals, participatory style was opted in which they had taken note of what people were thinking and feeling about things such as decision

making processes and participation at the schools. School principals created platforms and avenues where teachers, learners and parents participated in the running of the schools. In order for teachers to fully participate in the decisions, school principals made sure that teachers were consulted and included on tasks that took place in schools. The majority of the school principals felt that democratic style was relevant in their contexts.

One of the participating school principals said that:

> *I believe in a participatory leadership. In fact I want everybody to be a leader in his or her own department and that is what I always tell my teachers that wherever they find themselves they are leaders. If you are teaching a classroom, you are a leader of that class. Heads of departments heading departments you are also leaders in their various departments (Mr Mpepo).*

While both teachers and school principals agreed that school principals had led their schools by example (Tables 5-3 & 5-4), the majority of the teachers showed that their school principals used participatory leadership style which is contrary to the democratic views of the school principals. Like their school principals, teachers also indicated strongly that the school principals consulted them while only two of the twelve teachers showed that their school principals used either authoritarian or autocratic leadership. Interestingly, only three of the teachers indicated democratic leadership styles of their school principals and there is a great probability that teachers used democratic and participatory interchangeably.

All teachers interviewed agreed that principals were practicing participatory management whereby principals included every staff members in their decision making process. It was further discovered from the teachers that whenever suggestions were made by either the principal or the management, it was brought back to the staff members for further deliberations before decisions were made by both the management and the teachers. Alternatively, when decisions were taken by the principals with their management explanation was crucial to the staff members as to why such the decisions were taken after which staff members were given chances to give comments or suggestions before the final decisions were taken.

There is a tendency that where the democratic and participatory leadership styles were adopted in the secondary schools, cooperation among the staff, motivation for both

teachers and learners, support from learners and parents emerged, which then led to a general trend for good performance of learners.

> *I am saying that our principal is more of a democratic type of leader. Any decisions that he would like to make he always consults. First the management team, then the teachers and the learners. If there is still no agreement of such decision then the school board will also be consulted. I will say he is a democratic leader because he is involving everybody in the decision-making of the school (Teacher F).*

A democratic leadership in this case created a climate conducive for effective teaching and learning. The study indicates that where a democratic and participation are practised; performance of learners is likely to improve.

In the rural schools, however, the majority of teachers were either under-qualified or not qualified to deliver quality education. This prompted school principals to integrate both the democratic and autocratic styles. The option to use integration and authoritarian leadership had a threefold aim: first, for the under-qualified teachers, secondly for the discipline of learners and thirdly teenage pregnancy. Some of the teachers in the high performing schools in the rural area agreed with the school principals using the authoritarian leadership because of the qualifications of some teachers. Teachers argued that the qualification of the teachers in secondary schools was important.

A teacher from one of the performing senior secondary school revealed that:

> *If teachers are not really qualified to teach at this level then the principal needs to stamp his authority and give them guidance because if the level of their qualifications is low obviously the reasoning may also not match up. One has to stamp his authority there otherwise either the teachers will track the principal down or the principal pulls them up (Teacher I).*

It is deduced from the above extract that those school principals who, while being self-leaders, either used autocratic or democratic styles simultaneously placed more emphasis on the qualifications of teachers which have impact on the performance of the learners. It is obvious that the majority of the teachers are in congruent with the school principals on the participatory leadership styles of the school principals.

5.6.3 Participants' interpretation of school principals' self-leadership

Although participants were not familiar with the conceptualization of self-leadership, data collected show that the majority of the participants said "yes" that the school principals were self-leaders. The school principals had some ideas of what constituted self-leadership which they said starts with oneself and is upon him- or herself to be able to lead his or her followers.

One of the school principals from an under-performing school explained self-leadership:

> *I always tell my teachers that you first start to lead yourself. There's no way you can lead others if you cannot lead yourself. Self-leadership is about yourself, your ability and how to control yourself. Wherever you find yourself be it in classroom, or heading a department, you are a leader (Mpepo).*

It is against this backdrop of the explanation above that I posit that self-leadership of school principals in the Kavango region is paramount for them to have the ability to control and develop so that they lead others better. It is crucial that school principals in the Kavango region exhibit self-knowledge that is needed to be in control of the situation and the people they are leading.

While school principals somewhat described the notion of self-leadership in more concrete ways, teachers on their turn had different standpoints about self-leadership. The majority of teachers contested that, although self-leadership has the ability for one to lead oneself effectively, being an individualistic person makes it more complex because school principals need other people's idea to make good decisions.

> *I think the concept self-leadership can either be good or bad. In some cases one cannot do things well without consult others. On the other hand, it is good to be a self-leader if you have knowledge of what and how you want to achieve your own goals. In our case, however, it is not good to be a self-leader when you ignore your colleagues' good intention that can help you to make good decisions. You cannot stand alone! You need others. For me being a self-leader is not good (Teacher B).*

A self-leader according to the teachers ought to embrace the notion of 'togetherness' of all stakeholders in schools to effectively deliver quality education as effective teachers

fundamentally emulate a good leader. It is observed from the teachers that the idea of 'individualism' of a leader holds a different worldview that is contrary to their 'collectivism' that is the preferred philosophy in the Kavango region. This is a concept that is associated with the togetherness and respect of other people.

In light of the above, the majority of teachers argued that self-leadership of school principals, although good, presents a challenge in public schools than in private schools. They emphasized that a self-leader ought to involve all the stakeholders in education to prosper. One of the teachers who regarded his school principal as a self-leader described the scenario as follows:

> *It is not really easy to be self-leader in a government school. It is difficult to be an individualistic leader because we are talking about clusters, the circuit managerial committees, inspectors and unions. It is difficult to be an individual unless you are really looking at someone who is working at an independent school[18] (Teacher I).*

The view of Teacher I sentiment above demonstrates that there is a problem for school principals to be self-leaders in government schools. The argument that is being advanced here is that it is difficult for school principals in the government schools to make decisions without consulting people they are working with or other educational stakeholders. This implies that school principals cannot take decisions without the blessing of teachers, learners, parents through the school board members.

What is of great interest is the fact that school principals are considered to be effective and competence in the leading of their schools. It is shown that effective and competent principals from both under- and performing schools fundamentally expressed their effectiveness to support teachers on one hand and inspire them on the other. Teachers who received support and assisted by competent leaders delivered successful and effective lessons in the classrooms. One school principal from the under-performing school explained capabilities and competences to run the school:

> *I think I am capable not talking about competent. So I am capable of running any school that I am given in Namibia. I don't have doubt for myself. I will run*

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[18] This is the equivalent term use for private schools in other countries in the SADC region such as Zimbabwe and South Africa. In Namibia private school is the preferred term for schools that are privately run by other than the state either by Non-governmental organizations or churches.

it because I have all what it takes. I think I have acquired a lot of experience. I stayed here for sometimes. When I started my teaching I just taught a year at Runnella secondary school then the following year I was given an acting post. You can see then after a year I became an HoD. Then I stayed there for sometimes and then I was promoted as a principal. All my work, my teaching is more in the leadership. So that is why I say I am capable of running any school. I am competent and I don't have a problem (Mr Mpepo).

From the above it is observed that the school principal showed his feelings of competence and motivation. It is also shown in the excerpt of the experiences acquired of many years in teaching and leading at others schools which shows strong commitment of this experienced school principal.

School principals supported and empowered their teachers to confidently control their teaching and learning. Moreover, teachers made important decisions in the classrooms that had affected the teaching based on their subject knowledge and content. This is confirmed by the school principals who have shown appreciation of the teachers work in terms of their competence. The majority of the teachers acknowledged the roles school principals had played to facilitate the effective classroom management of teachers. One teacher explained how the school principals empowered to maximize their self-efficacy:

My principal plays a role in leading the school but when [it comes to teaching in my class] I am in my class I am the manager in that class. I am also managing that class not him coming to my class to tell me what to do and how to manage my class. I manage my class and must concentrate on my work as I can go extra miles to get the best results out of my learners. I must do my work on time and I am committed to the subject that I teach and that I love the learners (Teacher H).

From the above statement, it is clear that the teachers were involved in the feelings of control when they were allowed to choose any activities they liked to undertake. Teachers felt competent because they believed that they were given autonomy by the school principals, which enhanced performance of the learners.

5.6.4 The self-motivation of school principals

School principals' self-motivation was found to be high in the study by both teachers and school principals themselves. The majority of the school principals said that their self-motivation stemmed from love for their profession and the difference they made in the life of the learners. This sentiment is also informed by the fact that, despite the perception of the people about the public schools, many school principals found their work naturally rewarding and enjoyed it due to their self-motivation.

School principals from the performing school were of the opinion that self-motivation gave them much joy in what they were receiving from their former learners. The latter came back to thank teachers for the excellent service they rendered. It was observed that these school principals cared for their learners. Among other things, they expressed the wish to see their schools reach the heights of the private schools in the region not with the selected ones, but with all the learners.

However, some school principals from the under-performing schools regarded celebrating of birthdays together with colleagues as an achievement similar to self-motivation. One out of the three under-performing schools stressed the need of going away from the school during the holiday with family to revitalize his energy as a way of self-motivation. A principal (from an underperforming school) explained how appreciative he felt when rewarding himself for doing the good things as follows:

> *Sometimes when I go out far away from the school, I just feel relaxed and I enjoy myself. There is a time when we break and go far away from the school that's when I appreciate myself. It's not really good to say I am happy of what I'm doing but when I go out and do something with the family and blow out all the stress to appreciate what I have done (Mr Mpepo).*

This excerpt suggests that school principals used the self-imposed strategies of the self-leadership strategies of self-reward by going on holiday far from home and the celebration of birthdays as self-motivation for great achievements. In this sense the school principal uses physical and mental level through imagination of self-reward to successfully encourage himself to focus on his self-motivation. However, school principals had motivated their teachers by awarding certificates, trophies and 'thank you' notes to the teachers recognize and acknowledge their input. Teachers mainly form the

under-performing schools demanded to be given money from the School Development Fund (SFD) in order to buy teaching material for the subjects they teach.

5.7 Self-leadership strategies for effective teaching and learning in Kavango region

This section is linked to the self-leadership of the school principals because it attempts to answer the research question of the provision of effective leadership that have contributed to the improvement of effective teaching and learning in schools in the Kavango region.

5.7.1 Classroom observation

All the six school principals who conducted classroom visits indicated that they observed and monitored teachers in their classrooms. The aim, as they confessed, was to assess the extent to which teachers supported learners in the learning and teaching process. Classroom monitoring being part of the leadership responsibility, school principals monitored the classroom practices to enable them not only to be in touch with teachers, but to also develop knowledge of teachers' strength and their developmental needs. It became obvious that teachers were satisfied when school principals supported them while developing their teaching practices. One teacher commented:

> *Our principal supports us because he believes in us. He believes that we are doing the right thing when it comes to teaching because of the performance. He is willing to offer assistance to the novice teachers and always share her expertise and subject related materials with others (Teacher I).*

One principal echoed the teachers' sentiment as he stated:

> *I support them so that they can also support the learners because they need my support. They need to see that I care for them so that they can also transcend that caring to the learners. If I don't support them they will not support the learners and the school will collapse (Mr Pharaoh).*

After school principals had observed and assessed teachers in the class, the next step was calling in the teachers with their HoDs to map out plans to improve their classroom

practices. Both the performing and under-performing school principals expressed their satisfaction on the way they handled and assisted teachers with their leadership to improve the teaching. The findings show that school principals referred teachers to the subject specialists or to the HoDs help them to improve the teaching in their classroom. In the words of one of the school principals, Mr Brutus, the official classroom was one of the tools school principals used to make some recommendation:

> *There are written down principles in the school that guide us to assess the quality teaching in the class. Official classroom visits are categorized as formal and informal visits. Now through these tools we have discovered that perhaps somebody is not doing well in the classroom. We are not there to do police checking but help them to identify their problems. After that we sit down and go through the classroom recommendations and agree with the person on how he or she improves the classroom practice (Mr Brutus).*

Through the various classroom observation instruments such as the Personal Development Plan (PDP) and (PAA) Plan of Action Academic, the school principals and heads of departments advised teachers to develop their own individual PDP. The PDP is based on problems and challenges that teachers encountered during the lessons observed by the school management teams to ensure the improvement of teaching.

5.7.2 Teachers Professional Learning Community (TPLC)

The twinning of teachers who performed better in their subjects at nearby schools was highly recommended by the school principals. Inviting experts in the school or sending teachers to schools with best teachers became a common trend in many schools in the Kavango region. It was also found that where teachers had shown some deficiencies in the subjects in the schools, school principals searched for support services outside their schools either from the nearby schools or invited the advisory teachers from the regional office to provide subject knowledge shortage.

In support of twinning, the Principal of Mantjodi Senior Secondary School elaborated:

> *This year we have linked up with other teachers in other schools. Our teachers who are struggling in teaching their subjects are referred to the best performing schools to meet and learn from them. I am happy that many teachers have shown interest in learning good practices from our*

colleagues. My teachers are opening up and two to three teachers have already started going to other schools (Mr Brutus).

Teachers who are performing better in their subject areas are paired with those that are struggling in the classroom to learn from these best teachers. School principals indicated that many teachers with classroom challenges have shown keen interest in working with others. A teacher from the Mantjodi Secondary School emphasized:

> *One of the strategies our principal use to motivate is to send us to attend workshops. Now he is not present at the school as he has gone to workshop in other region, he will probably bring new ideas. When he picks up somebody who is not doing what he supposed to be doing he will send that particular person to attend workshop if it is available. Yes, he is also motivating us to work closely to each other by linking us with the one who is knowledgeable of the subject we teach (Teacher H).*

It is evident from the study that the majority of under-performing school principals reported to have used external support services rather than strengthen the internal collaboration which was common at the performing schools. Despite the fact that teachers were exposed to various teaching instruments from the external forces, the poor performance of the grades 10 and 12 at the under-performing schools still persists. A principal from Léonard Senior Secondary School remarked:

> *We have to sit together and then we discuss the issue at the very high level and from there we agree what we to do next. We don't normally sit and cry that we have failed and is over. I don't believe in those things. There is room for always teach my teachers to learn from our failures (Mr Mbware).*

While the majority of teachers appreciated the assistance they received from school principals during observations, teachers from the performing schools argued that not all HoDs were competent enough to conduct effective classroom visits. According to them, effective teaching and learning was compromised as competent HoDs with specialized subject content were needed to supervise them in the area of their specialization. This argument stresses the importance of competent HoDs who ought to have the required expertise in those subject matters where they were heads of departments to support the teachers in need. However, school principals from the performing schools indicated that beside the competences, teachers were expected to be committed, dedicated,

hardworking, honest, and loyal in order for them to effectively address the needs of the learners in the classroom.

5.8 Building good relations

5.8.1 Inspirational talks/ Verbal persuasion

Both performing and under-performing school principals deemed verbal persuasion as one of the dominant strategies for effective teaching and learning. As paragraph 5.7.2 alludes, school principals have often invited experts and specialists to either address or inspire teachers and learners at their schools. It reveals that officials from the regional office, local leaders from the community and even school principals have given some inspiring speeches to teachers and learners who have lost hope and morale in the work. It emerges that the morale of the teachers and the learners improved after listening to their senior officials, school principals and colleagues who delivered inspirational speeches. It is argued that the constructive verbal persuasion by those speakers had a major impact on teachers to gain their personal effectiveness which in turn enhanced their performance in their classrooms. This is what the school principal from the under-performed school had to say about the motivation they received from the stakeholders:

> *During our award ceremonies, the school invites the regional officers and parents to come to our school as our educational stakeholders to motivate teachers. While the deputy director gave us his keynotes address, the school counsellor delivered inspiring and motivational remarks. The chairperson of the school board who is also a headman in the village says something on behalf of the parents. Those things are working very well for us because they spoke very well (Mr Mbware).*

It is very interesting to see that school principals appreciated the roles that the directors and other officials from the ministry which have contributed positively to the change that have impacted the learners and teachers. Teachers further expounded that apart from the director and inspectors of education, school principals had also addressed learners in schools before the beginning of examinations. The aim was to inspire learners to take their studies seriously and to study hard. My observation at the two schools Hamutima and Mantjodi attest to the appreciation learners and teachers had shown to their school principals. On these separate events I noticed the power of inspirational language the

school principals had used to boost the morale of the grades 10 learners before the commencement of the national examinations. It is noted that learners and teachers appreciated their being addressed by their school leaders, showing good father-child or mother-child relationship with their school principals. A teacher from Hamutima Secondary School revealed the following:

> *Well, as the head of the school he does motivate learners. As we are talking now here there is a meeting in the dining hall whereby the principal and other colleagues are talking to the grades 10 and 12 learners who are going to start with the examination next week. He just encourages them to work hard and to focus on their studies (Teacher K).*

At the centre of the verbal persuasion was that the principals themselves who had to show eagerness to motivate their teachers and learners. This practice resulted in motivating the teachers who accepted to do the same activities as their learners. This shows that school principals had kept reminding their teachers to reflect on their school vision and mission to see the benefits of schooling and future expectations that result in good academic performance. It is also noticeable in the study that not only teachers but community or village leaders had the volition to give motivational speeches for grades 10 and 12 learners. This is an indication that school principals as effective leaders were not only concerned with the academics of the learners but also with interpersonal relationships with the educational stakeholders. Taking into consideration the views expressed above, it is clear that the school principals had demonstrated the trust of their teachers based on their personal effectiveness.

5.8.2 Academic review meetings

The majority of school principals engaged their teachers to debate the examination results based on personal performance or own performance history. Responses from the teachers revealed that they were treated the same regardless of their performance and were given platforms to explain reasons for poor results. It is interesting to note that different strategies were employed by different principals where individual teachers accounted for their deeds whether good or poor to either their HoDs or school principals. This idea was also supported by the teacher from Runnella Secondary School:

> *At our school the analysis of examination results is big discussions. There are always discussions where all the teachers and the management team come together in meetings to argue over the examinations results and prune it out and to come up with suitable solution (Teacher D).*

In the academic review meetings teachers have discussed their academic challenges where they analyzed the examination results. The findings reveal that school principals engaged teachers in the analysis of own examination results, focusing on strengths and weaknesses of their practice and the way to improve performance. The purpose of the academic review meetings was to analyze the individual teachers' examination results.

> *When the result is not good there is this issue of pointing fingers to other people and say you are the one who did not produce the good result. But then the chain is ours. We should not go and point fingers at this person or that person. The agreement in the first instance we have set for ourselves is when the result is not good we are going to call a spade a spade. If my leadership is the one that made the school not to perform let the people say this time around we failed because of the leadership and it should be mentioned categorically clear (Mr Brutus).*

These meetings were also aimed to compare results with other teachers from all the departments who had fared very well in the previous examinations. It was noted that the majority of teachers expressed their satisfaction to the school leadership for creating the platforms for them where they were recognized for the job well done. The majority of the teachers felt that it was a good idea because school principals had the opportunity to address individual failures in the presence of other teachers rather than generalizing which frustrated the best performers in the past.

5.8.3   Emotional intelligence of school principals

The findings of this study show that teachers and principals of the performing schools expressed their happiness for results in grades 10 and 12 as compared to the under-performing schools. Schools that scored above 60 percent reported using impressions such as: happiest person, feel proud and rejoice to describe their feeling of happiness. Moreover, school principals from the good performing schools made this positive statement:

I feel proud though as we are still maintain that percentages. Sometime it is disappointment if it is below says 70 percent or 80 percent because we target a little bit higher but because some people who play the major role in the whole year are not doing as expected. But I really feel proud. I am proud of my teachers it is not me that did it alone. I think it is one of key players in the field and it is the teacher (Ms Carmel).

One teacher from a well-performing school narrated his happiness as follows:

When we go high we are comfortable. Now when we go high we gain respect but when you are associated with failure that is not a respect anymore. I really like it when we make it. Here in William Secondary School when it comes to English language, yes I am on top. We are really happy about it and want to do more to prove that we are capable teachers because it is about the capability (Teacher J).

A closer look at the self-motivation of school principals from the performing schools reveals that although they were happy and proud, the participants felt disappointed and embarrassed of failing to maintain what they termed 'the feeling of passing mentality'. This signifies that both teachers and school principals from the performing schools wanted to keep their passing rate consistently above average. The same thinking was echoed by the teachers of these performing schools who did not want to be associated with failure. Furthermore, it should be noted that participants in this study rejoiced and cherished for the excellent work they performed. The latter resulted in motivation effect on their work to aim even higher because they did not want to stop producing the best results. A teacher from one of the poor performing schools related her story:

I would say the leadership plays an important role on how the principal lead the school but there are also other factors. These factors are that our learners are indiscipline and some of the teachers are not committed to their work. We don't have that love of our work and responsibility of going even extra miles to commit [y]ourselves to the work we do. As teachers, we are really lacking control and motivation (Teacher H).

Unlike the good performing schools, the feeling for the red schools[19] whose results were below 60 percent on the other hand, defined their emotion as 'poor', 'painful', 'very bad', 'totally unhappy', and 'embarrassment'. The findings show how the outcome of the results had impacted teachers' emotions negatively. In addition, the poor results of the under-performing schools were attributed to some reasons. It is revealed in the study that school principals failed to motivate teachers by not providing enough support that they needed. Other reasons were that school principals did not address the attitudes and negativity of teachers towards their work adequately, which caused loss of teachers' self-confidence or self-esteem and the learners' indiscipline which affected the final results of learners.

5.9 Conclusion

In this chapter I presented the biographic data of the participants, the analysis of teachers and school principals' perceptions on self-leadership of the six principals' self-leadership in the Kavango region in Namibia. Although the data were primarily collected using the interviews, observation and document analysis, I have decided to analyze the data using the interviews as document analysis and observation form part of the discussion of the findings in the next chapter. This chapter has revealed three areas that emerged from the data which were incorporated in the three themes of this chapter:

- Leading themselves by example

- Leadership styles

- Participants' interpretation of school principals' self-leadership.

This chapter also included the strategic section that addresses the effective teaching and learning of the schools in the Kavango region to answer one of the research questions. What transpired from the data is the complexity and contradiction of the teachers and school principals' perception of the notion of self-leadership. This chapter also reveals the different leadership styles between the teachers and the school principals in terms of how they are perceived by teachers and school principals themselves.

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[19]   It is a concept that the Directorate of Education in Kavango region uses to refer to schools that are poorly performing in grades 10 and 12.

CHAPTER 6 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter focused on data interpretation and analysis of the views of the participants on the self-leadership of the school principals. The main aim of this study is to examine the influence of self-leadership as a model for effective leadership in schools to improve teaching and learning of the six secondary schools in the Kavango region. It was of critical importance for me to present the participants' views in the previous chapter without aligning it to the literature. The data presented in Chapter Five revealed certain issues that resulted from the self-leadership of school principals in the Kavango region in Namibian schools. It transpires that school principals and teachers were positive about the self-leadership of the school principals.

Having presented the data in the previous chapter accorded me the opportunity to better understand the data from the participants' points of view which was pegged to the research question to understand the data through the lenses of the participants. This chapter will consolidate the data analysis and make sense out of them. In this chapter, I discuss the major issues and patterns that have emerged from the presentation and analysis of the data using documents analysis as additional data gathering tools to the interviews in order to assist in confirming and enriching data that have emerged from the participants.

This will help the discussion of the data and the relevant literature as discussed in chapter 2 to inform the arguments and responses of the participants. In putting the discussion in context, this chapter is structured around the following themes (Chapter 5 par 5.6.1) to guide my interpretation: leading themselves by example, leadership styles, self-leadership of the school principals, self-control or self-determination of the participants and the feeling of purpose.

6.2 Leading themselves by example

The notion of school principals leading themselves by example (see Chapter 5 par 5.6.1) surfaces significantly in the findings. Leading themselves by example features from all the themes that came from the interviews and document analysis. Participants from both performing and under-performing schools in the study strongly indicated that

the school principals led themselves by example. Leading themselves by example also shows that school principals have set the good example to lead the other staff members in the right direction so that the teachers and learners emulate the best practice. It came out prominently from the findings that school principals were punctual, dedicated, committed and hardworking, capable role models. The school principal from William Secondary School explains his exemplary leadership:

> *I am using the concept of leading by example to show that I am exemplary to my teachers. For instance, when they see me doing good thing they also follow. For example, during study time I am always number one. Sometimes I tell teachers that I will do A, B, and C and I will do it on time* (Mr Pharaoh).

Mr Pharaoh explains that, given the rural context of his school, leading by example was regarded a good practice because his teachers were keen on imitating his good leadership. Critical to this practice is the issue of time-management, punctuality and constant communication between him and the teachers on how he conducted himself to improve the performance of his learners. In light of this explanation, I suggest that exemplary leadership of the school principals if done consistently has the potential to have influence on teachers and learners behaviour.

Culturally, people from the rural areas normally look upon the good conduct of their leaders which they always admire. In this case the teachers of rural Secondary Schools have the ability to show the same exemplary leadership behaviour to their learners. This good behaviour of the school principal was resonated with the notion of exemplary leadership. One of the teachers from the performing schools contended that:

> *I follow him because he leads by example. I will say he leads by example, and number two he is tolerant; he is not that arrogant, he is not rude. I have been here for many years. He is my role model not only me but for all of us. For instance he will tell us to be punctual at work and give more work to his learners. He is always punctual and we find it very hard, and so it is like he is pushing us to 'do what I do'* (Teacher I).

Teacher I sums up the characteristics of exemplary leadership. Teacher I further lists the characteristics of exemplary leadership such as tolerant, humble, respectful and role model which is a necessity for a school principal to lead his people. Role model for teachers means attending classes on time; giving work to learners, providing them with

feedback, and showing them how to do it. What transpired from the teachers on the fundamental tenet of exemplary leadership is the notion of 'do as I do' as opposed to 'do as I say'.

I will argue that this is the ethical conduct that school principals ought to display to both the teachers and learners if they expect them to do the same. The exemplary leadership of school principals in a nutshell denotes walking the talk and practice what they preach to the people they lead. This goes beyond the rhetoric of just walking the talk but having integrity and honesty which are crucial components of leadership.

Covey (1989) argues that while telling the truth is the conforming of our words to reality as honest, integrity goes beyond honesty as it is the conforming reality to our words; that is to keep promises. This view is echoed by Bennis and Goldsmith's (1997) remarks that leaders walk their talk; in true leaders, there is no gap between the theories they espouse and their practice. Therefore, integrity requires consistency in what one says and does. Bennis and Goldsmith's (ibid) assertion is in line with the findings (Chapter 5, par. 5.6.1) that a school principal that does his or her work on time and is punctual at his or her working place wins the hearts and minds of his or her followers which normally results in trusting and respecting the leader.

The above statement corroborates with Bass and Riggio (2006) who explain that leaders use idealized influence of transformational leadership in a way that allow them to serve as role models for their followers. The issue of idealized influence encompasses two separate aspects of the follower relationship. Firstly, followers attribute the leader with certain qualities that the followers wish to emulate and secondly, leaders impress followers through their behaviours. This was particularly the case of the schools in the Kavango region where the school principals were admired, respected and trusted by the teachers by modelling the best practice while the latter tried to identify with them and emulate their examples.

The majority of the teachers in the study interpreted exemplary leadership of their school principals as doing things right, for instance, render more assistance to them by being visible around the school when they need help from them, and get support in the teaching and learning endeavours during the class visits. I posit that school principals who lead their people in the right direction and doing the right thing are more likely to be admired, inspired, respected and trusted by their people who in turn replicate the good

examples to their learners. I have observed this more especially in the performing schools where teachers expressed their happiness with their school principals as one of the teachers reverberates:

> *When you have someone that leads by example of course you also do what*
> *the person does (Teacher C).*

The participants in the study felt that it was the duty or obligation of the school principals to set exemplary leadership. These conclusions were based on the fact that the majority of the people of the six secondary schools; for instance, the teachers, learners and the support staff who experienced the exemplary leadership of the school principals. These actions of school principals are aligned with the Guidelines of School Principals.

Accordingly, Mushaandja (2006) observes this finding in his study that many school principals in the Northern region of Namibia use the Guidelines for School Principals as a bible. This discovery is also observed in schools (see Chapter 5, paragraph 5.5.3) where school principals have used the policy documents as yardsticks to control teachers to comply with these rules and regulations of the schools. It is still obvious that even before the government could implement the Cabinet directives, schools had these policies in place where school principals demanded teachers to conform with the policies in order to improve the results. Arguably, the issue of either directives or guidelines to be followed depend squarely on how the school principals implement them to yield the results required by the school. The above-mentioned part is associated with the school principals' transactional leadership

Similarly, a news reporter of *The Namibian* newspaper, Shinovene (2015) writes that the Cabinet of the Namibian government adopted the Swapo manifesto to direct government offices/ministries/agencies, regional councillors and state-owned enterprises in including this manifesto into their strategic plans. This manifesto became also a bible for the civil servants that guide their decisions and work. It could be argued that leadership by example is something that can be associated with the political leadership of the country because school principals are following this practice from the highest office in the land. It can be observed that Namibia as a country attached more values on professionalism, honesty, and integrity when followers are performing their daily duties.

Perusing the *Guidelines of School Principals* shows that both school principals and teachers were in line with the exemplary leadership of the Namibian school principals. The views held by the participants about the school principals leading by themselves were also resonated by the *Guidelines of School Principals* that states:

> *The principal must set the example in general conduct, professional performance and high standards. His or her personal lifestyle, honesty, integrity, punctuality, neatness, dedication to duty and performance must set the standard for other staff members of the school. Not only then can the same standards and levels be expected and demanded of others teachers. For example, if the principal is frequently late for school, he or she has no moral standing to demand that teachers report for duty on time (MEC, 2005, p. 24).*

Similarly, the *Handbook for Instructional Leaders in Namibian Schools* which was recently developed for school principals and other stakeholders also emphasize the exemplary leadership as it states that "it is not fair to ask of others what you are not willing to do yourself. Nothing alienates teachers faster than principals who don't practice what they preach" *(MCA, 2014, p. 74).*

The two documents here sum up the professional expectations of the school principals in Namibia. It is premised on the expectations of the school principals in Kavango region in a nutshell. I go along with the two documents as reflected in the finding (Chapter 5 par 5.5.1) that it is fundamentally correct for school principals in the Kavango region not to expect teachers to do something that they themselves are unable to do or expect teachers to behave contrary to what they display to their followers. In order to execute these expectations as explained in the documents, school principals ought to go beyond mere showing up on time at school or in the classrooms and the visibility around the schools.

Southworth (2011) expounds that leaders are continuously watched by their followers. This sentiment parallels the metaphorical notion of 'on show' and 'on stage' of Lumby and English (see Chapter 2) which explains that school principals are watched by their followers to see whether their words and deeds are not in disharmony. In this case, school principals who did not do their work in line with the guidelines were rated by the teachers as being uninterested in the teachers' work. Drawing from Shackleton

experience as inspirational leader, Gill (2011) contends that he inspires his unflinching confidence of success, insisting on being treated no differently from others and never asking anybody to do anything that he would not do himself.

Secondly, the excerpt explains the simple task that the school principals expect others to follow suit (Chapter 5 par 5.5.6). In other words, when the school principal excels very well in his or her subject(s), teachers are also compelled to learn the good examples from them in order to increase their commitment, dedication and even working hard to improve their practices. It is for this reason that the school leadership in the Kavango region were always expected to arrive first and the last to leave school premises, to put more extra effort into their teaching, lending colleagues a helping hand, and listening to the concerns of their followers and notice their success (Chapter 5 par 5.5.3 & 5.5.6).

A general conclusion one has to arrive at here is what Southworth (2011) summarises that "successful leaders know that they must set an example and positively use their actions to show how colleagues should behave. They know they must be prepared to do themselves whatever they ask others to do" (p. 75). It can be summarised that school principals both from the performing and under-performing schools were modelling positive attitudes and support to their followers and exhibiting good example to the teachers and learners (Chapter 5 par 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.5.3, 5.5.4, 5.5.5 & 5.5.6).

A paradoxical finding that emerged from this study is that while school principals from the under-performing schools claimed that they led themselves and their people by example, the performance at these schools were below 60 percent. It emerged that they considered themselves to be democratic by engaging teachers in the democratic practices, yet they ended up doing administrative work (chapter 5.5.2). Whether policy implementation vis-à-vis good performance leads to good leadership is something that needs to be investigated.

6.3 Interpretation of self-leadership

As the conceptualization of self-leadership provides the backdrop on how school principals have reflected and focused on the self-direction and self-motivation of the self-leaders (as explained in chapter 2 par 2.5.1), it is important that this study has to unpack its meaning in terms of how the school principals have interpreted the concept.

Wright and Quick (2011, p. 967) argue that leaders have the moral discipline to when they suppress "individual, personal needs for those of a greater societal good". They opine that it is difficult to resist the selfish impulses and consider the interests of others. Therefore, leaders are more likely to consider others' interest when they have moral attachment which is "a commitment to someone or something greater than themselves". In the light of the above one argues that school leaders had problems with conceptualization of self-leadership which is different from their cultural values of collective leadership.

Despite the fact that the conceptualization of self-leadership is new to school principals in the Kavango region, the findings revealed that school principals were self-leaders and applied self-leadership strategies unknowingly (Chapter 2 par 2.5.1). As predicted, school principals in the Kavango region indicated that they were self-leaders as they considered themselves effective, competent and motivated school principals to lead the schools. As capable self-leaders, they empowered teachers to be managers in the classrooms. School principals utilized self-leadership style which helped them to be flexible so that they consider themselves what Sydanmaanlakka (2004) calls 'fast learners to cope in totally unexpected situations'. The contention is that self-leadership of the school principals contributed to the success of the school as it emerged from the findings that they had the ability to control and develop themselves to lead others better (chapter 5, par 5.6.3).

However, there was a contestation made by teachers about the self-leadership emanating from individualistic orientation where the participants argued that although school principals as self-leaders had the ability to lead themselves effectively, the complexity was how to apply self-leadership in schools. The notion of Markus and Kitayama's (1991) argument that people with a dominant, interdependent, self-construal are inclined to avoid social disapproval or failures that may disrupt their commitment of enhancing social relations. It means that self-leadership in individualistic cultures differs from collectivist cultures of which the school principals in the Kavango region are subjected to.

Iyengar and De Voe (2003) assert that in cultures that foster social interdependence, collectivists might prefer to submit to choices expressed by others if the situation enables them to fulfil the superordinate cultural goal of belongingness. It is observed

that the interpretation of the participants in this case is entrenched in the philosophy of Ubuntu as they deemed themselves collectivists.

The same thinking is also found in the study carried out in South Africa where school principals advanced the use of Ubuntu as a form of a leadership model that contains the basic values of humanness, caring, sharing, respect and compassion (Broodryk, 2006). The school principals perceived to align the African values as they argued that individualism means selfish which is conflicting with the ideals of togetherness.

Neck and Manz (2004) elucidate (in chapter 2) that effective self-leaders are not egotistical or narcissistic, but effective striving to achieve a balance between focusing on the cohesiveness of a work group and or organization and focusing on the value and identity of each individual teacher. Therefore, self-leadership does not only favour the work group or organization but encourages individuals to find their own personal identity and mode of contribution as part of establishment of a group or organization that produces synergistic performance (Manz & Neck, 2004). My contention of self-leadership for school principals in the Kavango region is not about the self-centredness or egoistic of the school principals but that they are effective leaders who develop their knowledge and motivate themselves so that they lead their followers better in the context of the work.

It surfaced from the previous chapter 5 (par 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.3.3, 5.3.4, 5.3.5 & 5.3.5) that although the school principals, did not undergo leadership development prior to their assumption as school principals, they were yearning for self-knowledge and self-development which are essential for each school principal to lead his or her people effectively. In the Namibian context, there is a tendency that although the government has put great emphasis and commitment to training and capacity building, there is a consternation that the permanent secretaries in the various ministries have failed to send their people for training. The Ministry of Education (2013) issued an Internal memo addressing inspectors of education, school principals and heads of departments about the contract entered between government and the Millennium Challenge Account (MCA) for African Leadership Institute (ALI) consultancy to train school principals and heads of departments (HoDs) on instructional leadership in all regions.

This ministerial directive encourages school principals to pursue studies in management and leadership on part-time basis in Namibia that have denied them the special study

leave for full-time studies or even outside the country (MEC, 2013). Ironically, Diescho (2014) who heads the Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management (NIPAM) utters the same sentiment, as he also argues that there is an unhelpful mindset of the public servants to opt for international training over the national training as people are interested in getting more money when attending those international trainings. The above perception is obviously incongruous with the ideals of self-leadership that requires individuals to improve their self-knowledge.

In spite of the constraints, the findings show that all the school principals in the study had attended leadership training locally at the private institution (ALI) at own expenses. This has shown the importance these school principals attached to their self-development and self-knowledge. The sharpening of skills and knowledge in school leadership is in line with the Namibian Vision 2030 that requires school principals to have knowledge of the 21st century that enables them to control the situation they find themselves and the people they lead (Ministry of Education, 1999).

The Presidential Commination on Education, Culture, Training (1999) emphasizes that the quality and efficiency of education is improved if school principals continuously improve their leadership and management skills that will enhance their good practice in their schools (Ibid, 1999). In order for this to happen, school principals need self-leadership style for them to control and motivate themselves because it is critical for a self-leader to influence themselves and others to achieve their self-direction and self-motivation that is necessary for effective performance in Namibian schools (Manz & Neck, 2004; Manz & Sims, 2001).

6.4 Implementation of self-leadership by school principals in Kavango region

The findings revealed that the school principals in the Kavango region have favourably implemented the three strategies of self-leadership; namely the behavioural-focused strategies which include self-goal setting, self-observation, self-reward, self-punishment, and self-cueing strategies; the natural reward strategies, and the constructive thought patterns (Chapter 2, par 2.5.2 & Chapter 5, 5.6.4). The behavioural-focused and the constructive thought patterns strategies are devised to enhance individual effectiveness while the natural reward strategies underscore the importance of performing the activity for intrinsic enjoyment and pleasure from successful task performance (Deci, 1975). Neck and Manz (2004) as well as Alves et al. (2006) discover that the use of self-

leadership strategies are as effective at enhancing performance in clinical, athletic, and educational settings, and in employment contexts.

This study only discusses the self-leadership strategies where the school principals in the Kavango region focus their attention when implemented their self-leadership in the schools. Given the fact that the school principals in the Kavango region were interviewed in all the three strategies as to how they motivated their teachers and themselves, the findings revealed only the strategies where school principals had strong feelings in leading themselves and their followers where they had enjoyed their work.

Of the five sub-components of the behavioural-focused strategies, school principals were strong in the three sub-components which are the self-goal setting, self-observation and self-reward (see chapter 5, par 5.6.4). The explanation of these findings may have occurred because of the cultural values attached to these strategies. Self-punishment as sub-category of the behaviour-focused strategies was neither a preferred nor the most effective method to influence school principals' behaviour (chapter 5, 5.6.4).

School principals in the Kavango region confirmed what Bandura (1986) asserts that self-observation and self-assessment are the first step in the self-leadership process because people cannot influence their own actions if they are inattentive to relevant aspects of their behaviours (chapter 5, par 5.5.5). On the self-observation strategy the majority of the school principals were affirmative that they had assessed their own behaviours and also identified those behaviours that had to be changed or eliminated.

 School principals as self-leaders were using this type of self-awareness as first step to realize their shortcoming in order to change or eliminate the ineffective and unproductive behaviours in terms of their leadership styles. Boss & Sims (2008) argue that self-observation calls for a high level of self-awareness which is one of the four components of emotional intelligence (Chapter 5, par 5.5.5; 5.5.6 & 5.8.3). In-depth self-awareness calls for an understanding of how you behave, why you behave that way, and when or under what circumstances you behave that way (ibid, 2008).

The emotional intelligence (EI) that the school principals displayed in the schools was critical for them to adjust their own behaviours to the people they were leading. One of the school principals reflected on her leadership styles:

I was trying to show people that I am the boss and then at the end of the day I realized sometimes it is frustrating people. When you sit here in your office and make decisions and you just go and tell them that this is what I want you to do and that is what caused the resistance from the teachers. I realize that – knowing people - if I put myself in my teachers' shoes, how would I want to be led... (Ms Mirabel).

School principals in the Kavango region were engaged in self-goal setting where they developed and adopted their own specific goals on which to focus their energies. Boss & Sims (2008) contend that self-goal setting is the most important part of self-leadership where school principals allow the teachers to participate in the setting of goals at their schools. The findings showed that the school principals in the Kavango region created a climate where their teachers had to show their effectiveness in teaching and learning in the classrooms. It is also revealed (Chapter 5, 5.7.1) that school principals had either face-to-face discussions with individual teachers or meeting teachers in a group to discuss their self-goals. Here, the school principals encouraged them to attain their goals with regard to their teaching practices.

The self-reward strategy of the self-leadership involves creating reward contingencies that are associated with to the self-set goals in order to energize and direct the effort necessary for goal attainment. It is revealed in the findings that school principals used self-reward (Chapter 5, 5.5.4) of the self-leadership to motivate themselves and the teachers to attain or achieve difficult tasks or goals in their schools. It emerged (Chapter 5, 5.6.4) that school principals utilized the contingent rewards to their followers as recognition that encouraged and motivated their teachers for achieving good results in the external examinations.

Although rewards and legitimate power produce compliance or conformity instead of commitment, Humphrey (2011) argues that people who are fairly rewarded may be highly motivated to achieve large financial rewards. Despite teachers receiving certificates and praises for doing a good job, the findings showed that they required financial rewards to buy teaching material for the subjects they taught (Chapter 5, par 5.6.4).

While school principals indicated that self-motivation was part of the behaviour-focused strategies, they instead used birthday celebrations as part of self-reward strategy where

they included all the staff members in celebrating their achievement (Chapter 5, par 5.6.4). Other self-reward strategy was where school principals took school vacations to celebrate their achievements with their families far from their schools as part of self-reward. Culturally, self-reward in the form of self-praising (*elikangango*[20]) for the job well done in the presence of others in the Kavango region is regarded as boasting or self-glorification as this is seen as an activity that is supposed to be done by someone else rather than yourself.

Surprisingly, natural reward strategies with two sub-divisions: the pleasant and enjoyable feature into a given action or behaviour so that a task may seem naturally rewarding and the strategy that deals with unpleasant cues of a given task to natural, were frequently mentioned. It is mentioned that the school principals had shown intrinsic motivation as they demonstrated their feeling of competence, self-control and purpose which complemented the achievement of their tasks. These strategies were considered important by school principals because they were related to two primary mechanisms of intrinsic motivation (Chapter 5, 5.6.4).

This particular strategy was important for school principals to enhance their self-leadership by building natural enjoyment as they indicated that they loved the profession which is very rewarding and the difference that they made in children's lives. The natural reward strategy of the school principals is clearly served as an illustration in the word of Confucius who avers that "find a job you love and you will never have to work another day in life" (Chapter 5, 5.5.5 & 5.5.6). The last strategy includes the constructive thought pattern where people focus on positive influence of habitual thinking.

6.5   Self-leadership and effective teaching and learning

This section examines the influence of self-leadership as a style for effective leadership in schools which focus on effective teaching and learning of the six school principals in Kavango region. I present the role and relationship of the self-leadership within the context of other four leadership styles to establish the extent to which these leadership styles have enhanced and contributed to effective teaching and learning of the school principals in the Kavango region. Moreover, the findings provide evidence that there is a

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[20]   It is when a person is acting in a manner that venerates him or herself as an important person.

relationship between self-leadership and the other four leadership styles (Chapter 5, par 5.8.1 & 5.8.2).

Witziers, Bosker and Krüger (2003) emphasize the important role school principals play in guiding schools to shape a vision of academic success for all learners. Namibian policy documents, for instance, *The Guidelines of School Principals* is in support with Leithwood, Patten and Jantzi's (2010) claim that in Namibian context of education there is consensus about the importance of leadership to improve student outcomes. Robinson (2007) similarly argues that the impact on student outcome is likely to be greater where there is direct leadership involvement in the oversight of, and participation in curriculum planning and co-ordination and the teacher professional development.

The effective teaching and learning in the classrooms of the teachers was appraised in terms of their personal effectiveness and self-efficacy. Neck & Manz (2013) argue that effectiveness is an important component of teaching and learning and school principals are to be aware that the success of the teaching and learning improvement depends on the operationalization of personal effectiveness and self-efficacy of the teachers (Chapter 5, par 5.7.1 & 5.7.2). School principals as self-leaders in both the performing and under-performing schools had devised various strategies to support the teachers in effective teaching and learning in schools.

It is evident from the data (Chapter 5, par 5.7.1 & 5.7.2) that the six secondary school principals and heads of departments conducted classroom visits to ensure that lesson presentations were adequately delivered by the teachers who in turn had to provide effective feedback to learners. Both school principals and HoDs had checked teachers' lesson plans and learners' textbooks to ensure quality in the delivery of education. Hallinger (2005) argues that schools that made a positive difference in the learning levels were led by school principals who made a positive contribution to staff effectiveness and students under their charge, which is similar to findings (Chapter 5, par 5.7.1 & 5.7.2).

Of particular importance is the link between self-leadership and the other leadership styles and how school principals utilized these styles in the classroom to foster effective practices. Although the theoretical framework (in Chapter 2) encapsulates the four leadership styles that are associated with the self-leadership model, it is revealed in the

findings that instructional and distributed leadership were applied as leadership styles to warrant effective teaching and learning in their classrooms (Chapter 5, par 5.7.1 & 5.7.2). Regardless of the fact that school principals had motivated their teachers to pursue high levels of need to transcend their interests (Bass, 1985), instructional leadership on the other hand, superseded other leadership styles as it focused on leaders and their capability to lead change that resulted in better learning outcomes (Robinson, Lloyd & Rowe, 2008). According to Hallinger and Heck (2009), instructional leadership style is driven by the desire to understand the capacity of the school leaders to make substantial contributions to student outcomes and to school improvement (Chapter 5, par 5.7.1 & 5.7.2).

The findings have indicated that school principals in the Kavango region had combined leadership styles to enhance the student outcomes. In the empirical studies, school principals had mentioned of the integrated leadership styles where they talked about collaborative and shared leadership which aimed at school improvement and learners outcomes (Heck & Hallinger, 2010). It is observed that school principals used instructional and distributed leadership at the same time for effective teaching and learning to take place in the schools. The argument advanced here is that instructional and distributed leadership had one thing in common as they all talked about collaboration or shared leadership aimed at school improvement.

Heck and Hallinger (2010, p. 656) theorize instructional leadership as "an organizational property aimed at school improvement" whereas Sofo, Fitzgerald and Jawas (2012) describe it as "both formal and informal sources of leadership" (p. 509). Harris (2014) posits that while instructional leadership describes influences and practices within an organization that impact upon student achievement, distributed leadership is concerned with the technical core of teaching and learning (p. 10) (Chapter 5, par 5.7.1 & 5.7.2).

This is in line with the findings of the study which revealed that school principals incorporated leadership functions of supervising and evaluating instructions, coordinating the curriculum and monitoring learners' progress as instructional leaders and while as distributed leaders have shared their influence with teachers which contributed to positive school improvement and change. It is obvious from the findings that school principals who mentored and coached teachers had a clear instructional focus as one of the teachers explained:

Our principal is class visiting the various HoDs, check learners activities and all subject related matters. Thus, she ensures that her management members' works are up to date, and that they are leading by example as she does. She is always willing to offer her service/assistance to the novice teachers and always share her expertise and subject related materials (Teacher C).

The point is that, if effective learning and teaching was to be realized, school principals had to display the leadership styles where they involved themselves in instructional matters. The same is also true that school principals as distributed leaders were also concerned with mobilizing leadership expertise in all levels at the schools where they created more opportunities for change and capacity building of teachers for school improvement (Chapter 5, par 5.7.2).

I have witnessed enormous contributions of teachers when they are involved in subject matters that required their skills and expertise, and their participation was far-fetching. This is what Fullan (2011b) advocates that "the creative premise for the change leader is not 'to think outside the box' but to get outside the box, taking your intelligent memory to other practical boxes to see what you can discover" (p. 12). In other words, the stance of learning from practice own and that of others is critical for self-leadership in the Kavango region. The main idea is that teachers' learning comes from their own practices and professional experiences which I consider as powerful and influential than what they get from someone else who is not their peer. These findings (Chapter 5, par 5.7.2) are in congruent with self-leadership perspective that recognizes that shared leadership is more important to increase teachers' self-motivation, self-efficacy and self-direction as it contributes to teams' expertise that share leadership influence (Bligh et al., 2006).

At the centre of effective teaching and learning in the classrooms lies a strong support and the role of the leader in creating a vision, setting high expectations, creating a supportive environment, working with parents and community, and monitoring performance which I regard as cemented in instructional leadership. The findings illustrate (Chapter 5, par 5.6.2) that school principals in the Kavango region demanded the best results from their teachers by using leadership style needed to get the right results. Blasé and Blasé (2000) acknowledges that instructional leaders encourage and facilitate the study of teaching and learning so as to enable the collaborative efforts

among teachers, to establish coaching relationships with teachers and the use of research to make instructional decisions (Chapter 5, par 5.7.2).

The role of school principals as instructional leaders emerging from the findings (Chapter 5, par 5.7.1; 5.7.2; 5.8.1 & 5.8.2) was very versatile whereby, for instance, school principals guided teachers in the content alignment of curriculum by providing mentorship for the struggling and the new teachers to collaborate with other teachers in the departments to foster effective teaching and learning of their classroom practices. As both instructional and distributed leaders, they engaged teachers in the academic review meetings to discuss their academic challenges of their schools by analyzing the examination results.

This collaboration between teachers and school principals through their professional learning community was observed in the knowledge of self-leadership where teachers and school principals interacted with each other to review the examination results. It is observed from the findings (Chapter 2, par 2.5.8 & Chapter 5, par 5.7.2) that in professional learning community teachers and school principals met on a regular basis to discuss and work together to solve problems, reflect on the work and most importantly take responsibility for what learners learn. The professional learning communities as a platform for mutual inquiry and learning offered both teachers and school principals the ability to engage and ask hard questions about their practice and the practice of the school principals in a safe and trusted environment. Harris and Jones (2010) point out that professional learning communities is concern with generating new knowledge and new practice through sharing, collaboration and joint inquiry, which is part of the knowledge self-leadership (Chapter 5, 5.7.2).

6.6 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the consolidation and analysis of the empirical and the literature about the self-leadership of the school principals. It also discussed the major issues and patterns that have emerged from the presentation and analysis of the data using documents analysis as additional data gathering tools to the interviews in order to assist in confirming and enriching data that have emerged from the participants. What emerged from this study is that while school principals from the under-performing claimed that they led themselves and their people by example, the performance at these schools were below 60 percent.

The study concludes that school principals in the Kavango region indicated that they were self-leaders as they were considered themselves as effective, competence and motivated school principals to lead the schools. It is also found that school principals have utilized self-leadership style which helped them to be flexible and fast learners to cope in totally unexpected situations. School principals in the Kavango region integrated leadership styles such as instructional and distributed leadership which support the self-leadership style for school improvement and learners performance.

CHAPTER 7 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

Self-leadership is a style that requires people to lead themselves, and therefore are their own ultimate leaders. However, little has been presented as a key leadership style to enhance educational goal attainment. Studies (chapter 1.3) have shown that some institutions have successfully utilized self-leadership strategies to develop nurses and managers in South Africa. As many school leaders in Namibia and elsewhere in Africa are faced with many challenges including poverty, teenage pregnancy, HIV and AIDS and urbanization; there is a need for school principals to develop self-leadership that provide them with the ability to control their personal actions and harness their personal strength, which is central to school effectiveness.

Statistics in Namibia show that school principals are prone to poor performance for grades 10 and 12, especially in the rural areas; therefore school principals with self-leadership skills are essential, where the intervention of a self-leader is sought the most, to bring about change and improvement in those schools. Against this backdrop, I posit that self-leadership in schools play an important role as school principals with high self-esteem, self-knowledge, flexible and fast learners are required to withstand the ever changing contexts in order to improve the quality of education in the Kavango region. It is high time that school principals be effective leaders who have the inbuilt knowledge of themselves and be able to self-reflect, self-evaluate, self-motivate and self-direct their activities to improve learner performance.

This final chapter presents the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study undertaken to establish the self-leadership of school principals in the Kavango region, Namibia. The chapter presents a detailed summary of the whole study which is followed by conclusions drawn from literature review and the empirical study. This is followed by key recommendations in light of the findings and the conclusion from the study.

7.2 Summary of the chapters

The first chapter of the study highlighted the introduction and orientation of the study. The orientation was primarily informed by the research title that sought to investigate self-leadership of school principals in the Kavango region in Namibia. It explained the geographical and historical background of Namibia and Kavango region; clarified the problem statement, and looked at the research questions, sub-questions, the aims and objectives of the study among other introductory issues. The introductory chapter also examined issues related to the major concepts used in the study.

Chapter two focused on the theories underpinning leadership in the Namibian context. It also looked at the definition of leadership and the difference between management and leadership. This chapter also integrated the four leadership styles that are well linked to self-leadership, i.e. transformational, transactional, instructional and distributed leadership. It also explained in detail what constitutes self-leadership and what make it a distinctive leadership theory from other leadership theories, under the following sub-headings:

- Definition of self-leadership

- Origin of self-leadership

- Self-leadership and Emotional Intelligence (EI)

- Need of autonomy

- Self-awareness

- Self-identity

- Self-leadership and effectiveness

- Knowledge self-leadership

- Self-leadership and followership

Chapter three presented self-leadership and school development. The first part of this chapter depicted the story of a traditional leader from the Ukwangali chieftainship who showed attributes such as self-belief, dedication and persistence to achieve positive results for his people. The scenario demonstrated the strengths and abilities of the traditional leader to lead his subjects while inspiring them through his actions. The remainder of the chapter was devoted on different leadership preparation

internationally, regionally, in the Namibian contexts as well as the critique of the leadership preparation. This was followed by the chapter on research methodology.

Chapter four presented the research design and methodology adopted in the study. This chapter outlined the key elements of qualitative methodology. This study was basically a qualitative study that sought to look at the research design, justification of the design, population and purposeful sampling for information rich cases, data collection and data analysis adopted in the study. The qualitative research methodology was chosen to better understand self-leadership of the school principals in the Kavango region. The issue of trustworthiness was key to this study. The following were used as trustworthiness:

- Credibility: The use of member checking to ensure validity and credibility of the research findings.

- Triangulation: This involves using multiple data sources in an investigation to produce understanding; it also involves collecting data through different methods like interviews, observations and document analysis.

- Transferability: As a case study, I have constructed a thick description of time, place, context and experiences of the research to explain when and where the data were collected and also described the documents and the participants in detail.

- Dependability: My critical friends and professional colleagues did peer-examination or peer-review by spending hours reading the data. They critiqued the analysis as well as the interpretations. Seminars, symposia, conferences and colloquia were used as another way of validating the findings.

- Conformability: I was also aware of the possible effects of bias because of the preconceptions and presuppositions from my part as a researcher. I minimized my bias through 'phenomenological brackets' (Marshall & Rossman, 2011; McMillan & Schumacher, 2001; Patton, 2002).

Chapter five is devoted on the presentation of data and highlighted the context of the six secondary school principals and also presented and analyzed the teachers and principals' perspectives on self-leadership. The chapter identified the themes that

emerged from the participating schools in the Kavango region where only the responses of the participants in the study were presented. The themes were:

- Leading themselves by example

- Leadership style of the school principals

- Participants' interpretation of school principals' self-leadership

- Self-motivation of school principals

- Self-leadership strategies

- Building good relations

Chapter six examined the results and discussed the research sub-questions on how principals provided leadership that contributed to effective teaching and learning in the Kavango region, how self-leadership contributed to the improvement of teaching and learning in the six secondary schools in the Kavango region; self-leadership strategies that school principals employed in their relations with teachers; and the perceptions of school principals and teachers about self-leadership as a leadership style in the Kavango region are presented.

Chapter seven presented the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study undertaken to establish self-leadership of school principals in the Kavango region, Namibia. The chapter also offered a detailed summary of the whole study which is followed by conclusions drawn from literature review and empirical study.

7.3 The main findings and conclusions of the study

Although the aim of my research was to examine how school principals and teachers understand self-leadership of school principals in the Kavango region, I did not specifically ask participants about the concept of self-leadership because S-L is a relatively unknown concept to them even though it is in literature. I asked them about leadership in general with the assumption that they knew about the leadership of school principals (see Appendices G & H). The logic was that if teachers and school principals provide leadership styles of their school principals, I would generate sufficient data from which I could make conclusions (or judgments) about self-leadership. In a nutshell, by analyzing their responses on leadership in general, I was able to deduce their

understanding and interpretation of self-leadership as a method which is known as deductive logic.

The second reason for not engaging them in self-leadership was the assumption that they may perceive the concept as testing them on the number of leadership styles (or theories) they know that could have impacted on the value of their responses. By creating this opportunity to talk about leadership in general, I made both teachers and school principals to express not only their understanding but mostly their subjective feelings about self-leadership of their school principals. As expected, the answers of the teachers and school principals offered the deep insight into their understanding and interpretation of self-leadership of the school principals as they also gave reasons for their interpretation through the lenses of general leadership.

In this study the qualitative research using multiple instruments such as interviews, observation and document analysis seemed to have yielded richer data as these instruments provided enough detail to make conclusions and to a certain extent generate theory from the findings. This study shows the strength of the use of multiple research instruments to triangulate the perceptions of the participants in order to get deeper understanding as is usually the case with the quantitative method.

The study started by examining how teachers and school principals understood the concept of self-leadership as a model for school principals in the Kavango region. Moreover, this section discusses the main findings and the conclusions drawn from this study vis-à-vis the contribution self-leadership has for school principals to improve teaching and learning in the six secondary schools.

7.3.1   Leading themselves by example

Both school principals and teachers reported that to be exemplary self-leaders means walking the talk and practising what they preach to the people they lead. It emerged that school principals whose work was on time and were punctual, their working place won the hearts and minds of their followers to trust and respect their leaders as role models who were worth emulating. These findings also show that as exemplary school principals were doing things right, for instance, rendering more assistance to them by being visible around the school as they led their people in the right directions made teachers do the same with learners.

A closer examination of the six secondary schools revealed that while school principals were exemplary self-leaders, one of them viewed exemplary self-leadership differently. It is reported that Mr Mbware remained in his office to perform his managerial duties instead of going around setting examples for teachers by being visible in the school. One school principal from the under-performing school clearly viewed the visibility of school principals as another responsibility because doing so hindered his office administration that needed his urgent attention. The study showed that school principals who did not do their work effectively did not set good examples for teachers and learners. This was interpreted by the teachers that school principals did not care about their work as no interest shown of the contribution they made in the classrooms.

It was also revealed that school principals relied on their HoDs for supervision and instructional guidance. School principals from the under-performing schools did not involve themselves in doing this and exemplary leadership seemed to be missing because it is crucial for teachers in most remote areas who are under-qualified need to learn good practices from school principals. School principals are expected to display good practices to those that they lead so that teachers can learn from them.

Paradoxically, it emerged from this study that while the school principals claimed that they were doing the same thing, it was reported that no effective teaching was recorded from the under-performing school principals. It also emerged from the findings that effective teaching meant that all teachers were demonstrating their ability by providing quality teaching which guaranteed good results. However, what transpired during external examinations was that the under-performing schools did not even achieve the 60 percent mark while the performing schools reached the 60 percent mark.

However, the performing schools as opposed to the under-performing schools had tried to closely supervise their teachers. It emerged from the findings that the fact that school principals performed well in the subjects they were teaching had to encourage teachers to do the same. The three performing schools principals made sure that they had impromptu routine of class visits as they were aware of the situation prevailing in rural schools where some of the teachers attend classrooms without doing the business of teaching. Both teachers from the performing schools revealed that school principals demanded the best results to maintain their status in the community. One school principal from the performing schools indicated the use of learners to observe what

teachers were doing in their classrooms which he termed as 'classroom inquiry' by the learners. As Mr Pharaoh explained his strategy:

I have seen really changes when it comes to the learners who provided me with the right information of what is happening in the classrooms. I have asked the learners to give me the names of teachers that are well performing and poor performing. I really did that and I know now who my good teachers are and also know who the problematic teachers who just there to show that they are there but don't do the right job (Mr Pharaoh).

7.3.2 Perceptions and views of teachers and school principals of school principals' self-leadership

Table 7-1   How participants interpret self-leadership of school principals

Empirical research	Literature	Differences
• Starts with oneself • Ability to control and develop themselves through self-knowledge of school principals • Embraced the notion of togetherness (Ubuntu) • Collectivism means working as a team and respect for others • Effective and competent school principals • Involve other stakeholders (teachers, learners & parents)	• Self-direction, self-direction and self-motivation for effective performance • An independent person displays self-knowledge, self-esteem, creative, innovative and highly competent. • A self-leader works independently. • Confucian and Ubuntu as philosophies	• School principals cannot work independently • Individualism to teachers means selfish

Data from the six secondary schools studied and from the literature review (chapters 2, 3) indicate that teachers and school principals found self-leadership of school principals

in the Kavango region similar to the ability to control oneself, develop themselves in terms of self-knowledge acquired by attending private training, self-motivation and effective, competent school leaders as illustrated in Table 7.1. The findings also show that school principals in the case study are competent based on the academic qualifications and experiences.

Although the school principals were not trained in educational leadership, it was observed in this study that they developed themselves by attending the African Leadership Institute (ALI) to acquire self-knowledge necessary to effectively lead their schools. It was revealed that almost all the school principals were pursuing post-graduate programmes at a local university or outside the country for their self-development programme. Interestingly, Mr Mbware, for example, who had a Basic Education Teacher Diploma (BETD) at the time of his appointment as school principal, obtained an Advance Diploma in Educational Leadership and Management from the University of Namibia (UNAM). According to Mr Mbware, this qualification helped him in leading his people. In spite of the development programme he underwent, Mr Mbware was still different from other school principals in that he was always in the office. Despite the training UNAM offered, literature in chapter 3 suggests that the modules and courses only engage principals in administration and bureaucratic work rather than the real leadership.

While it is obvious from the data that school principals reported to have possessed the characteristics of self-leaders, teachers on the other hand, perceived the self-leadership of their school principals to be entrenched in individualism and hence selfishness. This perception of selfishness emanated from teachers' beliefs who saw school principals working independently or in isolation as individuals which is against their cultural inclinations. It is also clear from the findings that Ubuntu as an African philosophy is deeply rooted in the mind of the teachers who believe that working together as a team is found in that philosophy. However, it is contrary to what literature explains on what a self-leader is. In literature, self-leaders are those who have greatly developed self-control, self-regulation and self-motivation that are critical for exceptional performance in extreme conditions.

7.3.3 Leadership styles that have contributed to effective teaching and learning

Table 7-2   Leadership styles that enhance effective teaching and learning

Empirical research	Literature	Differences
Styles • Democratic • Authoritarian • Consultative • Participatory • Transformational • Transactional • Instructional • Distributed Classroom observation Teachers Professional Learning Community (TPLC	Styles • Democratic • Authoritarian • Consultative • Participatory • Transformational • Transactional • Instructional • Distributed Classroom observation Teachers Professional Learning Community (TPLC)	Styles • Own leadership • Integrated leadership

The data indicated that school principals used different styles such as democratic, authoritarian, consultative, participatory and integrated leadership styles. It was very clear that the majority of the school principals preferred styles that were either democratic or participatory while the minority opted for either the integrated or autocratic leadership as alluded to in Table 5.3 and 5.4. It is also very clear from the data that the male school principals were found to be either authoritative/autocratic or having integrated democratic and autocratic leadership while the female counterparts displayed more democratic, participatory and consultative leadership styles as illustrated in chapter 5, par 5.6.2.

There was a trend that where democratic and participatory leadership styles were employed in schools, teachers and learners were encouraged to cooperate, and felt motivated, which contributed to good performance of learners. The difference was that the school principals who displayed the use of integrated leadership styles were rarely observed in schools where female school principals led their people. Although this study is not focused on gender, this information is a strong precursor for the authority to consider more gender-based leadership development.

Although the majority of male school principals indicated the use of integrated leadership styles, authoritarian was dominated styles for the rural schools as the majority of teachers were either un-qualified or under-qualified (chapter 5). Another factor that also contributed to school principals using the authoritarian style was the indiscipline of learners and the teenage pregnancy which was high in the Kavango region (Chapter 1, par 1.2.3 & 5.6.2). Data revealed that qualified teachers with more experience from the performing schools assisted those with teaching challenges.

Another set of leadership style that is linked with self-leadership was the transformational, transactional, instructional and distributed leadership as identified in literature (Chapter 2, par 2.4.1 - 2.4.4). The literature in chapter 2 showed that transformational and transactional leadership was built on the earlier sets of autocratic and democratic or directive and participatory leadership. It is clear in the literature review that transformational leadership focuses on the teachers' interest to achieve higher performance which the majority of school principals in the Kavango region were doing.

Transactional leadership on the other hand focuses on the basic needs of the people but does not provide high levels of motivation, job satisfaction or commitment (chapter 5 & 6). Data collected in the study also revealed that school principals made use of transactional leadership that is based on the reciprocal exchange of duty where they rewarded teachers with certificates, trophies and money. It is argued that such leadership style does not enhance the achievement of goals with the purpose of sharing responsibilities, expertise and building capacity for teachers.

Although transformational and transactional leadership centred on the level of followers' effort and performance, data suggest that instructional and distributed leadership were applied as the preferred styles that warranted effective teaching and learning in their classrooms (chapter 6). Data in the study illuminate that six school principals do not only portray role modelling but also demonstrate different teaching strategies to maximize positive interaction with teachers and learners. In order to realize their vision and mission, school principals were visible around the schools; visited classrooms and observed the teaching and learning in the classrooms. Data also depicted that school principals used distributed leadership alongside instructional leadership to collaborate and share their leadership with teachers which is a powerful influence on instructional

improvement and student achievement that had strong alignment with self-leadership (chapter 2, par 5 & 6).

In order to strengthen professional learning community in schools, it was established that school principals utilized the instruments such as the Personal Development Plan (PDP) and (PAAI) Plan of Action Academic Improvement to develop teachers individual PDP (5.7.1). In this sense one can therefore argue that although PLCs are not well established in schools, it appears as if they intentionally or unintentionally applied the practicality of PLCs.

7.3.4 Self-leadership strategies that school principals have employed in their relations with teachers

Table 7-3   Strategies school principals use in schools

Empirical research	Literature	Differences
S-L strategies • Behavioural-focused strategies • Natural reward strategies • Constructive thought patterns Building relations • Inspirational talks/ Verbal persuasion • Academic review meetings	S-L strategies • Behavioural-focused strategies • Natural reward strategies • Constructive thought patterns Building relations • Observation of performance • Verbal persuasion • Physical reactions • Own performance history	Academic review meetings

Literature indicated that in order to be effective, school principals should use the three self-leadership strategies, namely; the behavioural-focused, natural reward and constructive thought patterns (Chapter 2, par 2.5). The findings revealed that although school principals in the Kavango region used the three self-leadership strategies, the two which are behavioural-focused and natural reward were more prevalent (chapter 6, par 6.4). Self-punishment as sub-category of the behaviour-focused strategies was

neither a preferred nor the most effective method to influence school principals' behaviour (chapter 5, par 5.6.4).

According to literature, the behavioural-focused strategies are subdivided into self-goal setting, self-observation and self-reward (see chapter 5, par 5.6.4). Data revealed that school principals assessed their own behaviour while identifying the behaviour to be changed or eliminated. For example, some school principals had changed their leadership styles after undergoing leadership crises with their staff and had done self-reflection or attended leadership training and thus improved their relations with teachers (chapter 5, par 5.6.1, 5.5.5 & 5.5.6).

It emerged from the findings that school principals performed well in the sub-category of self-goal setting where they inspired teachers and themselves to see the purpose of coming to school. This is translated into the mission and vision where school principals encouraged their teachers about the mission and vision of their schools and how to attain those goals. The findings showed that the school principals in the Kavango region also created conducive climate for teachers to demonstrate their ability by engaging them in the self-goal setting whereby teachers developed and adopted specific goals on which to focus their energies.

Data revealed that school principals have used the self-reward strategy of the self-leadership to motivate themselves and the teachers to attain or achieve a difficult task. It emerged that school principals utilized the contingent rewards to recognize, encourage and motivate teachers in achieving good results in external examinations. Data also showed that despite teachers receiving certificates, trophies and praises for doing a good job, school principals rewarded themselves by jointly celebrating birthdays or undertaking a journey during holidays to celebrate their achievement with their families (Chapter 5, par 5.6.4).

The second sub-category of natural reward strategies was reported to be embedded in the pleasant and enjoyable behaviour of participants. It is mentioned that the school principals had intrinsic motivation as they demonstrated their feelings of competence, feelings of self-control and feelings of purpose which complemented the achievement of their tasks. These strategies were considered important by school principals because they indicated that they loved the profession as it was rewarding to be teachers and the difference that they made in children's life. Data revealed that school principals aspired

and embraced the Confucius philosophy which is on par with literature that states "find a job you love and you will never have to work another day in life" (5.5.5 & 5.5.6).

Building good relations was considered as one of the important strategies school principals had employed in their relations with teachers. Literature suggests that school principals build good relations with teachers through observation of performance, verbal persuasion, physical reactions and own performance history. However, data revealed that school principals invited experts, specialists and officials from the regional office to help teachers improve their practice; whilst, the director, local leaders from the community and even school principals were invited to the schools to address and inspire both teachers and learners who had lost hope and morale.

Data further revealed that school principals engaged their teachers in the debate and discussions based on personal performance or own performance history during examination review meetings. This strategy was different from the self-leadership strategies but very crucial for knowledge self-leadership as shown in section 2.5.8. It is reported that school principals collaboratively engaged teachers during the examination review meetings to review examination results through the lenses of divergent views of the teachers.

It is reported from the findings that school principals created a culture of sharing and working together with teachers as they themselves had learned from the teachers what worked, why it mattered and how to do it. Responses from the teachers revealed that they were treated the same regardless of their performance and were given platforms to explain reasons for poor results. It is interesting to note that different strategies were employed by different principals where individual teachers accounted for their deeds whether good or poor to either their HoDs or school principals.

7.4 Contributions to the present study

This study contributes to the development of self-leadership among school principals to enhance the relationship between the understanding of the school principals and the teachers for quality education. In this sense, this study intends not only to contribute to the development of individual self-leadership styles but also to a way of applying this style in a communal (different kind of) society as a contributing factor towards the improvement of quality education.

This is the first study to explain the complexity of self-leadership and the utilization of self-leadership with other leadership theories in education not only in Kavango but the first for Africa. This study also attempts to contribute to the understanding that although school principals were not aware of the existence of self-leadership and have lacked self-leadership terminology to describe its style, they utilized self-leadership in the daily interactions with the teachers and knowingly or unknowingly integrated self-leadership with other leadership theories.

Self-leadership does not exist in isolation. It is linked with other leadership styles, for example, instructional and distributed leadership. As self-leaders, school principals have used distributed leadership alongside instructional leadership to collaborate and share their leadership with teachers which is a powerful influence on instructional improvement and student achievement that had strong alignment with self-leadership. It is suggested that another study about the self-leadership can be done to compare high and low performing schools in Namibia.

7.5   Limitations of the study

Because of the vastness of the country, the study was limited to the Kavango region of Namibia. Furthermore, the study focused only on the interviews of the teachers and principals pertaining to their experiences of the self-leadership of school principals. I could have possibly learned more if I had studied at least one public school from each of the fourteen regions in Namibia. This does not mean that the choice of the sample was an oversight because my intent was to explore the self-leadership of school principals in the Kavango region in Namibia. The study excluded interviews with other key stakeholders such as school learners, school board members, government officials that could have enriched data. Leaving out the experiences of these stakeholders during the interview was a drawback as it would have benefited the findings. Given the limited financial resources and time constraints for the study, it was not feasible to explore the experiences of all key stakeholders in Namibia.

Being a case study it was confined to six senior secondary schools in the Kavango region to avoid making the study area too large and difficult to cover the distance within a reasonable time. This study was confined to the Kavango region, and given the fact that it was a case study, the findings of this study may not be generalizable to, or replicated to other contexts as this was not the purpose of the study. Regardless of the

fact that it is limited to the Kavango region and cannot be generalized to other contexts, the study can offer insights on how the school context shapes the self-leadership of the school principals. It is hoped that the lessons learned from the six schools might be seen in other similar schools.

7.6 Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to provide insight into self-leadership of school principals as a model for effective leadership in schools in the Kavango region. The findings show that principals relate their work to self-leadership and that teachers responded positively to the practice of self-leadership in the Kavango region. It illustrates that school principals employ self-leadership strategies in their relations with teachers. This study therefore arrived at the following conclusions:

Firstly, it would be a flaw to think that teachers and school principals do not know the conceptualization of self-leadership. The fact that school principals had not undergone leadership training in self-leadership does not mean that they did not use it in practice. As observed during the interviews and meetings, the indication was that they only lacked the terminology to describe the leadership styles their school principals utilized in the daily interactions with the teachers. The findings revealed that the school principals' potential on self-leadership virtues may have been restrained by the hierarchical control processes of the ministry that required them to comply with directives and policies.

Secondly, it is deduced from the study that although school principals used transformational and transitional leadership in their daily interactions with teachers, the combination of the instructional and distributed leadership had impact on effective teaching and learning. School principals involved themselves in the core business of schooling as they were also teaching and sharing leadership influence with teachers by acknowledging their knowledge and expertise which are critical for effectiveness and school improvement.

The key point for school principals as self-leaders is to demonstrate exemplary leadership that is coupled with competent, committed and effective self-leaders who influence their followers to follow them based on competency rather than to comply with control standards set by their seniors. The study also revealed the integration of self-leadership with other leadership theories but the complexity is that principals are unaware of the existence of self-leadership.

It can be concluded that despite the concept of self-leadership having been borrowed from the developed countries is still appropriate for the Namibian school principals and is something that can be taught in developing programmes and be popularized by the ministry of education in Namibia.

7.7 Recommendations

It emerged from the study that school principals in the Kavango region wittingly or unwittingly responded positively to the practice of self-leadership, but were being impeded by external forces. The following suggestions are made for future research and practice:

- In the literature many educational leadership writers have challenged the traditional conceptualization of self and identity on the preparation and development of school leaders by ignoring realities of leadership in schools. It is therefore recommended that school principals in Namibia in general and Kavango region in particular be trained and developed in both the dark secret and dark side of leadership such as racism, gender, minority and culture in order to understand the leadership identity and development of self.

- It is argued that that in the contemporary educational leadership there is no one size fits all model. It is recommended that in schools leaders should advocate self-leadership through the lenses of other forms of leadership such as transformational, transactional, instructional and distributed leadership that are consistent with evolving trend in educational reforms that emphasize empowerment, participation and engagement.

- It emerged from this study that school principals could not make use of this approach to expand their knowledge network and make them more efficient at seeking information. It is suggested that school principals need to adopt the four approaches namely; willing to seek knowledge, invest in building relationships and social networks, need to motivate people in the knowledge network to share knowledge, and augmenting personal knowledge where they fall short, to supplement their personal knowledge.

- It is also suggested that self-leadership be introduced for continuous professional development for school principals in all those in the educational leadership in

Namibia with specific emphasis on Professional Learning Communities (PLCs) where school principals are made aware of networking, collaboration and effective teams.

- My proposal for further study is that the research be repeated in other regions in Namibia and compare the findings with the current study. It will also be a good idea for other studies to be carried out in other developing countries to find out how self-leadership can improve school governance in general.

- This study challenges school principals in the Kavango region and Namibia in general to re-examine their leadership styles in the context of self-leadership. School principals should ask questions such as: how am I leading and how am I using self-leadership to improve my practice in my day to day work?

- Self-leadership should not be seen as a tool to education, it should be used for developing leadership styles in various contexts such as nursing, politics, NGOs, churches, traditional leadership and management. This study therefore challenges all leaders to rethink how they can become effective leaders through the lenses of self-leadership.

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APPENDIX A   LETTER TO THE DIRECTOR

<div align="right">

North-West University
Potchefstroom Campus
Faculty of Education Science
Private Bag X6001
POTCHEFSTROOM
06 May 2013

</div>

Dear Mr Alfons Dikuwa
The Regional Director Kavango Regional Council
Directorate Kavango Education
RUNDU
Namibia

Dear Sir

APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH WITH PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS IN THE KAVANGO REGION

I, Mpasi Katewa, student no. 24799823 and currently pursuing a PhD in the Faculty of Education, School for Education Sciences at the North-West University, Potchefstroom would like to apply for permission to conduct research with principals and teachers in the Kavango region.

At this point, I am preparing for my fieldwork which I plan to start on June 2014.

The title of my study is: **Self-leadership of school principals in the Kavango Region, Namibia.** The fieldwork for this topic will involve conducting in-depth interviews with at least six principals and a good number of sample teachers in six secondary schools in the Kavango region.

As part of the ethical clearance of this study, it is required that I formally apply for permission to conduct the research with the principals and teachers as indicated above.

Let me also point out that as part of the ethical consideration of this study and once the permission has been granted, I will also administer a consent form to my interviewees. This form, among other things, will ensure the confidentiality of the data collected. It will also provide the interviewees with the liberty to participate in the interviews or withdraw in the course of the interviews.

I look forward for your favourable consideration.

Yours sincerely,

Mpasi Namwira Katewa

APPENDIX B   LETTER FROM THE DIRECTOR

REPUBLIC OF NAMIBIA

KAVANGO REGIONAL COUNCIL

DIRECTORATE OF EDUCATION

Tel. (066) 258.9111.........................	Private Bag 2134
Fax (066) ...2589213/2589320/258.9222	RUNDU

Enquiries: **Alfons M. Dikuua**

Email: dikuua@iway.na

Our Ref.:

Date :   20 May 2013

North-West University
Potchefstroom Campus
Faculty of Education
Private Bag X6001
POTCHEFSTROOM

Dear Mr. Mpasi Katewa

SUBJECT: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH WITH PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS IN THE KAVANGO REGION

Permission is hereby granted to Mr. Katewa to conduct research in schools in the Kavango Region as requested.

Your sincerely,

Alfons M. Dikuua
DIRECTOR

Cc. Inspectors of Education – Kavango Region

All official correspondence must be addressed to the Chief Regional Officer

APPENDIX C   LETTER OF REGISTRATION

NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
YUNIBESITI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT
POTCHEFSTROOM CAMPUS

Private Bag X6001, Potchefstroom
South Africa 2520

Tel: 018 299-1111/2222
Web: http://www.nwu.ac.za

Mr ENM Katewa
PO Box 10
Rundu
NAMIBIA

Post Graduate Studies and Organisation
Tel: 018-2992626
Fax: 087 231 5256
Email: bianca.fazakas@nwu.ac.za

07 July 2014

Dear Mr Katewa

REGISTRATION OF TITLE

At the recent Faculty Board meeting, the faculty of Education Sciences approved your title as follows:

Self-leadership of school principals in the Kavango region, Namibia

The abovementioned title may under **no circumstances** be changed without consulting your supervisor/promoter and obtaining the approval from the Faculty Board.

Should you wish to submit for examination, please inform your supervisor. Upon approval of your supervisor,   please submit the Notice of Submission form THREE months in advance, if you intend on submitting. The form is available at the M & D department or the administrative manager of the faculty.

Dates of submission of copies for examination:

- **31 March to 30 April 2014 to qualify for the September 2014 graduation ceremony**
- **17 October to 14 November for the May 2015 graduation ceremony**
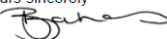
Should you neglect to submit by 14 November 2014, the possibility exists that you will not qualify to graduate in May 2015. You will then be required to register again for 2015 to qualify for the next graduation ceremony in September 2015.

Your attention is drawn to the following publications / web addresses:

1.   A Rules: http://www.nwu.ac.za/webfm_send/60147
2.   Manual for Postgraduate Studies (2010): http://www.nwu.ac.za/webfm_send/46198

We wish you a pleasant and successful period of study.

Yours sincerely

Ms Bianca Fazakas
FOR CAMPUS REGISTRAR

Original details: Marietjie.Ackermann@nwu.ac.za(10512187) C:\Users\10512187\Desktop\Titelregistration.docm
23 January 2014

File reference: 7.1.11.1

APPENDIX D   CONSENT LETTER

NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
YUNIBESITI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT
POTCHEFSTROOM CAMPUS ®

Private Bag X6001, Potchefstroom
South Africa 2520

Tel: 018 299-1111/2222
Web: http://www.nwu.ac.za

Supervisor: Prof. Jan Heystek
Tel: 018 2992906
Fax: 018 2994238
Email: jan.heystek@nwu.ac.za

Dear Sir/Madam

Informed consent: Self-leadership of school principals in the Kavango Region, Namibia.

You are hereby cordially invited to participate in a research study conducted by Mr Mpasi Katewa, a PhD candidate at North West University (Potchefstroom Campus). The results of this study will be used for my PhD thesis with the view to inform policy makers, educational authorities and other stakeholders about the use of self-leadership as an alternative leadership style.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Study Objectives

- To analyze the extent to which school principals in the Kavango region employ self-leadership strategies in their relations with teachers.

- To discuss the extent of the use of self-leadership in the management of teachers in the Kavango region.

- To analyze the responses of teaching staff in the use of self-leadership in Kavango schools.

- To examine the interaction of self-leadership and improvement of teaching and learning in the Kavango region.

2. PROCEDURES

If you give permission to participate in this study, I would ask you do the following:
- To participate in an interview and to discuss related issues posed by the researcher.

DATES AND TIME
- Dates will be confirmed as soon as the permission of the Research Ethics Committee of the North-West University is secured

- The interviews are expected not to last more than 60 minutes.

LOCATION
- The interviews will be conducted at your school.

- At no stage will your identity or that of your school be disclosed. Participants in the study will be referred to as Principal 1, Teacher 1, etc. Schools will be referred to as School A and School B.
  - Any comments made by the participants will be incorporated into the research in the form of a narrative.
- I would like to obtain your consent to use an audio recording device which will help me to analyze the data gathered at a later stage. These recordings will only be used for the purpose of extracting the necessary data from our interview. No other person will have access to the recordings.
- You can decline to answer any question (s) at any time or request that the interview be terminated.
- You can withdraw from the study at any time without giving any reasons(s). Should you decide to do this, I request that you inform me of your decision so that your interview material can be withdrawn from the study.
- A follow-up interview will be scheduled once the audio recordings have been transcribed. This will enable you to look at the transcripts to ensure that you agree with it. Also to enable the researcher to clarify any statements that might not be clear.

3. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

I do not foresee any possible risks or discomforts through participation in this study.

4. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

There will not be any direct benefits to the participants.
The potential benefits however, expected from the research are that it can aid in the motivation of teachers and the principals and hence possibly enhance staff development activities of the school. Furthermore, it may promote teaching and learning.

5. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

Participation in this study is on a voluntary basis. There will be no remuneration for the participation in this study.

6. CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. Confidentiality or participants will be maintained at all times.

The information obtained will be stored in a safe in the researcher's office, to which only the researcher has access. After successful completion of the thesis, all information will be destroyed by the researcher.

The interviews will be audio taped, with the consent of the participant. The participant has the right to edit it at any time before the completion of the thesis. All information will be erased after successful completion of the thesis.

Names of participants and places will be replaced with neutral identifiers (Teacher 1, Principal 1, School A, School B, etc). At no stage will the true identity of the participants be revealed.

The final research report will be authored by the researcher, Mr Mpasi Katewa.

7. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether to participate in this study or not. If you volunteer to participate in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you don't want to answer and still participate in the study.

8. IDENTIFICATION OF RESEARCHER

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact the researcher:

Researcher: Mr. Mpasi Katewa
Cell no.   081 129 3396
Work tel. no.:   018 2991906
Work Address: Northwest University (Potchefstroom Campus)
                 Faculty of Education Sciences
                 School of Education

9. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Prof L Meyer [lukas.meyer@nwu.ac.za; 018 299 1166] at the Faculty of Education Science, Northwest University.

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH SUBJECT

The information above was described to *me* by Mr M. Katewa in *English* and *I am in* command of this language, or it was satisfactorily translated to *me*. *I* was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to *my* satisfaction.

I hereby consent voluntarily to participate in this study
I have been given a copy of this form.

_____

Name of participant

_____   _____

Signature of participant   **Date**

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCHER

Signature of Researcher   **Date**

APPENDIX E   ETHICS CERTIFICATE

NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
YUNIBESITI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT

Private Bag X6001, Potchefstroom
South Africa 2520

Tel: (018) 299-4900
Faks: (018) 299-4910
Web: http://www.nwu.ac.za

Institutional Research Ethics Regulatory Committee
Tel   +27 18 299 4849
Email   Ethics@nwu.ac.za

ETHICS APPROVAL CERTIFICATE OF PROJECT

Based on approval by **Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Education Sciences**, the North-West University Institutional Research Ethics Regulatory Committee (NWU-IRERC) hereby approves your project as indicated below. This implies that the NWU-IRERC grants its permission that, provided the special conditions specified below are met and pending any other authorisation that may be necessary, the project may be initiated, using the ethics number below.

Project title:	Self-leadership of school principals in the Kavango region, Namibia
Project Leader:	Prof J Heystek
Student:	NM Katewa

Ethics number: N W U - 0 0 0 5 7 - 1 3 - A 2

Institution   Project Number   Year   Status

Status: S = Submission; R = Re-Submission; P = Provisional Authorisation; A = Authorisation

Approval date: 2014-03-06   **Expiry date:** 2019-03-05   **Category**   N/A

Special conditions of the approval (if any): None

General conditions:

While this ethics approval is subject to all declarations, undertakings and agreements incorporated and signed in the application form, please note the following:

- *The project leader (principle investigator) must report in the prescribed format to the NWU-IRERC:*
  - *annually (or as otherwise requested) on the progress of the project,*
  - *without any delay in case of any adverse event (or any matter that interrupts sound ethical principles) during the course of the project.*
- *The approval applies strictly to the protocol as stipulated in the application form. Would any changes to the protocol be deemed necessary during the course of the project, the project leader must apply for approval of these changes at the NWU-RERC. Would there be deviated from the project protocol without the necessary approval of such changes, the ethics approval is immediately and automatically forfeited.*
- *The date of approval indicates the first date that the project may be started. Would the project have to continue after the expiry date, a new application must be made to the NWU-IRERC and new approval received before or on the expiry date.*
- *In the interest of ethical responsibility the NWU-IRERC retains the right to:*
  - *request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project;*
  - *withdraw or postpone approval if:*
    - *any unethical principles or practices of the project are revealed or suspected,*
    - *it becomes apparent that any relevant information was withheld from the NWU-IRERC or that information has been false or misrepresented,*
    - *the required annual report and reporting of adverse events was not done timely and accurately,*
    - *new institutional rules, national legislation or international conventions deem it necessary.*

The IRERC would like to remain at your service as scientist and researcher, and wishes you well with your project. Please do not hesitate to contact the IRERC for any further enquiries or requests for assistance.

Yours sincerely

Linda du Plessis

Digitally signed by Linda du Plessis
DN: cn=Linda du Plessis, o=NWU,
ou=Vaal Triangle Campus,
email=linda.duplessis@nwu.ac.za,
c=ZA
Date: 2015.08.11 12:57:09 +02'00'

Prof Linda du Plessis
Chair NWU Institutional Research Ethics Regulatory Committee (IRERC)

APPENDIX F   LANGUAUE EDITOR

PO Box 77214
Empangeni
3880

Mobile: 074 9211 480
Email: zanibaz@yahoo.com

Professional
EDITORS'
Group | An association of editors in education
academic and general publishing
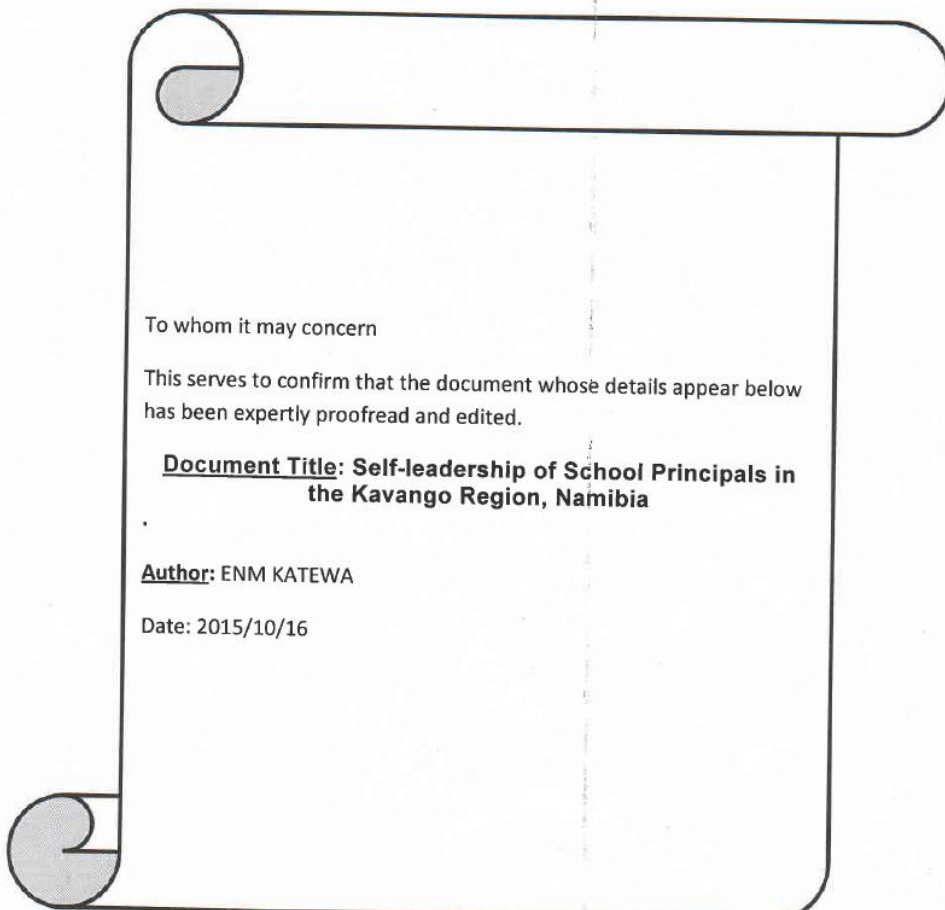
To whom it may concern

This serves to confirm that the document whose details appear below
has been expertly proofread and edited.

Document Title: **Self-leadership of School Principals in
the Kavango Region, Namibia**

Author: ENM KATEWA

Date: 2015/10/16

Professional
EDITORS'
Guild

X
_____
Dr Berrington Ntombela
Proofreader/Editor

APPENDIX G INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (PRINCIPALS)

A. General School Profile

1. How many teachers are at your school?
2. How many learners have enrolled at your school?
3. What is the teacher-to-learner ratio?
4. How many teachers are in promotional posts at your school? (size of the SMTs)
5. How is the gender in the management posts at your school?

B. Biographic Information of the Principal

Gender	Male	Female				
Age	20-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	Above	
Language	Afrikaans	English	Rukwangali	Rumanyo	Thimbukushu	Other
Academic Qualification	Grade 10	Grade 12	Other			
Professional Qualification	BETD	B. Ed	M. Ed	Other		
Teaching Experience	0-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	16-20 years	21-25 years	26+
No. of years as principal	0-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	16-20 years	21-25 years	
How many years in this specific school	0-5 years	6-9 years	10-15 years			
Stages of promotion	HoD	Dep. Principal	None			
Induction received as a principal	Yes	No				
Duration of induction training/programme	1 week	2 weeks	3 weeks+	None		
Leadership course/programme attended	Yes	None				
Self-development as principal	Yes	No	examples			

C. Interview Questions

1. Leadership and self-leadership questions

1.1. How do you lead your school?
1.2. In which way do your selected leadership styles have an impact on learners' performance?
1.3. What is the most significant change/transformation you have brought about at your school with your leadership?
1.4. How do you know that this change was really caused by your style?
1.5. Why are you leading in this specific leadership style?

2. Principal support

2.1. What principles do you as a principal employ to ensure that effective teaching is taking place at your school?

2.2. What does effectiveness or effective teaching means to you? What is an effective teacher?

2.3. Why do you support your teachers?

3. **Teacher-principal relations**

3.1. What is the level of involvement of the teachers in the decision-making process?

3.2. What is the nature of interaction between you and the teachers when it comes to failure to produce the best results?

3.3. Why do you think you have good relationships with your teachers?

4. **Motivation**

4.1. What is motivation?

4.2. How do you motivate yourself?

4.3. How do you feel when your school has a pass rate of more than 60%?

4.4. How do you motivate teachers who are negative but cooperative and hardworking?

4.5. Why do you usually motivate/encourage your teachers to improve their teaching?

5. **Strategies/methods**

5.1 What strategies/methods do you use to gain commitment from your teachers?

5.2 How do you influence teachers to follow your strategic vision for the school?

APPENDIX H   INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (TEACHERS)

A.   Biographic details of the teachers & SMTs

Gender	Male	Female				
Age	20-30 years	31-40 years	41-50 years	51-60 years	Over	
Language	Afrikaans	English	Rukwangali	Rumanyo	Thimbukushu	Other
Academic qualification	Grade 10	Grade 12	Other			
Professional qualification	BETD	B. Ed	B. EdHons	M. Ed	Other	
Teaching experience	0-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	16-20 years	Over	
Years at this school with this principal	0-5 years	6-10 years	11-16 years	Over		
Post in this school	Teacher	Deputy Principal	HoD	None/ Specify		

B.   Interview Questions

1.   Leadership and self-leadership questions

   1.1   How does your principal lead?

   1.2   In which way do your principal leadership styles have an impact on learners' performance?

   1.3   What is the most significant change/transformation your principal has brought about at your school with his/her leadership?

   1.4   How do you know that this change was really caused by his/her style?

   1.5   Why is the principal lead in this specific style?

2.   Principal support

   2.1   What principles do your principal employs to ensure that effective teaching is taking place at your school?

   2.2   What does effectiveness or effective teaching means to you? What is an effective teacher?

   2.3   Why does your principal support you?

3.   Teacher-principal relations

   3.1   What is the level of your participation in the decision-making process?

   3.2   What is the nature of interaction between your principal and you when it comes to failure to produce the best results?

   3.3   Why do you think the principal has good relationships with teachers?

4.   Motivation

   4.1   What is motivation?

   4.2   Does the principal motivate you to improve your work?

   4.3   How do you feel when your school has a pass rate of more than 60%?

   4.4   How does your principal motivate teachers with divergent views?

   4.5   Why does your principal usually motivate/encourage you to improve their teaching?

5. Strategies/methods

   5.1   What strategies/methods do you use to gain commitment from your principal?

   5.2   How do you influence teachers to follow your strategic vision for the school?

APPENDIX I   OBSERVATION FORM

Name of the school_____

Date and Time	Situation/Event	Participants	Actions observed	Reflection

Adopted from Nieuwenhuis, 2007