

**SCHOOL-BUSINESS PARTNERSHIPS**  
**FOR ORGANISATIONAL LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT**

**Samuel Ofori-Kyereh**  
**BSc (Hons), Dip Ed, MSc, MA, FCOIT, NPQH**



**Institute of Education**  
**University of London**

A Thesis Submitted in Fulfillment of The Requirements for  
The Degree of Doctor of Education

**July 2012**

**Abstract:**

Leadership and how it is developed have become a top priority for almost all organisations, particularly schools and business organisations, to survive and secure growth (Bolden, 2004). Equally, the concept of partnership has become a panacea for solving complex and ‘wicked’ problems in diverse organisations (Armistead, 2007). This study therefore investigates how school-business partnerships could serve as alternative means for organisational leadership development. The study is principally influenced by earlier work in the leadership development field by Day (2000) and Allen and Hartman (2008).

Following a review of literature on leadership and partnership, four main sub-questions were formulated. An explanatory multi-case mixed-methods research design (Yin, 1984) was adopted to answer these questions, using qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection – interviews and survey questionnaire – in two schools and two banks in the South-East of England. Data analysis was carried out in two stages – within-case and cross-case analyses (Yin, 1994) – and the data combined to provide composite research findings.

The key finding and main original contribution of this study to knowledge is that school-business partnership activities that promote experiential leadership learning experiences can support organisational leadership development. The study identifies twenty-five (25) different learning approaches which enable members of the organisation to develop four main experiential leadership learning experiences: spiritual, emotional, academic and practical leadership competencies. Some of these learning approaches are found in existing literature on leadership development including leadership apprenticeship, job placement, job mixing, degree programmes as well as online learning, action learning and reflections. Other leadership learning approaches such as recitals, records of enlightenment, counselling, reflections, story-telling and themes from the Bible are found to be new to literature in the leadership development field.

**KEYWORDS:** Leadership Development, Leader Development, School-Business Partnerships, Experiential Learning, Inter-organisation Collaboration, Organisation

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Title page.....	1
Abstract.....	2
Keywords.....	2
Table of Content.....	3
List of Figure.....	8
List of Tables.....	8
Abbreviation.....	10
Declaration.....	11
Word Length.....	11
Dedication.....	12
Acknowledgements.....	13
Prologue - 2000-Word Statement.....	14
<b>CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION.....</b>	<b>22</b>
1.0 Introduction .....	23
1.1 Background .....	23
1.2 The Context of the Study.....	25
1.3 Nature of the Research Problem.....	26
1.4 The Rationale of the Study.....	29
1.5 Significance of the Study.....	31
1.6 Research Questions.....	33
1.7 Hypothesis.....	35
1.8 Limitations of the Study.....	36
1.9 Organisation of the Study.....	36
<b>CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW .....</b>	<b>38</b>
2.0 Introduction.....	39
2.1 Exploring the Concept of Leadership .....	40
2.1.1 Defining Organisational Leadership.....	40
2.1.2 Organisational Leadership Theories.....	43
2.1.3 Review of Leadership Theories.....	43
2.1.2.2 Review of Contemporary Leadership Theories.....	46
2.2 Exploring the Concept of Inter-organisational Collaboration and Partnership .....	50
2.2.1 Defining the Concept of Partnership.....	52

2.2.2	Review of Theories of Partnership.....	54
2.2.3	The Concept of the School-Business Partnerships.....	59
2.2.3.1	The Formation of School-Business Partnerships.....	60
2.2.3.2	The Benefits of School-Business Partnership.....	61
2.3	Limitations to School-Business Partnerships.....	63
2.4	Exploring the Concepts of Leadership Development.....	65
2.5	Theoretical Framework Underpinning the Study.....	69
2.5.1	360-Degree Feedback.....	72
2.5.2	Executive Coaching.....	74
2.5.3	Mentoring.....	75
2.5.4	Networking.....	76
2.5.5	Job Assignment.....	78
2.5.6	Action Learning.....	79
2.6	Review of Links Between Partnership and Leadership Development.....	81
2.7	Chapter Summary.....	84
	<b>CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....</b>	<b>85</b>
3.0	Introduction.....	86
3.1	Philosophical Assumptions.....	87
3.1	What is Pragmatic Phenomenology.....	87
3.1.2	Reaching the Philosophical Position for the Study.....	87
3.1.3	Justification for Pragmatic Phenomenology.....	90
3.2.	Research Design.....	91
3.3	Justification for Mixed Methods.....	93
3.4	The Context of the Study.....	95
3.4.1	School AA Context.....	97
3.4.2	School BB Context.....	98
3.4.3	Bank YY Context.....	99
3.4.4	Bank ZZ Context.....	100
3.5	Selection of Cases – Sampling Method and Sample Access.....	100
3.5.1	The Context of Partnership Activities.....	102
3.6	Survey Questionnaire/Interviews Guide Design.....	105
3.6.1	Piloting of the Questionnaires.....	110
3.6.1.1	Outcomes of the Pilot Study.....	113
3.7	Final Interview and Survey Questionnaire.....	115

3.7.1	Section A: Personal Background.....	115
3.7.2	Section B: What prompted the need for School-Business Partnerships?.....	115
3.7.3	Section C: Why Partnership as a Means for Leadership Development?.....	115
3.7.4	Section D: What Partnerships Activities for Leadership Development?.....	116
3.7.5	Section E: How did Partnership Activities Impact on Leadership Development.....	116
3.8	Strengthening Validity, Reliability and Generalizability.....	117
3.9	The Main Study Sample.....	119
3.9.1	Interview Respondents.....	120
3.9.2	Questionnaire Participants.....	122
3.10	Data Collection.....	122
3.10.1	Choice of Specific Data Collection Method.....	123
3.10.1.1	Interview Data Collection Process.....	126
3.10.1.1.1	Power Relations in Research Study.....	130
3.10.2	Questionnaire Data Collection.....	132
3.11	Data Analysis.....	135
3.11.1	Within-case Analysis.....	135
3.11.2	Cross-cse Analysis.....	136
3.11.3	Analysis of Qualitative Data.....	137
3.11.4	Analysis of Quantitative Data.....	140
3.11.5	Integrating Data from Case Study and Survey Questionnaire.....	143
3.15	Ethical Consideration.....	145
3.15.1	Ethical Position As an Insider-Researcher.....	146
3.16	Chapter Summary.....	149
	<b>CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS &amp; DISCUSSIONS.....</b>	<b>152</b>
4.0	Introduction.....	154
4.1	The Profile of Key Informants.....	154
4.1.1	Criteria for Participation in the Study.....	155
4.1.1.1	Time As Essence for Partnership Outcomes.....	156
4.2	Findings for Research Question One: What prompted the need for school-business partnerships?.....	157
4.2.1	Within-case Analysis.....	157
4.2.1.1	Threats to Organisational Survival.....	157
4.2.2.2	Desperation for Survival.....	161
4.2.2	Cross-case Analysis.....	163

4.2.2.1	Lack of Leadership.....	164
4.2.2.2	Partnering with Organisations with Similar Problems (Needs).....	166
4.2.2.3	Mobilising Personnel and their Skills.....	170
4.2.2.4	Willingness to Take Risk.....	174
4.2.3	Level of Agreement to Partnership Activities.....	174
4.2.4	Summary of Findings for Research Question One.....	175
4.3	Findings from Research Question 2: Why Did You Choose Partnership as a Means For Leadership Development?.....	177
4.3.1	Within-case Analysis.....	177
4.3.2	Cross-case Analysis.....	180
4.3.3	Why Partnership was Adopted for Leadership Development.....	180
4.3.3.1	Success with Other Partnership Programmes.....	183
4.3.3.2	Exposure to Other Leadership Practices.....	184
4.3.3.3	Sharing Responsibilities, Ideas and Resources.....	186
4.3.3.4	Failure of Previous Leadership Development Programme.....	188
4.3.3.5	Trial and Error.....	190
4.3.4	Summary of Findings for Research Question Two.....	191
4.4	Findings of Study for Research Question Three: ‘What are the Main Partnership Activities that were Undertaken to Support Leadership Development?’.....	192
<b>4.4.1</b>	<b>Spiritual Leadership Learning Experiences.....</b>	<b>195</b>
4.4.1.1	Reflections.....	196
4.4.1.2	Cues/Themes from the Bible.....	199
4.4.1.3	Records of Enlightenment.....	203
4.4.1.4	Recitals of Leadership Principles.....	204
4.4.1.5	Story Telling.....	206
4.4.1.6	Leadership Voice Bulletin.....	208
4.4.1.7	Summary of Spiritual Leadership Learning Approaches.....	211
<b>4.4.2</b>	<b>Practical Leadership Learning Experiences.....</b>	<b>213</b>
4.4.2.1	Leadership Apprenticeship.....	213
4.4.2.2	Job Shadowing.....	215
4.4.2.3	Job Mixing.....	217
4.4.2.4	Job Placement.....	219
4.4.2.5	Job Rotation.....	221

4.4.2.6	Practical Coaching.....	224
4.4.2.7	Summary of Practical Leadership Learning Experiences.....	226
<b>4.4.3</b>	<b>Emotional Leadership Learning Experiences.....</b>	<b>226</b>
4.4.3.1	Networking.....	227
4.4.3.2	Action Learning.....	229
4.4.3.3	Multi-Rater Feedback.....	231
4.4.3.4	Mentoring.....	233
4.4.3.5	Performance Reviews.....	236
4.4.3.6	Counselling.....	238
4.4.3.7	Personality Tests.....	240
4.4.3.8	Summary of Emotional Leadership Learning Experience.....	241
<b>4.4.4</b>	<b>Academic Leadership Learning Experiences.....</b>	<b>242</b>
4.4.4.1	On-line Learning.....	242
4.4.4.2	Classroom-based Courses.....	244
4.4.4.3	Degree and Postgraduate Courses.....	246
4.4.4.4	Action Research.....	248
4.4.4.5	Distance Learning Programmes.....	249
4.4.4.6	Symposia, Lectures and Conferences.....	251
4.4.4.7	Summary of Findings of Academic Leadership Experiences.....	252
4.4.4.8	Summary of Findings To Research Question Three.....	253
4.5	Findings for Research Question 4: The Impact of Partnership Activities on Leadership Development.....	254
4.5.1	Organisational Leadership Learning.....	256
4.5.2	Innovative and Practical Leadership Practices.....	259
4.5.3	Organisational Growth and Survival.....	261
4.5.4	Creating Non-Threatening Atmosphere.....	264
4.5.5	Effective Team Building and Management.....	267
4.5.8	Organisational Accountability.....	269
4.5.7	Understanding of Leadership Concepts.....	269
4.5.8	Broadened Decision-Making Powers and Agreeability.....	273
4.5.9	Succession Planning.....	275
4.5.10	Flat Leadership Model.....	277
4.5.10	Summary of Sub-question Four.....	279
4.6	Chapter Summary.....	280

<b>CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSIONS OF KEY RESEARCH FINDINGS.....</b>	<b>282</b>
5.0 Introduction.....	283
5.1 Original Contribution to Knowledge.....	283
5.2 Overview of Main Findings.....	286
5.2.1 Reasons for High Response Rates.....	286
5.2.2 The Unusual Findings.....	289
5.3 The Context of Organisations.....	292
5.4 The Process of Partnerships and Leadership Development.....	295
5.5 Mobilising Personnel for Partnership Activities.....	297
5.6 Leadership Learning Culture.....	298
5.7 Performance of Partnership Activities for Leadership Development.....	301
5.8 Building Leadership Capacity within and across organisations.....	302
5.9 Chapter Summary.....	303
<b>CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS AND REFLECTIONS.....</b>	<b>305</b>
6.0 Introduction.....	306
6.1 Summary of Findings.....	306
6.2 Implications for the Study.....	308
6.2.1. Implications for Further Research.....	310
6.2.2 Implications for Policy.....	312
6.2.3. Implications for Practice.....	313
6.2.4 Implications for Researcher’s Professional Role.....	315
6.3 Implications for Publication and Dissemination.....	316
6.4 Final Note.....	317
<b>BIBLIOGRAPHY.....</b>	<b>318</b>
<b>APPENDICES:.....</b>	<b>348</b>
Appendix I: Consent Leaflet.....	349
Appendix II: Structured Interview Schedule .....	352
Appendix III: Questionnaire.....	354
Appendix IV: BERA Ethical Guidelines.....	359
<b>LIST OF FIGURES.....</b>	<b>9</b>
Figure 2.1 Building Blocks of Leadership Research.....	43
Figure 2.2 Leadership Development Theoretical Framework.....	69
Figure 3.1 Relationship Between Schools and Partnership with Respective Banks.....	96
Figure 3.12: Summary of Research Design and Methodology.....	150



Figure 5.1: Intercative Leadership Development Model.....	291
Figure 6.1: Synthesized Model for Leadership Development.....	310
<b>LIST OF TABLES.....</b>	<b>8</b>
Table 2.2 Summary of Leadership Theories .....	43
Table 2.3 Definitions of the Concept of Partnership.....	51
Table 3.1 Summary of Leadership Experiences.....	103
Table 3.2 Breakdown of Pilot Study Participants.....	111
Table 3.3 Background Information from Interview Respondents.....	120
Table 3.4 The Schedule for Research Process.....	122
Table 3.4.1 Interview Rounds for School AA.....	127
Table 3.4.2 Interview Rounds for School BB.....	127
Table 3.4.3 Interview Rounds for Bank YY.....	128
Table 3.4.4 Interview Rounds for Bank ZZ.....	128
Table 3.5 Proportions of Research Respondents.....	133
Table 4.1 The Background of the Various Key Informants.....	154
Table 4.1.1 Number of Years in Current Post and Participation in Study.....	156
Table 4.2 Key Emerging Themes to Question One.....	164
Table 4.2 Did You Agree To Pursuing Partnership Activities?.....	175
Table 4.3 Why Partnership Was Adopted for Leadership Development.....	181
Table 4.4 Summary and Analysis of Four Leadership Development Experiences.....	194
Table 4.5 How did School-Business Partnership support Leadership development.....	256

## ABBREVIATION

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
BERA	British Education Research Organisation
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
DCSF	Department for Children, Schools and Families
DoH	Department of Health
DH	Deputy Head teacher
EBPO	Education Business Partnership Organisation
EdD	Doctor of Education
HT	Head teacher
IMF	International Money Fund
MOE	Methods of Enquiry
NPQH	National Professional Qualification for Headship
NCSL	National College for School Leadership
Ofsted	Office for Standards in Education
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
QUAL + Quan	Qualitative and Quantitative Research
SBP	School-Business Partnership
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Scientists
UN	United Nations Environmental Programme
UNEP	United Nations

## **DECLARATION**

I hereby declare that, except where explicit attribution is made, the work presented in this thesis is entirely my own.

## **WORD LENGTH**

Word count (exclusive of appendices, the list of references and bibliographies but including footnotes, endnotes, glossary, maps, diagrams and tables): 82,989 words.

## **DEDICATION**

**This work is dedicated to the Ofori-Kyereh Family**

*The love of a family is life's greatest blessing.*

*What greater blessing to give thanks for at all times than the family, the support  
and the love they show in times of seclusion from them  
because of life's commitments.*

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

It is impossible to fail to declare publicly my gratitude to the One who gave me life when I was pronounced dead and healed my body and gives me the strength to carry on in life, Jesus Christ, My Lord and Saviour.

I record my appreciation and thanks to all participants who willingly offered their time to participate in this study, and to the case-study institutions that permitted access to study the participants' experiences of how partnerships can support organisational leadership development.

I give special thanks to my Supervisor Dr Victoria Showunmi, for her encouragement, guidance and understanding of complex circumstances that I have had to overcome to get to this point. The insightful and honest feedback given by Dr. Gwyneth Hughes was particularly valuable to complete this research study. This academic journey has been lonely but insightful because I have always known that I could rely on their support.

Last but not at all the least, my special debt of gratitude goes to my wife Mrs. Barbara Esther Ofori-Kyereh for her immeasurable support and encouragement over the course of my study. My wife has stood by me and shown great love even when circumstances were unbearable. I am greatly indebted to my daughter Nana who sought to encourage me and showed great understanding when she needed my attention. My sons, Ohene and Owura have been patient and provide times of fun when I needed to relax and reflect on my study. To my wife, daughter and sons, I extend my deepest love to you all.

PROLOGUE

**PERSONAL STATEMENT**

## **Introduction**

This thesis is classified as a *lived* thesis because it is deeply connected to my life and family history and it bears great academic as well as personal and professional significance for me. When I worked with a global organisation on projects intended to improve the livelihood of humanity, particularly women and children, I became completely subsumed with a moral purpose to design holistic and integrated programmes that would secure greater outcomes for humanity. I was particularly unsettled by the fact that colleagues worked extremely hard but achieved very little. After periods of deliberation, I became convinced that pursuing higher education would widen my knowledge and sharpen my skills to plan effectively maternal and child health care programmes in order to secure better outcomes. After graduating with a MSc in Health Promotion: Maternal and Child Public Health, I designed several programmes including research projects that yielded astronomical gains for mothers and children in deprived communities in an African country. With time, however, I realised that without a ‘constant flow of collaborative and genuine leadership’ any success with Maternal and Child Health programmes would be episodic and short-lived.

Although I enjoyed working in the health sector, family circumstances meant that I should have a career change. I entered the teaching profession and quickly became senior leader. However, I have since been deeply concerned about the apparent lack of purpose for partnerships and the overemphasis of the leadership of individuals in schools and business organisations. My observation was and still is that the difficulties that schools and many organisations encounter in achieving sustained organisational effectiveness are largely because leadership is mainly situated in individuals instead of as the collective efforts of all individuals within the organisations.. I became incessantly worried to the extent that I looked for ways to influence internal and external practices that enchain and prevent organisations such as schools and business organisations from developing the leadership capabilities of all individuals within the organisations. This work is the climax of the efforts to

advance collaborative leadership development within and amongst organisations to solve seemingly insurmountable barriers to leadership development.

In my current position as an accredited inspector for Ofsted (Office for Standards) and a business administration consultant, I have come to understand that leadership in schools and in some of the business organisations I provide services is still seen as the function of privileged few but not recognised as the collective responsibility of all the individuals in the organisation. I am convinced that the focus of this study makes significant contribution to knowledge in the field of organisational leadership. As a member of a family of academics, enrolling on a doctoral programme was not an option. What was different in my case was that I pursued the doctoral studies with the sole aim of contributing to human development. Although I was exposed as a young person to the concept of leadership because my grandparents and parents were educational and political leaders, I felt I had a different view of the concept of leadership. My view of leadership focuses on harnessing the leadership expertise of all individuals instead of that of specific individuals in organisations.

As part of enrolling on the doctoral studies, I attended lectures to complete the taught modules. The first lecture session on 'Foundations of Professionalism in Education' explored amongst other things what a profession is and the various categories of professions. Teaching was classified as a semi-profession because of the lack of autonomy and the beleaguered influence of political leaders who exploit schools for political gains. I was incensed by the fact that teaching is considered a semi-profession through no fault of teachers but mainly as a result of external influences which prevented teachers to lead themselves. My observation is that when organisations fail to harness the leadership abilities of all their members to achieve organisational goals, they are likely to be led and directed by external organisations and governments.



Later, I enrolled on a specialist module: 'Educational Leadership Development'. The leadership issues discussed during the course of this module supported my interest in completing a thesis in the field of partnerships and leadership development. My motivation for such a thesis is to make a contribution to supporting schools and business organisations to adopt partnerships as a means of developing the leadership expertise of all individuals to enable them to take charge of their own circumstances. Overtime, however, I faced great difficulties from my workplace to the extent that I contemplated to quit the course. The situation worsened to the extent that the quality of assignments I submitted was not to the standard I wanted to achieve. I found other taught courses such as 'Methods of Enquiry 1' and 'Methods of Enquiry 2' mind-numbing mainly because of the lack of support from my workplace. I missed some of the lecture sessions and was unable to read some of the recommended books. I barely managed to complete the assignments for these two modules.

Although this difficult situation presented an opportunity to learn about the attitudes and behaviour of a head teacher towards the professional development of other senior members of staff, the wisest thing to do was to take up a position in a different school. This was a turning-point. I had the opportunity to work with a head teacher who was not only supportive of the professional development of all members of staff but was completely focused on developing leadership at every level of the organisation. By this time, the deadline for submitting my assignment for the specialist course was almost up. However, as a result of the encouragement I received, I was able to produce an assignment that was publishable.

In the course of time, however, my assigned supervisor retired and I was not aware of it. At this point, I thought I had to interrupt my course for a year and re-organise myself. I took up a bursary from the London Challenge and gained MA in Leadership and Management. Pursuing the course gave me a grounding to understand the concepts and theories of leadership and the various leadership

development programmes. The opportunities for reflection resulted in a research topic for the IFS: ‘How could a school-business partnership support leadership development in two inner-city schools?’ I attended conferences in South Africa and France where I presented the findings from the Institutional Focus Study (IFS). On the basis of the feedback I received, I decided to carry out my thesis research on the topic: ‘How does school-business partnerships support organisational leadership development’.

### **Professional and Academic Learning**

Researching and debating the ideas about how partnerships could support organisational leadership development meant reading and interrogating large volumes of academic and research literature. As a result, I developed skills for reviewing literature and for making sense of research and academic texts and the dichotomy between the concepts and practice leadership development.

I found that I did not always agree with the views of the lecturers and so explored further the views expressed in literature about a particular topic. This has helped me to voice my views more convincingly and with evidence. The continual search for a deeper understanding of the meaning of leadership and how it can be developed has helped me to situate myself within a range of professional and academic as well as philosophical viewpoints. Reading widely has increased my knowledge of several theories, practices and principles relating to partnerships, leadership and leadership development, which hugely informs this study and my current profession in the field of education and health. The continual reading has helped me to be more critical and objective and this has had a significant impact on my professional and academic development.

My preferred learning style on Kolb’s Learning Style Cycle is abstract conceptualisation and reflective observation, which means I prefer to learn by watching and thinking rather than by feeling

and doing. As a result of this I have always preferred to learn independently and have often avoided all forms of group learning. Through this academic and professional course, I have learned to learn as part of a group, contributing to discussions and learning from others. My personal relationships with people have improved significantly. I feel more comfortable with my ability to build more equal relationships with academic and professional colleagues. This shift in my learning has resulted in great confidence in demonstrating distinct leadership capabilities in my workplace.

### **The Link Between The Course And Professional Development And Knowledge**

Since enrolling on the doctoral programme, I have developed a natural propensity to engage with academic literature and perceived an orientation of my personal philosophy and preference for a more equal leadership working relationships that helps individual to develop leadership capacity and capabilities within organisations. I have developed research skills that enable me to carry out more effectively research activities such as designing a questionnaire, gaining ethical approval, accessing the research audience – participants and informants – and collecting the research data. I have learnt to shelve my own viewpoints and predisposition and to allow research data that I handle to speak for themselves during the data analysis and the presentation, and by so doing achieve trustworthiness in the research process. On a practical note, I am now more competent in using computer programmes such SPSS and NVivo effectively to analyse qualitative and quantitative data. I have learned to use the EndNote software for referencing my work.

The taught courses of the doctoral studies and the processes of undertaking this research have provided me with greater insight and a capacity for objective critique and argument within the field of organisational leadership development. Presentation of my thoughts in an academic report was somewhat difficult at the start of the course. I felt extremely uncomfortable to write a report and use pronouns such as ‘I’ and ‘we’, considering that my academic development till now has been in the

field of science, where academic writing is completely different. Over the course of the programme, however, I enrolled on a number of academic writing courses organised by The Centre for Academic and Professional Literacies (**CAPLITS**). My writing has improved significantly over the course of the doctoral programme and I have already had this thesis accepted for publication as an academic book entitled: “Inter-organisational Collaborations and Organisational Leadership Development”. A revised version of this thesis is ready for publication by WILEY Online publishers in the *Organisational Leadership Journal*. On the whole, the course structure has supported incremental gains in the acquisition of knowledge and understanding of key concepts in organisational leadership, partnerships and experiential learning. Such deep understanding has helped to sharpen my academic as well as professional skills.

I am now fully committed to ‘open’ leadership practices within organisations, having been inspired by the work of Day (2000) and Allen and Hartman (2008) which is focused on harnessing untapped leadership skills and abilities to solve complex issues that threaten their survival and growth. I am convinced that the knowledge gained through the doctoral studies, particularly the philosophical paradigm that informs my thinking, has far-reaching consequences for the fields of organisational leadership development and partnership working.

## **Conclusion**

To conclude, the role of partnership working in all organisations and sectors in the UK and around the globe is becoming more and more important in addressing issues that threaten individual organisations. This study presents evidence that partnerships have the potential for becoming alternative means for the development of leadership at all levels of the organisation, which is crucial for securing better organisational outcomes. The different framework that emerged from the literature review, the data collection and the analysis of the findings from this research have provided

the foundation for understanding the role of partnerships for organisational leadership development.

Along the way, the time I have devoted to my doctoral studies has not been pain-free but has caused me intense gratification, changed my world-view, and shaped my life goal of contributing to human development. The resilience instilled in me as a result of the many difficulties that I have had to overcome to get this point, if and when I successfully submit this thesis and satisfy the requirements of my *viva voce*, then I indeed will appreciate that it is a doctorate, well-earned.

CHAPTER ONE:

**INTRODUCTION**

## **Chapter One**

Very often in partnerships it is difficult to locate how and where leadership is enacted. This suggests that leadership behaviours that could be developed through various partnerships may well be invisible and go unrecognised (Pettigrew, 2003, p.376)

### **Introduction**

#### **1.0 Introduction**

Developing organisational leadership through partnership activities is the focus of this study. The study investigates the key characteristics that provide a foundation for understanding how partnership activities that promote experiential learning could support organisational leadership development, particularly in schools and business organisations such as banks. The key research question is: “how do existing school-business partnerships support organisational leadership development?” The aim of the research is to advance our understanding of how partnership activities can promote experiential learning amongst schools and banks as an alternative means for organisational leadership development. There is a background to the study, which is linked to the context within which this study is positioned. The rationale and the importance of the study are discussed, followed by the assumptions and limitations envisaged and how the thesis is organised.

#### **1.1 Background to the Study**

In the contemporary organisational climate, partnerships and leadership development are noted to be critical to the survival and growth of all organisations, including schools and business organisations such as banks (Morse and Buss, 2008; Douglas, 2009). For that reason, the turn of the 21st century saw increased partnership initiatives between schools and business organisations, with over £300 billion spent on nearly 800 partnerships by United Kingdom (UK) governments – both Labour and Conservative (Iossa and Martimort, 2008; Khadaroo, 2008).

In England, four major partnership initiatives that have encouraged partnerships amongst schools and between schools and business organisations are: School Federations, Networked Learning

Communities, the Leadership Incentive Grant, and Excellence in Cities (Ainscow, Muijs and West, 2006, p.194). The purposes of these partnerships have been wide ranging but they are predominantly intended to gain joint efforts between schools and business organisations to address the nation's serious skills shortage by creating a supply of efficient workforce for all industries (Harrison, et al., 2003). For example, the Excellence in Cities programme involved the investment of huge amounts of funds to provide "learning mentors, to help students overcome educational or behaviour problems ... and a Gifted and Talented programme, to provide extra support for 5-10 per cent of pupils in each school" (Machin, McNally and Meghir, 2007, p.5) in order to harness the abilities of all students and equip them with skills needed in the labour workforce (Pettigrew, 2003).

Although the fore mentioned partnership initiatives and many other partnerships are deemed laudable for solving "wicked" issues in education, health, banking and aviation, they have not always worked and their effectiveness is highly debated (Boydell and Rugkåsa, 2007). The high level of skills shortage in the UK suggests that these partnerships have not been effective in achieving what they were intended for (Gambin, Hasluck and Hogarth, 2010). On the other hand, (Fyall and Garrod, 2005) who have researched school-business partnerships argue that a great deal of benefits can be derived from well-planned partnerships, when they are directed by strong leadership. What matters, however, is to have a concise theoretical framework to guide the purpose of the partnership activities (Muijs, Ainscow, Chapman and West, 2011).

Similarly, Morse and Buss (2006) agree that strong leadership is required for the establishment of school-business partnerships and other inter-organisational collaborations. This study, however, is focused on the premise that to derive maximum benefits from partnerships, it becomes mandatory that these partnerships focus on developing leadership at all levels of the organisations. In this study, it was identified that leadership is required to develop leadership. Thus, it takes the leadership groups



of people who have powers to make decisions about organisations classified as the primary leaders and their willingness to develop the leadership expertise of others - those classified as the secondary leaders. This study therefore seeks to investigate how school-business partnerships support organisational leadership development by developing the leadership expertise at all levels of the various organisations and to document best practices which could be applicable to other similar partnerships in other localities. Inherent in this statement is the justification for this study.

## **1.2 The Context of the Study**

The schools and the banks in this study are located in the south east of England. Documentary analysis together with conversations and informal interviews with a cross-section of the staff population and leaders as part of the pilot study revealed that the schools and the banks were faced with challenging circumstances. These organisations therefore sought to bring about reforms that would build leadership capacity at all levels. The banks were losing customers mainly because there was a lack of effective marketing and customer relations. The banks concluded that they lacked leadership in responding effectively to the multicultural background of their targeted customers. The schools experienced a long period of high staff turnover and absences of substantive head teachers to run the schools (Office for Standards in Education [Ofsted], 2002, 2003). There were several successions of leadership teams because of the daunting tasks of managing the extremely high level of student mobility – the arrival or departure of students from the schools at times other than normally set for schools – and the extremely poor behaviour of the students.

Having gained successes with previous partnerships, the schools being studied partnered with the banks. Unlike other school-business partnerships, the partnerships between these two schools and banks focused on leadership development – the development of the leadership capabilities of all staff at all levels of the organisations – with the main purpose of solving difficult organisational problems.

Five years on, the schools are reported as having cohesive staff and outstanding leadership (Ofsted, 2008). The banks have increased their customer magnitude by 4,000% and currently experience extremely low staff turnover. All the schools are now judged to be outstanding – the highest grade that can be received from Ofsted. The banks have flourished and the number of staff and customers has increased. I have been fascinated by the significant improvement seen in the schools and the banks. Therefore, I seek to explore whether the positive turning around of these schools and banks could be entirely attributable to the impact of the existing partnerships between these schools and banks on leadership development. If so, how did it happen and how can the outcomes continue to inform policies and practices in these and similar organisations in the study locale in order to solve complex organisational leadership development nuisances?

### **1.3 Nature of the Research Problem**

The nature of the problem researched was prompted by the initial literature review findings. A research conducted by Ernst and Young (2010) revealed that “60% of organisations have a leadership shortage and 66% of Chief Executive Officers (CEO) have difficulty finding people with the right skills”. Research findings by a Leadership Consultant, Antonucci (2011), disclosed that:

[organisations] are smack dab in the middle of a leadership drought, and this dearth of qualified leaders is wreaking havoc in companies large and small . . . Poor leadership at the top of the organisation are translating into millions in lost profits (p. 27).

The levels of leadership shortages in organisations are repugnant and there seems to be no optimism for remedy even in the near future. For example, in schools, the situation is set to worsen as a result of the natural turnover of the aging and retiring generation of head teachers (Howson and Sprigade, 2011). In many other organisations, leadership shortages are reported and this is aggravated by the lack of efficient planning for leadership development (Rothwell, 2010).

Even though inter-organisational collaborations such as school-business partnerships are recognised as panacea for solving complex problems within various organisations, (Skelcher, Mathur and Smith, 2005, p.573) there is no known research study that seeks to draw on the experiential learning processes for leadership development. Nonetheless, intra-organisational collaboration ((partnership working) amongst departments within the same organisation) and/or inter-organisational (between different organisations and institutions) are noted to be beneficial to the reformation of government and institutional policies which are necessary for bringing about the growth and survival of organisations (Glatter 2003).

Douglas (2009) contests that school-business partnerships can achieve their expected outcomes only when leadership in “partnership is good and lateral rather than institutional and builds a diverse workforce rather than a single group” (p.144) to offset competitive pressures and skills shortage that organisations are faced with. This means partnerships amongst organisations have the potential to support organisational leadership development by shifting the focus from the deficit model of leadership which centres on an individual leader, the head teacher or the company executive to a broader model which harnesses the leadership potential of every single member of organisations to achieve organisational goals.

Contemporary leadership theory such as transformational leadership which emphasises shared or distributed leadership within and across organisations are promoted in schools (See Hopkins and Higham, 2007; Harris, 2008) and in business organisations such as banks (Yukl, 2006). However, these theories fail to emphasise leadership as a concept that is shared and sustained amongst all the members of the organisation. Consequently, there is still an overreliance on the traditional apprenticeship leadership model where future leaders are prepared mostly by “moving up the ranks” from the lowest rank to the top rank, a model which no longer works (Daresh and Male, 2000). Such

approaches to leadership development in my view fail to harness the inherent tacit knowledge and abilities as well as creating the chance for all individuals to develop their leadership expertise in order to develop leadership potential for solving problems at every level of the organisation . For example in almost all organisations, members of staff are recruited to occupy specific positions based on their qualifications and then have to move through the ranks to become a leader (Reeve et al, 2008). The dichotomous position where organisations seek to distribute leadership by “empowering [all members of staff] to exercise personal leadership in situations and use their own authority responsibly” (Douglas, 2009, p.144) and at the same time emphasise the leadership of a few individuals is a stumbling block to achieving genuine leadership development in organisations.

Attempts to promote leadership development instead of leader development in schools and business organisations such as banks are riddled with inconsistencies mainly because such approaches, often do not take into consideration the leadership capabilities of all individuals but the number of years that members of staff have worked in an organisation (Allen and Hartman, 2008). However, the fact that an individual has worked in an organisation for a long time does not necessarily make him or her a leader. Such emphasis on developing individuals as leaders has perhaps mitigated against the efforts to achieving organisational leadership development over the last centuries.

The current situation suggests that existing leadership development programmes have failed to produce the quality of leaders required for directing the affairs of large numbers of organisations (Schleicher, 2012, p.8). This means there is the need for a paradigm shift in the quest for sustainable leadership development. The need for stronger partnerships between different sectors such as schools and business organisations to engage in leadership learning to develop leadership at all levels of organisations, including schools and business organisations, so that they (organisations) become “self-replicating” in terms of leadership development cannot be overemphasised (see Schleicher,

2012). Understanding the school–business partnership factors and how they support leadership development is the focus of the research described in this thesis.

#### **1.4 The Rationale of the Study**

The rationale for conducting this study stems from my career experiences as a country programme manager for a private organisation and later as a school leader. Whilst working in the private sector, I recognised that leadership was often deemed as a collective responsibility of all staff and as such leadership development programmes focused on developing all staff at all levels of the organisation. In the education sector, I recognised that there are shifting notions of leadership development (Bennett, Wise, Woods and Harvey, 2003), where the concept of leadership emphasises the leadership of specific individuals (leader development) rather than the leadership of all members of the organisation (leadership development). I have been concerned by the fact that leadership is generally construed as the preserve of a person, often the head teacher or, the bank executive and not necessarily the privilege that all staff at all levels of an organisation are entitled to. Unsurprisingly, existing literature purported to promote leadership development in schools and business organisation have mainly centred on leader development instead of leadership development (See Day, 2000).

One unforgettable incident that provoked my thinking into pursuing this study relates to the feedback I received from two interviews I attended for the post of vice principal in two inner-city secondary schools. The feedback indicated that I was a very strong candidate but unsuccessful because, at some points during the interview, I used the word “we” instead of “I”. My contemplation to pursue this study was endorsed when I was completing an application form to enrol on the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH), the professional leadership course which was meant for all prospective head teachers in England. The instruction for completing the form emphatically stated:

“Please do not use the word ‘We’ when describing your achievement as a leader” (NCSL, 2001, p. 1). I wondered and asked myself a rhetoric question: do leaders achieve anything on their own?

I was rather astounded by the fact that despite the efforts to develop leadership at every level in schools, such a key leadership development programme for schools renders leadership as the act of a single person which depicted leadership as egocentric, self-aggrandising and self-adoring, characteristics associated with ancient leader development models (Ladkin 2010). The literature review highlights that, traditionally, leadership development in schools and many other organisations has been defined to be synonymous with leader development. Consequently, there is a strong emphasis on developing human capital – “the expansion of a person’s capacity to be effective in leadership roles and processes” (Van Velsor and McCauley, 2004, p.2) instead of the development of “social capital – development of leadership capacity of all individuals” (Day, 2000, p.586). It is unsurprising that the findings from the pilot study showed that staff described leadership teams as “cults”, “inner-circles” and “secret societies”, connotations that depict leadership as an exclusive reserve few members of the school community, something I feel should change.

The review of empirical research, aided by systemic documentary analysis, revealed that there is growing local, national and international interest in promoting stronger school–business partnerships as a means for solving organisational quandaries. However, no attention has been drawn to studying how existing school–business partnerships could be exploited as perhaps more dynamic experiential learning approaches to leadership development. Indeed, the call for an alternative leadership development programme is deemed legitimate, considering that existing leadership development approaches have failed to secure the most wanted leadership development processes and practices in organisations including schools and banks (Morse and Buss, 2008).

The rationale for this study is to determine how school–business partnerships can serve as alternative means to promoting leadership development as a social capital in organisations and as a contribution to finding a lasting solution to leadership shortages in organisations. Specifically, the factors that make school–business partnerships successful in supporting leadership development at all levels of organisations were identified through a mixed method multiple-case research study of two banks and two schools.

### **1.5 Significance of the Study**

Leadership development and partnership studies are regarded as a worthwhile endeavour because they endorse inter-organisational relations and aid the collective efforts of harnessing human and social capital to address social issues which are insurmountable to individual organisations (Selsky and Parker, 2005, p.852). All organisations seek to secure sustainability by building their abilities to achieve their goals by ensuring “that they are not only economically viable, environmentally sound and socially equitable but will also allow future generations to do the same” (UNEP, 2011, p. 9).

The originality and the uniqueness of this study lie in the fact that there is no known study on how partnership activities promote experiential learning for organisational leadership development. The study presents formidable evidence to indicate that partnership activities that mobilise all individuals or the masses to engage in experiential learning are central to organisational leadership development. Thus, this study makes distinct contributions to the knowledge on the concept of organisational leadership development because:

1. Unlike many existing leadership development studies which rather focus on developing the leadership capabilities of individuals, this study provides evidence to show that inter-organisational collaborations such as school-business partnerships that promote experiential leadership learning can serve as the alternative mean for leadership development.

2. It identifies twenty-five (25) leadership learning approaches categories into four leadership experiences - practical, emotional, academic and spiritual experiences that helps to develop the leadership capabilities of all individuals at all levels of organisations.
3. It identifies ten (10) key elements of leadership development, all or a combination of which should be in place to secure leadership development at every level of the organisation
4. Whilst many studies tend to present the same ineffective approaches to leadership development, this study presents experiential learning through partnerships– learning by doing seeing, feeling and thinking – as alternative means but a holistic approach that enables all individuals to learn making deeper meaning of what leadership is and therefore developing a repertoire of leadership expertise to becoming effective leaders.

The significance of the study, particularly its contribution to organisational leadership development including school leadership development, cannot be over-emphasised because:

- By its very nature, it fills a knowledge gap in the leadership and partnership field as it provides a fairly new body of knowledge in the academic research field as there is no known research that seeks to adopt partnerships as alternative means to organisational leadership development.
- It identifies and categories key factors that are necessary for school–business partnerships to promote experiential leadership learning that supports leadership development.

The dearth of leadership in various organisations and throughout society is happening at a time when leadership is deemed as the most crucial element for the survival of all human institutions. This means this study which is focused on understanding how to develop the leadership expertise of all individuals in organisations to address leadership shortages and to solve organisation problems occupies a unique place in research (Dinham, Aubusson and Brady, 2006). The leadership development studies by the Wallace Foundation (2012) emphasise that “the real payoff comes when, leadership development processes ensures that the expertise of all individuals combine to reach



critical mass” (p.18). This study is therefore unique because unlike, many other leadership development are individualistic in nature and decoupled from people’s work, this study elaborates the importance of embedding leadership development processes to the context of work that individuals do in order to create the critical mass of leadership for achieving organisational outcomes (Dinham, Aubusson and Brady, 2006).

In summary, this study is significant because it provides a body of knowledge on school–business partnerships as alternative means for leadership development in organisations which is currently not available in existing literature. In the UK and globally, public and private sectors, there is renewed interest in understanding ways of securing leadership development in various organisations (Lupton, 2004, p.2). Existing leadership development programmes in schools and business organisations still focus on developing individuals to occupy leadership positions at the top.. Given that leadership at all levels of the organisation is seen as the key ingredient necessary for achieving organisational leadership development, (see Schleicher, 2012). the study findings have far wider implications for the many organisations which are struggling to secure leadership development because it draws on a far-reaching empirical and theoretical approach to present partnerships as a means for ensuring that there is a “constant flow of leadership” in organisations .

## **1.6 Research Questions**

To achieve the overarching aim of advancing our understanding of organisational leadership development processes through partnership activities that promote experiential learning amongst schools and banks as an alternative means for organisational leadership development, this study adopted multiple case studies and a mixed method research approach to understand and to answer the main questions: "how does school-business partnership support organisational development" through the following sub-questions:

- 1) What prompted the need to engage in school–business partnership(s)?
- 2) Why did you choose partnership as a means for leadership development?
- 3) What are the main partnership activities undertaken as a means to leadership development?
- 4) How did the partnership activities impact on leadership development?

These research sub-questions are intended to progressively help to increase our understanding of how school–business partnerships could serve as alternative means to organisational leadership development in diverse organisations.

A mixed method, multiple case study design is used as a line of enquiry to explore these questions (see chapter 3) because of its ability to capture a time-framed picture of ‘how’ and ‘why’ partnership activities in four sub-cases, two schools and two banks, can impact on leadership development (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007; De Vaus, 2004, p.11). Semi-structured interviews were adopted for the qualitative inquiry and structured questionnaires for quantitative approach. The interview and survey questionnaires were used to offer comprehensive and multiple sources of evidence for understanding how partnerships can support leadership development in the chosen contexts (Yin, 1984: p .23). The focus of this study is therefore deemed valid as it provides novice knowledge to fill the knowledge gap in existing organisational leadership development programmes. The educational and business policy decision-making and its relevance to organisations leadership development, and the lack of conclusive empirical evidence on how leadership development can be achieved, make an in-depth study of the research topic particularly important.

In this study, school–business partnerships are defined as mutually supportive arrangements between a business and a school, often in the form of a written contract, in which the school and the business organisation commit themselves to specific goals and activities intended to be equally beneficial to them (McDonald et al, 1990, p.21). Experiential learning is defined as the process of making meaning from direct experience through seeing, thinking, feeling and doing specific activities and developing knowledge, attitudes and perceptions through the internalisation of new ideas (Kolb

1998). Leadership development connotes the idea of developing both human and social capital where all personnel at all levels of the organisations are developed as leaders who are capable of performing various organisational leadership activities (Day, 2000, p. 583). These definitions (of the concepts) inform the assumptions for this study.

The key study finding is that school-business partnerships that promote experiential learning can support organisational leadership development. The underlying factor, however is that such partnerships should involve organisations with similar needs and desperate to tackle obstacles that threaten their survival. Additionally, the study findings show that tangible results can be achieved only when the partnership activities have run for not less than five years. To attain organisational leadership development, the partnership arrangements should secure the loyalty of each member of the organisation to engage with the partnership activities in order to provide spiritual, emotional, academic and emotional experiences through different learning approaches such as mentoring, symposia, networking and reflections. Thus, when all members of staff are equipped with the skills, experiences and knowledge to perform leadership duties and to engage in organisational decision-making processes then this will likely to result in organisational leadership development.

### **1.7 Hypothesis**

Based on existing literature, the study hypothesizes that school-business partnerships are desirable and mutually beneficial for leadership development. Since this study is situated in the pragmatic phenomenological theory which is concerned with how individuals link practice and theory and apply experiences to create meaning in the world around us, the information provided by informants were accepted as truthful based on their knowledge and experiences of how the school-business partnerships could support leadership development.

## **1.8 Limitations of the Study**

The study was limited to two cases of partnerships activities and, therefore, the findings may not be generalised to the whole population. However, the findings provide rich insights of the extent to which school-business partnerships and perhaps other forms of partnership could contribute to leadership development in different organisations in the study locale.

## **1.9 Organisation of the Study**

The thesis is organised into six chapters. The first chapter introduces the study by giving an overview of the background and rationale for the study. The significance and the aims of the study are followed by a succinct overview of the context of how the partnerships between the schools and the banks were implemented and what the study seeks to achieve..

Chapter 2 contains a brief review of the literature associated with the concepts and theories of partnership, leadership and leadership development and highlights academic and research subjects that are relevant to the topic, since any new work should be situated in existing academic and research literature (Oliver, 2004). There is a theoretical framework, which explores the extent to which partnership activities could support leadership development.

The research methodology applicable to the study is discussed in chapter 3. The chapter discusses why a multiple case study mixed method approach is adopted and the epistemological and ontological assumptions underlying this study. Theoretical and practicable issues of data collection are explored. Chapter 3 debates the strengths and shortcomings of the research design, trustworthiness, data collection and analysis procedures. The ethical guidelines that steered the research procedures are also considered.

Chapter 4 focuses on the analysis and presentation of data from two case studies of school-business partnerships intended to provide insights into how leadership development is achieved in two schools and two banks in the south east of England. The chapter provides the demography of respondents and the organisational contexts followed by four sections that answer each research question through the combination of direct quotations from the interviews together with numerical data from questionnaires to allow the data to speak for itself and depict respondents' real situations and interests (Crotty, 2003; Kearney, 2003). The findings are discussed to identify the emerging and major patterns and themes in the data that are common across the cases and identifying differences between the cases. The discussions take consideration of how the findings relate to existing research on leadership development.

Chapter 5 discusses further the findings in relation to the initial theories discussed in the literature review and the methodology used. This section provides further insight into how specific partnership activities contribute to leadership development by giving a general explanation of the case study results.

Chapter 6 provides a summary of the main findings of the research, and gives an account of the significance and limitations of the study. The findings are teased out of the analysis of the research data to explain the contributions made by this thesis to setting up partnerships for leadership development. The chapter also gives the implications of this study on future research, policy and practice and discusses the researcher's reflections on the whole research process.

CHAPTER TWO:  
**LITERATURE REVIEW**

## **Chapter Two**

*Calls for reforming leadership preparation have been voiced by professional associations, policymakers and educational faculty themselves (Jean-Marie and Normone, 2010, xi).*

### **Literature Review**

#### **2.0 Introduction**

This chapter reiterates the aim of this study which is to advance knowledge and understanding of how inter-organisational collaborations such as school-business partnerships that promote experiential learning serve as alternative means for organisational leadership development. The aim of the study is strongly supported by calls by professional organisations, policymakers and educational research institutions to reform organisational leadership development processes (Jean-Marie and Normone, 2010, xi). To answer the research question, this study reviews existing literature on the concepts such as leadership, leadership development, experiential learning and inter-organisational collaborations mainly school-business partnerships. The inclusion of these concepts serve as a vehicle for developing a conceptual framework for understanding how school-business partnerships support leadership development with different organisation.

The existing literature on the concepts of leadership and partnerships is inevitably voluminous, and this study does not claim to present an extensive review of the works relating to the shifting notion of leadership and partnership. The study, however aims to present the key findings from a review of relevant literature on the concept and theories of partnership and leadership, and provide an account of partnership activities that promote experiential leadership learning as an alternative means to organisational leadership development. Additionally, there is a discussion of leadership development as a concept and a theoretical framework that establishes the impact of partnerships on leadership development (Day, 2000; Bolden 2004; Selsky and Parker, 2005; Muijs, Ainscow, Chapman and West, 2011).

## 2.1 Exploring the Concept of Leadership

Jean-Marie and Normone, (2010) recommend that any research effort that is focused on responding to the calls for reforming leadership development in organisations, should explore the concept of leadership to provide a formidable basis for how the research studies should proceed. A review of several literature on the concept of leadership in the Western culture reveals that the concept has its roots in the early civilisation of biblical patriarchs and the Egyptian rulers (Lee, 1955; Stone and Patterson, 2005). This means ‘leadership’ is not a new concept (van Maurik, 2001) but timeless and “woven into the fabric of writing throughout the ages” (Abra, Hunter, Smith and Kempster, 2003, p.2), inundating all societies and cultures. Cuban (1988) reviewed literature on the concept of leadership and identified “more than 350 definitions of leadership” (p.190). An exhaustive discourse on the concept of leadership is beyond the scope of this study mainly because no-one seems to know exactly how many definitions there are presently (Ciulla, 2003; Selsky and Parker, 2005). A review of a selection of definitions of leadership as applied to all organisations, is however pertinent here.

### 2.1.1 Defining Leadership

Yukl (2006) reviews definitions of leadership from 1957 to 1999 and defined it [leadership] as “a process whereby intentional influence is exerted by one person over others in order to guide, structure and facilitate organisational activities and relationships” (p.7). His review provided a platform for subsequent evaluations of the concept of leadership. A cross-section of these definitions are given and discussed below.

**Table 2.1: Definitions of the Concept of Leadership**

Leadership is defined as:

1. A set of processes that create organisations in the first place or adapt them to significantly changing circumstances (Kotter, 1990, p.25).
2. The development of vision and strategies, the alignment of relevant people behind those strategies, and the empowerment of individuals to make the vision happen, despite obstacles (Kotter, 1999, p.10).



3. The process of enlisting and guiding the talents and energies of teachers, pupils and parents towards achieving common educational aims (Chance and Chance, 2002, p.23).
  4. A process of influence that involves...articulation of vision at every opportunity...to share the vision in order to achieve desired purposes (Bush and Glover, 2003, p.8).
  5. Leaders and the management team in a school community learning together and constructing meaning and knowledge collectively and collaboratively to accomplish goals, but not necessarily organisational goals (Harris and Lambert, 2003, p.21).
  6. Influence, power and the legitimate authority gained by a leader in an organisation to be able to change the organisation effectively through the direction of the human resources, leading to the achievement of set goals (Armstrong, 2004, p.233).
  7. A process through which leaders influence the attitudes, behaviours and values of followers by means of communication in an organisation to focus their attention on achieving the organisational goals (Cyert, 2006, p.15).
  8. Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal (Northouse, 2010, p.3).
- 

These definitions are included because they are prominent in existing literature on leadership and help to situate this study in the organisational leadership development field. The definitions above highlight that the notion of leadership is often defined based on the values, beliefs and attitudes of people from different cultures. Consequently, leadership is defined by the personalities of a person or persons and features such as trait, behaviour, style, relationship or as a process. Some researchers consider leadership as a process (Rost, 1993; Bryman, 1992; Hickman, 1998), as a transactional event that occurs between leaders and followers (Hughes, Ginnet and Curphy, 2002; Northouse, 2004) or as an influence (Yukl, 2006).

Additionally, leadership is defined by characteristics such as vision, influence, power, authority and behaviours that tend to coordinate the actions of individuals and groups. A closer examination of the definitions in existing literature emphasise the idea that leadership is situated in leaders instead of as the collective effort of all individuals in organisations. Northouse (2004) argues that leadership is reliant on personal qualities because leaders are born and not made. Thus, no matter the

organisational context, leadership as a concept is largely defined from an individualistic perspective that emphasises the actions of a person that are intended to exert influence on others and align their behaviours to the vision of the leader. On the other hand, Saal and Knight (1988) highlight that leaders are made because leadership is a product of collective leadership methods that are taught, learned and caught; and argue for dispersed and corporate leadership in organisations.

Many of the definitions of leadership given in existing literature, seems to be repetition of the concept in slightly different forms and in different organisational contexts. As a result, there is lack of consensus on what leadership really is. Sirotnik and Kimball (1996, p.3) argues that leadership does not change just because it is qualified by the terms such as ‘school leadership’ or ‘organisational leadership’, because the concept is similar in, and applicable to, all organisations. This observation is at variance with the outcomes of Yukl’s (2006) review, which still concluded that leadership is more about intrapersonal and interpersonal processes, where an individual persuades a group of individuals to implement strategies to achieve collective goals.

Due to the overemphasis on the individualistic view of the concept of leadership, there have been many calls from professional associations, policymakers and educational faculties to shift attention from debating the concept of leadership and invest all energies on how it can be developed to embrace the masses (Jean-Marie and Normone, 2010, xi). It is for this reason that this study focuses on understanding how inter-organisational collaborations which promote experiential learning can serve as an alternative means for organisational leadership development. Previous efforts in understanding the concept of leadership and how it can be developed has resulted in many organisational leadership theories. The main theories that relate to this study and helps to understand previous efforts to achieve organisational leadership development have been briefly discussed below.

## 2.1 Organisational Leadership Theories

A critical review of established leadership theories reveals four main building blocks – Early, Behavioural, Situational-Contingency and Contemporary theories.

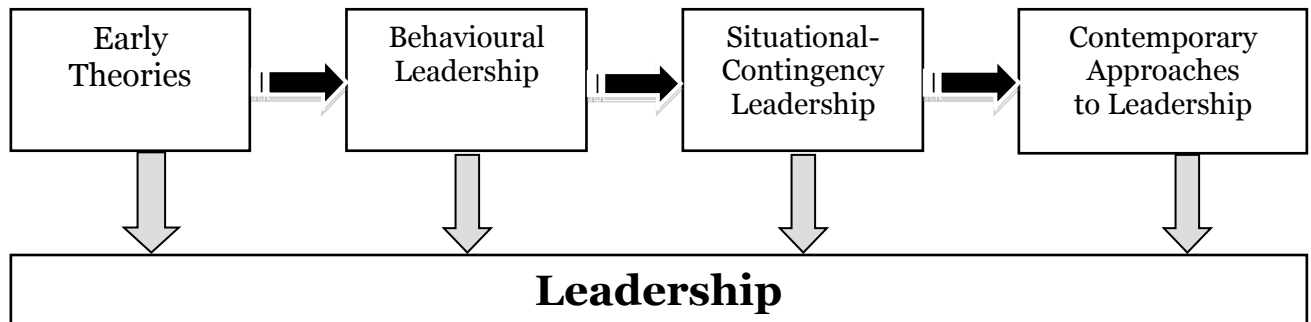


Figure 2.2: Building blocks of leadership research (Stephanov, Shrives and Nichol, 2007, p.14)

Whilst the notion of leadership is said to have gone through stages, with one leadership theory yielding to another, recent literature shows that none of the “four generations of leadership theories’ is mutually exclusive or totally time-bound” (van Maurik, 2001, pp.2–3). Each theory seems to have evolved out of progressive thinking on previous theories in the effort to understand how leadership can be developed. Nonetheless, each of the theories emphasise leader development instead of leadership development (see fig 2.1 above).

### 2.1.3 Review of Leadership Theories

It is arguable that new theories of leadership shape up older theories whilst older theories smooth out the newer theories. While the theories described below depict a genuine effort to develop leadership at every level of the organisations, these theories still uphold the more traditional and individualistic view of leadership which emphasises the role of leaders.

**Table 2.2: Summary of Leadership Theories**

<b>Leadership Theories</b>	<b>Summarised Description of Leadership Theories</b>
<b>The Great Man</b>	This theory proposes that leaders are extraordinary men born with great innate abilities and destined to lead when the occasion arises (Carlyle, 1888). It has its roots in the military model and the Western Culture, which recognised men as superiors over women (Bolden, 2003).
<b>Trait</b>	This theory identifies leaders based on specific traits, such as personality, ambitions, motives, values, intelligence, skills and zest for life (Stogdill, 1948; Hersey and Blanchard, 1982). However, no differences exist in the qualities that leaders and followers possess (Wright, 1996).
<b>Behaviourist</b>	This theory categorises behaviours into leadership styles, such as autocratic, democratic, coercive, affiliative, authoritative and coaching. This was the first theory that emphasised that the actions of leaders did not necessarily occur because they were born leaders (Robbins, 1998). This theory tended to promote management and not necessarily leadership Blake and Mouton’s Managerial Grid (1964; 1978).
<b>Situational</b>	The theory did not propose one single leadership style as the best to address issues, but that situations within organisations, such as experience, relevant education and the ability to complete tasks, determine the most appropriate leadership style to draw on (Hersey and Blanchard, 1996).
<b>Contingency</b>	Diverse forms of the contingency theory exist. The main idea behind this theory is that there is no universal best way of leading, and that a leadership style effective in one situation may not necessarily be successful in others (Fiedler, 1964), based on internal and external conditions within the organisation (Vroom and Yetton, 1973).
<b>Transactional</b>	The theory was first described by Max Weber in 1947, then by James McGregor Burns (1978) and Bernard Bass (1981). It is based on hierarchical relationships, which require leaders to clarify goals and communicate performance expectations to their employees, and expecting employees’ cooperation through the exchange of rewards to ensure that organisational goals are achieved. This theory is results-oriented and emphasises the ability to control structures and processes and solve problems within the existing structures (Bass, 1998).
<b>Transformational</b>	This theory concerned “establishing a long-term vision, empowering people through coaching, to meet the challenges and the culture to change” (Marturano, Wood and Gosling, 2005, p.14). Leaders draw on their charisma to motivate all employees to work towards achieving organisational goals. The relationship between the leader and the followers is based on trust, concern and facilitation, rather than direct control.

For example, the “Great Man” theory did and still advances the view that it is only specific men with extraordinary abilities who could become leaders of organisations. All women and other men with no observable special capabilities could not become leaders. Out of the “Great Man”

theory arose the Trait Approach which sets a list of leadership traits such as ambition, cooperation, assertiveness, decisiveness and being energetic as well as other skills including intelligence, persuasiveness and tactfulness, as the measure of identifying leaders.

The Trait theory predisposes that it is individuals with such special traits that could be engaged and enrolled into leadership positions in organisations (Bolden, Gosling, Marturano and Dennison, 2003). Although, the “Great Man” and Trait leadership approaches are often associated with primeval understanding of leadership and commonly used in military and kingship, in contemporary times, these theories are still used as a set of criteria for selecting Chief Executives for corporations and head teachers for schools (Hernez-Broome and Hughes, 2004). The approaches to selecting individuals based on traits are however flawed, in the sense that the list of leadership traits seems to be unending, difficult to measure and inconclusive. Additionally, there are many examples of people who were disregarded as leaders because they demonstrated no observable leadership characteristics, however, when given the chance, these individuals have demonstrated excellent leadership in ensuring organisational growth and survival.

Consequently, the behaviour strategy [not ‘truly’ a leadership theory] emerged as an alternative leadership approach which focused on how to build relationships in managing people and their performances in order to secure the desired output within organisations (Robbins, 1998). One aspect of this strategy (Theory X) is based on the fact that human beings possess an inherent abhorrence for work or responsibility to achieve organisational goals and will avoid it (work) if possible (*ibid*). . To get people to work to achieve organisational outcomes, the leader has to adopt autocratic leadership style to direct, coerce or threaten workers with punishment (Blake and Mouton, 1978).

The other strategy (Theory Y) is based on the principle that when motivating organisational environment exist, people will accept responsibility and exercise self-direction, self-control and ingenuity to achieve organisational objectives because commitment to work is as natural to the average person as play or rest (Robbins, 1998). This strategy (Theory Y) is based on the assumption that the leader would adopt a more participative style to utilize the intellectual competences of the people to solve organisational problems (Blake and Mouton, 1978). There is, however, little understanding on what constitute efficient leadership behaviours for different situations.

The situational theory emerged and it was based on the idea that there is no ideal personality or single best style of leadership but that the most effective leadership style is determined by three situational factors: the leader-members relations, task structure and position powers in a given organisational context (Northouse, 2004, p.3). According to Hackman and Craig (2009), “the situational theory which is similar and almost the same as the contingency model assumes that the style of a leader is fixed and that the leader cannot be sensitive to task and followers concurrently” (p.107). Leaders are classified as either relationship motivated or task-motivated. Relationship-motivated leaders are more concerned with fostering close interpersonal relationships while task-motivated leaders are firmly focused on achieving established goals (Vroom and Jago, 2007).

In relation to task structure, Northouse 2001 posits that “tasks that are completely structured tend to give more control to the leader, whereas vague and unclear tasks lessen the leader’s control and influence” (p.76). Thus, structured tasks are based on clearly stated guidelines and requirements which those required to perform them (the tasks) are familiar with. Borkowski (2005) indicates that a task could be rated as highly structured if the path to completing the task is simple with a few alternatives and completion of the task can be easily verified. Contrarily, a leader is said to have

strong position power if the “he has the authority to hire or fire; promote others or increase pay; but the leader is weak if he does not have the right to do these things” (Northouse, 2001, p.77).

Although the foundation of the situational-contingency approach to leadership is validated by the findings of many research studies as a key factor to organisational development, Robbins (2003) points out that the key variables of task structure, power and relationships are difficult to measure in practice and may be dependable on intuition rather than on measurement. Northouse (2001) contests that the situational-contingency theory fails to fully explain why leaders with particular leadership styles are more effective in some situations than others in the real-world settings. Consequently, transactional and transformational leadership theories evolved.

The primary difference between these two distinct types of leadership – transactional and transformational – is in relation to what leaders and followers offer one another. Stephanov et al (2007) explain that transactional leadership is mainly concerned with the proper exchange of resources. Northouse (2001, p.131) highlights that transformational leadership is an all-rounded approach which encompasses visionary and charismatic leadership style in particular as much as draws on wider range of leadership styles to influence followers and the organisation as a whole.

Even though, both Bass (1998) and Burn (1978) theorise that transactional and transformational leadership seek to move followers from self-interest to pursuing organisational goals, missing from their research, however, is an explanation for how the organisation culture and processes influence the way transactional or transformational leaders act. That is, there is lack of framework for understanding the motivational states or personality traits that underpins these two types of leadership. A closer look at the theories outlined in Table 2.1 above reveals an overemphasis on ‘leader-follower’ relationships. Bolden, Gosling, Marturano and Dennison (2003) contest that,

despite the evolutionary trends in leadership theories, each of the existing theories still takes the “individualistic perspective of the leader, although a school of thought gaining increasing recognition in contemporary times is that of ‘dispersed’ leadership” (p.6).

The concept of dispersed or distributed leadership is closely related to system leadership, which is concerned with “a shift from competition to collaboration and from top-down control to organisational autonomy” (Hopkins, 2009). The notion of dispersed leadership primarily recognises that every individual at every level of the organisation or society can lead, and recommends for the mobilisation and development of leadership at every level and not just at the top of organisation (Harris, 2002). Distributed leadership emphasise the idea that leadership is not exerted by the ‘Ideal Leader’, such as the head teacher or bank executive, but diffused throughout the organisation to achieve organisational goals (Harris, 2002; Pont, Nusche and Moorman, 2008).

Yukl’s (2002), on the other hand highlights that leadership is more about intrapersonal and interpersonal processes, where an individual develops a wide range of leadership expertise, able to manage himself/herself when interacting with others and negotiates what to do to achieve collective goals. Day (2000) illuminates that ‘true’ leadership development is more about interpersonal processes, however intrapersonal promote leader development.

Watt (2003) quoted Woyach (1993) to contest that, leadership can be developed when there are systems in place in organisations to develop and harness the expertise of all individuals through interpersonal and interpersonal relations because “young or old, assertive or quiet, a man or a woman possess the innate abilities to perceive leadership as a combination of experiences” (p.4). Therefore, by mobilising the knowledge and understanding of all individuals and drawing on their innate



abilities, through partnerships between organisations such as schools and banks, we can come to grasp with what leadership really means and how it can be developed.

Zimmerman and Burkhardt (2000) clarify that all contemporary leadership theories recognise experiential leadership learning as the key approach for organisational leadership development.

Kolb (1984) outline the concept of experiential learning as:

A process that often begins with a person carrying out an action and seeing the effects of the action; the second step is to understand the effects of the action. The third step is to understand the action, and the last step is to modify the action given a new situation (p.11).

This description of experiential learning reveals leadership can be developed within organisations when individuals willingly engage with collaborative learning processes and gain opportunities for performing leadership activities, evaluating their actions and recognising their effects and applying the lessons learnt in the same and/or different contexts.

The difficulty, however, lies in the ability of organisations to mobilise all individuals to engage with leadership learning. Existing research shows that inter-organisational collaboration and partnerships which promote experiential learning can help to mobilise people from diverse backgrounds and harness their expertise for organisational leadership development (Muijs, Ainscow, Chapman and West, 2011). This study is therefore focused on responding to the call for reforming organisational leadership processes with the understanding that alternative approaches such as partnership and inter-organisational collaboration activities can mobilise all the members of the different organisations to engage in experiential learning for organisational leadership development. To proceed with this study, it becomes essential to explore the existing literature on the concepts of partnerships.

## **2.2 Exploring the Concept of Inter-organisational Collaboration and Partnerships**

Inter-organisational collaborations which are arrangements amongst individuals, businesses, schools and governments often termed as partnerships (Armistead, Pettigrew and Aves, 2007) are commonplace and come in various forms. Several partnership arrangements exist because as social beings, humans have sought work together to harness resources to advance their mutual interests and benefits (Douglas, 2009). Douglas (2009) stresses that partnerships form the basis of human existence and daily interactions and are found in every single organisation or sector. For example, a partnership can be formed between a school and a business organisation—school-business partnerships—or between one or more organisations which work together to achieve a purpose - sharing profits and losses.

The existing literature reveals a long history of business sector involvement in the establishment and management of schools. For example, the early merchants are known to have worked with philosophers and priests to establish the first-known formal group of schools, the Talmudic Academies in Babylon (currently Iraq), from 589 BC to 1038 BC (Graetz, 1893; Falagas, Zarkadoulia, and Samonis, 2006; Rosenberg 2007). Records show that businessmen supported churches with substantial levels of financial and human resources and visionary leadership in the establishment of the first known extant school, The King's School, Canterbury, in AD 597, and other schools across Africa (Egypt), Europe and America (Green, 1990; Mortimore, 1999).

Currently, there are huge number of different types of school-business partnerships and overall, the term 'partnership' is variously defined. A cross-section of the definitions of partnership is provided in Table 2.3 below in an attempt to illuminate our understanding of the meaning of the concept. The observation which is common to all the definitions of partnerships given above (Table 2.3) is the notion of mutual relationships, and collaborative working amongst organisations to draw on existing

capacity and capabilities to solve difficult issues, resulting in a win-win situation for both or all of the partners. However, existing literature highlights that the extent of this mutuality is extensively debated and generally unknown.

**Table 2.3: Definitions of the Concept of Partnership**

Partnership, including the school-business partnership, is defined as:

1. Mutually supportive arrangements between a school and a business [organisation], often in the form of a written contract, in which the partners [the school and the business] commit themselves to specific goals and activities intended to be equally beneficial to schools and/or the business organisations (McDonald et al., 1990, p.21).
2. A cross-sector alliance in which individuals, groups or organisations agree to work together to fulfil an obligation or undertake a specific task; share the risk as well as the benefits; and review the relationship regularly, revising their agreement as necessary (Tennyson, 1998, p.7).
3. A thoughtfully created, value-added and mutually beneficial relationship between consenting entities/organisations that is nurtured over time and leads to measurable results (World Bank Development Forum, 1999).
4. As...voluntary and collaborative relationships between various parties, both State and non-State, in which all participants agree to work together to achieve a common purpose or undertake a specific task and to share risks, responsibilities, resources, competencies and benefits (UN, 2003, p.4).
5. Mutually beneficial relationships between employers, educators and/or other stakeholders as partners—including, for example, communities, labour or governments—designed to enhance learning for students and other learners (Conference Board of Canada, 2003, p.6).
6. A form of cooperation between public authorities and the world of business, which aims to ensure the funding, construction, renovation, management or maintenance of an infrastructure or the provision of a service<sup>1</sup> (The Commission of the European Communities, 2004, p.3).
7. A cross-sector, inter-organisational group, working together under some form of recognised governance, towards common goals which would be extremely difficult, if

---

<sup>1</sup> Commission of the European Communities Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions. Mobilising private and public investments for recovery and long-term structural change: developing Public-Private Partnerships. Brussels, 19.11.2009 COM(2009) 615 final.

not impossible, to achieve if tackled by any single organisation (Armistead, Pettigrew and Aves, 2007, p.212).

8. Any organisation that exists, wholly or in part, to enable employers to work in partnership with education [schools] as a contribution to young people's education and their journey to a successful adulthood (DCSF, 2008, p.4).
- 

A critical examination of the definitions given above in Table 2.3 above indicates that the term 'partnership' has been used interchangeably with other terms, such as 'mutual aid', 'cooperation', 'collaborative advantage', 'collaborations', 'coalition', 'linkages', 'networking', 'interagency working' or 'alliances', often in similar and different contexts (Himmelman, 2002; Jupp, 2003). The new term 'e-twinning' carries the notion of partnerships between towns, schools and organisations that share a common purpose (Galvin et al., 2006). The difficulty, however, is that the more different words are used to describe 'partnership', the more vaguer the it's [partnership] meaning becomes (Himmelman, 1994). Douglas (2009) argues that because the term 'partnership' is described interchangeably does not change the meaning and the purpose that it serves.

### **2.2.1 Defining the Concept of Partnership**

Partnership as a concept is problematic as it takes into account the "geographical positions...of organisations; the level and focus of work" (Carnwell and Carson, 2005, p.12), the purpose and the actors involved (Rein et al., 2005) or the context, culture, organisation, purpose and expected outcomes (Himmelman, 2002). Because of such variance in meaning, Glendinning, Hudson and Hardy (2002) described partnerships as "largely a rhetorical invocation of a vague ideal" (p.3), and advocated that the concept should be abandoned. However, Carnwell and Carson (2005) stress that although defining 'partnership' as a concept is difficult, the benefits that organisations derive from it are obvious. As with the concept of leadership, there is insufficient scope in this study to discuss in detail the various definitions of partnership, but a selection is given to direct the course of this study.

The definitions of the concept of partnership given in the Table 2.3 above indicate that the concept is defined from the political and economic viewpoint as well as from the education, health and banking perspectives. The common characteristics of partnerships are critical thinking and careful planning. This means that partnership arrangements require partners to think critically, plan and agree on the objectives and expected outcomes that meet the interests of all parties.

The existing literature debates whether difficulties in establishing mutual partnership agreements can be resolved. However, Douglas (2009) highlights that if at the start of inter-organisational partnership arrangements, the organisations set out clearly the expected outcomes, document and adhere to an agreement then mutuality and mutual benefits can be achieved. Such an agreement should include the specific roles of each partner and the resources necessary for helping each organisation to perform its roles (Muijs, Ainscow, Chapman and West, 2011). Kisner, Mazza and Liggett (2002) establish that through "...a continued cooperative effort or agreement to collaborate to generate ideas or to pool resources for an acceptable set of purposes, mutuality can be achieved" (p.23). Partnerships offer the prospect of unifying energies to optimise the allocation of resources to overcome development challenges, which overwhelm individual persons or organisations, to achieve mutually beneficial results (World Economic Forum, 2003; Otiso, 2003).

Thus, partnerships may involve the investment of resources to secure efficient organisational operations. However, the allocation of resources should not be a measure for one partner to be classified as superior over the other. Despite this viewpoint, a review of contemporary academic literature indicates that there are several cases of superiority-inferiority relationships within diverse partnership arrangements where the superior partner gains and the inferior partner loses out (Douglas, 2009). Waddock (1991) argues that in the ideal partnership all partners lose or gain and none of the partners is superior or inferior. Additionally, a review of the definitions given above

reveals that partnerships are voluntary arrangements with no one individual or organisation pressured into an agreement, if a commitment to achieve a common purpose is to be secured. Voluntary arrangements are essential to “build relationships based on key behaviours such as trust, respect, loyalty, risk-taking and reciprocity” (Lowndes and Sullivan, 2004, p.64). The emergence of several definitions for the term “partnership” has resulted in many theories of the concept (Muijs, Ainscow, Chapman and West, 2011). A number of theories that relate to this study are discussed below.

### **2.2.2 Review of Theories of Partnership**

Existing literature reveals that several partnership theories including ‘open systems’, ‘social capital’ and ‘constructivism’ are used in the education and banking sectors (Douglas, 2009; Muijs, Ainscow, Chapman and West, 2011). These theories are equally applicable to concepts of leadership (Bilhuber Galli and Müller-Stewens, 2012) and experiential learning (Kolb, 1998). This interrelationship supports the idea that partnership activities can promote experiential learning experiences as perhaps the best way of developing leadership in organisations.

The open system theory is based on the idea that all organisations are distinct, at least because of the environment in which they operate and the unique problems they seek to solve (Harvey, 2005). However, when organisations are focused on keeping their distinctive nature, they become excluded from the essential global reforms and fail to compete successfully in the global market (Carnwell and Carson, 2005). This theory is based on the premise that organisations are divided into subsystems, with each system capable of engaging in partnerships with other subsystems within the same or different organisations (Harvey, 2005). This means that in an organisation several partnerships may exist that influence the environment within the organisation operates. This may, in the least influence or change the distinctiveness of organisations to compete well.

The open theory reiterates that in partnerships, individual organisations should strive to keep their distinctive nature whilst at the same time embracing reforms that will give them competitive advantage (Carnwell and Carson, 2005). Harvey (2005) argues that what some organisations promote as the distinctive nature could be detrimental to their survival. This means organisations should continuously review what constitutes 'distinctiveness' and embrace practices such as the development of leadership development to enable them to compete distinctively with other organisations.

Although similar to the open systems theory, the constructivist theory is concerned with the way organisations seek to make sense, given that each organisation has its own unique perception of what constitutes reality (Uhlik, 2007). The different perceptions that organisations hold have made it difficult for a common agreement on what leadership really is and this state of affairs determines how each organisation pursues leadership development (Yukl 2006). Equally the perceptions that each organisation holds about what constitutes reality could prevent them from understanding and appreciating the 'true meaning' of what leadership really is (Uhlik, 2007). This is because organisations could be stuck in their way of operation and fail to consider other viewpoints about key concepts such as leadership which are essential for organisational survival (*ibid*).

For example, when organisations have the perception that developing human capital (i.e developing specific individuals as leaders) is the best way to achieve organisational goals, it is likely that such organisations will fail to engage with the idea of social capital (i.e developing the leadership capabilities of all individuals) as a means of achieving organisational leadership development (Day, 2000). This means that partnership activities that are focused on developing leadership in organisations should first of all focus on shifting perceptions within organisations from leader development onto leadership development in order to achieve expected outcomes.

The idea of human capital is concerned with the development of the knowledge, skills, and abilities of individuals to think and operate in new ways with regards to recognised leadership roles (Daily et al., 2002; Yukl, 2006). Many organisations emphasise the development of human capital (leader development) by harnessing and investing in the leadership potential of all individuals to achieve competitive advantage (Bilhuber Galli and Müller-Stewens, 2012). Nonetheless, the utilization of human capital has focused on building the intrapersonal competences such as “self-awareness (emotional awareness, self confidence), self-regulation (self-control), and self-motivation (commitment, initiative, optimism)” of individual people for leader development instead interpersonal qualities such as “shared responsibility, teamwork and collective vision” of leadership development (Day 2000, p.586).

However, the selective development of leadership expertise of specific individual means that the leadership expertise of other individuals which are not obvious would go unnoticed and unexploited to support organisational development and survival (Bilhuber Galli and Müller-Stewens, 2012). Day (2000), however argues that the development of human capital can be translated into social capital that is necessary for leadership development. This is possible when all individuals who demonstrate distinct leadership abilities are selected to sharpen their skills and are assigned to support and develop the leadership skills of all other peoples in the organisation (Day, 2000).

Bilhuber Galli and Müller-Stewens (2012) emphasise that social capital promote the realization of inter-organisation synergies which play a particularly important role, for designing strategies that enable the necessary inter-organisational collaboration activities. Social capital is concerned with the development of relational and cognitive abilities (trust and shared meaning in terms of goal orientation and values) of all individuals of organisations in achieving organisational goals (Day 2000). Bilhuber Galli and Müller-Stewens (2012) stresses that the process of organisational



leadership development is “not context-independent and require social embedding, i.e. social capital [which needs to] be activated, deployed, and developed” (p.177).

Although, existing literature contest the possibilities of mobilising social capital, contemporary studies have revealed that social capital can be activated and developed by “building networked relationships among individuals that enhance cooperation and resource exchange in creating organizational value” (Day, 2000, p.585). In contrast to human capital approach to leadership development, social capital oriented leadership development approaches, focus on developing the leadership expertise of all the members of organisations by utilising the interrelations for social awareness (e.g., empathy and political awareness) and social skills (e.g., collaboration, building bonds, team orientation and conflict management) (Bilhuber Galli and Müller-Stewens, 2012).

In sum, the theory of social capital is concerned with accessing resources such as knowledge that help build capacity and capabilities of all individuals within organisations and for spreading innovation for organisational development (Day, 2000). From the discussions above, it becomes evident that both human and social capital are essential for leadership development. However, the exploitation and management of knowledge in developing leadership at every level of the organisation requires special attention.

According to Easterby-Smith and Lyles (2003) knowledge is often defined as justified personal belief which lies in different minds of people. Often the knowledge which lies in the minds of people remain untapped because organisations fail to bring their members together to engage in activities that would allow them to use their knowledge and skills to solve organisational problems (*ibid*). However, partnership arrangements can serve as the media to bring people together so that organisations can harness their knowledge and skills to solve complex issues and to increase

organisational effectiveness.

There are two main types of knowledge - 'tacit' and 'explicit' knowledge (Collins, 2010). Collins (2010) expounds that tacit knowledge dwells in the minds of people and it is often impossible, or difficult, to articulate, capture and manage for the benefit of organisations and societies. Explicit knowledge, however, exists in the form of words, sentences, documents and organised data such as text, audio or video. Explicit knowledge is mainly derived from the interaction of tacit knowledge in the minds of people which is "laboriously developed over a long period of time through trial and error, and it is underutilised" (King, 2008, p.3) because the organisation often do not know how to harness and manage this knowledge. Easterby-Smith and Lyles (2003) explains that. "knowledge management which involves the planning, organising, motivating and controlling of people, processes and systems in the organisation to ensure that its knowledge-related assets are improved and effectively employed to solve organisational deficits" (p.31).

Vicere (2002) reveals that knowledge is best captured and managed through partnerships and inter-organisational collaborations. From this viewpoint, school-business partnerships that promote experiential learning become one of the important ways in which the organisation can sustainably improve its utilisation and management of knowledge about leadership that lies in the minds of members of different organisations for leadership development (Oliver and Kandadi, 2006). It is therefore crucial that schools and business organisations develop an in-depth understanding of the concept of school-business partnerships in order to enable them to harness, utilize and manage knowledge that their members possess for organisational leadership development.

### **2.2.3 The Concept of School-Business Partnerships**

School-business partnership is described as a voluntary agreement between partners to harness human, material or monetary resources to undertake projects such as new buildings, renovations or the supply of technological resources to continually 'reproduce' skilled workforce (McDonald et al, 1990; Rao, 2008). Thus, partnerships are intended to address developmental challenges and improve the socioeconomic status of individuals, communities and nations. A review of existing literature shows that school-business partnerships can be local, national or global as well as short-term or long-term, dyads or multiparty and voluntary or mandatory (Googins and Rochlin, 2000). However, each partnership is different and established differently, meaning each should be treated uniquely.

Although there is no shortage of literature on school-business partnerships, much of it is said to be “largely anecdotal, programmatic or not evaluated to even the modest scientific standards” (NCSR, 2008, p.28). However, there are several school of thoughts which emphasise that ‘partnership’ as a concept is still growing at an irresistible rate, while the needs they seek to address are progressively becoming more complex and their usefulness for organisational development transcends all sectors (Selsky and Parker, 2005). Indeed, there seems to be an invisible charm about partnerships, particularly school-business partnerships, that attracts governments, corporations, schools and business organisations (Googins and Rochlin, 2000).

However, due to the vast number of different partnerships, which are set up with different foci and expectations, no single set of guidelines could provide an exact prescription for how individuals, organisations and societies should form partnerships (Googins and Rochlin, 2000). Seddon, Billet and Clemans (2004) therefore explain that the proliferation of the concept of partnership has itself become a key barrier to conceptualising a universally agreed understanding of partnership as a concept. Nonetheless, the concept of school-business partnership has become a service industry in its

own right (Weller and Dillon, 1999) and how it is formed, for what purpose and the benefits that can be derived has been given special consideration in contemporary literature (Douglas, 2009).

### **2.2.3.1 Formation of School-Business Partnerships**

A review of the existing literature provides a generic framework for understanding the key steps for setting up school-business partnerships. Harrison et al. (2003, p.15) provide six steps for partnership development which are: searching, researching, making calls, establishing contact, getting ready and who's paying. Douglas (2009, p.122) identifies five stages for partnership development, which are:

- The big idea
- The feasibility study
- Getting started
- Keeping going – the stamina stage
- The sustainability, or finish and move on

Whatever the categorisation, however, Harrison et al. (2003) advise that all forms of partnerships, should begin with a clear understanding each partners' own strengths, needs and resources, and the acknowledging that partnership is not an end in itself. Thus, the commencement of a partnerships should be preceded by 'deep' research of the strengths that prospective partners bring to the relationship (Sull, 2001, p.5). The lack of understanding of how school-business partnerships are set up has resulted in a popular presumption in literature which indicates that business partners tend to commercialise schools and make profit out of them while schools gain nothing.

Rein et al. (2005) clarifies that school-business partnerships could have "direct commercial implications within schools that may involve some form of financial or managerial collaboration such activities do not necessarily constitute the commercialisation of schools" (p.2). Marsden (1998) affirms that school-business partnerships are "not just about [the business] industry working with education to help improve the latter's performance. It is also about education helping industry to

improve its performance” (p.3). This means that school-business partnerships exist for the benefit of schools and the business organisations. This study therefore seeks to understand how schools and business organisations can support each other through partnership arrangements to develop leadership at every level of the organisations (schools and banks).

### **2.2.3.2 The Benefits of School-Business Partnerships**

The idea that school-business partnerships are valuable is highly contested and often described as asymptomatic because “the confluence of several powerful currents—corporate advocacy on education policy...privatisation of public schools and the pervasiveness of marketing geared toward young children—has made it a hot-button issue” (Werstein-Hann, 2008, p.28). However, governments, organisations and individuals recognise the value of such partnerships in the UK. For example, John Major’s Conservative government in 1992 initiated and endorsed public-private partnerships (PPPs) (Khadaroo, 2007), which encouraged business organisations to work with schools to improve on IT services and develop and manage accommodation and equipment (Kappeler and Nemoz, 2010). A total of nearly £300 billion in capital was allocated to 794 PPP contracts (Iossa and Martimort, 2008; Khadaroo, 2007).

In 1997, the Labour government of Tony Blair expanded school-business partnerships by setting up a range of new initiatives, including Education Action Zones and Excellence in the City, with a shift of emphasis on ‘value for money’ (Douglas, 2010). Again, several billion pounds were committed to the partnerships and leadership (Khadaroo, 2007). Despite the current economic austerity, the ruling UK coalition government recognises school-business partnerships as a means of producing a well-qualified workforce and has committed £7 billion to them (Cunnington, 2011). Major benefits must be derived from school-business partnerships for governments, organisations and individuals to commit such huge funds, time and energy to such ventures.

However, Rowe (2006) emphasises that school-business partnerships are not entirely beneficial because they are often sporadic, quick-fix and incremental efforts that fall short of effecting long-lasting systemic reform in schools and business organisations. Boydell and Rugkåsa (2007) reiterate that the empirical approaches to evaluating the benefits of partnerships raise substantial methodological challenges, which make it difficult to measure appropriate impact indicators. Huxham and Vangen (2005) caution that:

Whereas [partnership] is lauded as a desirable policy...there is always the lurking danger of what is called 'partnership inertia', where the outputs from partnership arrangements are negligible or the rate of output is extremely slow...Such conditions raise critical questions [about the degree] to which [partnerships] actually add value to organisations in terms of both process and outcomes (p.60).

Adamantly, Boyles (2005, p.3) reiterates that the school-business partnership is a "false dualism" that seeks to promote commercialism within schools.

Contrarily, Huxham and Vangen (1998), Fyall and Garrod (2005) and Muijs, Ainscow, Chapman and West (2011) argue that the blend of academic disciplines, sectoral research paradigms and theoretical viewpoints within which school-business partnerships are researched indicate that a great deal of benefits can be derived from well-planned partnerships. Caldwell (2005) provides evidence to suggest that school-business partnerships are beneficial because they can:

- Improve human capital resources and national productivity
- Build the capacity and social capital of communities and individuals
- Enhance educational opportunities for students, particularly those from disadvantaged backgrounds
- Improve school performance and student achievement (p.7)

Additionally, Hedge and Clough (1991) and Harrison (2003, p.8) enlists the benefits that organisations derive from partnerships to include:

- Gaining publicity and community recognition for engagement in social responsibility
- Securing greater understanding of the company's products, services and policies
- Raising high-calibre employees as a result of better job training (p.21).

Schools and business organisations by their very existence have always benefitted from each other, and school-business partnerships “are a long-established means of working...and they continue to be fertile ground for improving programmes offered by schools and the businesses [organisations]” (Dietz, 2004, p.122). The partnerships can create a synergy between different organisations and bodies to reduce wasteful duplication of efforts and resources, rationalise activities and services, ensure greater outputs and cost-effective savings and greatly increase organisational effectiveness and efficiency (Dhillon, 2005, p.212). Dhillon (2009) adds that schools accrue benefits such as financial resources for developing the curriculum, access to mentoring and coaching services and job placements for professional development. Besides, there are evidence to show that partnerships can contribute to knowledge creation, reputation enhancement and organisational expansion and growth (Douglas, 2009). However, there are limits to the extent to which partnerships including school-business partnerships could support organisations to achieve desirable outcomes.

### **2.3. Limitations to School-Business Partnerships**

Although the benefits of partnerships are far reaching, and they represent an important means for solving complex organisational issues, partnerships often result in failure as a result of premature disbandment or revision of the partnership arrangements (Muijs, Ainscow, Chapman and West, 2011). The key limitations to school-business partnerships relate to the initiation of change either on a small or large scale which has the potential to unsettle organisational climates. For example, partnerships have the potential of causing changes such as staff relocation from a key responsibility area which may be complicated and difficult for staff to understand and such situation have the potency of unsettling cohesive teams.

James (2010) highlight that “not all [organisational] change is experienced so positively, mainly because change may involve loss of important attachments that cannot be restored and if it does not

have an acceptable purpose, there may be considerable mental disturbance resulting from internal conflicts or loss of memory” (p.47). This means that the changes that school-business partnerships may bring to organisations can limit the extent to which they [school-business partnerships] support organisational leadership development.

One key limitation to school-business partnerships is knowledge barriers – the process of integrating knowledge across organisational boundaries. Often it is difficult for one organisation and its staff to understand how counterpart organisation and its staff operate. The transfer of knowledge of how organisations operate may be obstructed by differences in terms of knowledge bases, organisational cultures and organisational structures. This limitation can be complicated by the inability to successfully retain, and exploit the knowledge transferred by the partner organisation in order to achieve better organisational outcomes (Willoughby and Galvin, 2005).

Additionally, Harrison et al, 2003 highlights that “partnership work demands patience and energy” (p.72) due to huge increases in the range of volume of tasks that partners have to complete. This means that inexorably increasing workloads are likely to result in “partnership fatigue” which becomes a limitation to the partnership process, as members of staff are unable to engage with partnership activities as they should and as such organisations are unable to derive maximum benefit from partnership arrangements. Muijs, Ainscow, Chapman and West (2011) however stresses that when the limitations to education [school]-business partnerships are well-managed, the benefits far outweighs the gains that individual organisations make. Thus, school-business partnerships can support organisational leadership development only to the extent that the limitations discussed above are well-managed. To successfully proceed with this study, it is important to discuss the concept of leadership development and how it differs from leader development.



## 2.4 Exploring the Concept of Leadership Development

As explained in Chapter 1, the rationale for this study is to advance our understanding of how partnership activities can promote experiential learning amongst schools and banks as an alternative means for organisational leadership development. This study seeks to make a contribution to the efforts to find a lasting solution how to develop leadership at every level of the organisation in order to effectively respond to leadership shortages within organisations. To do so requires a clear distinction between ‘leader development’ and ‘leadership development’, because much of the existing literature uses these terms interchangeably because of the difficulty in defining the term ‘leadership’.

As discussed above Day (2000) highlights that the differences between leader development and leadership development amounted to more than semantics because:

At the core of the difference is an orientation toward developing human capital (leader development) as compared with social capital (leadership development).  
...Leadership is developed through the enactment of leadership (p.605).

Day’s exposition determines that leader development is an essential element of leadership development, meaning efforts to achieve leadership development should embrace the efforts of leaders who have initial [primary] leadership roles (primary leadership) to develop leadership capacity of all other individuals to perform leadership functions (secondary leadership) within the organisations towards achieving organisational goals.

While leader development focuses only on the accumulation of the leadership knowledge, skills and understanding of specific individuals in an organisation, leadership development is defined as the expansion of the corporate capacity of the members of an organisation or organisations to engage fully and effectively in leadership roles and processes (Day, 2000). Day (2000) explains that; “leadership roles refer to those that come with and without formal authority,

whereas ...leadership processes are those that generally enable groups of people to work together in meaningful ways to [achieve] organisation-specific outcomes". This means that leadership development is concerned with the process of building the capacity of all the members of an organisation irrespective of their position or role through experiential learning processes to find solutions to existing or emerging problems in the organisation in order to achieve organisational goals. Day (2000) stresses that the "primary emphasis on leadership development is on building and using interpersonal competence... through an interaction between an individual and ... organisational environment" (p.585).

Allen and Hartman (2008) expound that leadership development is contextual in nature and can be achieved through several approaches and sources of learning. Accordingly, several scholars in the organisational leadership field have identified five or 10 different learning approaches for organisational leadership development (London, 2002; Yukl, 2006). Conger's (1992) groundbreaking framework of four approaches to leadership development programme forms the basis for other learning approaches to research in leadership development field. Conger's (1992) four approaches to leadership development are: personal growth, conceptual understanding, feedback and skill building.

The learning activities for personal growth are focused on persuading individuals to reflect on behaviours that encourage people to take risks and develop personal values and desires (Conger, 1992). Programmes for developing peoples' conceptual understanding of leadership development are focused on developing their cognitive understanding of leadership phenomena (*ibid*). Conger (1992) explains that constructive feedback is essential to leadership development in organisations because it is useful for measuring the leadership skills and behaviours of an individual or group of people. Skill building involves teaching individuals to understand the concepts of leaderships through modules that enable individuals or groups of people to perform leadership tasks and model

specific leadership behaviours (Conger & Toegel, 2002). Thus, skills building require that the performance of individuals is critiqued, and feedback is provided to direct them to strengths and weaknesses. Individuals or groups of people are given the chance to practice and refine their leadership skills (*ibid*).

Conger (1992) highlights that for organisational leadership development programmes to be effective and achieve expected outcomes, organisations must reverse the trends that permit leadership development to become a “haphazard process” (p.46). The caution, however is that the combined effect of the four learning approaches do not necessarily result in leadership development because individual-level variables like age, learning style, organizational role, development level, motivation, and self-efficacy have effect on the type of results that could be achieved from leadership development programmes (*ibid*). Therefore, organisations must embed leadership development programme as an integral part of the organisation’s daily work and provide sufficient notice to intentionality, responsibility and appraisal of leadership performance in order to develop leadership at every level of the organisation (*ibid*).

Contemporary leadership development practices are focused on helping people to develop leadership expertise on-the-job and through a wide range of learning programmes that do not take people away from their work (Day, 2000). Day (2000) elaborates that the learning activities that develop the leadership of individuals are equally essential to building corporate leadership necessary for organisational leadership development. Bilhuber Galli and Müller-Stewens (2011) point out that “leadership development can be thought of as an integration strategy by helping people understand how to relate to others, coordinate their efforts, build commitments, and develop extended social networks by applying self-understanding to social and organisational imperatives” (p.176). This means social network developed through inter-organizational collaborations and partnerships play

essential role in exploring ways in which experiential learning support organisational leadership development.

Heifetz (1994) reiterates that “leadership cannot be exercised alone. The lone-warrior model of leadership is heroic suicide” (p.268). Day (2000), however explains that leadership expertise of individuals is very important to organisational leadership development because the accumulation of the leadership expertise of all the members of the organisation is what constitutes corporate leadership which is essential for leadership development. Day (2000) reveals six key leadership learning practices: 360-degree feedback, coaching, mentoring networks, job assignments, and action learning which have different potential to support social capital development required for organisational leadership development. These leadership learning approaches support organisational leadership development at multilevel as well as individual level (*ibid*).

Williams and Wade (2002) stresses that leadership can be developed when organisations “identify and provide partnership opportunities for all those who aspire to lead...recognising the need to focus less upon individual skills and more upon strengthening group interaction...for collaborative leadership development” (p.15). However, no known research study examines how inter-organisational collaboration such as school-business partnerships could serve as alternative means for leadership development, hence the need for this study. A theoretical framework that links partnership activities that promote experiential leadership learning with leadership development is an essential guide to this study.

## **2.5 Theoretical Framework Underpinning the Study**

The discussions above provide evidence of a strong resonance between the empirical grounds provided in partnership literature and the theoretical perspectives of experiential learning in

support of leadership (Day 2000, Bolden, 2004). On the basis of the discussions, a theoretical framework that links partnership activities that promote experiential learning to organisational leadership development has been provided below.

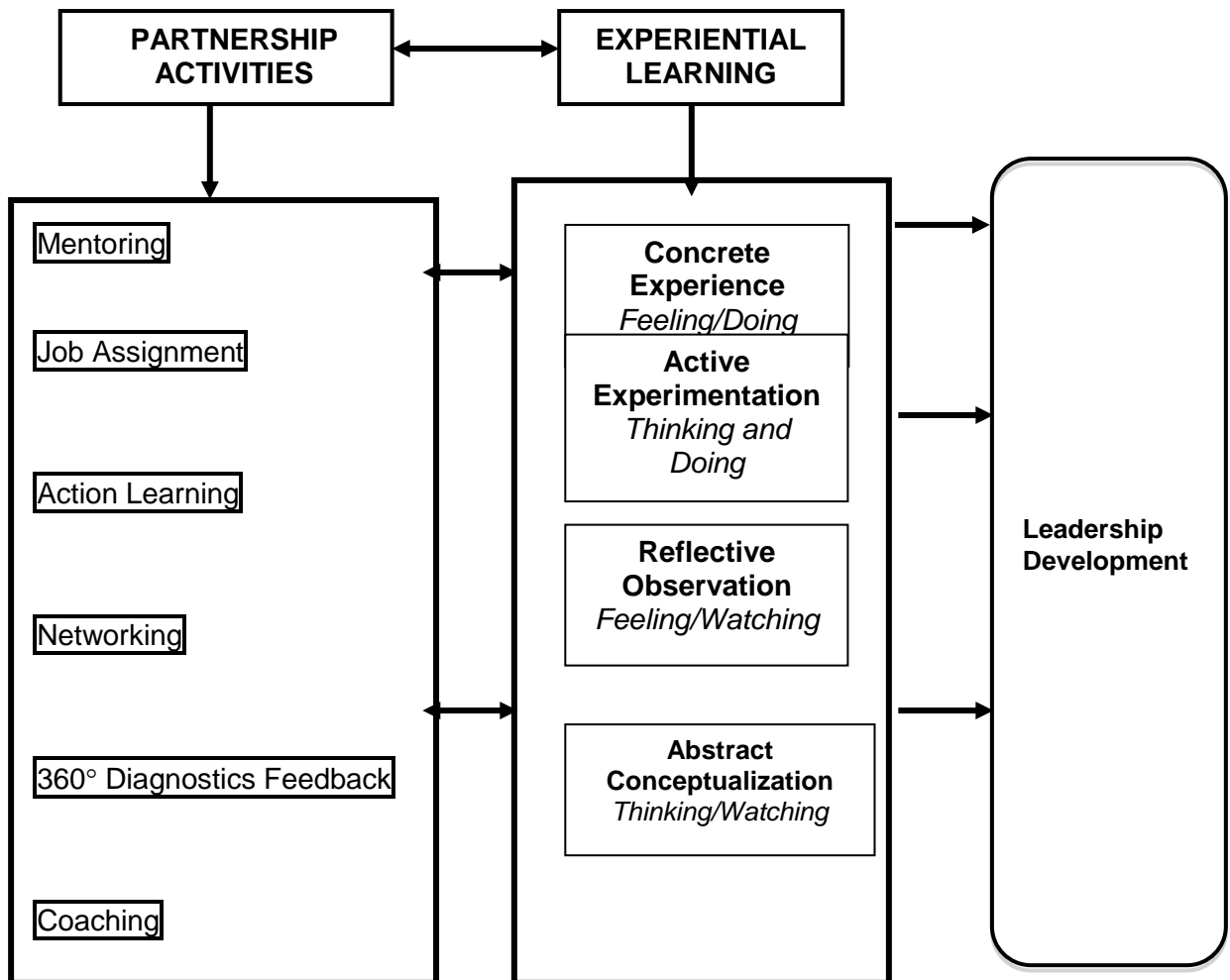


Figure 2.2: Leadership

**Development Theoretical Framework (Ofori-Kyereh, 2010).**

The theoretical framework given above embraces the work of Day on leadership learning and Kolb’s experiential learning for leadership development. These ideas have been included because existing literature points to the fact that leadership learning practices which are experiential in nature enable individuals and/or groups to develop a repertoire of leadership knowledge, skills and abilities essential for organisational leadership development. However, the framework is based on the idea that it takes partnership activities that promote experiential

leadership learning through networking, action learning, Job shadowing and leadership delegation as well as organisational placement, trainings and self/peer learning promote experiential learning, to collect and make use of knowledge and skills of all the members of an organisation for organisational leadership development.

As explained earlier, experiential learning theory is concerned with “the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience through practice. Knowledge results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience” (Kolb and Kolb, 2005, p.195). The key components of Kolb’s experiential learning model are concrete experience, observation and reflection, the formation of abstract concepts and testing in new situations (Kolb, 1984, 2005), which facilitate learning as a means of broadening knowledge and acquiring experiences necessary for professional and/or organisational development. The theoretical framework is based on the idea that organisational leadership development can be achieved when the partnership activities support the acquisition of professional experiences (Peck, Barton and Klump, 2007).

Kolb’s experiential learning model theorises that, in the attempt to acquire new knowledge and experiences as part of the learning process, there is always a creative tension between two conflicting ideas—emerging from each of the four learning models—that is responsive to contextual demands (Kolb and Kolb, 2005). This means that partnership activities intended to support leadership development through experiential learning approaches should embrace all the four learning models and ensure that all the conflicting ideas complement each other in order to achieve expected outcomes. The four learning models such as concrete experience (feeling and doing), abstract conceptualisation (thinking and watching), reflective observation (feeling and watching) and active experimentation (thinking and doing) should be adopted by considering the impact of each of the models on others (*ibid*).

Consequently, this study adopts experiential learning as a means for understanding how the leadership learning approaches chosen by the organisation enables the members to complete partnership tasks in order for them to gain (grasp) leadership experiences. Some of the key questions asked is that if developing the leadership expertise of the member of the organisation involved watching others in order to gain leadership experiences, how was this done and what helped them [the members] to reflect their leadership experiences? And what insights did they gain? The study adopts, Kolb's theory for learning to understand how organisations emotionally transform leadership experiences into something meaningful that members of organisation can draw on to develop their own leadership experiences. Specifically, this study is focused on understanding how partnership activities enable members of the organisation to gain new information through planning, analysing, thinking or experiencing concrete and tangible leadership activities.

The experiential learning model posits that “learning is the major determinant of human development, and how individuals learn shapes the course of their personal development” (Kolb and Kolb, 2005, p.195). Therefore, experiential learning which is promoted through inter-organisational collaborations such as school-business partnerships are likely to support individuals to develop leadership skills through the process of thinking, feeling, watching and doing. The concrete experience involves opportunities for individuals to learn from new and specific experiences within a given context (*ibid*). Another key learning process is active experimentation, which involves individuals or groups of individuals taking risks through hands-on activities to explore new ideas (*ibid*). The concrete experimentation, however, involves direct experience of specific social activities, such as leadership development through reflection and completion of leadership activities as part of the leadership development process (Peck, Barton and Klumpet, 2007). The abstract conceptualisation which is a component of

experiential learning focuses on the logical analysis of ideas and development of intellectual understanding of a concept as complex as leadership development (*ibid*).

This means that the partnership activities should provide the members of the organisation with opportunities to make meaning of leadership experiences by enabling them to adopt different leadership styles, engage in diverse leadership activities and experiment with first-hand knowledge of new ways of leading, instead of perpetuating existing, outdated leadership experiences (Sarantakos, 2005). For example, a meaning-making process often begins with a person carrying out an action, recognising the result and understanding the effects. Lastly, the individual should be able to modify the action to suit new situations. It is only when these stages are repeated many times that experiential leadership learning occurs (Kolb, 1984).

### **2.5.1 360-degree feedback**

Existing literature recognises feedback instruments particularly, 360-degree feedback instruments, also known as multi-source feedback or multi-rater assessments as key leadership learning approach that can be promoted through partnership activities for organizational leadership development (Day, 2000; Bolden, 2004; Allen and Hartman, 2008). The feedback instruments enable organisations to systematically collect a circle of viewpoint about the leadership performance of individuals and make use of information to understand and develop the performance of an individual (Day, 2000). The sources of viewpoints mostly include superiors, peers, and subordinates of the individuals whose performance is being assessed (*ibid*). The use of 360-degree is associated with the development of intrapersonal competence of individual's self-knowledge and increased self-awareness of one's impact on others (*ibid*).



As a developmental tool, the 360-degree feedback instrument is useful for human capital development and building individual trustworthiness in organisations only to the extent that the individual is willing to change his or her leadership behaviours (Allen and Hartman, 2008). With regards to Kolb's experiential learning, 360-degree feedback is essential for organisational leadership development when individuals have the opportunity to develop abstract conceptualisation of what leadership really is (Day, 2000). This learning process may involve the process of thinking about their leadership practices and having the opportunities to learn and add to their repertoire of leadership skills by watching how others lead (Allen and Hartman, 2008).

However, critics argue about the importance of 360-degree feedback for leadership development is minimal because “it is individualistic in nature and add only to individual’s reservoir of knowledge, skills, and experience through individual learning” (Dess and Lumpkin, 2001, p.25). On the contrary, Day (2000) argues that 360-degree feedback has the potential of enabling individuals to develop a deeper appreciation for self-understanding which is essential for organisational leadership development. This is because “lack of self-awareness can jeopardise projects [for leadership development] by contributing to sub-optimal individual performance, or by creating increased stress and anxiety in others” (*ibid*, p.252).

It is for this reason that partnership activities should create opportunities for all individuals in an organisation or across organisations to engage in active experimentation of leadership activities within a trusting environment by having opportunities to think about and act on (do) the feedback given by circles of superiors, peers and subordinates. The opportunities for 'thinking and doing [performing]' leadership activities are likely to improve on their leadership expertise and this would contribute to organisational leadership development. However, 360-degree feedback as a leadership learning approach on its own does not inherently guarantee positive change for leadership

development (Bilhuber Galli and Müller-Stewens, 2011).

### **2.5.2 Executive Coaching**

Other leadership learning approaches such as executive coaching have emerged as an experiential learning tool for leadership development in organisations (Allen and Hartman, 2008). Day (2000) expounds that the “effectiveness of 360-degree feedback for the development of social capital depends on the extent that it is linked to follow-up coaching” (p.590). Day (2000) draws on the work of earlier scholars in the leadership development field to define executive coaching as “practical, goal-focused forms of one-on-one learning and behavioral change” (p.591). Executive coaching is a one-on-one experiential learning approach that supports individuals to engage in reflective observation through dialogue that secures improvement in leadership practice (*ibid*).

Thus, executive coaching enables individuals to think about their practice, feel the need for change by watching others and improve on their leadership practices (Bilhuber Galli and Müller-Stewens, 2011). Allen and Hartman (2008) stress that executive coaching when combined with multi-source feedback enables individuals to implement strategies to address concerns with their leadership performance. Day (2000), however argues that the empirical value of executive coaching does not go beyond enhancing individuals' leadership performance because the extent to which executive coaching promotes the growth of social capital within organisations remains largely unknown. However, this approach is comprehensive in terms of its useful for assessing leadership performance and challenging individuals to improve on their leadership performance, especially when it is closely linked with 360-degree feedback (Bilhuber Galli and Müller-Stewens, 2011).

The effectiveness of executive coaching is dependant on the careful identification of gaps in the leadership performance of individuals and closely matching these individual with a compatible

coach, for discussions and dialogue (Kilburg, 2000). The individuals must however, have opportunities to think through their leadership performance and the willingness to change and improve on identified weaknesses (Day, 2000). The quality of the coaching is essential to secure observable changes and improvements in leadership performance (*ibid*). Kilburg (2000) contends that executive coaching is a highly individualised source of learning, which is often tailored to the needs of the individual, and its impact on how people lead or improve on their performance is hard to calculate unless clear objectives are established from the outset. Recent research supports the view that when coaching is closely linked with mentoring, the outcomes can be enormous (Allen and Hartman, 2008; Bilhuber Galli and Müller-Stewens, 2011).

### **2.5.3 Mentoring**

Mentoring is considered as a developmental process where a subordinate is linked up with a senior person in the organisation outside of their direct reporting line (Day 2000). Day categories mentoring into two: formal and informal. “The formal developmental relationships are a venerable form of on-the-job experience used for leadership development ... [because they are] assigned, maintained, and monitored by the organisation” (*ibid*, p.594). Informal mentoring arrangements are usually unplanned but encouraged by an organisation to enable members to improve on their practice (Bilhuber Galli and Müller-Stewens, 2011). Regardless of whether it is formal or informal, mentoring is largely skewed toward providing support and challenge which are essential for helping individuals to increase their self-esteem and satisfaction with leadership roles (*ibid*).

Existing literature indicates that mentoring enables individuals and groups of people to discuss the concepts of leadership, think about how they lead, watch how other people (senior colleagues) lead and improve on their leadership performance (McCauley and Van Velsor, 2004). The impact of mentoring is effective because as a concept it is predisposed to a “relations orientation, even temperament, tolerance for ambiguity, valuing the organisation, liking the [mentee], and respect for

the [mentee's] intelligence" (*ibid*, p.98). The observation made here is that opportunities provided through mentoring for leadership development are focused on equipping individuals or groups to learn by observing and interacting with senior leaders of organisations (Day, 2000). Thus, the members of the organisation are able to conceptualize the abstract nature of the concept of leadership (thinking and watching) through reflective observation (feeling and watching) of leadership practices of senior leaders and improve on their leadership performance.

Despite its apparent usefulness, mentoring mainly supports the development of human capital by enhancing the knowledge and understanding of individual members of organisations about important organisational issues such as leadership development (Allen and Hartman, 2008). Day (2000), however expounds that mentoring contributes to social capital development essential for leadership development due to its impact on the cognitive dimension of individuals which helps to develop greater mutual trust, respect, and commitments to organisational goals.

#### **2.5.4 Networking**

Networking is considered as a particularly positive leadership development approach because it enables organisations to develop social capital through mutual interactions amongst individuals who occupy similar roles (McCauley and Van Velsor, 2004). Networking is considered as an important medium for establishing relationships that provide access to and use of valuable resources to support members of an organisation to develop or enhance their leadership performance (Day, 2000). Networking creates the forum for all members of the organisation to expand their leadership knowledge, skills and understanding through exposure to others' thinking, which can challenge each other's assumptions about what we think we know about leadership development (Bilhuber Galli and Müller-Stewens, 2011). This means partnership activities that promote networking as an experiential learning approach for leadership development provide opportunities for developing concrete

experience (feeling and doing) and grasp abstract conceptualisation (thinking and watching), which are related to through reflective observation (feeling and watching) and active experimentation (thinking and doing). Simply put, networking provides members of organisation access to knowledge by watching and feeling what individuals or others do, think through what is being done and perform [do] leadership activities effectively.

Organisations promote networking to create the opportunity for members with different experiences to expand their leadership practice by learning from each other (Day, 2000). Like mentoring, networking often involves pairing up the less experienced member with the more experienced individual for leadership learning activities (Bilhuber Galli and Müller-Stewens, 2011). To continually build social capital necessary for leadership development, networking focuses on drawing on the tacit knowledge that each member has about leadership and leadership development (Day, 2000). Additionally, networking involves the interaction between leaders to address similar training needs by building leadership capacity that is essential for leadership development (*ibid*).

Networking is a valuable component of organisation leadership development process because of its potential to build peer relationships and social capital (McCauley and Van Velsor, 2004). Therefore, networking is said to be “a prime means of enhancing social capital in an organisation. For this reason, feedback, coaching, mentoring, and networking processes should be linked in a way that produces an integrated leadership development system that covers all aspects of assessment, challenge, and support” (Day, 2000). Although, the impact of networking is difficult to assess because there is limited research on this learning approach, there is strong evidence to suggest that when used in conjunction with other sources of learning such as job assignment, networking is effective for organisational leadership development (Bilhuber Galli and Müller-Stewens, 2011).

This means that partnership activities that promote networking as an experiential learning approach for leadership development create the opportunity for individuals to observe and reflect on their own as well as the leadership experiences of others and form abstract concepts of what leadership is and test their new knowledge in new situations. Leadership learning activities carried out through networking helps to build social capital of organisations quickly by cascading knowledge and share experiences more rapidly (*ibid*). Consequently, networking that is supported by job assignment in a corporative environment is essential for organisational leadership development (Day, 2000).

### **2.5.5 Job Assignment**

Job assignment is identified as an efficient learning approach where individuals are exposed to unfamiliar context and challenging situations to develop leadership capacity necessary for leadership development in organisations (Day, 2000). Bilhuber Galli and Müller-Stewens, (2011) stress that job assignment is an essential learning tool for team building by engaging the members of the organisation to learn and work with each others to complete discrete leadership activities in order to gain valuable leadership skills that support organisational development through the performance of discrete leadership activities. Job assignment often involves job enrichment where members of an organisation take up leadership responsibilities that are often greater and/or lesser than their usual responsibility to broaden their leadership knowledge and experiences (Allen and Hartman, 2008). Job enrichment gives more control to members of the orgainsaition over how to perform their assigned jobs in order to develop their confidence and initiative in performing leadership duties independently (Moorhead and Griffen, 2004).

In some instances, job assignment may involve job enlargement (Bilhuber Galli and Müller-Stewens, 2011). Job enlargement is concerned “the meaningful addition of similar jobs, not simply adding identical, boring repetitive tasks to an already boring one” (Day, 2000, p.585). Such added

responsibilities are intended to increase the satisfaction and motivation of the members of the organisation in engaging with leadership development processes (Allen and Hartman, 2008). Additionally, job rotation is considered as a component of job assignment because as a development tool, it enables members of organisations to broaden their professional and leadership experiences through lateral movement of members between different jobs in the same organisation (Bilhuber Galli and Müller-Stewens, 2011). Bennett (2003) expounds that job rotation involves careful movement of members of an organisation from one job or position to another over a specified period of time and for one or many purposes. The observation made here is that job assignments are useful for leadership development only to the extent that members of the organisation are put into new roles with unfamiliar responsibilities – high-responsibility and high-latitude – so that they have the opportunity to build leadership capacity and broaden their leadership experiences.

### **2.5.6 Action learning**

Action learning is a professional development process that supports members in an organisation to engage in a continuous process of learning and reflection by working together to find solutions to real-time organisational problems, (Day, 2000, p.601). This type of learning provides opportunities for members to learn “from concrete experiences and through critical reflection on the experiences in group discussions, trial and error, discovery, and learning from and with each other” (Zuber-Skerritt, 2011, p.26). It is a learning process where groups of people, no matter their positions work in complex situation to tackle difficult issues in order to build leadership capacity for developing leadership across the organisation. The results from action learning often require phenomenal changes in the organisation including reshuffling of the organisational structure which may pose challenges to all the members of the organisation especially the senior leaders (*ibid*).

To summarise the importance of action learning for leadership development, Zuber-Skerritt (2011) quotes Pedler (1991) to describe “action learning as:

A [learning] approach [...] in organisations which takes the task as the vehicle for learning. It is based on the premise that there is no learning without action and no sober and deliberate action without learning. The method has three main components: people who accept responsibility for taking action on a particular issue; problems, or the task that people set themselves; and a set of six or so colleagues who support and challenge each other to make progress on problems. Action learning implies both self-development and organisation development (p.25).

The key lesson is that action learning helps to build human and social capital that is necessary for leadership development. The main import of this type of learning is to build collegiality and embrace the contributions of all the members of the organisation to facilitate the speed at which leadership is developed at every level of the organisation (Venner, 2011). Additionally, action learning has the potential of securing commitment and a sense of responsibility from all the members of the organisation to challenge themselves and each other in achieving a common goal.

Venner (2011) elaborates that “action learning contributes to the learners’ sense of themselves as resourceful individual relating to each other as equals irrespective of differences in position and values to achieve a common goal” (p.211). This means that action learning provides a resourceful environment for all the members of the organisation to explore and incorporate ideas for developing leadership at every level of the organisation. Day (2000) quotes other scholars to explain that:

Action learning is primarily a generative practice, each application is a unique performance ... in which participants collectively construct social meanings and shared realities in a community of practice. ... choosing suitable individuals for a given project (p.601).

Day’s (2000) exposition suggests that it is essential that action research encourages group work where each members of the organisation focuses on undertaking tasks and actions to enhance their leadership performance in specific area of their leadership roles. Action learning becomes meaningful and useful when members support and challenge each other to engage in the learning process in order to acquire knowledge, skills and understanding of leadership, improve on their



practice to improve on leadership across the organisation (*ibid*).

Day (2000) clarifies that action learning involves structured opportunities for individuals and groups to reflect on leadership tasks and their performance as leaders in order to develop leadership expertise essential for leadership development. For that reason, members of the organisation with similar leadership learning needs are put together in groups to learn together to achieve the same or similar goals (Allen and Hartman, 2008). This means that action learning helps to build teamwork and such group dynamics helps to build a climate of trust and interpersonal risk taking which supports the development of leadership expertise.

In existing literature, action learning is often equated to experiential learning which is purposefully focused on engaging members of an organisation in a learning process that provide direct experience and opportunities for reflection in order to increase knowledge, develop skills, and clarify values about specific issues such as leadership development (Day, 2000). This way, the members of the organisation learn by performing specific leadership actions and through experience (*Ibid*). This type of learning often leads to new discoveries and can be explored further throughout organizations to improve on specific practices such as leadership (Venner, 2011).

## **2.6 Link Between the Concept of Partnerships and Leadership Development**

Equally, “the growing literature recognises the concept of partnership as a ‘good’ thing” (El Ansari, Phillips and Hammick, 2001, p.215), and is “often presented by politicians as a panacea for solving complex, ‘wicked’ issues that span all sectors and professions” (Rittel and Weber, 1973; Armistead, 2004, citing Clarke and Stewart, 1997). Lambert (2003), however, laments that “we have been looking in the wrong places and using the wrong lenses with familiar panes and similar assumptions” (p.423) to understand leadership development instead of focussing on partnerships, which are known

to help solve complex organisational difficulties such as leadership development. With their vision blurred by these 'timeworn assumptions', individuals and organisations have failed to recognise partnerships as perhaps the most efficient way to improve leadership development (*ibid*).

Ng, Dyne and Ang (2009) highlight that a closer look at the different leadership learning approaches indicate that partnerships amongst organisations have a central role to play in developing leadership at every level of the organisation. This is because partnership, particularly school-business partnerships have the potential to mobilise people around a common course of action such as leadership development by widening their experiences and equipping them with leadership knowledge, understanding and skills (Armistead, 2004).

Smith and Rosser (2007) strongly encourage school-business partnerships to promote leadership development at all levels of an organisation because they create interactive learning approaches such as dialogue, interactions and experimentations, which are likely to result in leadership growth and development within organisations. The growing emphasis on interactive models and empirical research approaches to leadership learning and development means that partnerships occupy a prestigious position in supporting leadership development, principally because the over-reliance on performance-related and academic approaches have failed to achieve the desired leadership development outcomes (Smith and Manda, 2007).

Although, there are several approaches to leadership development in organisation, many of these rather promote leader development (Armistead, Pettigrew and Aves, 2007, p.212). Whilst there is strong linkage partnerships and leadership development, there is no evidence to suggest that partnership activities have been directed towards leadership development. (Gibbs, Hedge and Clough, 1991; Weller and Dillon, 1999; Bolden, 2004; Muijs, Ainscow, Chapman and

West, 2011). Bolden (2006) states that leadership development is not necessarily about a single event but a mix of activities that provide participants with experiential learning opportunities, practical insights and honest feedback that help them to promote greater self-awareness about leadership and self-confidence in their role as a leader. This means that when partnership activities encourage experiential learning experiences for individuals or group of people ... “the greatest impact is likely to be seen when these developmental experiences are linked to or embedded in a person’s ongoing work as an integrated set of experiences” (Hernez-Broome and Hughes, 2004, p.25).

In practical terms, partnership activities are deemed to play central roles in response to the call to reform to current organisational leadership development processes (Armistead, Pettigrew and Aves, 2007). When partnership activities are focused on promoting the use 360-degree feedback, mentoring and coaching as well as job assignment, networking and action learning as a means for individuals and groups to learn through feelings, watching others, thinking about what is seen or felt and performing leadership activities, leadership can be developed at all levels within organisations (Starr, 2004; Kolb,2005). This means that experiential learning, are likely to enhance the experiences of members of organisations in developing leadership knowledge, aptitudes and perceptions necessary for carrying out leadership duties (Day, 2000; Vicere, 2002). It is however important that this study explores the specific partnership activities that contribute to leadership development in organisations. For this study to thoroughly capture the extent to which partnership activities support leadership development through experiential learning, the theoretical perspectives described in this chapter are closely linked to the discussions of the methodological approach in the next chapter, especially the research questions (Q1–Q7) necessary for collecting data.

## **2.7 Chapter Summary**

It is evidenced from the above discussions that the concepts of leadership and partnership are difficult to grasp. Consequently, both concepts are variously defined. The underlying fact, however, is that these concepts are extremely important for the growth and survival of organisations. However, how leadership can be developed at every level of the organisation is not fully known. Existing efforts to develop leadership rather focuses on developing leaders. It is understood that an over-reliance on old leadership theories that focus on development the leadership expertise of individuals has contributed to our lack of understanding of what leadership is and how it can be developed.

Nonetheless, the call to find alternative means of developing leadership, which involves all personnel in the organisations or societies, is now urgent. It appears no progress has been made in identifying appropriate means for leadership development. Considering the huge financial, time, human and other valuable investments made in identifying partnerships as a panacea for solving human development problems, there is no known research study into how partnerships can support leadership development. It is appropriate then that this study seeks to understand how school-business partnership activities support leadership development. A comprehensive discussion of the methodological approach to the study is however required.

**CHAPTER THREE:**  
**RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

## Chapter Three

*Research Methodology is the path to finding answers to your research questions; it involves decisions that are tactical; they establish the practicalities of the research (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, p.75).*

### Research Methodology

#### 3.0 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to outline the methodological approach adopted for this study. As indicated in the earlier chapters, the aim of this study is to advance our understanding of how partnership activities can promote experiential learning as an alternative means for organisational leadership development. An explanatory<sup>2</sup> multiple case study design is employed for this research, using semi-structured interviews and a questionnaire survey to solicit data from head teachers, teachers, bank managers and bank staff in a mixed methods approach. This research design is suitable to establish a causal link in understanding how and why partnership activities affect leadership development. The analysis of the various cases is intended to allow for answering the key sub-research questions that underline the main research question. The questions are:

- 1) What prompted the need to engage in school–business partnership(s)?
- 2) Why did you choose partnership as a means for leadership development?
- 3) What are the main partnership activities undertaken as a means to leadership development?
- 4) How did the partnership activities impact on leadership development?

The first section of this chapter briefly discusses the various philosophical assumptions that support the concepts of leadership and partnership in order to decide which assumptions underpin this study. The second part describes and justifies the use of multiple-case research design and mixed methods in this study. There is a hypothesis: If partnership activities promote experiential learning about leadership at all levels of the organisation, this is more likely to result in leadership development. There is a critique of the methods of sampling, data collection and analysis chosen for this study. Issues of validity and reliability are discussed throughout this chapter. Finally, the ethical guidelines together with the limitations of the study are discussed below.

---

<sup>2</sup> An *explanatory case study* presents data that explain how events occurred and reflects a cause-and-effect relationship (Yin, 2003, p.5).

### **3.1 Philosophical Assumptions**

Pragmatic phenomenology has been adopted as the philosophical position for this study because, as a multiple paradigm, it is well suited to interpret and evaluate complex phenomena such as leadership development and partnerships (Küper, 2011, p.103; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007, p.183).

#### **3.1.1 What is pragmatic phenomenology?**

Küper (2011) and Craig (2010) define pragmatic phenomenology as the study of the logic of conscious phenomena, which is mainly concerned with how habit informs experience. As a philosophical paradigm, pragmatic phenomenology is concerned with conscious experience, and involves systematic reflection on and analysis of perceptions (consciousness) and occurrences (phenomena) by linking practice and theory and applying experience to create meaning in the world around us (Küper, 2011, p.201).

#### **3.1.2 Reaching a Philosophical Position for this Study**

This study draws on theoretical concepts relating to leadership and partnership which are diverse and variously defined. For instance, Hansen, Ropo and Sauer (2007, p.552) highlight that predominant approaches to leadership studies, such as transformational, charismatic and authentic leadership theories, are often situated in positivist traditions and rely on a scientific realist and objective approach to discover leadership outcomes. In contrast, studies on partnerships, including open systems (Katz and Kahn, 1978; Ashmos and Huber, 1987; Flood, 1999) and institutional theories (Thompson, 1967; Weick, 1979; Hatch, 1997) are rooted in constructivist lines of inquiry. Researchers such as Stake (1995) and Yin (2003) base their approach to case study research design on leadership and partnership [collaboration] on a pragmatic paradigm.

As I attempted to situate this study within an epistemological and ontological position, my world-view was influenced by the diverse traditions of inquiry – positivism, constructivism and pragmatism. Positivism adopts a quantitative methodological approach, the methods of natural science, replicability and causality within cases as a distinct research method. Positivism is based on the philosophical assumption that the physical and social reality is independent of those who observe it and that meaning-making about leadership development is based on an objective view of what is being observed (Bryman, 1984, p.84; Levin, 1988; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007, p.9; Hanson, 2008, p.101). In contrast, constructivism, which is characterized by qualitative methodology, maintains that within societies and cultures people individually and collectively create meaning by building mental models through individual or multiple cases of relational [partnership] activities and ‘perceived reality’ of what leadership is and how it is developed (Howe and Berv, 2000, p.20; Moerer-Urdahl and Creswell, 2004; Mills, Bonner and Francis, 2006, p.103). Constructivists claim that truth is relative and subjective and that it is dependent on one’s perspective.

Even so, the constructivist lens which adopts inductive approaches to meaning-making is unable to illuminate poorly understood phenomena such as leadership development and makes it hard for new ideas about leadership models to be created (Marshall and Rossman, 1995; Laverty, 2003, p.5; Grant, 2006). Similarly, the positivist stance which favours deductive empirical approaches to research cannot capture all the complexities of leadership development processes because of its overemphasis on model constructions (Conger and Toegel, 2002; Lord and Brown, 2004; Yukl, 2006). To address the weaknesses posed by qualitative and quantitative methods, a mixed methods approach is chosen for this study.

However, Crotty (2003, p.16) argues that whilst “our research can be qualitative or quantitative or both qualitative and quantitative, without this being in any way problematic ... to avoid [any]



discomfort with meaning making, research approaches have to be consistently positivist or consistently constructionist” because it is not possible to combine the ontological and epistemological stances of both traditions. In contrast, pragmatism is a philosophical partner for mixed methods research which makes qualitative and quantitative research methods compatible, the use of both methods permissible and methodological ecumenicalism possible (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner, 2007).

Pragmatism is adopted for this study because the benefits of mixing research paradigms to study cases and ‘getting research done’ far outweigh the importance of the philosophical difficulties in their use (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), citing de Jong (2003), reiterate the applicability of pragmatism to studies on leadership and partnership because it helps to:

examine many different phenomena [and cases], including holistic phenomena such as intentions, experiences, attitudes, and culture, as well as more reductive phenomena such as macromolecules, nerve cells, micro-level homunculi, and biochemical computational systems which give deeper insights necessary for answering research questions at much deeper levels (p.15).

This assertion highlights a strong association between pragmatism and phenomenology as twin philosophical stances because they are both concerned with the examination and description of phenomena as they are made available to consciousness. Küpers (2011, p.101), in quoting Styhre (2004), expounds that phenomenological and pragmatic philosophies can be integrated in a new paradigm, *pragmatic phenomenology*, as a self-rigorously positivist-constructivist position for studying and addressing the difficulties surrounding leadership development studies. Particularly, pragmatic phenomenology is well suited to studying experienced practices through case studies as a strong basis for understanding how leadership can be developed (Aikins, 2006; Küpers and Edwards, 2008; Küpers, 2011, p.103).

### 3.1.3 Justification for Pragmatic Phenomenology

Pragmatic phenomenology becomes the philosophical position for this study because it:

- provides a broad base and a more reliable philosophical approach to understanding the intricate nature of leadership processes and practices than the one-sided views proposed by constructivism and positivism (Küper, 2011, p.103)
- “can diagnose and solve various problems, pathologies and conflicts concerning one-sided or fixating processes of methodological practices” (Küper, 2011, p.107)
- supports the adoption a case study research design as the most suitable research approach to understand individual’s cognitive and emotional states that inform the meaning making of complex leadership behaviours and performances (Torbert et al., 2004)
- recognises the existence and importance of the physical world as well as the subjective thoughts construed by individuals as reality through the interaction of the social and psychological worlds (Dale, 2001; Dale and Burrell, 2000)
- sheds light on tensions associated with the use of case study design to study leadership development, and on ways to address such conflicting demands (van Manen, 2007,
- helps to avoid the emphasis on baseless relativism but aids the provision of credible and nuanced explanations of how partnership activities can support leadership development (Van Manen, 2002; Ferguson, 2006; Kumar, 2008).

Pragmatic phenomenology does not seek the absolute scientific ‘truth’ but recognises that knowledge is constructed on the basis of our ‘current’ experience of the world we live in, which is influenced by our inner world of human experience (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Lincoln and Guba, 2000; Küper, 2011, p.107). There is a school of thought which argues against the adoption of pragmatic phenomenology as philosophical viewpoint. However, contemporary studies show that pragmatic phenomenology is a more appropriate philosophical stance for identifying and solving methodology

problems in research studies because it draws on the advantages of constructivism and positivism to provide a more convincing and expansive basis for making conclusions about the impact of partnerships on leadership development than could be done from one-sided philosophical views (see Van Manen, 2002; Küper, 2011, p.107).

Pragmatic phenomenology is an epistemological stance that is particularly pertinent to this study because it values how individuals make meaning of leadership in the world around them (Van Manen, 2002). For example, pragmatic phenomenology is a more suitable approach than any other research methodology in understanding how individual's perceive leadership development processes in organisation (Torbert et al., 2004). Thus, pragmatic phenomenology helps to address the difficulties associated with the use of case study design to study leadership development, and identify ways to address the conflicting demands associated with the use of two different research designs (van Manen, 2007, p.26; Kumar, 2008).

### **3.2 Research Design**

Case study research design has been chosen for this study in preference to experimentation, cross-sectional research and longitudinal research because, as a line of enquiry, it allows a comparative analysis of how and why partnership activities in four sub-cases, two schools and two banks, can affect leadership development (de Vaus, 2004, p.11; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007). Yin (1984) defines case study research as “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used” (p.23).

Hartley (2004) reiterates that:

Case study research is a heterogeneous activity covering a range of research methods and techniques, a range of coverage (from single case study through carefully matched up pairs to

multiple cases), varied levels of analysis (individuals, groups, organisations, organisational fields or social policies), and differing lengths and levels of involvement in organisational functioning (p.332).

Among the different types of case study research design, an exploratory case study was chosen as the appropriate design for the Institutional Focus Study (IFS) because it helped to establish the key research questions, propose hypotheses and determine the protocol for the thesis research study. The conclusion reached during the IFS was that an explanatory multiple case study is the most appropriate design for this research because it helps to establish causal relationships between partnership activities and leadership development (Yin, 1984).

Additionally, the explanatory multiple case study design adds to the robustness, validity and reliability of the study (Yin, 2009). Evidence gathered from multiple cases is more compelling because it enhances the generalizability of the study to the whole population (Bromley, 1990, p.302). Stake (2006) defines explanatory multiple case study design as “a special effort to examine events that have lots of cases, parts or members and the findings more powerful than those coming from a single case” (p.16). Thus, the explanatory case study is best positioned to study how partnerships can support leadership development because it helps to gather evidence from many sources in different contexts such as schools and business organisations by using different research methods – semi-structured interviews and survey questionnaires.

Explanatory case studies examine data closely both on the surface and at deeper levels in order to make complex phenomena such as leadership development more comprehensible (Zaidah, 2003). This type of research design can be used to form a new theory about how leadership can be developed and to test this theory before generalizing the findings to the study locale or the wider population (McDonough and McDonough, 1997). Additionally, explanatory case study designs are employed in causal studies where pattern-matching can be used to investigate phenomena such as

leadership development through very complex and multivariate cases. The explanatory case study design is useful for the examination of data derived from studies on leadership development conducted within the context of its use (Yin, 1984).

Hitchcock and Hughes (1995, p.317) further consider the hallmarks of case study design to include:

- the prospect for rich and thick description of how events such as partnership activities promote experiential learning necessary for leadership development
- the opportunity to blend a description of events such as coaching, action learning and peer learning and the analysis of these events to form a composite report on how leadership is developed in a form which is more publicly accessible than other research
- the attention given to the experiences of individual respondents in understanding their perceptions of the events being studied – how partnership impacts on leadership development
- the emphasis on specific events – specific partnership activities – that are relevant to the case – leadership development (ibid, Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2005, p.182).

Often, case study designs are associated with qualitative research methods. However, Yin (1993, p.32) points out that the emphasis on whether case study designs are associated with quantitative, qualitative or mixed methods is irrelevant because what matters most is to ensure that the evidence obtained answers the research question as unambiguously as possible. Consequently, mixed methods, which focus on answering the ‘how’ and ‘why’ research questions as case study design does, become the most appropriate and compatible research method for gathering multiple data through survey questionnaires and the face-to-face interviews with head teachers, teachers, bank managers and other bank staff in the different schools and business organisations.

### **3.3 Justification for Mixed Methods**

The sequential mixed-methods<sup>3</sup> case study design approach is adopted for this study firstly to collect qualitative data through interviews and then to collect quantitative data using questionnaires to

---

<sup>3</sup> Sequential mixed method designs are those in which the supplementary components are conducted after the core has been completed (ibid).

expand on the qualitative findings so that the final research report contains a blend of numerical and text findings that corroborate each other (Creswell, 2003, p.20). Existing research literature shows that nearly 64 per cent of all leadership research studies in the US, the UK, Sweden and Australia from 1990 to 2004 adopted qualitative approaches (Bryman, 2004, p.749; Lowe and Gardner, 2000). In England, Bird and Jones (2000) used interviews and Easen (2000) adopted ethnographic action research, whilst, in America, McDonald et al. (1990) used focus group discussions and Benson et al. (1999) analysed institutional documents for studies relating to school-business partnerships.

However, Bryman (2007) warns that it would be completely inaccurate and premature to write the obituary of quantitative and mixed research, because nearly all contemporary leadership research studies – transformational, transactional, authentic and ethical – adopt either a quantitative or a mixed methods research design (*ibid*, p. 749). In contemporary leadership and partnership studies, Briggs and Coleman (2007) recommend mixed methods as the most appropriate research method because they enhance triangulation and give “a fuller overall research picture” (p.29) and allow “the incorporation of ‘insider’ and ‘outsider’ perspectives” (*ibid*, p.30). The sequential mixed methods are more suitable for capturing data not captured in the semi-structured interviews, or data that need further explanation by using survey questionnaires to establish the impact of partnership on leadership development and *not* just to explain a phenomenon (Tashakkori and Teddie, 2003, p.16).

Research rigour in terms of validity and reliability is better attained in mixed methods (Robson, 2002). Thus data from one method can be juxtaposed with the other to complement or enhance the data from the other to create a bigger picture resulting in deeper insights. Where the findings from one method contradict the other, this may lead to further interrogation of the data, which opens up ‘supplementary’ findings and adds to the reliability and eventually the credibility of the research study (Brannen, 2005, p.12). This means the weaknesses in the interview method are offset by the

strengths in the survey questionnaire and vice versa. The interview method helped to capture the diversity of views on the impact of partnership activities on leadership development, and these were consolidated by data from the survey questionnaire (Morse and Niehaus, 2009, p.15).

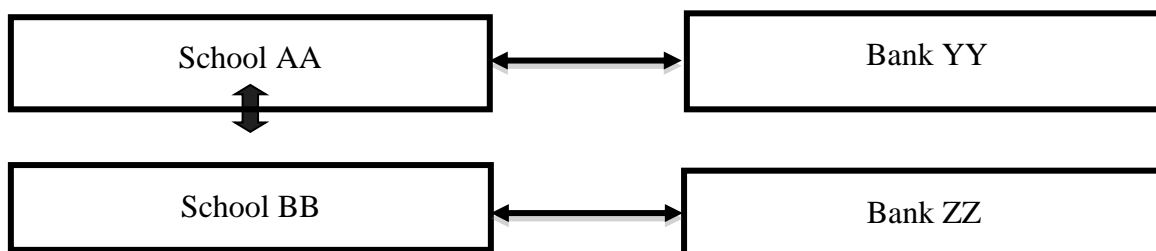
The mixed methods research design is situated in the pragmatic phenomenology paradigm; it brings the researcher into a closer relationship with the ‘real world’ of the topic being studied, and requires the researcher to learn the language necessary for studying the research questions while recognizing the heterogeneity of cases necessary for answering the questions (*ibid*). To achieve maximum heterogeneity, a “sampling strategy that involves the selection of cases that illustrate the range of variation in the studied phenomenon to determine whether common themes, patterns, and outcomes cut across this variation” was necessary (Gall, Borg, Gall 1996, pp.232-3; Merriam, 2001, p.165). Therefore, I adopted non-probability sampling methods to choose two schools and two banks to demonstrate multiple perspectives of leadership development.

### **3.4 The Context of the Research**

This section is focused on describing the context of the study and present a summary of partnership activities that were undertaken by the two schools and the two banks. The partnership between two organisations, a school and a bank, is considered as a case. The purpose of the two case-studies is to offer insights into how the partnership activities supported leadership development in four different organisations – two schools and two banks.

Learning from the IFS study, I employed two non-probability sampling methods – purposive and snowballing – to choose the two schools and two banks and the respondents for the fieldwork for this thesis. In line with British Educational Research Association’s (BERA) ethical guidelines, detailed information cannot be divulged about the context of the study. The leaders of the organisations

involved in the study have approved of the contextual information provided below. Each school partnered with one of the banks. To ensure anonymity, the schools have been labelled AA and BB and the business organisations labelled YY and ZZ. Figure 3.1 below shows that School AA partnered with Bank YY and School BB with Bank ZZ.



**Figure 3.1: Relationship Between Schools and Partnership with Respective Banks**

Before all the organisations engaged in partnership activities that were focused on developing leadership at every level of the organisations, no relationships existed between the banks. Similarly, School AA had no formal partnership agreement with Bank ZZ and School BB had no specific relationship with Bank YY. However, the two schools had some form of relationship between them that was mainly focused on sharing educational resources and providing professional development programmes to staff as part of an educational consortium.

When the partnership arrangements were established, School AA partnered with Bank YY and School BB paired up with Bank ZZ to share ideas and resources on how to develop leadership at every level of the organisations. With time, however, all the four organisations had interactions with each other, although the partnerships mainly existed between a school and a bank. The partnership activities took account of the context of each organisation in order to understand the extent to which the partnership activities have supported leadership development in each organisation.



### **3.4.1 School AA Context**

School AA is a large 11-16 maintained and comprehensive school which is funded by the government. The school is situated in a highly deprived part of south-east England. There were over 1400 students in the school and 73 staff. The class size averaged 30 students. Majority of the students who attend this school come from the ethnic minority background. The number of students who arrived and left the school at times other than the usual start and end of the academic years was high. There was high staff turnover with many senior leaders leaving the school throughout the academic year. The school had difficulties in recruiting teachers and senior leaders due to the challenging circumstances the school found itself in. Many of the teaching staff were on temporary employment contracts.

Before the partnerships were formed, The Office for Standards (Ofsted), a government office with the responsibility of inspecting schools in order to secure educational excellence for children and young people in England and Wales, had rated the performance of this school as inadequate, the lowest rating a school can receive. This means the school had demonstrated inadequate leadership, which had resulted in poor teaching and learning and consequently extremely poor outcomes for students. According to the Department for Education, challenging schools at that time (2001) were those with fewer than 25 per cent of their students achieving five A\*-C GCSE grades.

To address the weaknesses, Schools AA engaged in a partnership arrangement with School BB in order to share resources and expertise but with particular focus on developing leadership at all levels of the schools. Later on, each school formed a partnership with a specific bank with the sole purpose of seeking non-conventional ways of developing leadership amongst all teachers. Six years on, the School AA is reported as demonstrating outstanding leadership (Ofsted, 2008). The staff turnover is low and the school is oversubscribed in terms of the number of students that it can admit. The head

teacher has been in post for nearly ten years. Three interviews were conducted including the head teacher, accounts manager and head of faculty. The interview respondents were three; two females and one male. Fifty-two participants completed the survey questionnaire.

### **3.4.2 School BB Context**

School BB is a large 11-16 high performing, oversubscribed voluntary aided school. It admits students from different cultural, ethnic and socio-economic backgrounds. There were about 1200 students and 62 teachers. The teaching and non-teaching staff reflected the multi-cultural diversity of the student body. The class size averaged 28 students. The head had been appointed at the school for almost twenty years. It has a high student stability indicator which means that the number of students leaving and entering school at times, other than the usual is low. The staff turnover is minimal. Ofsted had on three different occasions judged the leadership and the outcomes for students as outstanding. As a result, the school has been awarded “an Ofsted outstanding school” status. Subsequently, the school became a training school. This means the school staff especially the leaders are often asked to support other schools through a long-term inter-organisational collaboration or on short-term basis.

As a training school, the school offers a wide range of accredited formal professional development programmes and training courses such as leadership development, for its staff and staff within a local educational consortium in conjunction with a local university. Many staff from School AA participated in the professional development courses run by School BB as part of a local consortium. This consortium promotes inter-organisational collaboration and provides services that further support leadership development among schools. Three interviews were conducted including the head teacher, the deputy head and assistant headteacher. The respondents were two females and one male. Forty-seven participants completed the survey questionnaire.

### **3.4.3 Bank YY Context**

This bank is a high street branch of a major banking and financial services company with international reputation. Altogether, about 50 permanent and temporary staff had been allocated to work at the branch. Some of these staff worked in other branches and at the headquarters of the bank. The branch manager had been in post for nearly six years. The bank offers corporate and investment, wealth and investment and retail and banking services. The branch had seen growth in all aspects of its operations for many years. Unexpectedly, however, the bank was faced with difficulties in securing economic growth due to the changing climate of globalization and liberalization of the international financial markets. These difficulties were aggravated by high proportions of discontented customers who were closing down their bank accounts as a result of high bank charges, low interest rates and poor customer services.

One of the schools approached the manager of the bank to discuss how to establish partnership to provide opportunities for students and staff to develop skills in banking and finance. It was, however, agreed at the end of several discussions that the partnership activities should rather focus on developing leadership at every level of the various organisations. The rationale was that developing leadership capacity at every level of the organisation will help draw on the skills of the ‘masses’ to make it easier to deal with the difficulties. The Branch manager indicated that the partnership has saved the branch. This is mainly because through the partnership activities they were able to rebrand themselves as the ‘bank for the people’. The school agree with the bank and the partnership started. Three male respondents who started the partnership were interviewed because as mentioned earlier, they were deemed to possess deep insight into why the partnership and what impact has been achieved. Thirty-one staff from the bank participated in the survey questionnaire.

#### **3.4.4 Bank ZZ Context**

This bank is a high street branch of a universal bank. It is organised into commercial, global, retail and investment banking. The bank had increased trading and investment output and was eager to becoming a critical player in the growing financial market. In line with its philosophy, the bank established a charity, the Global Education Trust to provide financial support to schools, educational charities and young people to raise the standards of education worldwide. By engaging closely with the local communities, international players and working with schools, the bank sought to continue to attract potential customers and build highly skilled workforce. For that reason, the branch manager who had been in post for 8 years engaged with local organisations and schools to respond to future unforeseen tougher competition, build its ability to differentiate in a highly competitive environment and continue to compete successfully in the financial market.

There were 40 staff who worked at this branch and in diverse capacity across various branches and at the bank headquarters. The branch manager engaged in partnership with School BB to offer opportunities to staff and students to acquire knowledge and develop skills in entrepreneurship, finance and banking. With time, however, the partnership expanded to focus on developing leadership at every level of the organisations. This happened because of the inter-organisational School BB which had strong partnership agreement with School AA sought to expand its leadership capacity by learning how leadership is developed in other sectors such as banking. The head teacher contacted the manager of the bank and agreed to a partnership arrangement that focused on organisational leadership development. Three respondents – two males and one female – were interviewed. Thirty staff from the bank participated in the survey questionnaire.

#### **3.5 Selection of Cases - Sampling Method and Gaining Access**

Three non-probability sampling methods – purposive and snowballing quota sampling – were

utilized in the main research study to select the participants and the locations because they were conveniently available (Robson, 2002; Neuman, 2000). Although, I sought to select many schools and business organisations as a means of widening the scope of this study in order to generalise the research findings at least to all schools in the study locale (Billot, Goddard and Cranston, 2007, p.18), the two schools and two banks were purposively selected because they were the only institutions that were known to have formed partnerships focused on developing leadership at all levels of the organisation.

I sought and received a list of school-business partnerships in England from the Institute of Education-Business Partnership, an organisation set up to coordinate all partnership activities between schools and business organisations. Whilst there were nearly ten thousand partnerships between schools and business organisations in the UK and abroad, none of these partnerships focused on leadership development, apart from the ones selected for this study. Therefore, the quota and snowballing sampling were chosen as part of purposive sampling to select relevant research locales and involve specific individuals with the specialist knowledge of the research issue, or the capacity to participate in the research (Babbie, 2010). Whilst quota sampling has been criticised as a “cheap and dirty way of doing a sample survey” (Robson, 2002, p.265), its use is strategic and essential to generalise findings to the general population (Neuman, 2000; Robson, 2002).

School AA was the starting point in selecting the most convenient research locale and respondents who have knowledge about the research topic. First of all, I approached the head teacher of School AA, and explained the focus of the study, the rationale and the intended outcome. In a snowball sampling style, the head teacher of School AA, who was keen about the study, sought approval from the governing body. The head teacher consulted the manager of Bank YY and the head teacher of School BB to seek permission for the research study on my behalf. The head teacher of School BB

contacted the manager of Bank ZZ and sought approval for the school to happen. Snowball sampling technique was adopted to select the four institutions that engaged in partnership for organisational leadership development. This method is useful and applicable to this study because as a non-probability sampling method it is useful to identify potential subjects in studies where subjects are hard to locate (Babbie, 2010, p.208).

When the organisations agreed for me to conduct the study, I made initial contacts through email and arranged dates for initial meetings with the head teachers of the two schools and the branch managers of two banks. The initial reconnaissance visits to all the schools and the banks were planned to coincide with staff meetings so I could explain the purpose of the study, the ethical guidelines and the importance of participants' consent to all staff. The sampling methods for the main research study were, however chosen only after they had been tested in the pilot study.

### **3.5.1 Context of Partnership Activities**

The partnerships between the organisations started as a linear relationship between specific organisations, for example, School AA and Bank YY. Overtime, however, the partnership arrangements became amalgamated, where all the four organisations shared views and ideas about activities there were carried out in each organisation. While specific partnership activities started within a specific partnership, such activities were eventually shared and pursued by all the four organisations. For example, with the partnership between Bank ZZ and School BB which is a Christian voluntary aided school, themes from the Bible was first used as a leadership learning tool. With time, School AA and Bank YY adopted themes from the Bible as a leadership learning tool because of the amalgamation which allowed all the organisations to learn from each other. The strong emphasis on adopting partnership activities as a means of developing leadership throughout each organisation provided a special case for research into discovering whether the successes

achieved in each organisation particularly with regards to leadership development could be entirely attributed to the partnership programmes. At this point, it is important to at least provide the learning approaches that were adopted as part of partnership activities that were pursued as means for leadership development.

The study findings reveal that 25 learning approaches were adopted as part of the partnership activities carried out by the organisations. These activities were identified from the data collected through interviews and they informed the design of the survey questionnaire. The respondents demonstrated that they understood what these activities were and why they were adopted for leadership development. Based on the findings, the leadership learning approaches are categorised into four main leadership experiences: practical, academic, emotional and spiritual (see Table 3.1)

<b>Experience</b>	<b>Learning Approaches</b>	<b>Experience</b>	<b>Learning Approaches</b>
<b>Practical</b>	Leadership apprenticeship	<b>Academic</b>	Classroom-based courses
	Job placement		Online learning
	Job rotation		Action research
	Job mixing		Distance learning
	Job shadowing		Symposia/Lectures/Conferences
	Practical coaching		
<b>Experience</b>	<b>Learning Approaches</b>	<b>Experience</b>	<b>Learning Approaches</b>
<b>Emotional</b>	Multi-rater feedback (360°)	<b>Spiritual</b>	Reflection
	Personality tests		Recitals
	Performance reviews		Record of enlightenment
	Mentoring		Story-telling
	Counselling		Themes/Cues from Bible
	Networking		Leadership voice bulletins
	Action learning		

**Table 3.1 Summary of Leadership Experiences**

Within each partnership and organisation, all of the 25 leadership learning activities were undertaken. This happened because all the organisations shared good practices amongst themselves. For example, School AA which partnered with Bank YY shared ideas and completed partnership activities together. School AA shared ideas with School BB. School BB in turn shares the ideas with Bank YY and vice versa. Eventually, within each partnership, the same leadership learning activities were pursued but to different extent. The very specific leadership learning activities that were undertaken as part of the partnerships are as follows:

- Internal skills programmes
- Reading and self-directed learning
- Formal, targeted courses and workshops
- Interactive and specialist workshops and seminars
- Psychometric self-assessments
- Self appraisals
- Formal courses and qualifications
- Self-assessment questionnaires
- Diagnostic tests
- External assignments and placements
- Journaling and narrative description
- Photographs and video diaries
- Communities of practice
- Cases and simulation exercises
- Transformative events, tests and experiences
- Learning sets and peer group support, including on-line communities
- Secondments, attachments and observation exercises
- External courses, seminars and conferences
- Field Trips and Visits
- E-learning (Gibbs, Hedge and Clough, 1991; Weller and Dillon, 1999; Bolden, 2004; Muijs, Ainscow, Chapman and West, 2011).

The study finding indicated that the partnership activities involved meetings between members from each partner organisation to plan and complete leadership learning tasks. Partner organisations agreed on the specific learning approaches to adopt in completing specific leadership learning tasks. Each organisation, was, however, free to adopt any other leadership learning approach to consolidate learning within the organisations. The organisations were however committed to sharing new ideas for completing tasks that needed to be completed by members from the different organisations. The



data that show the extent to which these partnership activities were adopted for leadership development has been analysed, described and discussed in detail in chapter 4 (see Section 4.4). How the data was collected is discussed below.

### **3.6 Survey Questionnaire/Interview Guide Design**

According to Gillham (2000), “the great popularity with questionnaires is they provide a “quick fix” for research methodology. No single method has been so abused” (p.56). Boynton and Greenhalgh, (2004) therefore stress that designing a robust questionnaire for research is essential because “inappropriate [research] instruments – [questionnaire] and lack of rigour inevitably lead to poor quality data, misleading conclusions, and woolly recommendations” (p1312). Oftentimes, however, it would take responses to several questions to reach conclusions which may answer the research question. Acting on the observations made by Gillham and Boynton and Greenhalgh, care was taken in designing the questionnaire for this study. Considering that there is no known existing research and literature that focuses on understanding how inter-organisational collaborations can support leadership development, focus group discussions were held to enable me familiar myself enough with the research area or with a prospective research population in order to predict the range of possible questions to ask (Boynton and Greenhalgh, 2004, p.1313).

Further to the outcomes of the focus group discussions, it became necessary prepare a questions which is similar to previously validated and standardized questionnaire in order to increase the validity and reliability of the questionnaire for this study (*ibid*) (Bowling, 2002). A standardised questionnaire is one that is written and administered so all participants are asked the precisely the same questions in an identical format and responses recorded in a uniform manner (Gillham, 2000). In this study, the questions were formulated were meant to shed light on undiscovered facts about the research topic with the view of shedding light on undiscovered facts about the topic. In the first

instance, several questions that were relevant to the topic of this study were reviewed and selected to guide how to develop the interview guide for this study. The questions were closely studied in great detail to ensure they were fit for purpose [similar in content structure to those validated in previous researches] (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2005). The first draft of the interview questions was reviewed through feedback from other EdD students and my supervisors and then through the pilot study to ensure that they were most applicable to answering the main research question of this study (*ibid*). The findings from the interview informed the design of the survey questionnaire.

The flow chart technique was used to plan the sequence of questions (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2005). This technique helped to ask a range of questions that elicit the necessary information required for answering the main research question. These questions were then compared with existing validated questionnaire to ensure that Bradburn, Sudman and Wansink (2004) highlight that it is crucial to design research questionnaire that will solicit accurate information to answer the research question, by identifying and itemizing subsidiary questions that relate closely to the main purpose of the study. The subsidiary questions were:

- 1) What prompted the need to engage in school–business partnership(s)?
- 2) Why did you choose partnership as a means for leadership development?
- 3) What are the main partnership activities undertaken as a means to leadership development?
- 4) How did the partnership activities impact on leadership development?

Therefore, the interview and the survey questions were designed to answer the subsidiary questions. These questions together with the various subsidiary questions are similar to previously validated questions and were therefore suitable to sufficiently prompt discoverable phenomena. Although the sub-questions 1,2 and 3 do not seem to be closely matched to the key question 4, they were necessary to help understand the processes involved in securing an impact of one factor upon the other.

Pellegrini, Scandura and Jayaraman (2010) argue that with any leadership research that is focused on understanding how one factor contributes to leadership development in different organisation it is essential to that the questions asked explore ‘what’, ‘why’ and ‘how’ one factor impact on another.

This means that the questions asked in the study sufficiently prompt discoverable phenomena (*ibid*). This is because by asking the ‘what’, ‘why’ and ‘how’, a wide range of responses can be collected and analysed to focus on answering the key research question.

The next phase of the questionnaire design involved the identification and itemisation of further subsidiary topics under each main subsidiary question (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2005). For example, with regards to the main subsidiary question: What prompted the need to engage in school–business partnership(s)?, further questions such as (a) Why did you need to form a partnership? (b) Who was involved in forming the partnership? were formulated in the interview and the survey questionnaires.

This approach was followed to ensure the quality control of the questionnaires – interview and survey so that each questionnaire was:

Clear on its purposes, clear on what needs to be included or covered in the questionnaire, is exhaustive in its coverage of the elements of inclusion as well as asks the most appropriate kinds of questions, elicits the most appropriate kinds of data to answer the research purposes and sub-questions and asks for empirical data (*ibid*, p.247).

Following the guidance of Fanning (2005), questionnaire formatting was pursued to understand “how the [interview] and survey questionnaires would be laid out, how the questions should be organised, even the size, colour and shape of the very paper it is printed on” (p.4). Questionnaire formatting is essential for designing well-organised questions for interview and survey questionnaires that make it easier for the respondents to read, understand and complete it and thereby improve the response rate (*ibid*).

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2005) reveal that when the sample size is large, the more structured, closed and numerical the questionnaire would be. Since the survey questionnaire was intended to solicit the views of large number of participants – almost all the members in each organisation – the

questions were structured, closed and numerical in nature. The participants are the individuals who participated in the survey questionnaire (Bowling, 2002). The survey questionnaire was designed this way so that frequencies of response can be generated for comparisons across groups in the sample (*ibid*). The questions asked in the survey questionnaires were based on the key findings from the interview. The questions were further asked in the survey questionnaire to illuminate the findings from the interview, ensure triangulation and to increase the validity and reliability of the findings from the interview (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2005); Fanning, 2005). Care was taken to ensure that each question in the survey questionnaire had a response category or code for determining the factors that contributed to leadership development in each organisation. Pre-coded numbers were used to ensure that the numbers were “mutually exclusive, comprehensive and unambiguous”; and capture the data required for answering each question (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2005, p.43).

In the survey questionnaire, rank ordering was chosen to arrange multiple-choice questions to provide options from which respondents can choose from. The rank order helped to identify the priorities that respondents assigned to each question which helps to understand the relative degree of preference to answering each question (Fanning, 2005). The Likert scale was adopted as a rating scale to govern the priority and intensity of each response (Bowling, 2002). The Likert scale which provided a range of responses to a given question, for example 1=strongly agree; 2=disagree; 3=disagree; 4= strongly disagree; 5=N/A were chosen (*ibid*).

The interview questionnaire was mainly made up of open-ended questions while the survey questionnaire comprise both open and closed questions. The open-ended questions were mainly “less structured, word-based [and used] ... to capture the specificity of a particular situation” (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2005, p.248) and to elicit detailed responses to questions, although the information collected is dependant on the respondent’s willingness to do so (Bowling, 2002).

[Respondents are the individuals who were interviewed as part of the study (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2005)]. The responses from open-ended questions are often likely to reveal deeper information that may help direct the cause of the study. However, respondents may find it time consuming to complete and may provide information that does not necessary describe what they think. Additionally, the information collected from open-ended questions may be difficult to encode and analyse (Thomas and Polgar, 2000). Nonetheless, the use of both closed and open-ended questions in the study helps to address the weaknesses of each type of questions.

As mentioned earlier, the whole questionnaire was formatted so that they appealed to respondents and ensured that they were willing to read and follow the flow of the questions (Thomas and Polgar, 2000). The questionnaire formatting ensured that questions were less likely to be misread or overlooked and this enabled respondents to complete questions accurately in order to increase the response rate (Fanning, 2005). There were preambles to each section of the questionnaire that explained why specific questions were being asked and why respondents should complete the questions (Bowling, 2008). Respondents indicated that the aim of the study and the emphasis on ensuring confidentiality gave them assurance to honestly voice out their concerns and admiration through the responses they gave knowing that the outcome of the study will be helpful to effect positive change in their organisations. The instructions for completing the questions were carefully placed within appropriate places in the questionnaire to reduce the apprehension that respondents may have in providing accurate information needed for the study (*ibid*).

To achieve the expected outcomes for collecting information that is appropriate for answering the main research question, the process of designing the research questionnaire was aligned closely to the aim of the study and the sub-questions (Bowling, 2002). The interview and survey questionnaires were carefully studied to understand whether the content relate to the topics and the scope fully

answers the questions. To avoid any ambiguity and help respondents to answer the questions as accurately as possible, the wording and the order of the questions were carefully studied to ensure that the questions are suitably sequenced to avoid bias through leading questions (Dillman, 2000). The length of the questionnaires was determined to be no more than 45 minutes based on the findings from the pilot study. Additionally, the type of responses such as multiple choices, the Likert scale and the grouping of the different categories of questions were considered to avoid ambiguity (Thomas and Polgar, 2000). Lastly, all participants/respondents were encouraged to get in touch with me (researcher) in confidence when they felt apprehended about completing the survey questions. Before the questionnaire was used in the main study, it was piloted.

### **3.6.1 Piloting of the Questionnaires**

Although, it is essential to follow structured guidelines to produce questionnaires, the draft questionnaires have evolved from one or two minds only. Until the questionnaires have actually been used to elicit responses from respondents, it is impossible to say whether it is going to achieve the purpose they were designed for (Bradburn, Sudman, & Wansink, 2004). For this reason the questionnaires were pre-tested to identify and correct any mistakes before they were used in a full-scale survey and interviews. The *pilot study* was considered as feasibility studies, “small scale version[s], or trial run[s], done [to “try out” the research instruments] in preparation for the major study” (Polit et al., 2001, p.467). The pilot study was conducted in a secondary school and financial consultancy organisation which were engaged in partnership to develop student leadership. The pilot study was meant “to identify and improve on the areas where the main research project could fail, where research protocols could not be adhered to, or whether proposed methods or instruments are unsuitable or too complicated” (van Teijlingen and Hundley, 2001, p.1).

Eight staff – four from the school and four from the financial institution participated in the pilot study. Additionally, a total of twenty-four people completed the pilot survey questionnaire. The breakdown of the participants who took part in the pilot study is as shown in Table 3.1 below. Thus, there were eighteen respondents – ten males and eight females – from the school and six – three females and three males – from the financial institution were chosen. There was a 100 per cent response rate. This high response rate is attributed to the fact these organisations were already considering to conduct an action research to understand the impact of the partnership on student leadership development. When the opportunity came for me to undertake the study, the members of the organisation were extremely to participate in the study to understand the extent to which the efforts put into the partnership activities have contributed to achieving the desired outcomes.

**Table 3.2 Breakdown of Pilot Study Participants**

<b>Respondents</b>	<b>Pilot sites</b>	
	<b>Pilot School</b>	<b>Pilot Business Organisation</b>
Females	8	3
Males	10	3
<b>Total</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>6</b>

The respondents/participants selected for the pilot survey were meant to be broadly representative of the type of respondent/participants to be involved in the interview and the survey studies. Both quantitative and/or qualitative methods were employed. The pilot studies began with “qualitative data collection and analysis on a relatively unexplored topic, using the results to design a subsequent quantitative phase of the study” (Tashakkori & Teddlie 1998, p.47). The first phase of the pilot studies involved in-depth interviews with the eight staff from the two organisations. The interviews happened over a period of two weeks.

I met with each of the eight volunteers to conduct the interviews at the times and places that they had chosen. During the interview, I asked the interview questions exactly as they had been written out in the questionnaires. In doing so, I realised from respondents' responses that extra questions had to be added to the questionnaire to ensure that key issues that would help answer the main research were discussed. For example, I realised that asking key subsidiary questions such as:

1. Do you know of any partnership and/or leadership development activities undertaken in your organisation? How did this partnership start?
2. Why did you choose to engage in partnership with this/these organisation(s)?
3. Why did you choose to focus on leadership development?

under different sections of the interview guide help respondents to understand the differences between the two sub-questions "What prompted the need to engage in school–business partnership(s)?" and "Why did you choose partnership as a means for leadership development?" The order of asking some questions was changed in the interview questionnaire/guide before main study. This ensured a free flow of asking questions in a conversational style which enable respondents to relax and freely respond to questions.

The data collected from the interviews were analysed and the findings used to revise the survey questionnaires. The survey questionnaires were given to participants to complete. All the participants were encouraged to comment on whether the questions made sense and were suitable in capturing the information needed to answer the main research question: the impact of partnership on student leadership. Participants were also asked to comment if the questions have been placed in the correct order and whether they made sense. They were also encouraged to comment on whether additional questions should be added or eliminated and whether instructions on how to complete or respond to questions were adequate and meaningful.

Additionally, I sought participants' views on whether the questions were appropriate in terms of the duration, the layout and whether they covered the main research question and objectives of the study,



but also to test their adequacy, clarity, and sensitivity. Three questionnaire layouts were piloted. The first layout consisted of questions with no space for extra information. The second layout had extra space below each sub-section for extra information to be provided. These two layouts were loose pages stapled at the top left corner. The third layout was similar to the second layout but in the form of a booklet. All respondents who participated in the pilot study preferred the third layout because it was reader-friendly.

### **3.6.1.1 Outcomes of the Pilot Study**

The findings from the pilot study were quite extraordinary and extremely useful in preparing for the main study. In the first place, it was found that many respondents had misconstrued school–business partnerships as a means for business organisation to commercialize and take control of schools. Other respondents thought that the study was about Building Schools for the Future and Private Finance Initiatives – government initiatives for building new schools and for the business to provide services to schools. The findings from the pilot study helped to clearly set the focus of the main study by informing all respondents and participants that this study was wholly focused on understanding how inter-organisational collaborations such as school-business partnerships could help to develop leadership at every level of the organisations.

The general feedback I received from respondents and participants who took part in the pilot study was that the survey and interview questionnaires were simple, well-structured, self-explanatory and easy to answer. However, participants often construed one interview question – “To what extent do schools benefit from partnerships with business organisations or vice versa?” – to mean that business organisations had a monopoly over schools. As a result of the feedback from respondents/ participants in the pilot study, a total of (5) five questions, three key interview questions were revised into appropriate sections and sub-sections to help obtain responses in a well-coordinated way. To

ensure clarity, coherency and free flow of conversation during the interview session, some of the questions were reworded and rearranged, particularly in the section that sought to elicit answers on why the partnerships were set up. Participants/respondents indicate that the survey questionnaire was well structured and so no changes were made to it.

After clarification of the various aspects of the questionnaire, the participants and the respondents commented that they understood the general aim and the content of the questionnaires because the questionnaires were well structured and the vocabulary used was meaningful. The participants and the respondents demonstrated their knowledge and understanding of the study through the explanation they gave for each of the questions asked. Additionally, the participants indicated because the questions that solicited their knowledge and understanding about activities they were familiar with, they were easily understood all the aspects of the questionnaire. The feedback given by the participants and the respondents about their understanding of the research was taken as the truth because as indicated by Watt (2003) the “young or old, assertive or quiet, a man or a woman possess the innate abilities to perceive leadership as a combination of experiences” (p.4).

The outcome of the pilot study revealed that the most convenient time to conduct the main study in order to have a high response rate was from early October to mid December 2011, instead of during September 2011 as I had planned earlier. This is because many staff tended to be either on holiday or extremely busy during the month of September. The pilot study showed that all the staff who had worked in schools or the banks for less than two years could not respond well to the survey questionnaire and interview questions, because of lack of exposure to matters of partnership activities for a prolonged period of time to enable them to understand how partnership activities could support leadership development. The final survey questionnaire and interview guide were used in the main study.

### **3.7 Final Interview and Survey Questionnaire**

The final interview and survey questionnaires were developed into sections based on the four sub-questions that were intended to answer the main research question as mentioned above. It was, however deemed appropriate to collect background information about all participants in order to understand how their backgrounds influence their responses.

#### **3.7.1 Section A: Personal Background**

Information about participants' age, gender, professional background and status in the organisation was meant to make the coding of both qualitative and quantitative data possible and to discover whether their views were influenced by gender, age, status and the organisation in which they worked. Participants were asked to indicate which organisation they worked for so that they could be tracked through pseudonyms assigned to each of them if it was necessary to contact them again.

#### **3.7.2 Section B: What prompted the need to engage in school–business partnership(s)?**

Questions about what partnership is, why the partnerships were set up and why one organisation chose to engage in partnerships with another were asked in this section. Participants were asked specific questions: What is the extent of your involvement in the partnership? Why did you form a partnership with this school or organisation? Do you still believe it was worthwhile to set up this partnership? Responses to these questions helped in understanding the similarities and differences in the views of participants from each organisation.

#### **3.7.3 Section C: Why did you choose partnership as a means for leadership development?**

This section sought to understand why partnership activities were undertaken as a means for leadership development. The interview questions sought to understand why the organisations were

convinced that partnership and inter-organisational collaborations could serve as alternative means for organisational leadership development.

#### **3.7.4 Section D: What are the main partnership activities undertaken as a means to leadership development?**

Section D sought to discover the main partnership activities carried out by the organisations and why these specific activities were carried out. Participants were asked to rate organisational activities that were undertaken as part of the partnership activities in support of leadership development within their organisation by indicating their degree of agreement on a five-point Likert scale (0= not applicable; 1 = less effect to 4 = to a great extent).

#### **3.7.5 Section E: How did the partnership activities impact on leadership development?**

The interview prompts asked participants to give specific evidence of how the partnership activities have contributed to leadership development. When completing the survey questionnaire, participants were asked to indicate (tick) the specific impact of partnership activities on leadership development. Participants were asked to indicate appropriate leadership, attributes skills and behaviours that could be considered as key aspects of leadership development. They were then asked to rate the extent to which each of the partnership activities contributed to leadership development, using a five-point Likert scale (0 = not applicable; 1 = less likely to 4= most likely).

The experiences gained by collecting, transcribing, coding and analysing data from the pilot study, together with the changes made to the questionnaire content and layout, helped to improve the clarity, instructions and language used so that participants were able to complete the survey questionnaire and answer the interview questions in a more meaningful way. Addressing all the issues raised in the pilot study helped to discard all unnecessary, difficult or ambiguous questions, so that the questions facilitate a good range of responses to all the questions in the questionnaires. Such

extensive responses added to the validity and reliability of the study. The final interview guide and survey questionnaire used in the main study are presented in Appendices 2 and 3 respectively.

### **3.8 Strengthening Validity, Reliability and Generalizability**

The concepts of validity, reliability and generalizability are many-sided. For a mixed methods study, these concepts are variously defined. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003, p.12) recommend the term *inference quality* whilst Onwuegbuzie and Johnson (2006, p.52) argue for the term *legitimation* to be used in place of “validity”. Nonetheless, both *inference quality* and *legitimation* connote the idea of ‘internal validity’ – the trustworthiness and credibility of the research instruments and the research processes in relation to the inferences made from research findings to demonstrate the relationship between cause (partnership activities) and effect (leadership development) (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, p.290). The concept of trustworthiness refers to the extent to which the findings are worth paying attention to because they are an authentic reflection of the lived experiences of the phenomenon under investigation (Barbour, 1998). Trustworthiness is established in this study by linking participants as closely as possible to their words so that the findings reflect the meanings given by participants (Rowan, 1981, p.98).

Piloting the adapted standardized research instruments, which have been used over a period of ten years to establish cause and effect relationships between partnership activities and leadership development, adds to the trustworthiness and credibility of the research findings. Equally, the feedback received from my EdD supervisors helped to revise the questions so that they were unambiguous and easy to answer. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985, p.296), credibility is an evaluation of whether or not the research findings represent a “convincing” interpretation of the original data. Consequently, credibility in this study is attained through making available thick descriptions of the partnership activities in each school or organisation and the circumstances that

promoted experiential learning as part of the leadership development process.

The ‘thickness’ of the description is intended to construct meaning of the importance of behaviours and events so that they can be fully understood (Marshall and Rossman, 2006). Credibility and trustworthiness are achieved by providing a rationale for choosing multiple case study research, fully documenting data collection methods, providing details of data generated, and describing the data analysis process undertaken to allow the presentation of unexpected findings within varying contexts plausible.

Triangulation is another strategy that enhances trustworthiness, minimises the likelihood of misinterpretation and increases reliability through the use of multiple sources and a variety of participants that draw upon multiple perspectives to reduce systematic bias in the study (Stake, 2005, p.454). It enables the development of a more holistic and contextual portrayal of a real-life situation so that the data from several sources are likely to corroborate each other to produce more convincing, accurate and reliable findings (Yin, 2003, p.98). Triangulation is achieved through the methodology within which interviews and survey questionnaires are used to collect data and strengthen confidence in the data collected. Data triangulation is achieved through the use of two cases [four sub-case] studies – two schools and two banks in different contexts, in an attempt to widen the range of data sufficiently for a complete understanding of how leadership is developed (Stake, 1995, p.88).

Since research cannot be conducted in a time-free or context-free environment, it is important to enhance the reliability of the study by giving as much detailed information as possible on the sample size, the subject studied and the research setting. This way, the audience will be able to judge whether the conclusions drawn are applicable to other situations and other populations. Yin (2003, p.10) states that case studies can be generalised to other research contexts in order to expand and

generalise theories. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2005, p.115) claim that achieving a high level of inference quality and reliability is a precondition to generalising the study's findings to all schools and banks in other localities. Therefore, reliability is pursued by utilizing a standardized structured interview guide and questionnaire which have been implemented at different research sites. By maintaining an audit trail and adhering to a set of study protocols, such as conducting multiple iterations and follow-ups during the data analyses, random errors were reduced and this prevented any evidence from being lost through carelessness during data collection, analysis and publication of the findings (Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

The reliability of a study means that when procedures are repeated consistently on different occasions but in similar contexts, they will produce the same results (Polgar and Thomas, 2008). However, the changing nature of research contexts and the complexity of situations in schools and financial institutions tends to make it almost impossible to exactly replicate a piece of research. Drawing on Oppenheim's (1992) suggestion for ensuring reliability of research instruments, Likert scales was adopted as the most reliable means for measuring knowledge, attitudes and perceptions on matters such as partnership and leadership development within different contexts and times. In order to achieve reliability and validity in full, it is important to give a detailed account of how the study was approached from the beginning to the end, describing the study sample and the ever-changing context within which the research occurred (Daniel and Onwuegbuzie, 2005).

### **3.9 The Main Study Sample**

The study sample is the set of participants selected from the study population – the proportion of the target population that is available to the researcher for a specific study (Bowling, 2002). The sampling frame is all head teacher(s), deputy/assistant head teachers, classroom teachers and teaching assistants in all English schools – special, maintained and non-maintained – plus all chief

executives, directors, managers and advisors from the banks in England. The sampling frame could not be sampled, mainly because the scope is too great for a study of this size (Polgar and Thomas, 2008). Also, the purpose and context of the study and the time, finances and labour available could not permit the study to be extended to all schools and banks in England. The main study sample therefore could only be limited to members of staff from the two schools and two banks because these were the only organisation known to have engaged in partnership purposefully for developing leadership at every level of the organisations.

The question, however, remains as to the minimum acceptable sample size for a study of this nature and scope. Whilst some researchers suggest that a sample of 30 is acceptable for a small-scale survey others suggest 70. The argument is whether a sample size of 30 or 70 is large enough to allow for generalizability – how applicable the outcomes of the research are to other similar schools, business organisations, age groups or situations (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2005). Briggs and Coleman (2007) argue:

Whilst sample size does matter, a small ... sample free of bias is preferable to a large sample that is biased and unrepresentative or whose lack of bias cannot be demonstrated (p.136).

Accordingly, twelve respondents were purposively sampled for interview and one hundred and sixty participants for completing the questionnaire.

### **3.9.1 Interview Respondents**

Table 3.2 below shows that out of the twelve respondents, five were females and seven were males. Five were Black Caribbeans/Africans; four were White British and three were from the Mixed Race ethnic background – White British and Caribbean. For reasons of anonymity, pseudonyms are given to respondents. All other details are factual.



**Table 3.3 Background Information from Interview Respondents**

<b>Pseudonym</b>	<b>Sex</b>	<b>Ethnicity</b>	<b>Workplace</b>	<b>Position</b>	<b>Qualification</b>
Lucy	F	White British	School	Assistant Head	BSc, MA
Jennifer	F	Black British African	Bank	Bank Manager	HND, MA, ACCA, CA
Daniella	F	Mixed	School	Senior Accounts Manager	BA, MA, ACCA, CA
Annelise	F	Black British Caribbean	School	Head of Faculty	BA, MSc, MA
Johnson	M	Mixed	Bank	Accounts Manager	BA, MA, CA
Marjorie	F	Black British African	School	Head teacher	BSc, MA, NPQH
Phillip	M	Black British Caribbean	School	Deputy Head	BA, MSc, MA
Trevor	M	Black British Caribbean	Bank	Customer Service	BA
Andrew	M	Mixed	Bank	Customer Service	HND
James	M	White British	Bank	Internal Auditor	BA, CA
Cameron	M	White British	Bank	Bank Manager	BA, CA, MA
Owen	M	White British	School	Head teacher	BA, MA, NPQH

None of the twelve respondents withdrew from the study. As explained earlier, there was 100% respondent participation because all the respondents had been involved in setting up the partnerships and were already preparing for evaluation of the impact of the partnership arrangements. All the respondents had played a key role in the partnership programme and were deeply informed and possessed the requisite knowledge and understanding to explain why and how the partnership activities had contributed to leadership development. They were highly educated and therefore capable of participating in the study intelligently (see Table 3.2 above). All the twelve key participants were interviewed using semi-structured questions to elicit their constructed view of how the partnership activities have supported leadership development in organisations.

### 3.9.2 Questionnaire Participants

A sample size of 160 was considered to be large enough, and the findings can therefore be generalised to the sample population. The use of quota sampling makes it possible to generalise the findings from the study to similar populations (Briggs and Coleman, 2007, p.135). Selecting a large number of respondents for the survey gives a broader understanding of how the partnerships may have affected leadership development and provides external validity to the final findings. This way, the findings could be generalised to the study locale as well as to the target population (Altman and Bland, 1998, p.410).

### 3.10 Data Collection

As indicated above, the period and duration for data collection was agreed with the leaders of the four organisations and respondents/participants based on their work schedule and availability. The whole data collection process – interviews and survey questionnaires – happened over a period of three months in two phases followed by follow-up data collection over a period of two and half months to clarify information provided and/or to collect more data. The follow-up data collection was carried out through emails and phone calls. The phases of data collection are shown in Table 3.3 below.

**Table 3.4 The Schedule for the Research Process**

<b>Phases</b>	<b>Data Collection</b>	<b>Transcribing and Coding</b>	<b>Follow-up</b>
Phase 1	<b>Interviews</b> October – November 2011	November 2011	November 2011
Phase 2	<b>Questionnaire</b> November - December 2011	---	December 2011 – March 2012

As explained earlier, before the interview sessions, I attended staff meetings in the two schools and the two banks so I could introduce staff to the whole staff population and develop relationships with

potential participants. Going by the list of respondents who had already agreed to participate in the study during my reconnaissance visit, I asked the participants what time would be convenient for face-to-face interviews. Having agreed the time, I met respondents for interviews during lunchtimes and after work in empty classrooms in schools or offices in the banks to avoid any distractions and to ensure privacy in accordance with the ethical guidelines. In three cases, the interview sessions had to be re-scheduled because the respondents had had to attend to emergency cases. The respondents decided when the interview should be scheduled. As the participants had been given the consent forms already, I asked each of them if they had any concerns. None expressed any concerns or difficulties. Where participants had mislaid a copy of the consent form, I gave them another one for signing. All signed consent forms were collected from participants to ensure that they had voluntarily agreed to participate in the study.

Three interviews were conducted at each site using open-ended questions about partnership activities and how such activities promoted experiential learning in order to achieve leadership development. In the interest of time and to avoid interview fatigue, a maximum time slot of 60 minutes was arranged to allow for interruptions or late starting, even though each interview session took approximately 35 minutes. A follow-up interview was carried out with three respondents from the bank and four respondents from the school to clarify some of the terminologies used and address seeming inconsistencies in narratives. There was one hundred per cent participation.

### **3.10.1 Choice of Specific Data Collection Method**

As explained earlier, the interview and survey questionnaires were modified on the basis of the outcomes of the pilot study, before using them to collect data in the main study. A critical literature review revealed that a survey, a quantitative method, although valued by many eminent researchers, would not be enough to capture the complexity of establishing a relationship between complex

concepts such school-business partnerships and leadership development (Muijs, Ainscow, Chapman and West, 2011). Contrarily, adopting the interview, a qualitative method, alone would make the study “crumble under the scrutiny of those positivists who have little regard for any methods of inquiry that do not employ prediction, explanation and technical control” (Robson, 2002). Consequently, the survey together with an interview questionnaire was adopted for this study.

Although case study designs have been associated mainly with interviews, contemporary studies in leadership and experiential learning have adopted surveys in case study design. Yin points out that the explanatory case study is situated in a cause and effect research approach and this explains why surveys and semi-structured interviews were employed to study multiple cases (Yin, 1999, p.1211). Case study design is likely to be rigorous when survey questionnaires are used together with interviews in the face of unexpected and diverse evidence of how partnership activities promote experiential learning (see Briggs and Coleman, 2007). The multiple case study design preserves flexibility and opportunities for discovery of how leadership is developed (see Yin, 1999). To have any success in using surveys and interviews in the same case or multiple cases it is necessary that the research questions in each method corroborate the other (*ibid*).

Surveys are premised on the notion that making a change to the value of one variable, the independent variable (partnership activities), impacts on the dependent variable (leadership development) (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2005). Surveys also help to identify standards against which existing phenomena can be compared (*ibid*). Therefore, a research protocol such as survey questionnaires underpinned by a clear theoretical framework is needed to guide the use of the data in answering the research questions (Polgar and Thomas, 2008). Self-administered surveys are relatively inexpensive (Bowling, 2002). Although a large sample size is required, standardized questions in a case study design give considerable flexibility to the analysis of data and make the

findings more precise by placing uniform definitions upon the participants (Yin, 1993, p.33). Surveys can ensure that similar cases are interpreted comparatively. Surveys generate numerical data, provide descriptive, inferential and explanatory information about the multiple cases studied, and help to ascertain correlations between partnership activities and leadership development (see Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2005).

On the other hand, semi-structured interviews are driven by a “set of questions which are presented in a logical order to a participant in a face-to-face interaction” (Cohen, 2005, p.92). Semi-structured interviews were used in the case study alongside survey questionnaires to explore the various cases under study because:

Firstly, interviews provide access to what is ‘inside a person’s head’, it makes it possible to measure what a person knows, likes or dislikes and thinks. Second, they can be used to test hypotheses or to suggest new ones. And third, the interview may be used in conjunction with other methods ... to follow up unexpected results or to validate other methods or to go deeper into the motivations of respondents and their reasons for responding as they do. (Cohen and Manion, 1994).

Additionally, interviews “are inexpensive, data-rich, stimulating to respondents, allowing for cumulative and elaborative responses over and above individual responses” (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000, p.270). Face-to-face interviews are used to ask more probing questions and to capture gestures and mannerisms that have a bearing on the study but cannot be captured with questionnaires, and to explore informants’ views and knowledge fully in order to gain clearer and deeper insights into the research question (*ibid*). The overwhelming strength of face-to-face interviews is the “‘richness’ of communication and the depth of information that can be obtained to explain the phenomena being studied” (Gillham, 2000, p.59).

Semi-structured interviews are particularly useful when the phenomena under investigation, such as leadership development, partnership activities and experiential learning, cannot be observed directly (Taylor and Bogdan, 1998). Interviews are an essential source of case-study evidence because most

case studies are about human affairs that should be reported and interpreted through the eyes of well-informed respondents who can provide important insights into a situation (Yin, 2003, p.92). They enable researchers to talk with people about events that happened in the past, opening up a world of experience that is not accessible via other research methods. Self-administered survey questionnaires used to complement interviews in a mixed methods study encourages anonymity and privacy, provides opportunities for more candid, honest responses, and limits interviewer bias.

According to Gorard (2004), using surveys and interviews in a mixed methods approach:

Equips the researcher with a greater level of skill, insight ... and provides the researcher with an increased ability to make appropriate criticisms of all types of research. With mixed method research design, the researcher is provided with figures that can be very persuasive to policy-makers and stories that are more easily remembered and repeated by them for illustrative purposes for making meaning of situations (p.12).

This means that using surveys and interviews in a mixed method study gives a formidable grounding to the research method and makes the generalisation of the findings to other study locales possible. The data collection should, however, be handled sensitively, and should be supported by a framework in order to provide legitimacy for the study (Spink et al., 2002).

### **3.10.1.1 Interview Data Collection Process**

During the interview data collection, questions were asked in a conversational style in an attempt to create a less threatening atmosphere and in the interviewee's preferred location as a way of empowering interviewees to provide information voluntarily and in private in order to ensure that no one will know what a respondent said (Morgan, Krueger and King, 1998). Conversational-style interviews have been criticized on the grounds that interviewers could lead and mislead respondents to provide the responses the researcher wants to hear (Tourangeau, 1990, p.251). To avoid such a situation, I used an interview protocol to ensure that I asked only the standardized questions to ensure consistency (Yin, 2003; Creswell, 2005) through careful formulation and/or probing of

questions so that the questions are meaningful and help respondents to respond appropriately.

The structured interview guide was therefore beneficial because the content and procedures were organised in advance of the interview sessions. The dates, times and number of interviews that were undertaken are shown in Tables 3.3, 3.4, 3.5 and 3.6 below. Additionally, each respondent was assigned a pseudonym. For example, the pseudonym TTA1 meant that this respondent was the first person to be interviewed in School AA and pseudonym FFY4 meant that this respondent was the fourth person to be interviewed in Bank YY.

**Table 3.4.1 Interview Rounds for School AA**

	<b>Round 1</b>	<b>Round 2</b>	<b>Round 3</b>	<b>Round 4</b>	<b>Round 5</b>
<b>Date</b>	October 3	October 11	October 14	October 20	November 15
<b>Participants</b>	Assistant Head (1)	Deputy Head (4)	—	Head (3)	—
<b>Follow-up</b>	—	—	Deputy Head	—	Head
<b>Duration</b>	42 mins	47 mins	24 mins	52 mins	32 mins
<b>Pseudonym</b>	TTA1	TTA2	TTA2	TTA3	TTA3

**Table 3.4.2 Interview Rounds for School BB**

	<b>Round 1</b>	<b>Round 2</b>	<b>Round 3</b>	<b>Round 4</b>	<b>Round 5</b>
<b>Date</b>	October 5	October 6	October 12	October 27	November 16
<b>Participants</b>	Head of Faculty (2)	Head (3)	Assistant Head (5)	—	—
<b>Follow-up</b>	—	—	—	Assistant Head	Head of Faculty
<b>Duration</b>	48 mins	58 mins	50 mins	32 mins	40 mins
<b>Pseudonym</b>	TTB1	TTB2	TTB3	TTB3	TTB1

**Table 3.4.3 Interview Rounds for Bank YY**

	<b>Round 1</b>	<b>Round 2</b>	<b>Round 3</b>	<b>Round 4</b>
<b>Date</b>	October 21	November 4	November 9	November 16
<b>Participants</b>	Customer Service Mgr (8)	Bank Manager (11)	—	Senior Accountant (12)
<b>Follow-up</b>	—	—	Bank Manager	—
<b>Duration</b>	51 mins	48 mins	22 mins	53 mins
<b>Pseudonym</b>	FFY1	FFY2	FFY2	FFY3

**Table 3.4.4 Interview Rounds for Bank ZZ**

	<b>Round 1</b>	<b>Round 2</b>	<b>Round 3</b>	<b>Round 4</b>	<b>Round 5</b>
<b>Date</b>	October 18	October 26	November 3	November 10	November 18
<b>Participants</b>	Internal Auditor (6)	Bank Manager (9)	Customer Service (10)	—	—
<b>Follow-up</b>	—	—	—	Internal Auditor	Bank Manager
<b>Duration</b>	47 mins	52 mins	51 mins	27 mins	42 mins
<b>Pseudonym</b>	FFZ1	FFZ2	FFZ3	FFZ1	FFZ2

All the respondents who took part in the interview were the senior and middle leaders of the various organisations who started the partnerships with the main aim of developing leadership at every level of the organisations. As indicated earlier, they were chosen because they possessed the requisite insight into how the partnerships were started, the rationale for doing so and the impact of the partnership activities on leadership development. The respondents who participated in the interview were able to give detailed information and showed deeper understanding of the partnership activities they have been engaged in because they started the partnership and developed the activities that were meant to support organisational leadership. They often referred to the reports from previous reviews that sought to understand how effective the partnership activities had been in supporting the development of leadership at every level of the organisation.



The interview guide contained a mixture of closed and open-ended questions in order to reduce the disadvantages of both types of question. If only closed questions are used the interviewer can unintentionally lead a respondent to a particular answer. If only open questions are used some respondents may have difficulty in answering the questions. The use of both open-ended and closed questions requires the ability to record responses to questions as accurately as possible (Cohen and Manion, 1994).

As a result, a tape recorder was used with the permission of interviewees to capture the entire responses to questions. Interviewees were completely relaxed about the use of the recorder. The interviews provided the opportunity for probing issues to gain deeper insights into the research question. The interviews helped to resolve the problem of non-response in the completion of survey questionnaires as further detailed information was captured (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000).

During the interviews, field notes were taken as a back-up measure in case there was a failure in the functioning of the tape-recorder, and to record any aspects of body language which may give extra meaning in the conversations (Gall, Borg and Gall, 2003, p.575). Taking field notes have the disadvantage of breaking the flow of the conversation; however, it helps to summarize the key points during the interview and eventually led to less bias. The reflective summaries I completed at the end of each interview helped to capture the key points raised during the interview and any other points that needed further exploration with the respondent. The conversations from the interviews were produced in their entirety for the final analysis. From an ethical point of view, interviewees were given the transcripts for verification, checking for accurate reporting and for the validity of the findings (*ibid*, p.576) and trustworthiness of data (Oliver, Servich and Mason, 2005, p.280).

All twelve interviewees indicated their satisfaction with the whole interview process and the accuracy and reliability of the transcripts. Taping and transcribing interviews in full detail, along

with the researcher's (my) personal comments, is essential to the validity of interviews as a data collection method (Taylor and Bogdan, 1998). After completing each interview, I expressed my appreciation to the interviewee for his/her participation (Creswell, 2005). The findings from the qualitative data guided the quantitative data collection to discover any variation in demographical and positional construct with regard to how partnership activities support leadership development.

#### **3.10.1.1.1 Power Relations in Research Studies**

Studies have shown that power relations exist in research interviews, as a result of race, age, culture and social status, between the researcher (myself) and the interviewees, and that they can be a source of bias (Cohen and Manion, 1994). With this in mind, all efforts were made to ensure that participants felt comfortable and not threatened by my position as a researcher. Prior to each interview, I introduced myself, and described the purpose of the research and steps that were being taken to maintain confidentiality and anonymity. I notified respondents/participants that my position as senior school leader was completely different from my role as a researcher. To empower respondents/participant, I gave them the choice of deciding the time, the location and how they wanted the interviews to happen.

Brinkmann and Kvale, (2005) argues that in research studies, power relations exist and the researchers are usually the relatively more powerful individuals and the participants or respondents are relatively more vulnerable. Hammersley (1999) reveals that some qualitative researchers portray their research practices as inherently dominance-free because of the trust and empathy and a free exchange of viewpoints. Alldred and Gillies (2002), however argues that research interviews, an asymmetrical power relation often exists and the researchers have the scientific competence and the right to pose questions and set the agenda but the respondents wield much power because it is their knowledge, aptitudes and perceptions that makes the research process a success or a failure (*ibid*).

Therefore, Brinkmann and Kvale, (2005) caution that research interview processes can be manipulative because there is the tendency of interviewers and respondents using subtle therapeutic techniques to defending their positions within the research relationships and such standpoints could prejudice the whole research process.

Whatever the nature of relationship between the researcher and the respondents, it is generally the case that researchers are privileged with the monopoly of interpreting and reporting the respondents' viewpoints and what the subjects really meant (*ibid*). The very presence of power relations between researchers and respondents therefore raises ethical questions which place the responsibility of ensuring anonymity and protecting the respondent on the researcher (Flyvbjerg, 2001). Contrarily, Parker (2005) argues that the concept of anonymity in research is presented as the basis for ethical consideration in research can serve as a power relation technique that silences the voice of respondents; deprive them of ownership of their views and insights and empowers the researcher to interpret the views of respondents whichever way is deemed appropriate.

Nonetheless, Alldred and Gillies, (2002) contest that the relation that exist in research interview can be considered as practices that constitute subjectivities; where the researcher at one point would be the one who wield disproportionate power but at other times it could be the respondent who is in control of the relation. The possibility for such changing power relations give rise to ethical concerns which should be given careful consideration in all research endeavours but particularly during the time of data collection (*ibid*).

### **3.10.1.2 Survey Questionnaire Data Collection**

The questionnaires were administered to a total of 182 participants. Questionnaires were placed in participants' pigeonholes in the school staff room. In the banks, questionnaires were handed to

participants or given to personal assistants to be left in in-trays of participants. Even though participants agreed to complete the questionnaires in a month, most of the questionnaires were fully completed and returned to me within two weeks. Before the questionnaires were given out, participants had to sign the consent forms.

The survey data collection took place from mid January to the end of March 2012. Questionnaires were used because they are an inexpensive way to gather data from a potentially large number of respondents and allow statistical analysis of the results. The survey questionnaire included demographic questions to the participants so that the data could be used to locate any correlations or variations in the views of respondents by age, gender, position or level of involvement in the partnership activities. The reason for using questionnaires is to offer stronger grounds for establishing the findings as reliable and generalizable rather than a subjective interpretation of views (Gidden, 1979; Flyvberg, 2006). The survey questionnaire had extra space for participants to provide any extra information that was deemed beneficial for answering the research question.

As indicated in Table 3.7 below, there were 56 potential participants from School AA, 48 from School BB, 38 from Bank ZZ and 40 from Bank YY. However, the numbers of participants who completed and returned the questionnaires were 52 participants from School AA, 47 from School BB, 30 from Bank ZZ and 31 from Bank YY. There were 30 Black Africans, 37 Black Caribbeans, 44 Asians, 52 White British and 10 from a Mixed Race background. There were more respondents from the schools than from the banks: 99 compared to 61. There were 72 female participants and 98 male participants. The response rates in each school and bank are as shown in Table 3.8 below.

Out of the 182 participants, 160 returned their questionnaires, a response rate of 87.91 per cent. The findings show that the proportion of females who returned their questionnaires is higher than the proportion of male participants.

**Table 3.5 Proportions of Research Respondents**

<b>Participants</b>	<b>School AA</b>	<b>School BB</b>	<b>Bank YY</b>	<b>Bank ZZ</b>
<b>Potential Participants</b>	56	48	38	40
<b>Males</b>	32	20	20	28
<b>Females</b>	24	28	18	12
<b>Returned Questionnaires</b>	<b>School AA</b>	<b>School BB</b>	<b>Bank ZZ</b>	<b>Bank YY</b>
<b>Male</b>	29	20	14	22
<b>Female</b>	23	27	16	9
<b>Total Returned Questionnaires</b>	52	47	30	31
<b>Response Rate</b>	92.86%	97.92%	78.95%	77.50%

The reasons for non-response were mainly because some of the potential respondents have gone on sick leave, lack of time, and lack of understanding of some sections of the questionnaire. In initial findings attributes the high response rate to the fact that the respondents/participants felt it will affect something they care about and they wanted to share their opinion about how their involvement in a specific projects has made a contribution to their organisations especially the members of the organisation. Additionally, participants wanted someone who will listen and provide independent and unbiased view about how the partnerships had contributed to organisational leadership development.

The questionnaires and the interviews were analysed to produce a composite findings report. The reasons for the high respondent/participant response rate for both the interview and the questionnaire were explored. Participants indicated that they motivated to participate in the study because they were keen to understand ‘how successful this project has been’ in developing leadership at every level of the organisation. Each participant was given a pseudonym. The respondents who took part in the interview were assigned the same pseudonym to avoid confusion. For example, pseudonym

TTA12 represents a member from School AA who is the twelfth participant to submit his/her survey questionnaire. (Respondents FYY2, FAA1, FZZ3).

The senior leaders indicated that they already planned to hire an external researcher to undertake evaluate the impact of the partnership activities on leadership development within the organisations. My proposal to conduct this research was therefore welcoming. This is because they felt that the outcomes of the research would be crucial for understanding the extent to which leadership has been developed at every level of the organisation and how they could improve still improve on their practice in order to ensure organisation growth and survival. The 'primary' leaders in each of the organisations that the research outcome would be a measure of their success, and therefore encourages members to participate and give genuine responses to truly understand how the partnership activities have impacted on leadership development.

The outcomes of the interview informed the design of the survey questionnaires. Consequently, participants indicated that they were able to complete the survey questionnaire readily to the best of their abilities because the vocabulary used in the questionnaire described the learning activities they had completed. This is one of the reasons why the response rates were extremely high. Additionally, the purpose of the survey and how long it would take them to complete was clearly and succinctly communicated and this encouraged them to set aside time to complete the questionnaire. They indicated that the general enthusiasm amongst the members of staff in completing the questionnaires was because they were eager to understand the impact of the partnerships on their leadership practices. The survey questionnaire from participants were analysed and reported together with the findings from the interview to form a composite report.

### **3.11 Data Analysis**

Data collection and analysis tended to happen intermittently as I went back and forth to clarify some responses with respondents. As soon as I completed an interview, the data collected were transcribed. As a starting point to the data analysis I read the transcribed data several times. Although this was time-consuming, it helped me to be completely immersed in the data and to draw out key themes which informed the final design of the questionnaire for quantitative data collection. The key themes that emerged from the survey questionnaire were also analysed. The findings from the interview and the survey were reported as within-case and cross-case account using tables and phrases, sentences, or paragraphs that report findings that answered specific questions about partnership and leadership development. The within-case and cross-case analysis helped to describe the phenomena as experienced by individuals or by groups. Within-case and cross-case analysis adopted for the data analysis is described below:

#### **3.11.1 Within-case Analysis**

In this study, within-case analysis is concerned with the exploration of a single case - a partnership between a school and a bank as a standalone entity. The within-case analysis involves a close interrogation of data from each of the partnership (school and bank) which form a particular case “in order to discern how the processes or patterns that are revealed in that case support, refute, or expand ... the propositions that the researcher has derived from a review of the literature and/or experience with the phenomenon under study” (Paterson, 2010, p.971).

The individual phenomenon such as partnership activities which formed unique cases were studied in order to understand the uniqueness of specific events or trends to the case. The within-case analysis was carried out to ensure that the unique patterns within a case [a partnership] or a sub-case [individual organisations] which facilitate deeper discussions across the cases and are pertinent to

answering the research question - how partnerships support leadership development. The details of how the cross-case analysis was carried out is given below (see section 3.12.3). In this study, it was difficult to report in isolation the outcomes of the within-case analysis because many of the findings were not entirely unique to individual organisations.

### **3.11.2 Cross-case Analysis**

The cross-case analysis involves grouping together responses to common questions from different groups of respondents from the different cases (partnerships or organisations) to enable the analysis of different perspectives on the research question (Patton, 1990, p.425). A cross-case analysis is crucial to this study because it helps to examine key themes that emerge from the different organisations and to delineate the combination of factors that may have contributed to the outcomes of the cases (partnership activities) (Paterson, 2010). It helps to "identify or construct an explanation of why one case is different or the same as others, make sense of puzzling or unique findings, or further articulate the concepts discovered or constructed from the original case" (Ayres, Kavanaugh and Knafl, 2003). Cross-case analysis helps to corroborate findings from different contexts (*ibid*).

The cross-case analysis was carried out to enhance my understanding as a researcher on the kind of relationships that exist among discrete cases (two different partnerships) and accumulate knowledge from the outcomes of the research study in understanding how partnerships support leadership development (see Paterson, 2010). The cross-case analysis was pursued to allow for comparison of the experiences of all participants as reported through the interviews and the survey questionnaire and to identify categories of significant statements that were common among the different cases in understanding how the partnership activities support leadership development (*ibid*). The details of how the analysis of the qualitative and the quantitative study were carried out are given below.



### 3.11.3 Analysis of Qualitative Data

The interview data were transcribed in their entirety. The first stage of analysing the qualitative data involved listening repeatedly to the audio recording of the interviews along with the field notes and transcribing and organizing the interview data set into texts using a Microsoft Word programme, so I could become immersed in the data (van Manen, 1997) and to facilitate coding of key themes (Ajjawi and Higgs, 2007, p.623). Huge amounts of data were generated, and this made the analysis a tiresome one, because I had to revise statements and compare details of one case with another in order to establish a causal link (Yin, 1998, p.54). All the stages of the analysis were pursued in a methodical way in order to derive meaning from the huge amount of data (Attride-Stirling, 2001, p.386). Common themes and patterns in data were identified according to the qualitative data analysis techniques presented by Miles and Huberman (1994); Yin (1994) and Stake (1995). Data analysis was carried out through a series of iterations: coding, creating a domain analysis, establishing relationships between domains, making speculative inferences and summarizing the data based on key themes (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1983, pp.177).

The print-outs of the transcribed data were spread out on the dining tables and a stepwise approach to data analysis was pursued by coding and linking one session with the other to help with visual comparisons of data and to tease out key themes (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p.127). In line with the initial theoretical framework underpinning the study and research questions, the text was coded so that recurring words or themes relating to leadership development, partnership activities and experiential learning were highlighted in different colours. These “pattern codes were generated to observe emerging patterns such as classes, themes, cause/explanation, relationships among themes and theoretical constructs” (*ibid*).

Coding involves the process of putting data into segments that relate to the theoretical framework

and the research questions by putting tags, names or labels against pieces of data to facilitate the search for themes or patterns (Patton, 1990). The segments of data were assigned meaning by using words, phrases or sentences and by ‘extracting’ entire paragraphs (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p.56). The constant examination of codes meant that some codes were used in-situ, others were revised and some discarded. A daily record of thoughts and ideas was used in forming links between cases based on sequences of data that linked partnership activities to leadership development. These reflective notes were used to explain segments of the transcribed data, using codes to organize the data into ‘domains’ in systematic ways in an attempt to answer the research questions (Punch, 2005).

I decided not to use any technological software such as NVivo to analyse the interview data because previous experience of using Nvivo (during the IFS) revealed that some key information that provided deep insights in answering the research question could be missed simply because such information did not contain specific words, phrases or sentences. I therefore chose to engage in iterative reading of the entire transcribed text, moving back and forth from the key views presented by interviewees in order to make sense/meaning of the whole data (ibid). The reading helped to annotate the entire texts using different colours to represent key themes and emerging thoughts were documented in the form of memos and linked to corresponding research sub-questions. The preliminary interpretation of texts facilitated coding, which formed insights into the interviewees’ perspective with respect to each research question.

This was followed by a two-stage analysis of data: (a) within-case analysis where each case was treated as a unit (domain analysis) and (b) cross-case analysis where the analysis attempted to identify how the processes – partnership activities – affected the outcomes – leadership development – in different cases, to develop more sophisticated descriptions and explanations (domain analysis) to

establish causal links (Yin, 1994, p.112). In the first instance, the constructs that interviewees or groups of interviewees assigned to each question were closely examined in order to capture and present precisely the details of what each person is saying. I considered the ideas expressed in each interviewee's own words or phrases in relation to how partnership activities support leadership development (Ajjawi and Higgs, 2007, p.623). Where necessary, follow-up interviews were organized with individual interviewees to probe further and clarify interviewees' constructs in relation to specific questions. This form of checking provided a progressively richer and deeper understanding of the interviewees' constructs (*ibid*). Eventually all data from each question were put together to form the final report of the study findings.

The second stage of the interview data analysis, involving cross-case analysis, helped to identify second-order constructs and to categorize key or coded information into themes and sub-themes based on the meanings, the theoretical and personal knowledge on the information that each respondent had provided. Themes were identified and created by using key words such as 'leader', 'leadership', 'partnership', as well as 'learning', 'interactions', 'qualities', 'behaviours', and by relating these to the research questions. The process involved the annotation and interpretation of each interview transcript to form a picture of what meanings interviewees assigned to each research question. In the end, the data were put into sub-groups, which helped to seek any similarities between the sub-groups in order to answer the sub-questions (Finlay, 2003, p. 108).

The initial themes were synthesised to identify patterns and connections within and between the different categories of the themes by reading and re-reading all the data, relevant literature and the research texts. This process involves the interpretation in depth of the research phenomenon to "identify meanings that the interviewees could not articulate, considering the complexity and tacit nature of the phenomenon being investigated" (van Manen, 1997, p.107). The initial themes were

presented at an International Leadership Conference in the Midland to “gain feedback on the fitness and credibility of themes and sub-themes, and transferability/generalisability of the findings to other settings of the practitioners who attended this conference” (Ajjawi, Higgs and Hunt, 2005). The feedback received from diverse practitioners assisted further reflection on emerging themes and interpretations and helped to refine and develop the presentation of the final interview findings. The interview findings were further explored through the quantitative component of the study.

### **3.11.4 Analysis of Quantitative Data**

The quantitative data analysis process followed a set of analytic manipulations which has been succinctly captured by Miles and Huberman (1994) to include:

- putting information into different arrays
- making a matrix of categories and placing the evidence within such categories
- creating data displays — flowcharts and other graphics — for examining the data
- tabulating the frequency of different events
- examining the complexity of such tabulations and their relationships by calculating second-order numbers such as means and variances
- putting information in chronological order or using some other temporal scheme (p.11).

The data collected from the questionnaire were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences software (SPSS). The data were entered into the ‘data view’ of the SPSS. Responses from each questionnaire were entered separately, resulting in 289 cases for analysis across 28 variables.

Participants scored statements and questions over a Likert scale, 1 to 5. A score of N/A indicates a participant’s decision to refrain from scoring a particular statement, a score of 1 represents strong disagreement with a statement or question, and a score of 5 indicates that respondents strongly agreed with a statement. Stevens (1946, p. 679) developed the theory of measurement to justify the assignment of numerals to give quantitative weightings. The statements that sought to gather background information on participants for the example their gender, position in the organisation, ethnicity, age and number of years working in the organisation, were measured on the nominal scale. These scales are merely numerical and are the least restrictive of all the scales (Fields, 2006). For

example, the coding of gender was male=1 and female=2. This coding was neutral in nature and carried no weight but was a means of understanding how males and females responded to questions.

The figures representing the degree of agreement were entered into the 'data view'. Using the SPSS software for ease of computation, non-parametric data analysis techniques, principally the measures of central tendency such as mean or average (central values) which best describe the attributes or characteristics rated the most significant by the respondents, were computed into frequency tables (*ibid*). The frequency tables helped to demonstrate differing patterns of response by providing the number and percentage of people in each of the categories for the variable in question, and most importantly the mean values (Pallant, 2007). The mean values determine the extent to which the distribution is said to be in balance and the value shows the number of times the data value for specific characteristics occur in ascending order of magnitude (*ibid*).

In consideration of the items which describe the partnership activities and leadership development outcomes, a mean score of close to 1 indicates that respondents do not perceive a particular item as significant in answering the research question. However, a mean score close to 5 reflects that respondents frequently rated a particular item as significant in displaying characteristic necessary to the research question (see Bowling, 2002). In simple terms, the mean, also known as the average, is the sum of all ratings or measurements divided by the number of observations in the data set, and is often quoted along with the standard deviation (Pallant, 2007).

The standard deviation<sup>4</sup> is widely used as a measurement of variability or 'dispersion' from the mean (Field, 2006). The standard deviation also determines the significance of the similarities and

---

<sup>4</sup> Standard deviation shows how the numbers used to calculate the mean are spread either closer to or farther from the mean. For example, two sets of numbers (a) 1, 7, 12, 15, 20, 22, 28 and (b) 1, 15, 15, 15, 15, 16, 28 give the same mean. However, the standard deviation of the first set of data is significantly larger than the standard deviation of the second set of data.

differences that exist amongst the variables – the partnership activities and leadership development outcomes Polgar and Thomas, 2008). A low standard deviation indicates that the data points tend to be very close to the expected value, whereas a high standard deviation indicates that the data are spread out over a large range of values (*ibid*).

In addition, the statistical significance of results, which indicates the probability that the observed relationship (e.g. between variables) or difference (e.g. between means) in a sample occurred by pure chance, was computed (Bowling 2002; Field, 2006). Thus, the statistical significance of a result tells us something about the degree to which the result is ‘true’ and could be considered as ‘representative of the population’ from which the sample was drawn. The confidence intervals ( $p$ ) for the mean give us a range of values which can be inferred within a given level of certainty to be representative of the population (Pallant, 2007; Polgar and Thomas, 2008). For example, if the sample mean is 12, and the lower and upper limits of the confidence level,  $p = 0.05$ , then the confidence interval are 8 and 16 respectively. It can be concluded that there is a 95% probability that the population mean is greater than 8 and lower than 16.

To help reach conclusions that extend beyond the immediate data inferential statistics were computed. As this study is not purely experimental, inferential statistics such as  $t$ -test and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were run using the SPSS (Field, 2006). The  $t$ -test is used to assess whether the scores of male and female respondents are *statistically* different from each other (Pallant, 2007). This analysis is appropriate in comparing the means of two groups. Additionally, the  $t$ -test was used to assess whether partnership activities have any effect on leadership development outcomes (*ibid*). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to provide a statistical test of whether the means of several groups are all equal, and therefore generalises the results of the  $t$ -test to more than two groups. In this study, the mean values give firm platforms on which to make inferences

about the trend of data sets (Kouzes and Posner, 2003, p.20). Finally, the findings from the interview were integrated with the findings from the survey questionnaire. Thus, specific themes from both the qualitative and the quantitative data were put together, with quotations to illustrate each point and to bring meaning to the research findings.

### **3.11.5 Integrating Data from Case Study and Survey Questionnaire**

Bryman (2007) analysed 232 mixed methods research articles and concluded:

Insufficient attention has been paid to the writing up of mixed methods findings and in particular to the ways in which such findings can be integrated. ... Indeed ... there is still considerable uncertainty concerning what it means to integrate findings in mixed methods research. The relative absence of well-known exemplars of mixed methods research makes this exercise particularly difficult (p.21).

On the contrary, Hesse-Biber (2010, p.34) argues that the research question(s) and the epistemological stance that underpins the study and the notion of what counts as ‘evidence’ determine the style of writing – whether to integrate the findings from quantitative and qualitative research methods adopted. This means the decision on how to analyse data in a mixed methods approach lies with the researcher. To integrate qualitative and quantitative data, qualitative coding was converted into quantitative variables and the data collected analysed and presented to corroborate the corresponding qualitative data (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2005).

The presentation of the phenomenological findings by integrating data from the qualitative and the quantitative data in a mixed methods study helps to “check their verisimilitude (i.e., the fit of findings with others engendering a recognition of the familiarity or resonance of these findings with their own experiences) and to test the clarity and meaningfulness of the findings” (Ajjawi and Higgs, 2006, p.626). The phenomenographic approach to interview data analysis helps to adopt cross-case analysis which is of value towards “enhancing generalisability; content analysis which are valued for their efficiency and reliability as well as deepening the understanding and explanation of a phenomenon being studied” (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p.171).

The phenomenological approach to analysing interview data seeks to present in-situ the descriptions of the interviewees' experiences with respect to interpretation of the meaning of the described phenomena (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009, p.27). Subjective interpretations of data cannot be construed as facts because this reduces the reliability of the data (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2005, p.148). Drawing on an inductive reasoning approach, conclusions about leadership development processes were made on the basis of a set of observations, which interviewees had made about partnership activities (*ibid*). Even though the observation of patterns in partnership activities does not in itself provide a valid method of proof that partnership activities support leadership development in all situations, the inductive observations made give a set of evidence that the research question has been answered (*ibid*).

I followed the within and cross-case analysis by comparing the outcomes of each case with the others. For example, the within case analysis was based on the responses of respondents within each partnership. However, the cross-case analysis involves the responses from all respondents across the two partnerships in discussing key findings that emerged from the study. The cross-case analysis is concerned with comparisons which help to show whether the status, age, gender and social background of individuals influenced their thinking on how a school-business partnership could promote experiential learning resulting in leadership development (see Yin, 1999). The qualitative data were integrated with the quantitative data to ensure corroboration in a final report.

The various methods of analysis adopted enabled the study to identify and compare general patterns and events and note any inconsistencies or contradictions in an attempt to establish correlations and patterns in order to generalise the findings to the study population. Because of the possibility of researcher prejudice, the data from the interview were triangulated with the data from the self-administered survey to validate the findings (Nisbet and Watt, 1984) and throw more light on the



existing ‘insights’ and facts gathered from the research in order to allow for reflexivity (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p.14). Integrating the data from two different methods such as these, in which the same data are treated both hermeneutically and statistically, provides a holistic understanding of how partnership activities contribute to experiential learning necessary for leadership development (see Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2005). However, in the presentation of the data, key findings have to be discussed in order to answer the research question.

### **3.12 Ethical Considerations**

The ultimate goal of research is to seek truth and all research endeavours carry a moral commitment to ensure that the research procedures are not distorted (Mouton, 2001, p.239). Such a commitment in turn raises ethical and moral issues for all educational researchers in terms of the research paradigm, the epistemological position, and the methodological processes, which should be handled in such a way that the outcomes are trustworthy (James and Busher, 2007, p.101). Because of the sensitive nature of the research, I was conscious of ethical issues that could arise from the kinds of problems being investigated and the methods adopted (Cohen and Manion, 1994).

To uphold the research standards as part of my moral commitment as a doctoral student at the Institute of Education, I sought ethical approval from the Institute’s Ethical Committee before the research began. In complying with the protocols of my research discipline, I followed the British Educational Research Association’s ethical guidelines (see Appendix IV) by seeking informed consent from potential respondents and disclosing the nature and conditions of the study before the research began. Even though all staff in both schools and the business organisations were encouraged to participate in the study, it was made clear that participation was not compulsory and they could withdraw from the study at any time.

Whilst I can confidently confirm that every effort was made to ensure that respondents were competent in taking part in the study, it is difficult to state that the participation of all respondents in the study was voluntary. As a senior teacher, I was aware that some participants might have felt pressured to participate in the study because of my position. There was also the situation that people might feel compelled to participate in the study because they might want to please me. Such a position may distort respondents' views through their own preconception of what the research might seek to achieve (Hammersley, 1999). For example, a respondent may want to say what they think I wanted to hear. It was therefore re-emphasized to all participants that their participation was completely voluntary and they were under no compulsion to participate in the study. All respondents were encouraged to answer questions as honestly as they could and not to give the answer they might think that I, the researcher, wanted to hear (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2005).

### **3.12.1 Ethical Position As An Insider-Researcher**

Existing literature shows that the role of the 'insider' researcher requires careful consideration in order to carry out reliable and trustworthy research. The insider researcher occupies a special position of "being there, being seen" (Blodgett, Boyer and Turk, 2005) and as a result may gain participants' respect, and encourage participants' engagement in the research. However, Blodgett, Boyer and Turk (2005) argues that insider-researcher's dual role of being a professional colleague and a researcher may become uncertain to the participants as a result of these interactions. To address this difficulty, I had to remind participants and myself that the research process is separate from our professional roles and assure them that I have an obligation to follow the ethical guidelines to keep all participants free from harm.

Additionally, I made every effort to create a non-hierarchical relationship and ensured that participants were empowered by soliciting their views on where, when and how they would like the

interview process to be organized, and when they wanted to return the survey questionnaires whilst at the same time ensuring the key aspects of the research process were uncompromised (Mercer, 2007). However, such a position is often likely to introduce bias into the research process. To control bias in the research process, I ensured that my interaction with participants did not result in discussions about other peripheral issues but focused on the topic being studied. I continually reiterated throughout the study the need for participants to be honest about their responses to question (Hammersley, 1999). All forms of assumptions about what the study is expected to achieve were abandoned (*ibid*).

Schutz (1976) reveals that the role of insider-researcher raises personal biases because:

The insider researcher has, as a member of the 'in-group', access to its past and present histories. S/he is a party to the nuances and idioms within their shared language; the hierarchical position of members within the group is clearly defined (p.108).

My position as an insider-researcher means that my attitudes and presumptions could influence the research climate, the procedures and the significance given to any particular results from the research (Shah, 2004). This means that there is a temptation to look at the outcomes of the study through the distorted view created by the specific circumstances within which I work. In order to produce an undistorted view of the reality, I had to remind myself constantly of the need to be as objective as possible by using methods that are free from the influence of personal interpretation and to present all data in their entirety, where possible.

For this reason it was important that externally validated questionnaires and interview prompts were used in collecting data in order to achieve procedural objectivity (Mercer, 2007). However, my interpretation of findings as an insider researcher does have a place in explaining the findings, setting the interpretations in context, and judging their importance to partnership and leadership development practice. In this sense, the judgements I made as a researcher on the basis of previous

knowledge and experience can be seen as an advantage in interpreting those aspects of the findings that are important to the study.

Additionally, the pragmatic phenomenological approach of this study appears to have much to offer, as it deals with issues of the researcher as a co-participant, not just close to but also as part of the whole process, an interested party with vested interests in the study. However, Hubbard, Backett-Milburn and Kemmer, (2001) caution that:

establishing close rapport may create problems for the research as the researcher may lose his or her distance and objectivity, over-identify with the individual or group under study, and forgo the academic role (p.120).

Therefore, to attend to the investigator effect, a main source for invalidity which could arise from unconscious personal biases, I had to shelve my own previous experiences and views from interfering with data collected so that all the data collected are allowed to speak for themselves to reflect the 'true' picture and the reality of the views of the research participants "rather than largely interpreted, evaluated or judged by me – the researcher" (Stake, 1978, p.182; Nesbit and Watt, 1982 and Khumwong, 2004). Therefore, all the data collected were "sharpened, sorted, and organised" to represent the views of participants (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p.10).

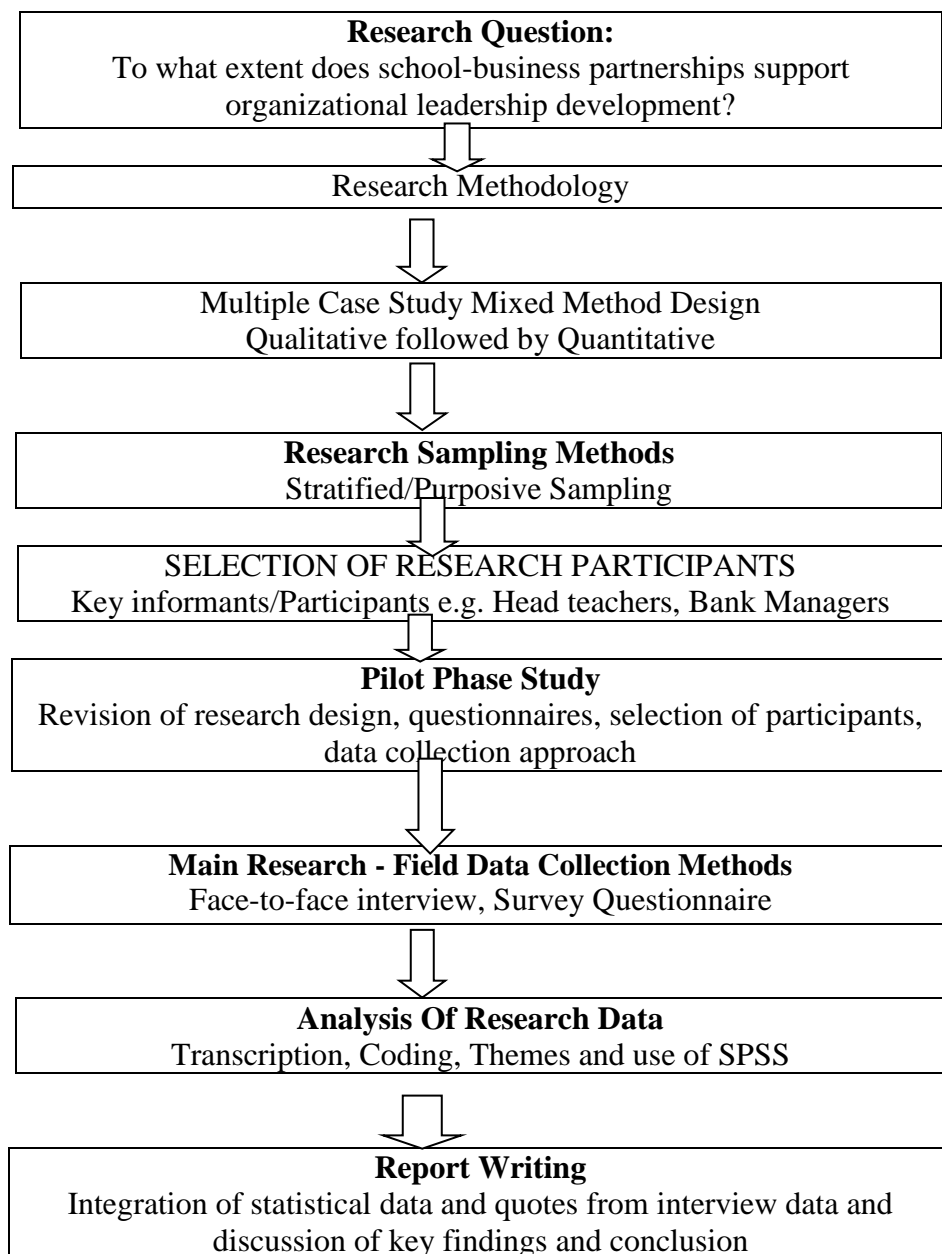
The cost–benefit ratio, which is a fundamental concept in all social research, generates a primary ethical dilemma that had to be dealt with throughout the study (Cohen and Manion, 1994). Careful consideration was given to the cost–benefit ratio of the study to the participants, whose motivation to participate in the partnership activities and this study had implications for their leadership aspirations. In this case, care was taken to eliminate or minimise any barriers that participants faced in disclosing pertinent information, for fear that, if their superiors found out who said what, their leadership aspirations might be affected. As the participants may have considered me as a champion of leadership development at all levels of the organisation by reason of undertaking research in this

field, there could only be an increase in trust for me and this could rather maximise participants' confidence which add to the validity of the findings (Noble and Bradford, 2000, p.29).

Ensuring anonymity for all the participants in any study is a paramount ethical issue. It also brings the additional benefit of enhancing the rate of response and adding to the validity (inference quality) of the data collected. Anonymity was a non-issue in this study. Interviews were carried out in private ensuring that what is been said is not heard by anyone and the questionnaires were anonymous. The interview process was anonymous and the views expressed by participants were confidential in that a pseudonym was assigned to each participant and organisation. What each participant said was transcribed and reported in such a way that the final report provided a composite document containing a blend of views and ideas from all participants, rather than individual results, so that it is hard to tell who said what. Every effort was made to ensure that the data collected were kept under lock and key at all times during the period of analysis. Even though it was explained to participants that the researcher owns the final document and may publish the final document, they were assured that draft copies of the research findings would be peer-reviewed by educational leadership researchers to ensure that all respondents are protected under the UK Data Protection Act, 1984.

### **3.14 Chapter Summary**

This chapter provides information on the research methodology and methods chosen for this study. This study adopted a sequential multiple case study mixed methods approach to understand how school-business partnerships support organisational leadership development especially in the two schools and two banks studied and how the findings can be applicable to other organisations. There are several steps involved in conducting this research. The diagram below has been presented to summarize the whole research process.



**Figure 3.2: Summary of Research Design and Methodology**

The mixed methods research approach triangulates and corroborates the findings from the two research methods to provide answers to the research question, providing a more comprehensive understanding than could be obtained from the use of a quantitative or qualitative method in isolation. The mixed methods approach combines deductive and inductive reasoning which incorporates the ontological and epistemological elements of pragmatic phenomenology to answer the research questions.

A pilot test was used to establish the reliability of the research design and data collection instruments. In the main study, the qualitative phase of the study adopted a case study method to collect primary data from interviews with head teachers, teachers, bank managers, administrators and other bank officials selected through purposeful sampling. The data was analysed with content analysis using iterative thematic analysis to identify themes and patterns in the data which answer each sub-question. The findings from the qualitative data informed the quantitative phase of the research. Survey questionnaire was used to obtain data from members of staff who have worked in each organisation for more than two years. Using SPSS, the data was analysed for inferential statistics such as *t*-test and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). Quantitative data was triangulated with qualitative data to corroborate findings from each research design. The data was tested for trustworthiness approach by assessing for reliability and validity of the findings. The discussions of the research findings are presented in chapter four (4).

**CHAPTER FOUR:**  
**DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS & DISCUSSIONS**



## CHAPTER FOUR

*Conducting mixed methods research involves collecting, analyzing, and interpreting quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or in a series of studies that investigate the same underlying phenomenon. (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006, p. 474)*

### Data Analysis, Results and Discussion

#### 4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the data analysis of the two case-studies of the two partnerships between two schools and two banks in the south-east of England. The purpose of these case-studies is to provide insights into how school-business partnerships support leadership development. This means there are two cases in this study because the partnership between School AA and Bank YY constitutes a case and the partnership between School BB and Bank ZZ make up another case. There are however, four sub-cases – four different organisations with each organisation constituting a case. The findings of within case analysis are presented along the main themes that emerged from interviews and survey data collected from each case [partnership]. Equally, a cross-case analysis is carried out to help in making comparisons of multiple cases – the two cases [partnerships]. The cross-case analysis reports the findings from all the organisations and makes comparisons against predefined categories which are in line with the theoretical framework that underpins this study.

The within and cross-case accounts uses quotations from interview data and summary tables from the survey data to analyse and discuss the findings in an attempt to answer the main research question: how do school-business partnerships support organisational leadership development? The presentation of the cases both discusses the key findings in an attempt to answer the following sub-questions that help to answer the main research question.

1. What prompted the need to engage in school–business partnership(s)?
2. Why did you choose partnership as a means for leadership development?
3. What are the main partnership activities that were undertaken as a means to leadership development?
4. How did the partnership activities support leadership development?

Before reporting the within-case and cross-case accounts, it is essential to give a background analysis of the context within which the study took place in order to provide deeper meaning to the information provided (Ubben, Hughes and Norris, 2001, p.24). Therefore, the background information of the key informants who participated in this study and “have a special knowledge or perceptions that would not otherwise be available to the researcher” (Gall, Borg and Gall, 2003, p.306) are analysed and presented below. The key informants comprise head teachers, bank managers, deputy head teachers, senior accountants, internal auditors, customer service personnel and teaching staff selected from two secondary schools and two banks. As indicated in Chapter 3, to minimise researcher bias, large volumes of data collected are presented to allow the data to speak for themselves. To excise, shred and eliminate any usual findings will amount to moral corruption and a great disservice to the academia, particularly the ethical protocols that guide research processes.

#### 4.1 The Profile of Key Informants

The profiles of the key informants in the interviews and the survey are given in Table 4.1 below.

**Table 4.1 The Background of the Various Key Informants**

<b>Key Informants/Participants</b>	<b>Interview (N=12)</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>	<b>Survey (N=160)</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
Head teacher	2	16.7	2	1.25
Deputy Head	1	8.3	4	2.50
Assistant Head	2	16.7	8	5.00
Head of Faculty	1	8.3	22	13.75
Classroom Teachers	0	--	54	33.75
School Administrators	0	--	9	5.63
Bank Manager	2	16.7	2	1.25
Senior Accountant	1	8.3	6	3.75
Customer Service Manager	2	16.7	14	8.75
Customer Service Personnel	0	--	21	13.12
Internal Auditor	1	8.3	3	1.87
Bankers*	0	--	15	9.38
<b>Total</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>160</b>	<b>100%</b>

**(Source: Field Data, 2012)**

\* The title “banker” includes other bank personnel, e.g. in corporate finance, operations, human resources, and wealth and assets management. For simplicity, these personnel are classified as bankers.

There were a total of twelve interviewees, six from the two schools and six from the two banks, who provided qualitative data through interviews. There were 160 survey respondents; with 52 from School AA, 47 from School BB, 30 from Bank ZZ, and 31 from Bank YY. This means there were a total of 99 respondents (61.88%) from the two schools and 61 respondents (38.12%) from the two banks. The data show that more classroom teachers (N=54; 33.75%) took part in the survey than any other group of personnel. Heads of Faculty (N=22; 13.75%) were the next highest group to take part in the survey questionnaire, followed by Customer Services Personnel (N=21; 13.12%) and Bankers (N=15; 9.38%). In both the interview and the survey studies, there were unusually high participant/respondent rates.

#### 4.1.1 Criteria for Participation in the Study

The main criterion for an individual to participate in this study was based on the number of years and their level of involvement in the partnership programmes intended for organisational leadership development. Based on this criterion, the number of potential participants was reduced from 204 to 160 because the pilot study and the Institutional Focus Study findings showed that any member of staff (44 of them representing 21.6%) who had not participated in the partnership activities for more than two years did not possess the knowledge required to answer the research questions.

**Table 4.1.1 Number of Years in Current Post and Participation in the Study**

<b>Range of Years</b>	<b>0-2</b>	<b>3-5</b>	<b>6-9</b>	<b>10-12</b>	<b>13-15</b>	<b>16 or more</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>Number of staff (N=204)</b>	44	35	53	39	27	6	<b>204</b>
<b>Percentage (%)</b>	21.6	17.2	26.0	19.1	13.2	2.9	<b>100%</b>

(Source: Field Data, 2012)

The study findings indicate that 35 (17.2%) people had been working in their organisations for 3-5

years; 53 (26%) had been there for 6-9 years; 39 (19.1%) had been in post for 10-12 years. The number of participants who had worked for 13-15 years in their organisation was 27 (13.2%) and 6 (2.9%) had been in post for 16 or more years. The highest number of participants (53) had worked for 6-9 years. The lowest number of participants (6) had worked in their organisation for more than 16 years. The general trend was that the higher the range of years, the lower the number of people who had worked in the organisation but the more likely they are to have participated in the study.

#### **4.1.2.1 Time As Essence for Partnership Outcomes**

Commenting on how long it took for the organisations (schools and banks) and individual staff to recognise the impact of partnership activities on leadership development, one respondent in this study clarified that:

When we started [the partnership] it took us not less than two (2) to three (3) years to understand and to have a glimpse of the impact of the programmes (TTA2).

This means time is required for people to rationalise and internalize the essence of new learning programmes, to feel invited and perhaps to de-learn outdated experiences, before they can engage with new leadership learning practices. In a leadership development study, Callahan (2008) failed to indicate precisely the time required for individuals to recognise the impact of leadership development programmes. However, the finding from this study agrees with Sandbakeen's (2004) study findings which indicate that at least two years are needed for individuals to recognise the impact of leadership development activities on their leadership capabilities.

In other similar study, Day (2000) indicated that 7-10 years is required to recognise any visible impact of leadership development activities. In their studies, Conger (2004) and Norris, Barnett, Basom and Yerkes (2002, p.4) however, indicated that at least four years was required to discover any impact of leadership development programmes on the leadership capabilities of individuals. The

observation is that the number of years that partnership activities had been implemented, and more importantly the number of years that individuals have been involved in the partnership activities and their level of involvement in the partnership activities determine the extent to which these activities can support organisational leadership development. It is highly important that individuals, however, understand the reasons for partnership activities in order for any tangible organisation leadership development outcomes to be achieved.

## **4.2 Findings for Research Question One: What prompted the need for school-business partnerships?**

In this study, this question was explored to understand what motivated the organisations to engage in partnership activities. The various themes that emerged in each case are discussed below. The context of each organisation has been described in Chapter 3 (see section 3.4).

### **4.2.1 Within-case Analysis**

The first part of this section is mainly focused on discussing the key themes that emerged from both the interview and survey data within each case (each partnership) in order to understand how partnership activities supported leadership development. The findings discussed here are intended to illuminate the key themes from the interview and the survey data that are similar and possible in a within-case analysis. The later of this main section discusses the findings from a cross-case analysis because these finding are unique to the specific cases (partnerships) or the sub-cases (each organisation).

#### **4.2.1.1 Threats to Organisational Survival**

One key factor that prompted the need for school-business partnership for leadership development was identified as the threats to organisational survival. It is reported hereafter that:

Everything we did was not sufficient – everything had come to a standstill and the very existence of the school was threatened. (TTA2).

We were aware of schools that had been closed down because of poor performance and we knew that if we did nothing, the same thing was going to happen to us (TTB1).

The very fact staff members came to the reality that they could lose their jobs because the existence of the organisation was threatened helped to generate their commitment towards leadership development (FFY3).

The comments given above indicate that there were general concerns about the existence of specific organisations and the need for immediate action to address these difficulties. While specific organisations had concerns about organisational survival and growth, it appears that this was common concern to at least three of the organisations that participated in the partnership activities. The unique observation, however is that the threat to organisational survival encouraged the organisations and their members to be fully committed to partnership arrangements focused on building leadership at every level of the organisation to help solve organisational problems in order to secure organisational survival.

Commenting on the reasons for engaging in the partnership activities intended for leadership development, the Bank Manager of Bank YY reminisces that:

When I arrived here I found customers were closing down their accounts because of poor Customer Relations. I feared the branch would close down. ... We partnered with a school to develop leadership at every level of the organisation to solve our problems. The rest is history! (FFY3).

The observation made here is that within the Bank YY, there were already signs that poor customer relations had threatened the survival of the organisation. This means that the success of the partnership activities depended on the ability of the organisation to identify specific problems that needed to be addressed. Thus, when partnership activities are focused on building leadership capacity at every level of the organisation, including the capacity of customer relation staff to manage organisational problems effectively, then organisation survival and growth could be achieved. The boldness and the proficiency of the primary leaders to share the stark reality that the

organisations could be closed down and all staff members could lose their jobs is essential in mobilising their commitment to engage deeply with partnership activities for developing leadership expertise needed for solving organisational problems.

In Bank YY, the manager claims that the partnership activities had saved the branch because by developing leadership at every level of the organisation, the company was able to rebrand itself and the staff developed expertise in engaging effectively with the public and increased the number of the customers rapidly (FFY1). It is however, quite extraordinary to attribute the effectiveness of the organisation to partnership activities only. Nonetheless, it is stressed strongly that previous efforts to solve the organisational problems did not produce any tangible results until the partnership was started. This means that the improvement seen in the growth of the organisation can be attributed to the partnership activities. “The lessons that we (staff of Bank YY) learnt about how schools compete and operate in attracting more children were complete eye-opener. Through brainstorming activities, we were able to devise a marketing strategy that engaged the interest of public and attracted more customers” (FFY1).

It seems that School BB’s involvement in the partnership was strategic in nature. The school had no obvious difficulties that threatened its survival. However, the ‘primary’ leaders had learnt that their survival as an organisation was to continually found new ways of developing leadership capacity at every level of the organisation. The lesson learnt here is that it is essential for organisations that are even thriving to put in place contingency plans in preparation against possible unforeseen mitigating factors against organisational survival and growth.

The key contribution to knowledge is that when the survival of an organisation is threatened, all the members of the organisation can be encouraged to engage in partnership activities intended for

leadership development at the individual and departmental levels (TTA3). Another key finding is that when the existence of organisations is threatened, it enables the primary leaders of the organisations to come to terms with the fact that leader development is not sufficient enough to sustain the organisation (FFY2). Consequently, the primary leaders are encouraged to focus on developing the leadership expertise of all the members of the organisation to improve on organisational performance and sustain organisational growth and survival (FFY13).

Existing literature shows that when there is crisis in organisations, the personnel (members of staff) tend to go in a confused mode, and they either leave (go into flight) or become resilient (stay and fight) (Barton, 2001). In this partnership, the members of the organisations ‘stayed’ and ‘fought’ against all mitigating factors because the ‘primary leaders’ empowered the staff and recognised their abilities to solve the organisational difficulties. Such recognition is vital in securing people’s commitment that is essential to the success of partnerships in developing leadership at every level of the organisation (TTB8).

Members of staff voluntarily engaged in discussions and brainstormed ideas that enhanced leadership capacity building (FFY5). Staff worked in pairs and in ‘smaller partnerships’ (groups) within the bigger partnership to enhance and strengthen their leadership expertise through skilful participation in internal leadership skills development programme (TTA5) and collaborative learning inside departments (FFY14). Whilst most of such ‘smaller partnership’ activities were deemed to be effective in developing the leadership expertise of staff, others were ineffective. The key finding was that the inter- and intra-departmental collaboration amongst staff were effective in developing the leadership expertise of staff only when the staff members met regularly, communicated frequently, completed self-directed reading activities and applied ‘new’ learning about leadership in the same and new situations (FFZ7; TTA13; FFY29).



The contribution to knowledge is that leadership can be developed at every level of the organisation, when leaders encourage staff to engage in self-directed leadership learning activities at micro-organisational levels, brainstorm and reflect on their own as well as the corporate leadership practices and apply 'new' leadership knowledge and expertise in the same or new situations. The proposition is that partnership activities can continually support leadership development at every level of the organisations when there is clear rationale for developing leadership expertise of all the members of the organisation and to strategise in finding new ways of continually building leadership capacity to meet new and unforeseen challenges that may emerge in the organisations. This would mean that organisations should incessantly learn from the successes of other organisations to build the capacity to address unexpected organisational setbacks. It is essential for leaders [primary] to have a constant desperation for 'growing' leadership at every level of the organisation into to secure organisational survival (FFZ6).

#### **4.2.1.2 Desperation for Survival**

Another key finding is that partnership activities could support leadership development only when there is intense desperation and desire for solving organisational problems.

We were desperate for survival as an organisation in the global market. Cannot imagine how we got here. I believe partnership for leadership development and strategies it provide to compete in the marketplace is the main reason (FFY1).

The constant politically mandated changes are detrimental how organisations operate. This means that organisations should desperately find ways of working together to build leadership capacity to shoulder the impact of external pressures and organisational growth (TTB3).

We had a desperate need for survival and to meet the demands of the government and society as a whole. Our only option was to survive and we were flexible for innovation (TTA1).

It is not a good thing to be desperate for the wrong reasons but rightly so when it is concerned with the very survival of the organisations (FFZ2).

Within-case analysis points to the fact that no matter how successful an organisations may be,

constant competition in the global market produces internal pressures and stress that could result in desperation for meeting the demands of externally mandated changes by government and pressure groups (FFZ1). However, such desperate situations have the potential to motivate organisations to work collaboratively to harness the knowledge and skills of their members for building leadership capacity. This means that partnership activities can support organisation to remodel any rigid structures which exist and are centred on unitary chain of command by individuals by creating conditions for spreading leadership throughout the organisation (TTA51).

The key finding is that partnership activities have the tendency of supporting organisation to turn desperate situations into creativity and innovation for building leadership capacity by developing the leadership skills of all the members of the organisation. The opportunities for flexibility empowers staff and gives them the confidence to adjust to rapid changes in the global market by taking full responsibility of their assigned duties rather than relying mainly on formalized hierarchy of control, authority, and communication by a few individuals (TTB27) which often stifle innovation and creativity necessary for organizational survival and growth (FFZ30).

Nonetheless, the state of desperation within organisation can be detrimental to organisational performance and further worsen already difficult situations because the members may panic and/or become de-motivated in performing their duties as efficiently as they should (FFY19). It is however found that when partnerships are focused on the decentralization of the organisational structures and encourage more fluid communication channels, then they [organizations] can respond rapidly and effectively to unexpected events that threatened their survival and produces desperation (TTA49).

Often individuals are recruited to specific roles with rigidly defined job descriptions, competencies and assumptions (TTB27). By focusing on job roles, other interests, skills and passions that

members possess which are critical to developing leadership capacity within the organisation may go unnoticed and unharnessed (TTA11). This means that when organisations are desperate for survival and growth, it is essential that the primary leaders give assurance to the members and exploit their knowledge, abilities and skills to develop leadership expertise for solving organisational problems (Udall and Szaroleta (2010).

The key contribution to knowledge is that desperation within organisation can encourage the remodelling of organisational structures and the development of stronger collaborative working amongst members of the organisation to strategically plan and develop leadership capacity for dealing with internal and external pressures. Thus, when organisations are desperate for survival, they are often compelled to open up to innovation and adopt partnerships activities that are focused on harnessing the full range of the leadership expertise of the workforce; maximize their resources for solving organisational problems and achieve organizational growth and survival.

#### **4.2.2 Cross-Case Analysis**

In response to the sub-research questions 1, other key themes emerged from the interview data collected from the organisations. Given that many of the key themes were consistently reported in both the interview and survey data, a cross-case analysis was deemed as the most appropriate way of presenting the findings in order to avoid repetition and duplication. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was computed to analyze the differences between group means [frequencies] from survey data and the findings merged and reported with corresponding interview data as a cross-case analysis. The results are summarised in the Table 4.2.1 below.

From Table 4.2.1, the four key factors that prompted the organisations to engage in school-business partnerships are provided. These factors are discussed based on the rank order. The views of the

respondents on these themes are also used to support the discussions.

**Table 4.2: Key Emerging Themes to Question One**

What Prompted the Need for Partnership (Item)	Ranking	
	Frequency (Number of times mentioned)	Rank
Lack of leadership	21	1
Willingness to take risk	8	4
Mobilising personnel and skill	15	3
Identify organisations with similar problems	18	2

(Source: Field Data, 2011)

#### 4.2.2.1 Lack of Leadership

The respondents in this study indicated that sheer lack of leadership (N=21) motivated the organisations to engage in partnership activities intended for leadership development. One respondent clarifies that:

There was absolute lack of leadership. We did not know what to do. We were convinced that partnership with other organisation would help us to find a new way of developing leadership at every level of the organisation would help us deal with the challenges we had. And we were right (TTA1).

The assertion made here is that the main reason for pursuing leadership development at every level of the organisation is because of lack of leadership. This may seem simplistic but existing literature highlights that when organisation are faced with leadership drought, they have rather resort to the same old way of developing leaders instead of developing leadership at every level of the organisation (See Day, 2000; Allen and Hartman, 2008). As indicated by the claim above, the main reason why organisations relied on the same ineffective method of developing leadership is because they often do not know what to do.

It becomes evident, however that the greater the challenge for securing organisation growth and survival, the greater the need for organisations for find news way of developing leadership at

every level of the organisation and harness greater leadership potential which is widespread and focused on securing high organisational performance (FFY2). To develop the greater leadership potential is possible when the leadership skills and abilities of all the members of the organisations are harnessed and directed towards resolving organisational challenges (FFZ13).

It is shown hereafter that partnership within and across organisations creates the platform for garnering ‘greater’ leadership potential for meeting organisational challenges. Invariably, it takes efficient leadership to solve organisational problems and to continuously develop leadership capacity throughout the organisations (FFY19). Through partnership, organisations can draw on leadership ideas; resources and expertises that are lacking amongst their members to enable them solve organisational challenges (TTB10). No matter the level and standard of leadership capacity within organisations, organisations on their own remain vulnerable in response to the changing global, national and local challenges as well as internal pressures (FFB1). This means organisations should constantly ‘buy’ into the leadership capacity from other organisations in order to deal with leadership inadequacies (FFZ3). This is, however possible mainly through inter-organisational collaborations and partnerships (TTA1). Partnerships create the forum for organisations to learn from each other (FFY3) and share leadership expertise (TTB2) in creating a reservoir of leadership capacity (TTA13) that ensures a constant flow of leadership capabilities to deal with factors that are capable of causing leadership ‘droughts’ (FFY24).

Regrettably, organisations continue to adopt individualistic approach to leadership development (Davies and West-Burnham, 2003). As a result, they are unable to draw on the leadership capacity within other organisations (Douglas, 2009). Unsurprisingly, there is no existing study apart from this one that is focused on understanding how organisations can adopt partnership working as a means for corporate organisational leadership development. The individualistic approach to leadership

development accounts for why existing leadership development programmes continue to develop specific individuals as leaders (leader development) instead of developing everyone at every level of the organisation as a leader (leadership development) (Day, 2000). The lack of corporate approach to leadership development, it seems, account for the lack of leadership within organisations (TTB41).

The observation made here is that when organisations are functioning well, there is the tendency for them [organisations] to ignore the need to continually develop leadership capacity within the organisation to deal with unexpected challenges that may arise without warning. Thus, whilst an organisation may have the leadership capacity to deal with specific issues within specific period of time, such leadership potentials may not be effective or applicable to dealing with issues that may arise at other times over the lifespan of the organisation. Such situations tend to create leadership shortfalls (even though there is still leadership expertise within the organisation but this is not effective) in dealing with the unpredictable challenges that continually arise as a result of the constant global instabilities that put extra pressure on all organisations (FFY16). The unexpected organisational challenges that arise without warning in the current changing global market means that organisations should constantly engage in partnership activities, particularly with organisations with similar aspirations to find innovative and proactive ways of constantly building a reservoir of leadership capacity at every level of the organisation to effectively these rising challenges (FFZ23).

#### **4.2.2.2 Partnering with Organisations with Similar Problems (Needs)**

In the main, existing literature points to the fact organisations that face specific problems often engage in partnership activities with organisations that are noted to have the expertise to help them solve their problems (see Tomlinson, 2004; Penhall & Graham, 2008). In this study, however, it is highlighted that when organisations are faced with a particular problem they should rather partner with organisations that have the same or similar problems (N=13). This is because organisations

with similar problems are likely to understand each other's needs deeply (TTA7); consider each other as equals (FFY1); avoid the superior-inferior relationships that exist in many partnerships (TTB18) and remove unhealthy competitions that hinder organisations from achieving expected goals and outcomes (FFZ22).

One respondent, when commenting on why they engaged in partnership activities with a specific organisation explains that:

We chose to engage in partnership with organisations with similar problems because we did not want to be exploited by other organisations who had not experience the difficulties we were faced with (FFY2).

As explained earlier, this study finding reiterates that organisations should partner with organisations with similar problem in order to solve organisational problems, contrary to the popular idea in existing literature that often encourages partnership between organisations with dissimilar interests (Otiso, 2003; Douglas, 2009; Muijs, Ainscow, Chapman and West, 2011),

The question however is: how can an organisation facing a problem help another organisation to solve their problems? In response, one respondent asserts that:

The capacity and the capabilities to solve organisational problems lie right within the organisations, even when these organisations are struggling. The problem is that these huge potentials are often untapped for a good course (TTB3).

The comment made here highlights that there is huge potential within each organisation, even those that are struggling for survival. Nonetheless, these potentials are often untapped for solving organisational problems. The argument here is that when organisations with similar problems engage in partnerships they are then able to harness the untapped potentials within each organisation to solve any problems they encounter (TTB3).

However, organisations with similar problems can solve their problems if only they are genuinely committed to the partnership arrangements and are highly motivated to secure commitment and high level of agreement or consensus from all the members of the staff, the [organisations] (TTA33). One respondent cautions that “failure to secure consensus and input from all members on how the organisational problems should be solved is likely to result in the loss of unique knowledge and experiences needed for developing leadership at every level of the organisation” (FFZ13).

Participant FFZ27, however cautions that it is not straightforward to organisations to gain general consensus amongst all the members of staff, particularly across two different organisations. Contrarily, it is argued that when the primary leaders of the organisation engaged in partnership adopt effective communication and motivational skills, they can win the confidence of the members of the organisation to engage in leadership learning activities which are essential for developing leadership at every level of the organisation (FFY21). Equally, it is the expectation that goal of the partnership is communicated constantly so that all the members of staff understand what the partnership seeks to achieve and know what each member of staff can contribute to the partnership to make it a success (TTA15). More specifically, it is important that the members understand that what the partnership can achieve is more than what individual organizations can achieve on their own (FFZ20). In other words, the whole of the partnership adds more than the sum of the individual parts (Axelrod 2000).

Nonetheless, Connolly and Peter (2002) seriously caution that all organisations should bear in mind that partnership, as a concept is not the end in and of itself but a means to an end. This means that establishing a partnership does not automatically result in desirable outcomes within organisations and there are instances where partnership is not the option for addressing organisational problems. Even where partnerships become the vehicle through which to solve organisational problems, it the



effectiveness of the activities performed which produces the expected outcomes (TTA19).

Douglas (2009) highlights that when defining the need for a partnership, organisation should “not only [consider] what the partnership can accomplish as a whole, but about the potential concrete benefits to [the] organization in particular” (p.23). The observation made here is that in every partnership arrangement, it is essential that the members who undertake the day-to-day partnership activities always consider the bigger picture of achieving organisational effectiveness instead of focusing on their personal interests.

Another reason given for the organisations with similar need to engage with each other is that the members selflessly engage extremely well with each because they understand that they have a common need (TTA17). One respondent stresses that:

I believe the success of the partnership activities is primarily because we [the organisations] were selfless and looked out to help each other solve their problems. We felt responsible for the survival and growth of each other’s organisation. (TTA2).

The proposition here is that ‘organisational selfishness’ (TTA2) is an obstacle to achieving the purpose of partnerships but ‘selflessness’ (TTA2) enables organisations to derive maximum benefit from partnership arrangements. This means that when organisations and their members are inward looking and are focused on their selfish interest, they are likely to lose sight of the greater benefit that could be derived from the partnership arrangements. ‘Organisational selfishness’ is likely to produce unhealthy competitions and rivalries amongst members from different organisations and this means organisations would have to channel their energies into resolving useless squabbles that would stifle organisational productivity (TTB3). While the findings from the study stress the importance of organisations with similar problems to engage in partnership activities in order to achieve expected outcomes, it is equally important to mobilise all personnel and their to solve specific organisational problems.

#### **4.2.2.3 Mobilising Personnel and their Skills**

Based on the findings from this study, it is understood that the organisations engage in partnership so that they could mobilise all the personnel and their skills for solving organisational problems (TTA2, FFY3, FFZ1). This implies that the success of partnerships in supporting organisations to develop leadership capacity at every level of the organisations is premised upon the broad based involvement of all the members of the organisations (FFY17). This means that the commencement of partnership activities should be preceded by organisational appraisals to establish the level of proficiency of the members of the organisation, particularly the potential leadership capacity available for developing leadership throughout the organisation (TTA23). According to Harris & Lambert (2003) the skilfulness or the leadership abilities of the members of the organisation to negotiate real changes and deal with the conflicts that inevitably arise in organisations is essential to building organisation leadership capacity.

The essence of partnership is the ability to mobilize individuals, organisations and communities to engage in activities for achieving a common goal (Douglas 2009). One respondent reveals that:

The apparent commitment from the individuals to develop their own as well as the leadership abilities of others inspired us to engage in partnership (FFZ1).

The finding here is that while people often are mobilized by others for a common cause, people have the capacity to mobilize themselves through their commitments to a worthy cause. This means that peoples' commitment to mobilizing themselves for leadership development should be a fundamental benchmark for organizations to engage in partnership arrangements.

In existing literature, it is highlighted that the members of the organisation who are committed to a worthy cause are those who have the 'can-do' spirit to resolving organisational difficulties (Gardner, 1990). A respondent highlights:

The commitment from our staff was huge. It was incredible to witness such a great morale from staff in the face of the difficulties that the organisations were faced with. Our leaders were inspirational and this motivated everyone get on board (TTA17).

This assertion from the respondent implies that leaders who are planning partnership activities for whatever reason should demonstrate great commitment in order to inspire their staff to engage with the process. This means that the leaders should show the members of the organisation that they are resilient and dedicated to a worthy cause through their actions. The primary leaders should lead by example by consciously demonstrating genuine commitment which is evident and appreciated by all the members of the organisation (TTA12).

In explaining the specific activities that the primary leaders carried out as a means to mobilise the personnel for leadership learning activities, one respondent explains that:

The leaders provided opportunities for stronger collaboration at the departmental level through planned weekly meetings, workshops and time for members to continuously interact, share and exchange ideas (FFZ3).

The finding here is that the primary leaders can demonstrate their commitment by creating a thriving organisations within the organisation where all staff can collaborate to complete tasks that are essential in achieving organisational goals. The regular interaction and communication amongst the members of the organisation helps in building trusting relationships among them (TTA11). Trust decreases organizational fear and encourages the risk-taking that provides the opportunities for others to develop their leadership expertise (Slater, 2008, pp.59-61).

The finding reveals that greater confidence amongst the members of the organisation creates a “confident organisation” that is ready to compete in the global market (FFY24). The “confident organisation” is defined as the one [organisation] whose staff have unwavering faith in their leaders and in what they can achieve as individual as well as a corporate body through a professional-learning community that is focused on building high leadership capacity at every level of the

organisation (FFY24). Thus, a “confident organisation” is the one with a strong and continual drive for improvement by mobilising the personnel and equips them with prerequisite skills, experiences and knowledge to solve organisational problems. The lesson learnt here is that when organisations are willing to take the risk to mobilise the range of expertise that its members possess, they are more likely to solve their problems and achieve better organisational outcomes.

#### **4.2.2.4 Willingness to Take Risk**

While most organisations recognise risk-taking as an important means for achieving organisational success, only a few have the willingness to take risks as a means of solving organizational problems (FFZ2). Hogg and Huberman (2006) stress that risk-taking is noted to be the main source of innovation and creativity that secure organisational growth and survival. This means that when organisations fail to take risks in finding new ways of solving their problems then they are likely to have their survival threatened. One of the respondents elaborate that:

The general understanding, it seems is that all undertakings in organisations and in life involved a form of risk. There was no need for us to be afraid in taking risks and finding new ways of solving our problems (FFZ1).

This statement highlights the need for all organizations to take risks because all activities in life involve risk taking. The uncertainties associated with risk-taking often create fear within organizations and this prevents them from engaging in meaningful endeavours that would enable them to secure growth and survival (TTA34). Existing literature highlights that many organizations fail to take risks because of the fear that risky venture would result in failure or loss (Hogg and Huberman, 2006). The stark reality, however is that it is even riskier for organisations to fail to venture into ‘new territories’ and take risks to solve to organizational problems (FFY19).

Although, it is essential for organisations to take risks in resolving difficult situations, it is equally important that every organisation carries out risk assessment to ensure that any potential dangers are identified and avoided (Douglas, 2009). In this study, the organisations took risks because they were

desperate. A respondent explains that:

We were desperate and needed to engage with other organisations to gain some ideas. Honestly, we had several discussions but no risk assessment was undertaken. By some reason, however we succeed and avoided any potential dangers (TTA2).

It is shown hereafter that while it is important for organisations to undertake risk assessment before beginning any ventures, this is not always possible. Thus, when organisations are desperate and resilient to succeed in partnership activities, they are able to deal with any potential dangers and insurmountable problems. It is, however, too simplistic to assert that desperation and resilience of organisations alone are enough for them [organisations] to take risks and achieve whatever they want (FFZ13). The lesson learnt here is that risk assessments are not necessarily a set of checklist that organisations need to complete but thorough discussions about how and why specific risks should be taken are absolutely essential in achieving expected outcomes.

Existing literature indicates that people engage with risks differently based on their cognitive and emotional abilities (Hogg and Huberman, 2006). It is crucial then that the primary leaders of organisations ensure that the members of their organisations can willingly engage with risk-taking ventures because they have the capabilities to do so rather than being compelled or coerced to engage with the process (TTA28). To ensure that the members of the organisation engage with the ventures voluntarily, it is important for the primary leaders to:

Make deliberate efforts to solicit the views of all the members of the organisation. There should be opportunities for members to ask questions and have their questions answered (TTA1).

The finding here is that a consultative approach is essential for organizations to decide whether to take a risk or not. Such an approach enables organisation to answering the questions and address the fears that people have. The lesson learnt is that different people engage with challenge differently because their perceptions influence how they go through experiences and what they gain from those experiences. As a result of this, and the fact that the success of partnership arrangements are

dependent on the extent to which the members engage with the leadership development process, it is essential that organisations do everything within their power to address the concerns of all the members of the organisation (TTA1).

#### **4.2.3 Level of Agreement to Partnership Activities**

Empirical studies on inter-organisational collaborations reveal that “tensions, contradictions and conflicts are always lying just beneath the surface of supposed ... neutrality in organisations... which must be exhumed and dealt with properly” (Parker, 2006, p.3). Taking on board Parker’s admonition, this study analyses the extent to which consensus was achieved within the organizations. Existing literature indicates that there is a pervasive culture that favours of masculinity over feminism with regards to consultation process within organisation (Ford, 2006, p.81). Therefore, *t*-test analysis was carried out to understand the similarities and/or differences in level of consultation and agreement amongst male and female participants and the results shown in Table 4.2.2 below. Table 4.2.2 shows that there are no significant differences in the level of agreement between female and male participants with regards to the commencement of partnership activities because all the *p*-values are greater than the standard value of  $p=0.05$ . At the organisational level, the mean values of females in school BB (Mean=4.73; SD=0.43) and Bank YY (Mean=4.54; SD=1.014) are higher than the male counterparts (School BB (Mean=4.42; SD=1.00) and Bank YY (Mean=3.97; SD=0.52)) in the same organizations.

However, the mean values of responses of male participants in School AA (Mean=4.82; SD=0.74) and Bank ZZ (Mean=4.88; SD=0.52) are higher than the mean values of responses of female participants in School AA (Mean=4.67; SD=0.82) and Bank ZZ (Mean=4.33; SD=0.85). On the basis of the results, it is safe to say that there is no marked difference in the level of agreement between male and female participants.

**Table 4.3: Did You Agree That Partnership Activities Were Worthwhile Ventures To Pursue?**

Organisation N=160	Gender	Did you agree that partnership activities were worthwhile ventures to pursue?			
		Means	SD	t-test	P
School AA (N=52)	F = 23	4.67	0.82	2.23	0.22
	M = 29	4.82	0.74		
School BB (N=47)	F = 27	4.73	0.43	1.14	0.25
	M = 20	4.42	1.00		
Bank ZZ (N=30)	F = 16	4.33	0.85	-3.52	0.11
	M = 14	4.88	0.52		
Bank YY (N=31)	F = 9	4.44	1.014	-2.54	0.08
	M = 22	3.97	0.52		
Overall population	F =72	4.54	0.87	-2.02	0.00
	M =88	4.52	0.46		

**(Source: Field Data, 2011)**

*Note:* The rating system to find the mean is: (a) 5 = strongly agree; (b) 2 = agree; (c) 3 = somewhat disagree; (d) 4 = disagree; and (e) 5 = strongly disagree. Rank order is 1 = highest to 4 = lowest.

One of the female participants clarified:

Almost everybody was consulted and agreed without being forced to do so. I have been taking a leading role (TTB1 – Female Participant)

The declaration by a female participant confirms the growing evidence that the views of female professionals are consulted with regards to important issues that concerns the growth and survival of organisations. The matter, however is not whether females or males are consulted on all important issues in organisation. What matters is that every member of the organisation regardless of their gender, position or role should be consulted on every important issues in order to secure their commitment to achieve better outcomes within the organisation (TTB23).

Regrettably, there is equal research evidence to show that some female professionals are still left out of organisational decision-making processes even though they [women] possess the extraordinary expertise to make significant contributions to organisations (Taylor, 2008, p.45; Abbas and Yaqoob, 2009, p.279). The loss of input from women has severe consequences on organisational projects

(Eagly & Carli, 2008, p.656). In this study, the views of women were solicited to understanding the level of agreement within the organisation.

#### **4.2.4 Summary of Findings for Research Question One**

Douglas (2009) indicates that partnerships are often formed so that school can acquire equipment, training for staff and for work experience. Partnership arrangements enable business organisations, to gain support for developing workforce for the industry and recognition for their services (ibid). In this study, the key findings to the research question: “what prompted the need to engage in school-business partnership(s)”? indicate that the organisations engaged in partnership in order to develop leadership at every level of the organisation to resolve organisational underperformance and malfunctioning. Unlike many partnerships that engaged only a cross-section of personnel from the organisation, in this study, the success of the partnerships depended on the ability of the primary leaders to secure general consensus amongst all members of the organisation. This was essential for developing leadership capacity at every level of the organisation.

In existing literature partnerships activities are often pursued amongst organisations with dissimilar needs (Harrison et al, 2003). Of unique note, however is the fact that the partnerships arrangements in this study were amongst organisations with similar problems instead of those [organisations] dissimilar needs. One key finding is that many organisations have refrained from pursuing partnership arrangements to enable them solve complex issues because of the risk involved in such arrangements. Nonetheless, it is found risky ventures such as partnership are the means to innovation and creativity that are essential for organisations to solve their problems (Tomlinson, 2004). Additionally, the organisations can develop leadership at every level of the organisation efficiently by drawing on the ability of partnerships arrangements to mobilise the personnel at every level of the organisation and develop their leadership knowledge, skills and experiences. Most importantly, the



success of partnership is dependent on the fact that all organisational members not only understand what prompted the need for partnership but also to know the reasons why partnership was chosen as a means for organisational leadership development.

### **4.3 Findings from Research Question 2: Why Did You Choose Partnership As a Means for Leadership Development?**

In order to answer the main research question, is the study to understand why the organisations chose partnership as a means for organisational leadership development. Within-case and cross-case analyses were carried out.

#### **4.3.1 Within-case Analysis**

Paterson (2010) defines within-case analysis in case study research as “the in-depth exploration of a single case as a standalone entity” (p.971). Within-case analyses were carried out and reported here to understand why a specific school and bank (a case) chose partnership for leadership development. The Individual cases are of great interest to this study because of unique observations they present and their commonality with other cases. In this study, the commonalities of one case with another made it difficult to present the outcomes of the within-case analyses in isolation because doing so will result in repetitions of the study accounts. The small number of outcomes of a within-case analysis of why the organisations (sub-cases) pursued partnership activities in order to develop leadership capacity are presented here.

One member who was involved in the planning of the partnership arrangements indicated that:

We had previously been involved in a leadership programme but we did not achieve the expected outcomes. This is because we were developing leaders instead of leadership. We engaged in this partnership arrangement because of its focus on developing the leadership capabilities of all the members of the organisation (TTA2).

This assertion made here indicates that the reason for one organisation to adopt partnership as a

means for leadership development was pursued because previously planned leadership programmes had failed to develop leadership at every level of the organisation. In this organisation (School AA) partnership was adopted to enable them to create a learning community where the members can learn from the members of another organisation in order to widen their knowledge, experiences and skills to help solve organisational problems. This assertion emphasise the need for staff to develop practical skills by learning from practical experiences in order to adopt practical/tangible steps for solving organisational problems.

Another respondent from the same organisation (School AA) explains that:

We were flexible about how the partnership should proceed. Later on we learnt true leadership development is to give all the members of staff leadership responsibilities so that they can develop and sharpen their leadership skills (TTA3).

The finding here is that partnership arrangements should be flexible rather than rigid to allow for changes that would help organisations to derive maximum benefits. The lessons learnt from the explanation given by the respondent is that although discussions about the partnership arrangements and the activities to be undertaken are important, they are not the ultimate. What matters most, it seems is the ability of the members involved in the partnership activities to learn collaboratively and make changes to the partnership activities as and when it becomes necessary. The opportunity for members of staff from the School AA to learn from those from Bank YY through activities that gave them the opportunity to complete leadership activities was even more important because it enabled the organisations to develop leadership capacity at every level of the organisation.

The increased complexity within contemporary organisations demands that individuals and organisations learn constantly from each other in order to keep up with the shifting challenges that their work brings (FFY1). The nature of current expectations of what organisations should accomplish before they can survive and grow indeed requires organisations to partner with each other in order to harness the potentials that exist within individual organisations to achieve better

outcomes (FFY3). To do so, however, means that the members of the organisation involved in partnerships should understand why the partnerships exist and what they intend to achieve (TTA1).

Commenting on why they engaged in partnership arrangement purposely to build leadership capacity, one respondent from Bank YY clarifies that:

I had participated in partnership with other organisations in my previous position. We derived massive benefits by pulling resources together. I was definitely up for this partnership because the benefits will be huge (FFY2),

The discovery made from the statement above is that successes gained from previous partnership arrangements can be a motivating factor for organisations to engage with partnership activities for developing leadership at every level of the organisation. The understanding is that partnership arrangements are capable of supporting organisations to pull resources together and draw on expertise that may lie unused and unutilised to support organisational leadership development.

A respondent from Bank ZZ gave the reason why the organisation participated in the partnership arrangements that were focused on leadership development by revealing that:

Our previous leadership programme focused on developing leaders. We gain nothing from the programme. The idea that these partnership arrangements focused on developing the leadership capacity of all the members of the organisation was all that I wanted (FFZ2).

The inference that could be made here is that leadership development programmes by themselves do not necessarily have the potential to mobilise and develop the leadership expertise of all the members of the organisation. However, when the leadership development programmes are pursued through partnership arrangements, which by their very nature have the potential to mobilise all or majority of members of the organisation, their leadership skills.

A respondent from School BB indicated that the partnership arrangement was:

Purely a trial. We didn't know what we could achieve from the partnership. We learnt later on that we were wrong because our existing programmes were developing leader

development instead of leadership development (TTB1).

It is evidenced from the assertion above that the leaders of School BB participated in the partnership project purely on a trial and error basis. This is because the leaders of the organisation had already started a leadership development programme and did not recognise the essence of adopting partnership activities as a means for leadership development. In the end, however, the partnership activities enabled them to understand how to develop leadership instead of developing leaders. The lesson learnt from this organisation is that it is sometimes important to try out projects even when we are not sure of what the outcomes of the projects will be because trial and error ventures can lead to new discoveries that are crucial to achieving important goals. The key themes that emerged from the within-case analyses were further explored through the survey questionnaire and cross-case analyses conducted to identify the outcomes.

#### **4.3.2 Cross-case Analysis**

The five key themes that emerged from the interview data: ‘failure of previous leadership programmes’, ‘success with other partnership programmes’, ‘opportunities for sharing responsibilities’, ‘ideas and resources as well as opportunities for exposure to other forms of leadership practices’, and ‘trial and error’ were further explored through the survey questionnaire. These themes were quantitatively analysed according to the age of the respondents because existing literature shows that age is a key factor to understanding why extra-contractual activities such as partnerships are pursued in organisations (Turnipseed, 1996; Conger, 2004).

#### **4.3.3 Why Partnership was adopted for Leadership Development**

The Table 4.4 below illustrates the outcomes of the cross-case quantitative analyses of five key themes that emerged from the interviews. The participants within the different age brackets consistently rated all the items highly except those who are in the age bracket of 55 and above who

rate only one item highly.

**Table 4.4 Why Partnership was adopted as a means for leadership development**

Age Range	Why partnership for Leadership Development?									
	Failure of previous leadership development programme		Success with other Partnership Programmes		Opportunities for sharing responsibilities, ideas and resources		Exposure to other forms of leadership practices		Trial and Error with the hope that it will work	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
24 or under (N=26)	2.13	0.86	4.56	0.78	4.95	1.12	4.81	0.61	2.01	0.46
25-34 (N=51)	3.27	0.63	4.89	0.92	4.36	0.13	4.78	0.54	2.12	0.71
35-44 (N=65)	3.68	0.09	4.78	0.23	4.82	0.56	4.89	0.37	2.29	1.31
55 or over (N=18)	2.68	1.01	3.31	0.27	2.19	1.23	2.72	1.21	0.63	0.17
<b>Overall</b>	<b>3.09</b>	<b>0.93</b>	<b>4.73</b>	<b>0.33</b>	<b>4.54</b>	<b>0.89</b>	<b>4.66</b>	<b>0.45</b>	<b>2.04</b>	<b>0.38</b>

(Source: Field Data, 2011)

*Note:* The rating system to find the mean is: (a) 5 = strongly agree; (b) 4 = agree; (c) 3 = somewhat agree; (d) 2 = disagree; and (e) 1 = strongly disagree.

The participants who were below the age bracket 55 and above have had the opportunity to be involved in several contemporary partnership and leadership activities and so they possessed the knowledge and experience to respond to the question about why the partnership was adopted as a means for developing leadership at every level of the organisations. The high ratings given by the participants (except those in the age bracket 55 and above) was attributed to the fact that they were actively involved in partnership arrangements and had recognised the impact of partnership activities on leadership development to be phenomenal.

When questioned about whether they understood the terminology used in the study, the participants affirmed that there was nothing in the survey questionnaire that they were not familiar with. This is because the information that was used to compile the survey questionnaire came from the interviews that were conducted with respondents from the schools and the banks. The information provided

through the interviews was simply a description of the partnership activities that had been carried out. This means then that the participants who had been involved in the partnership activities possessed the knowledge and understanding to complete the survey questionnaire.

The low ratings of the various items by participants within the age bracket 55 and over may be attributed to the past negative experiences they may have had with partnership and leadership programmes. Moreover, these participants were not deeply involved in the partnership activities because some of them were working on part-time contracts and others were nearing retirement. One of the participants within this age bracket expressed his view by confirming that:

I have been involved in several activities to develop leadership and could not understand how we could develop leadership through partnership activities. I considered partnerships as a means for business organisations to commercialize schools (TTA 53).

The observation made from the statement above is that in organisations, it is difficult to get all the members to agree that partnership is a profitable venture for leadership development.

While partnerships are generally accepted as a means for sharing ideas and resources, it is still argued that partnerships can result in the commercialisation of schools because of the superior-inferior relationships (Douglas, 2009). However, considering the changing nature of organisations because of shifting internal and external expectations it will be completely incorrect to allow disappointing experiences that some members have had with partnership and leadership development programmes to prevent organisations from engaging with partnership as an alternative means for leadership development (FFY10). The reasons for the organisations to choose partnership as a means for leadership development are discussed below.

#### 4.3.3.1 Success with Other Partnership Programmes

From the Table 4.3 above, the highest overall mean score (Mean=4.73; SD=0.33) indicates that the ‘success that the organisations had had with previous partnership programmes was the main reason for adopting partnership as a means for leadership development. Although participants within the age bracket ‘55 or over’ rated this item relatively lowly (Mean= 3.31; SD= 0.27), participants within the other age brackets rated the ‘success they had had with previous partnership programmes’ as the main reason for the organisations to adopt partnership as a means for leadership development. One respondent clarifies that:

Without a doubt, the sports partnership was a great success. I am therefore not surprised at the overwhelming support we received for the partnership arrangement that is focused on leadership development (TTA1).

The assertion made here affirms the notion that ‘successes gained from previous partnerships’ is a key motivating factor for organisations to begin a new partnership for leadership development. The experiences gained from past successes with partnership ventures are recognised as key motivating factor for organisations to engage in partnership arrangements that promote leadership learning that is essential for leadership development (TTB23). The finding here is that success with previous partnership activities increases the self-confidence and self-assurance of the members of an organisation to work collaboratively to advance even deeper and profound learning for leadership development (FFY14).

However, “success” in itself can present a greater challenge to organisations and their members, particularly with regards to organisational learning and development (TTB32). There is the tendency for the members of an organisation to misconstrue “success” as an end in itself because success connotes the idea of reaching the climax of what can be achieved (TTA44). It is therefore important that organisations who have had ‘taste of success’ continually encourage and challenge themselves for further and higher learning (FFZ29). When success breeds overconfidence, then this is likely to

generate complacency which in turn can trim down people's enthusiasm and vigour for sustaining and continuing to achieve success (TTB1). If complacency is unchecked and allowed to spread through an organisation, then the members of the organisation can perform poorly (FFY20). This is because complacency has the potential of blindfolding members of an organisation to think that they have reached the climax and so they do not need to work much harder to maintain high performance and productivity (FFY1).

The lesson learnt from this finding is that organisations and individuals should recognize “success” as a motivating factor for devising new ways of advancing on one’s own leadership learning experiences and the experiences of others to perform leadership responsibilities and enhance their leadership capacity. It is understood that 'success' brings with it an added burden of devising new ways of continuing to remain successful. This means that the successes that organisations achieved for engaging in previous partnership activities does not necessary suggest that adopting the same partnership strategies for leadership development will secure the same success. It is important then that organisations rather learn from the strategies adopted for previous successful partnership programmes to expose the members of the organisation to diverse leadership practices instead of applying previous strategies wholly to new partnership arrangement for the leadership development.

#### **4.3.3.2 Exposure to Other Leadership Practices**

With the exception of participants in the age range 55 and above (Mean=2.72; SD=1.21) who rated lowly the item “exposure to other leadership practices” participants within other age range (24 or under (Mean=4.56; SD=0.78); 25-34 (Mean=4.49; SD=0.92); 35-44 (Mean=4.78; SD=0.23)) rated this item as a highly effective means for organisational leadership development. The overall mean rating (Mean=4.66; SD=0.45) for this item “exposure to other leadership practices” is the second highly rated item for leadership development. One respondent reveals that:



As a national training school, we offered a range of leadership courses but these focused on leader development. When we started the partnership we revised the courses to focus on leadership development instead of leadership (TTB3).

The key observation made here is that although an organisation and its members may be exposed to leadership development practices, such practices may rather promote leader development instead of developing leadership at every level of the organisation. Nonetheless, the exposure that an organisation and its members may have with some form of leadership practices is often helpful in ensuring subsequent programmes are securely focused on leadership development.

This means that even when organisations are erroneously exposed to a leadership practices, they can learn from their mistakes and embark on activities that are directly focused on developing leadership at every level of the organisation. For example, before the partnership began, School AA and its members had engaged in leadership practices that promoted leader development. Since, this organisation had been exposed to some form of leadership practice, the partnership arrangement became a tool for them to refocus leadership practices entirely on developing leadership at every level of the organisation.

The caution however is that when the members of an organistaion are exposed to leadership concepts that are flawed, such an exposure could make it difficult for the members to engage with practices that are focused on developing leadership at every level of the organisation. A member of school AA reveals that:

Initially, we attended ... different leadership trainings. We were taught conflicting concepts on leadership. No one understood what leadership is. Because of this, I was a bit hesitant to engage with the partnership activities that are focused on leadership development (TTA2).

The finding here is that the proliferation of programmes purported to support organisations to develop leadership capacity have the potential of creating confusion within organisation. Such a state of confusion can result in disappointment about leadership development programmes as a whole.

Consequently, the members of an organisation may become hesitant in engaging with programmes that are focused on developing leadership at every level of the organisation. On the contrary, the state of confusion could rather motivate members of an organisation to continue to search for deeper understanding of the concept of leadership. It is noted that partnership arrangements have the potential of bringing people together to find answers to questions they may have about the concept of leadership and how it can be developed within organisations (TTA19). It is however, important that discussions about the concept of leadership are closely linked to the delegation of discrete leadership responsibilities so that the members of the organisation can develop leadership capacity (FFY2).

#### **4.3.3.3 Sharing Responsibilities, Ideas and Resources**

It is noted that the organisations in this study pursued school-business partnership to develop leadership at every level of the organisation by “sharing responsibilities, ideas and resources” (FFZ5). Participants in the age range of 55 or over (Mean=2.19; SD=1.23) rated lowly the idea that leadership can be developed through “sharing of responsibilities, ideas and resources”. On the contrary, participants of all other age groups highly rated and firmly stressed that leadership can be developed within organisations when the members of the organisation have the opportunity to share responsibilities, ideas and resources (24 or under (Mean=4.95; SD=1.13); 25-34 (Mean=4.36; SD=0.13); 35-44 (Mean=4.82; SD=0.56))

One respondent from Bank YY commented on how partnership activities contributed leadership in the organisation highlighted that:

The opportunity for us to share ideas and resources, I guess, was the main reason why we started this partnership... On our first visit to the school, we were truly fascinated about how everything had been effectively organised. What stood in our face was the way responsibility had been shared and how views are solicited on almost everything (FFY1).

The observation made here is that partnership arrangements can create opportunities for members of

organisations to visit each other to have first hand experience of how other organisations pursue leadership development. This means that through the partnership visits, members of different organisations can share ideas, responsibilities and resources for leadership learning which are essential for leadership development. The finding here is that through regular visits, organisations can carefully plan the partnership arrangements to focus on specific activities that would enable them to develop leadership at every level of the organisation. More important, the partnership visits would enable organisations to learn about each other's capacity and capabilities, how each operates and has to offer in developing leadership across the organisations (TTB2).

Contrarily, the ratings from the participants in the age bracket 55 and above did not support the idea that partnership programmes should create opportunities for organizations to share responsibilities resources, ideas for developing leadership capacity. This is mainly because participants within this age bracket might have had experiences with past partnership arrangement where business organisations might have taken advantage of schools. (TTA23). Nonetheless, existing literature explain that while the concerns about the commercialization of school may be legitimate, partnership arrangements have changed significantly and schools are in a better position to negotiate how school-business partnerships should run (Muijs, Ainscow, Chapman and West, 2011). Currently, there is plenty of evidence to indicate that schools benefit from partnerships, at least as much as other organisations do (Douglas, 2009). The study findings therefore confirm the evidence in existing literature which indicates that partnerships focused on sharing ideas, resources and responsibilities (Selsky and Parker, 2005), prevent wastage and exploit the underused human, physical and financial resources within organisations to build leadership capacity (see Frank and Smith, 2000).

The study finding reveals that partnership arrangements have the potential to create a community of people and this enables organisations to harness the knowledge and experiences of many individuals

to solve organisational problems. Bringing different people from different organisations together through partnership arrangements enables organisations to create an atmosphere that supports peer learning which strongly promotes the sharing of ideas, resources and responsibilities that support leadership development (FFY22). This enables organisations to have access to resources which are unavailable to them. The organisations are therefore able to build capacity that is essential in engaging in an array of workable and innovative ways of developing leadership at every level of the organisation (TTB1). It is, however, essential that the organisations involved in the partnership activities are motivated by a strong goodwill to support instead of taking advantage in order to ensure that leadership capacity across the organisations (TTA28).

#### **4.3.3.4 Failure of Previous Leadership Development Programme**

One of the key themes that explain why the organisations embarked on partnership as a means for leadership development is “failure of previous leadership development programmes”. From Table 4.2.1 above, participants within the age ranges 24 or under (Mean=2.13; SD=0.86) and 55 or over (Mean=2.68; SD=1.01) ranked the item: “failure of previous leadership development programmes” lower than those in the age ranges 25-34 (Mean=3.27; SD=0.63) and 35-44 (Mean=3.68; SD=0.09). Considering the relatively low mean scores, it appears, however, that participants generally did not consider “failure of previous leadership development programmes” as a key reason for adopting partnership activities as a means for leadership development. One respondent highlighted that:

Systemic organisational failure was evident and that was dangerous. This happened mainly because we did not plan our activities particularly well. However, we were not bugged down. All we wanted was how we could improve (TTB3).

The observation made here is that all organisations are susceptible to failure, however to experience systemic failure is a dangerous place for an organisation to find itself. Systemic failure happens when organisations fail to plan activities carefully (TTB3). It is equally fair to say that even when organisations have planned activities carefully, there is no guarantee that these activities would not

fail (Bazerman & Watkins, 2004). This means that Failure is unavoidable but it has the potential of creating an opportunity for creativity and innovation that can enrich organisational leadership learning processes necessary for organisational growth and survival (*ibid*). However, organisational systems, human institutions and household cultures associate the notion of failure with fault, fear and blame; we punish failure and do not offer rewards for learning from it (FFZ21).

The participants within the age range 24 and below and those within the age range 55 and above did not understand how organisations could learn from previous leadership programmes which failed to achieve the expected outcomes. One respondent within the age bracket 55 and above argues that:

Once beaten, twice shy, isn't it. Once you have failed to achieve expected outcomes for such important activities you've got to be far more careful. You've got to find better ways of doing things differently, rather than learning from failed activities (FFZ1).

The above statement stresses that organisations should avoid to repeat past activities that failed to achieve the expected outcomes. The assertion is that organisations are likely to fail if they continue to adopt the same old practices that have failed to secure expected outcomes. The observation made here, however explains that the fact that an organisation has failed in a project does not mean that it should avoid tackling the same project in a different way. It seems that individuals as well as organisations become increasingly gripped by "fear of failure" and therefore fail to learn from failure and actively experiment with leadership practices (TTB14). As a result, organisations miss the opportunities of making new discoveries that are essential for addressing problems within organisations (TTB14). Although other reasons for the success of partnership activities in supporting leadership development exist, the study findings show that banishing fear and rebranding failure as a leadership learning opportunity within the spirit of openness is a key contributing factor to developing leadership capacity within organisations.

#### 4.3.3.5 Trial and Error

Another key theme that emerged as one of the reasons for organisation to participate in partnership arrangements that were focused on leadership development is “trial and error”. The results of the quantitative analysis indicate that participants from all age groups gave relatively lower ratings for the item, “trial and error”. The mean values for participants in the various age ranges are: 24 or under: (Mean=2.01, SD=0.46); 25-34: (Mean=2.12, SD=0.71); and 35-44: (Mean=2.29, SD=1.31). Participants in the age range 55 or over gave the lowest rating (Mean=0.63; SD=0.17). This means that “trial and error” was not considered as a good reason for setting up partnership for leadership development. A senior leader explained that:

... It was kind of, a bit of trial and error ... but erm we could not leave everything to [trial and error]. But then how do you know that partnership will definitely result in leadership development. This is where the whole thing, kind of becomes trial and error (TTA3).

The argument present here is that, like all other organisational projects, there is an element of “trial and error” with all partnership arrangements that are focused on developing leadership capacity within organisations. This is because no one knows for certain what the outcomes of organisational projects will be (TTA3). It is, however unwise for organisations to leave any of their projects especially those that are focused on leadership development completely to chance (FFY30). This means that all organisations should carefully plan partnership activities that are focused on developing leadership at every level of the organisation. This is because failure to develop leadership capacity can be detrimental to survival and growth of organisations (TTA12).

Pederson (2011) highlights that it is almost impossible for all human institutions to avoid ‘trial and error’ in our daily dealings. This is because even when organisations adopt new strategies for developing leadership capacity, there is an element of “trial and error” because no one knows for sure that any of the approaches will be efficient (*ibid*). One participant indicated:

Although we have had the liberty to trial different approaches to leadership learning, we do

so with great caution because we were aware that the consequences of making mistakes in developing leadership could be severe (FFZ2).

The assertion made above stresses the point that the adoption of “trial and error” approaches to building leadership capacity is unavoidable because after many years of empirical research, all organisations are searching and seeking to understand what leadership is and it can be developed. In fact, there is no-one-size-fits all approach to leadership development in different organisations and so we keep trying. Therefore, careful planning of partnership activities backed by some element of 'trial and error' is a good reason for organisation to adopt partnership as a means for leadership development. Nonetheless, it should be stressed vehemently that great caution is required when organisations adopt “trial and error” as a learning approach to building leadership capacity, because “leadership errors” can be costly.

#### **4.3.4 Summary of Findings for Research Question Two**

From this study, it is revealed that the opportunities that partnerships create for learning and for solving difficult issues within organisations are immense. However, there is no known literature that explains how and why school-business partnerships can support leadership development. It was therefore important to explore the reasons why partnership activities were chosen as a means for leadership development. Five main reasons emerged from this study to explain why partnership arrangements were chosen as a means for leadership development. The key finding is that the partnership activities can support leadership only when all the individuals are given opportunities to perform different leadership activities. Additionally, it is highlighted that leadership development can be attained at all levels of the organisation only when the partnerships are well-planned and create opportunities for sharing ideas responsibilities and resources for leadership learning.

The caution, however, is that trial and error approaches as well as the desire to learn from past failures must be handled carefully, otherwise the repercussions on the organisations can be detrimental instead of promotional. There are existing studies to show that the age of the individuals in an organisation determines their perception of why partnership arrangements are important for solving organisational difficulties (Douglas, 2009). In this study, it is evident that participants in the age range 55 and above did not seem to agree with any of the reasons that explain why partnerships should be adopted as a means for leadership development. All participants agree that careful planning is important for partnership activities to support organisational leadership development. This is because it is unwise for organisations to rely fully on “trial and error” as a learning approach for building leadership capacity within organisations because “leadership errors” can be very costly because leadership is noted as the most important factor for sustaining organisational growth and survival.

#### **4.4 Findings of Study for Research Question Three: 'What are the Main Partnership Activities that were Undertaken to Support Leadership Development?'**

Although it has been established in the earlier chapters that the partnership activities were mainly learning-based activities, it is essential to understand what learning activities were identified to support leadership development. The key learning approaches that were identified through the interviews were explored further through survey questionnaires to collect further data from a larger population of participants to corroborate or identify diverging views in order to strengthen the validity and reliability of the study findings. An One-Way ANOVA test was carried out to compare the means between the two partnerships and determine whether there was significant differences within and across the cases [partnerships]. The partnership between School AA and Bank YY is labeled as Case 1 and the one [partnership] between School BB and Bank ZZ is labeled as Case 2. A within-case and cross-case analyses of the data findings from the survey questionnaires and the



interviews are integrated and discussed together to ensure triangulation of data. The nature of each leadership learning activity and the extent to which each activity contributes to leadership development is discussed.

The study finding defines 25 different learning approaches which are grouped into four (4) main leadership experiences: practical, academic, emotional and spiritual. The leadership experiences are defined as the knowledge, ideas and skills acquired by the members of the organisations as a result of their active involvement and exposure to a wide range of leadership activities to enable them develop leadership capacity and capabilities. The learning approaches are the different learning activities performed by the members of the organisation in order to develop different leadership experiences. The learning approaches are the main partnership activities performed by the different organisations. The Table 4.5 below summarises the different leadership experiences, the learning approaches and the extent to which each leadership experience develops human or social capital.

As explained earlier in Chapter 3, the learning approaches were identified from interviews from the respondents and explored further in the survey questionnaire. This means the participants understood what these learning approaches were because they were the very specific learning [partnership] activities that were carried out by the participants. The results of the data analyses show that there is no significant difference in the mean values for the different learning approaches except the item: symposia/lectures/conferences received a relatively low rating from participants from Case 1. Overall, respondents from the two different cases rated spiritual experience the corresponding learning approaches higher than the rest of the experiences. The extent to which each of the leadership experiences and the corresponding learning approaches contribute to leadership development are discussed below.

**Table 4.5 Summary and Analysis of Four Leadership Development Experiences**

Experience	Learning Approaches	Expected Outcomes	HC	SC	(Case 1) School AA & Bank YY		(Case 2) School BB & Bank ZZ	
					Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Practical	Leadership apprenticeship	Development of diverse leadership skills, expertises and experiences for positive behaviour change for improved leadership performance.	✓	✓	4.68	1.21	4.92	1.24
	Job placement				4.48	0.46	4.42	1.42
	Job rotation				4.62	1.41	4.68	0.24
	Job mixing				4.82	1.52	4.10	2.13
	Job shadowing				4.64	0.13	4.36	1.01
	Practical coaching				4.06	0.70	3.84	0.00
Academic	Degree, postgraduate study, etc	Broader understanding of different concepts, theories of leadership and development of knowledge to re-shape leadership practices	✓	?	4.24	1.42	4.65	0.82
	Classroom-based courses				4.02	1.00	4.12	0.76
	Online learning				4.01	0.61	4.94	1.01
	Action research				4.12	0.34	4.92	0.52
	Distance learning				4.36	0.00	3.24	1.34
	Symposia/Lectures/Conferences				3.18	0.00	4.01	1.00
Emotional	Multi-rater feedback (360°)	Increased self-awareness of staff through identification, management of an array of emotions and positive response to organisation culture.	✓	✓	4.44	0.12	4.62	1.35
	Action Learning				4.88	0.00	4.92	0.12
	Personality Tests				4.00	0.20	4.01	1.23
	Performance reviews				4.28	1.11	4.32	0.70
	Mentoring				4.24	0.00	4.24	1.10
	Counselling				4.24	0.40	4.78	1.60
	Networking				4.84	1.00	4.10	0.17
Spiritual	Reflection	Development of the self-consciousness (psychology) and mind to build up spiritual capacity and moral purpose of staff to increase both satisfaction and productivity at workplace	✓	✓	5.00	0.00	5.00	0.93
	Recitals				4.76	0.15	4.76	1.01
	Record of enlightenment				4.24	0.40	4.89	0.24
	Story-telling				4.16	1.25	4.81	1.43
	Themes/Cues from Bible				5.00	0.00	4.99	0.11
	Leadership voice bulletins				4.26	0.01	4.06	0.00

*Note:* The rating system to find the mean is: (a) 5 = strongly agree; (b) 4 = agree; (c) 3 = somewhat agree; (d) 2 = disagree; and (e) 1= strongly disagree. *Note:* HC = Human Capital; SC = Social Capital; ✓ = development target achieved; x = development target not achieved; ? = possible development target (Day, 2000).

#### **4.4.1 Spiritual Leadership Experiences**

A review of existing literature that explores the concept of spiritual leadership in the academic, public and business domain and how it is applied in the secular organisation is very limited (Fry, 2003). There is evidence to suggest that little attention has been given to spirituality in organisation, particularly with regards to leadership development in the American and many European societies, (Pratt, 2000). Driscoll and Wiebe (2007) highlights that “publication in popular business media and academic literature on spiritual leadership has been criticised because it has many uncontrolled assumptions and is based on shallow understanding on the existing literature” (p.3). However, there are several empirical studies that propose that emerging perceptions on spiritual leadership should be examined more rigorously (*ibid*).

Fry (2003) defines spirituality in organisations as “comprising the values, attitudes, and behaviours that are necessary to intrinsically motivate one’s self and others so that they have a sense of spiritual survival through calling and membership” (pp.694-695). The finding from this study that purposes to identify spiritual leadership as an aspect of organisational leadership is quite unusual. The references of spiritual leadership experiences as those that are concerned with the development of the spirit (psychology), mind (mental faculties) and the will power (self-discipline and determination) in order to increase personal and professional proficiency and build moral purpose to achieve both satisfaction and productivity in organisations is quite atypical. The finding here is that spiritual leadership learning experiences are developed through several leadership learning approaches which mainly involve thinking, watching and reflective observation of set of leadership events which provide opportunities for members of organisations to conceptualise the abstract concepts, theories and practices of leadership (TTA3, TTB1, FFY14, FFZ21).

Thus, spiritual learning experiences help to develop the mental (mind and intellect), affective (emotions) and the psychomotor (physical) abilities of members of an organisation (TTA3, TTA19, TTB1). From this study, it is evidenced that people will learn and develop their leadership abilities better when they learn to feel, watch, think, and do [perform] leadership activities (TTA2, FFY6). From Table 4.4 above, the key leadership learning approaches that support the development of spiritual leadership experiences are identified as reflection, recitals, records of enlightenment as well as story-telling, themes from the Bible and leadership voice bulletin.

#### **4.4.1.1 Reflections**

In this study, reflection was described as a learning process where individuals or groups of people actively think about and make links between past and present experiences in order to identify a new and better way to solve current or future problems and contribute to professional knowledge and practice (TTA2; TTB3; FFY3). Duffy (2007) reveals that as a learning practice, “reflection is an active deliberate process of critically examining practice where an individual is challenged and enabled to undertake the process of self-enquiry to empower the practitioner to realize desirable and effective practice within a reflexive spiral of personal transformation” (p.1405). The findings reveal that “reflection” is a deliberate learning process where participants engage in specific learning activities such as self-appraisals, communities of practice and transformative events which were all focused on enabling individuals and/or group of individuals to think deeply about their personal and professional experiences and gaining a deeper understanding of specific practices (TTA2; TTA14).

In this study, self appraisal is recognised as a learning process that enables individuals to take a careful look at themselves, their performance and make a record of their accomplishments, strengths, weaknesses, problems encountered and how they could improve on their leadership practices (TTA3; TTB2). A community of practice is defined as a learning process where, a group of people

who share a common interest in a particular area of profession and practice engage in discussions and observe each other in order to share information and experiences with the goal of gaining knowledge to improve their personal and professional expertises in their related field (TTA3). Elias (1997) defines transformative learning as “the expansion of consciousness [the sense of being] through the transformation of basic worldview and specific capacities of the self; transformative learning is facilitated through consciously directed processes such as appreciatively accessing and receiving the symbolic contents of the unconscious and critically analyzing underlying premises” (p.2).

The learning approaches that support spiritual leadership development enable the members of the organisations to reflect on themselves - their leadership behaviours, attitudes and practices; identify their strengths and weaknesses and acquire knowledge, skills and experiences to improve their leadership practices (TTA2; TTA14). Thus, the spiritual leadership learning approaches enable the members of the organisation to reflect deeply and develop deeper understanding of the various leadership concepts, theories and practices which are essential for developing leadership expertise (FFY1; TTB2).

The findings reveal that “Reflections” was highly rated in Cases 1 (Mean=5.00; SD=0.0) and Case 2 (Mean=5.00; SD=0.93) as one of the most important learning approaches for developing spiritual experiences which are essential for leadership development. “Reflection” was highly related because as a spiritual learning approach, it is concerned with the development of both human and social capital through concrete experimentation – feeling and doing – which enables individuals and groups of people to know themselves - their strengths and weakness, learn from others and improve on their personal relationships and performance of leadership activities.

One participant who commented on the importance of “reflection” as a leadership learning approach clarifies that:

Reflection is self-liberating learning approach because it helps you to come to terms with yourself - your strengths and weakness – so that you can plan how to improve on your practice (TTA1).

The assertion made here reiterates that “reflection” is an important learning practice that enables individuals to be honest about themselves, who they are, what they want to be and how they can become what want to be. As one of the respondents put it: "it [reflection] takes away the judgemental aspects of reviews which sometimes makes people feel they amount to nothing" (FFZ2). This means that reflection is a self-learning approach which is self-liberating because it enables individuals to come to terms with their strengths and weaknesses without the feeling of condemnation. Thus, the practice of reflections plays a key role in leadership development because it supports individuals to develop self-consciousness or awareness by developing mental faculties and the realisation of individual personalities, beliefs and associations (TTA2; FFY3).

As a form of leadership learning, reflection promotes critical thinking that results in self-reviews which are key to self-recognition (FFZ1). The finding is that reflection is highly rated by participants in both Case 1 and 2 because it helps individuals to be thoughtful and internalise leadership concepts learned, come to understand the concept of leadership and acquire the motivation to develop the wide range of leadership abilities through the performance of a variety of leadership roles (TTA2; FFZ2),

The practice of reflections helps individuals to take responsibility for their own learning – personal and professional development needs. From this study, it is identified that reflection does not only help individuals to look at their present performance but look at how to reach an ambitious goal in the future. One participant commented that:

I feel leadership is about our spirituality (not religion). What we believe informs the way we learn; how we relate with people and situations and these are all critical to look ahead and

plan how to develop effective leadership skills and abilities (TTB1).

The key finding here that all individuals hold a set of beliefs that shape the way they relate to each other. Through reflections, individuals are able to fine-tune their beliefs and work effectively with others to achieve organisational goals. As a learning approach, “reflections” create opportunities for individuals and groups to work together to watch how others behave, think about what they can do better by watching others and review systematically over time, the learning process to develop the aptitudes, skills and habits necessary for improving on their leadership expertise (TTA2; FFZ3).

The study findings corroborate with the findings in existing literature by revealing that the practice of “reflections” is concerned with critical thinking which is associated with “stepping back and pausing to look, listen and think about issues to spot patterns and links and identify things you would not otherwise notice or understand” (Rowling, 2000 p.518; Moon, 2004, p.181). Whilst “reflection” are identified as a key learning practice which is essential for building leadership capacity, it is far from being straightforward because the time required for individuals to think deeply about personal, professional and organisational practices is often hard to get (TTA3). Additionally, reflections on their own may not necessarily achieve the human and social capital necessary for leadership development, unless they are supported by other leadership learning approaches such as themes and sayings from the Bible.

#### **4.4.1.2 Themes from the Bible**

As a leadership learning approach “the themes from the Bible” comprise different bible quotations about how different leaders - kings, rulers and military commanders displayed or developed leadership in others in the biblical times. The quotations serve to facilitate critical thinking amongst the members of the various organisations to explore how the various concepts and models of leadership support leadership development. As highlighted in the Chapter 2 (p.40), the study findings

confirmed the view that the concept of leadership in the Western world is rooted in the biblical ideas about leadership (see Lee, 1955; Stone and Patterson, 2005). The “themes from the Bible - the quotations” were adopted as part of leadership development process through interactive and specialist workshops and seminars on leadership development.

The leadership workshops are planned leadership learning activities that happen over a relatively longer periods of time, sometimes over a couple of days where individuals present information about the concepts and theories of leadership often using everyday scenarios and quotations from the Bible whilst the audience (other members) actively listen to and make sense of what is presented (TTA3; FFY3). The seminars are planned learning activities that last for a few minutes to hours where individuals are given the opportunity to work, think, and perform leadership activities as well create meaning of what is being learnt (TT15; FFZ12).

The “themes from the Bible” were rated highly in both cases - Case 1 (Mean=5.00; SD=0.00), and Case 2 (Mean=5.00; SD=0.93) because although the themes were very brief but they were extremely insightful, aesthetic and have an influential effect on the way people learn (TTB11). In explaining the impact of the “themes from the Bible” as an effective spiritual leadership learning approach for leadership development, a senior leader from one of the schools indicated that:

The daily Bible themes on leadership from the Bible supported our daily reflections and discussions on leadership. The themes [from the Bible] on postcard, the TV screen and the animations were useful in making you think constantly about leadership concepts (TTB2).

This study findings reveal that the themes were used to support reflections and meditations during daily staff meetings. Thus, someone would read a verse or several verses on leadership from the Bible and staff are given the opportunity to discuss or think deeply about what they have heard and share with staff what they have learnt about the leadership (TTB1). The themes are exact Bible verses that were put on postcards or as scripts that streamed continuously on TV screen or as power



point animations on computers.

These approaches were adopted to present the messages visibly so that staff could meditate on or discuss specific verses on leadership throughout the day (FFZ2). The themes from the Bible have the potential to enhance individual's leadership capacity to make decisions on specific leadership qualities and expertises that are essential for solving specific leadership problems (FFZ1). The members in each organisation were asked to write down any insights and questions they might have about each theme (verse on leadership) and share with others (TTB23). The insights and the responses to the questions were accumulated and discussed with staff to enable them build on their knowledge and understanding of the various concepts of leadership (TTA3). Staff then had the opportunity to reflect on these responses, think decisively and develop personal and professional insights on how to develop their own leadership practices (TTA1).

The observation made here is that the organisations adopted several learning activities to promote “themes from the Bible” as a leadership learning approach to develop spiritual leadership experiences necessary for organisational leadership development. The variety of leadership learning platforms including seminars, workshops, daily devotions and staff meetings were adopted so that the members of the organisations could continually reflect on, discuss and apply “new” knowledge to improve their personal and professional expertises.

One respondent who was highly enthusiastic about the use of the “themes from the Bible” as a leadership learning approach highlights that:

The themes [from the Bible] displayed on the walls and those for staff meditation were fascinating. Honestly, I am quite surprise of the many things that the Bible can teach us about leadership. It looks as if the concept of leadership as we practice and know today is based on what we find in the Bible (FFZ3).

The statement above highlights that other learning styles such displays; meditations and reflections

were used to support the use of the “themes of the Bible” as a partnership activity for supporting leadership development. The various learning styles that support the use of the “themes from the Bible” enable individuals to reminisce the origins of leadership in the Western society which enables individuals to understand the many different stages of leadership development (FFZ3). It is shown hereafter that the various leadership styles adopted in the Western world and elsewhere have largely originated from the concepts of leadership as seen in the Biblical era. There is sheer surprise and shock of the close similarities of the concept of leadership in the Biblical days to contemporary leadership theories and practices (TTB1; FFZ3). This means that while there is lack of consensus on how to develop leadership throughout an organisation, there is much to learn about how leadership can be developed from existing ancient literature including themes on leadership from the Bible.

One respondent explains that: the “themes from the Bible”, although old, they are as new as today and applicable to modern society (TTA1). The ““themes from the Bible” give a new dimension to leadership learning by encouraging people to develop their spiritual (consciousness) faculties through reasoning that exercises the physical mind and enables individuals to notice and make meaning of “new” knowledge which results in self-transformation and engagement with leadership practices that result in leadership capacity building” (TTB3). This new dimension to leadership learning encourages individuals to be self-critical through continuous self-reflection on their leadership behaviours and values in the light of different leadership styles (as seen in the Bible) so that they can improve on their leadership practices (TTB1). This self-consciousness is critical for developing leadership capacity amongst individuals and within organisations (TTB3). Such ‘new’ self-awareness and knowledge is termed ‘enlightenment’ (FFZ2).

#### 4.4.1.3 Records of Enlightenment

The “records of enlightenment” were highly rated in Case 1 (Mean=4.24; SD=0.40) and Case 2 (Mean=4.89; SD=0.24). The “records of enlightenment” is concerned with record keeping of the spontaneous, untaught and revealed thoughts and ideas - (new knowledge) which come to individuals on the spur of the moment (TTB1; TTB3; TTA2; FFY1). Like the “themes from the Bible”, the “record of enlightenment” is applied in this study only as a leadership learning approach. One respondent who benefit from the use of the “record of enlightenment” as a leadership learning tool reminiscences that:

The practice of meditation and recitation is a powerful learning approach which truly brings about enlightenment. I sometimes recited new ideas to myself. I became self aware and record the excellent ideas about leadership that come on the spur of the moment. This is truly enlightening (TTB1).

The high participant rating for this item is explained by the opportunities it [record of enlightenment] presents to individuals to meditate, recite and act on the new ideas that have been kept in the form of a diary. It is shown hereafter that while everybody meditates and valuable ideas come to all of us, these novice ideas (enlightenment) are often ignored and forgotten (FFZ1). A deliberate effort to record the “new” ideas about the concept of leadership ensures that the “record of enlightenment” are utilised to build the leadership capacity of necessary for leadership development (TTB1).

Thinking, feeling and acting on the ‘new’ enlightenments result in even further inner enlightenment about leadership (FFZ3). However, when ‘new’ enlightenment is neglected then extremely insightful thoughts and ideas about leadership development are lost (FFZ1). It is important then that all ‘new’ ideas and knowledge that people receive through enlightenment are recorded as diaries and shared amongst organisational staff so that they become beneficial to individuals and organisations. The observation made here is that the records of enlightenment are overwhelmingly rich learning approach that is incredibly useful for developing leadership at every level of the organisation (FFZ2).

According to a respondent from one of the banks:

The new ideas (enlightenment) that come to you, stay with you for a lifetime. Such enlightenment brings further enlightenment to you and when they are apply to personal and professional life, they make you stand out. You become a better person because you develop deeper understanding of issues such as leadership (FFZ2).

The finding here is that one enlightenment leads to another and this results in a chain of learning and 'new' ideas that come to people and become deeper thinkers who gain deeper understanding of many concepts including leadership and how it can be developed. The new ideas (enlightenment) which come often as afterthoughts enables individuals when pondered over again and again and, incorporated into one's everyday and professional life results in excellent practices (FFY3). This means that when organisations apply the "records of enlightenment" to develop leadership at every level of the organisation, then desirable outcomes are likely to be achieved.

#### **4.4.1.4 Recitals of Leadership Principles**

The “recitals of leadership principles” is identified as an essential leadership learning approach that contributes to developing spiritual leadership experiences that support organisational leadership development. Equally, The "recitals of leadership principles" were highly rated by participants in Case 1 (Mean=4.76; SD=0.15) and Case 2 (Mean=4.76; SD=1.01). The recitals are concerned with individuals speaking out key leadership concepts repeatedly to one's self or others (TTA1). In this study, the recitals involved several learning activities that were in the form of games and performance events carried within individual organisation and across the partnerships. The specific learning activities that were carried out to encourage the “recitals of leadership principles” as leadership learning approach is captured below:

The artworks and music (raps) in addition to our choreographic displays that were carried out were fantastic. These recitals tell stories about leadership development which sticks with you and motivates you to engage deeply with the leadership development activities (FFZ3).

The study finding here is that specific learning activities such as artworks, music and choreography

contribute to the effective use of “recitals of leadership principles” in developing leadership at every level of the organisation. It is shown hereafter that the “recitals of the leadership principles” were used as part of musical shows to entertain and support individuals to learn about leadership in a fun way. The element of fun encourages all individuals to engage with the leadership learning process (TTB2). The study indicates that the artworks and choreographies about the concept of leadership motivated staff to engage deeply with leadership learning activities which ensured deep understanding of the principles of leadership that enabled individuals to improve on their leadership expertises (FFZ3).

The “recitals” included constant reading of text - wise sayings, proverbs, and concepts from contemporary literature - by individuals to themselves or to members of a group during group discussions (TTB2). During staff meetings, members of organisation of the organisations are given a chance to either read out or 'rap' some of the key concepts, sayings and proverbs about leadership that 'sticks' with them and how theses have helped them to improve on their leadership expertise (FFZ3). This means that recitals have the potential to help individuals to think about issues or learning tasks and get a deeper meaning about leadership. The repetition of words, phrases, sentences and paragraphs on the principles and application of leadership concepts contributes immensely to leadership development because it enables members of the organisation to reflect on and apply new ideas to solving organisational problems. (FFY1).

One respondent gave an example of how recitals serve as effective leadership learning approach for developing spiritual experiences necessary for leadership development.

I love this quotation: “The kings of the Gentiles exercise lordship over their subordinates. Rather, let the greatest among you become as the youngest, and the leader as one who serves”. I recite it very frequently and am gripped by it. It makes me think about what leadership is all about (Luke 22:25-26) (FFY2).

This statement from the respondent highlights that recitals reinforce learning and enable individuals to think about the concept of leadership and what it means. The recitation of a quotation such as the one above is a testament to how recitals support people to memorize key concepts about leadership and how it can be developed. The use of different learning approaches helps to reinforce what is being learnt and support the development of critical thinking and problem-solving skills essential for leadership development (FFY2). Podder (2002) highlights that recitals involve the use and movement of electrical muscles to send messages to the brain, which increases one's mental responses and recordings of what is being learnt. This means that there is stronger reinforcement of leadership learning necessary for leadership development when the recitals of leadership concepts are supported by a variety of learning activities such as music, artworks and choreography.

#### **4.4.1.5 Story telling**

Storytelling is another spiritual learning approach adopted for leadership development in Case 1 (Mean=4.16; SD=1.25) and Case 2 (Mean=4.81; SD=1.43). Story telling is identified as a special means of conveying a message in words, images and sounds, often as an embellishment intended to educate, instill values and empower people to develop deeper meaning about important concepts such as leadership (TTA13; TTB2). To stress the important role that story telling plays in leadership development, one respondent highlights that:

The stories about leadership from the different societies are so powerful. ... You remember them easily and they teach you a lesson about leadership everyday. The discussions that we had about the stories brought deeper meaning to the concepts of leadership studies and particularly how leadership could be developed (TTB2).

It is observed from the statement above that storytelling is an extremely influential and enduring learning approach that supports effective communication and discussions about the concept of leadership. It is revealed here that story telling has widespread appeal across cultures and communities however its applicability to leadership development is not evident in existing literature

(TTB2). Story telling was used to create scenarios that encouraged individuals to learn about the roles of leadership in solving organisational problems (FFY3). Thus, storytelling has the capacity to establish a strong relationship between how individuals create meaning and how “new” knowledge about leadership is managed and used to build leadership capacity within organisations.

Within the different cases [partnerships], story telling was used as a learning tool necessary for expressing views and sharing experience about leadership (FFY1); conveying key information about how leadership can be developed (TTA3); for entertainment and education about the various concepts of leadership (TTB2). While there is limited literature on the usefulness of storytelling as an essential learning, there is evidence from this study and other literature to show that storytelling has the potential to articulate clearly what we know, feel and think about important issues such as leadership and this makes it easier to understand how to develop leadership capabilities amongst the members of an organisation (Beatty, 2000). As identified in this study, Beatty (2000) reiterates that story telling is a culturally positive learning tool which supports collaborative and reflective learning that enables individual to integrate feeling and thought, the subjective and objective view in order to make sound judgements about key issues such as leadership and how it can be developed. The lesson learnt from here that storytelling is essential in promoting creativity amongst individuals so that they are thoughtful and reflective about how to develop their own leadership capabilities.

In this study, storytelling was used to encourage members to engage in co-operative activities such as unravelling the meaning of a story on leadership and to capture the simplicity and/or complexities of situations (FFZ1; TTA1; TTA2). Storytelling was used to enable members of organisation to understand how to link theories about leadership to practices, to make sense of leadership experiences that they have encountered and construct new knowledge about leadership development (FFY1; TTB2). Throughout all the organisations, storytelling activities such as quizzes, case studies

and simulations were adopted to encourage members of the organisations to present cues and answer questions stories about leadership development (TTA3; TTB1; FFZ2; FFY2). These activities were deliberately designed to stimulate critical thinking about the concept of leadership and reveal multiple perspectives on what leadership is and how it can be developed (TTA2).

To conclude, story telling is concerned with fundamental process of thinking, which supports the personal growth of individuals as learners through a careful study and consideration of events and scenarios to inform present and future thinking about leadership. Thus, storytelling has the potential to encourage self review because it enables individuals to think and value emotional realities of the concept of leadership in order to develop a profound understanding of how to develop leadership. Although, there is no known literature on how storytelling is applied to leadership development, this study identifies story-telling as a key leadership learning approach to organisational leadership development.

#### **4.4.1.6 Leadership Voice Bulletin**

Another leadership learning approach that was identified to support the development of spiritual leadership experiences necessary for leadership development is the “leadership voice bulletin” (Case 1 (Mean=4.26; SD=0.01) and Case 2 (Mean=4.06;SD=0.00)). The “leadership voice bulletin” is a summary of news on notice boards and newsletters issued by the organisations to serve as a medium to collect and share thoughts and ‘new’ knowledge about the concept of leadership and leadership development within and across the organizations (TTA14; TTB2; FFY3). Additionally, the “leadership voice bulletin” was used to collect the views of members and to facilitate communication and discussions the concepts of leadership and leadership development (TTB2). When a member posts a view on leadership in words, photos, drawings and cartoons then other members will comment on them (TTB1). All the information is collected and used to inform training programmes



on how leadership can be developed (TTA1).

One respondent expounds on the usefulness of the "leadership voice bulletin" by indicating that:

[The leadership voice bulletin] is a fascinating idea that inspires people to capture their views and afterthoughts about leadership and how it can be developed. We have only one bulletin so that we can showcase the views of all staff in one forum. The views come in the form of pictures, poems and stories ... These learning approaches encourage staff to comment on each other's views. Sometimes these views are in the form of questions which enable staff to give deep insights and thoughts about leadership (FFY2).

The finding here is that within the organisation there is only one "leadership voice bulletin" to capture and make connections between the different views expressed by the members of the organisation in the same place. The ideas, insights and thoughts that were collated were deemed extremely useful in shaping people's thinking about leadership (FFY2). Some of the views are posed as questions that allow other colleagues to respond to, and continue to think deeply about concept of leadership (TTA3). The questions and the constructive feedback on each other's views enable staff to develop critical thinking skills which are essential for each member to develop a repertoire of leadership abilities (FFZ2). When the views are made visible, this enables members to understand whether other members agree with their thoughts and ideas or there are other diverging views that they can learn from and develop deeper meanings of the concept of leadership (TTB2).

The "leadership voice bulletin" is identified as an inquiry-based learning that enables members of the organisation to engage and move through different stages of learning including fine-tuning thoughts ... researching...sorting out...ideas in order to reach clarity of meaning about the concepts of leadership and leadership development (TTA2; TTB1; FFY2; FZZ1). One respondent stresses the importance of the "leadership voice bulletin" by explaining that:

The "leadership voice bulletin" creates space for members to voice out their views publicly without fear of being criticised. This helps to members' thinking visible so that their unfolding ideas and insights can be documented, and prompt a chain of discussions about leadership and leadership development (TTA3).

The assertion made here is that the “leadership voice bulletin” gives a strong voice to all members of the organisations to be fully engaged in the leadership development programme so that leadership can be built at every level of the organisation (TTA2). As the "leadership voice bulletin" board unfolds with the records of unique descriptions, vocabulary and sentences in the form of cartoons, photos and drawings, members are able to make sense of the building blocks provided for understanding cyclical and changing nature of the concepts of leadership and leadership development (TTA2; FFY23). The photos, cartoons and drawings capture the interest of people as they pass through the hallways (FFY2) and they are “enticed” to add their voice (views) to the debate and expand on the knowledge and understanding about leadership and leadership development (FFY1).

The use of the “leadership voice bulletin” creates a sense of learning community because it serves as a centre of community activity which promotes a sense of social cohesion amongst the members of the organisation (TTA2). Rather than the members being told about what leadership is, the “leadership voice bulletin” provides opportunities for mini-inquiries and brainstorming so that members of the organisation take responsibility to research into and find answers to questions about leadership and how leadership can be developed. The information collated on the “leadership voice bulletin” board are often categorised into groups to identify trends in the views expressed by the members of the organisation. The board becomes an important focus for reviewing various concepts and this helps to bring true meaning of leadership to members. The information captured on the boards can bring memories of what has been learnt previously and this enables staff to reflect on their spiritual leadership practices and this provides encouragement to members as they realize just how much they have learned about the concept of leadership and how it can be developed (TTA2).

#### **4.4.1.7 Summary of Spiritual Leadership Learning Approaches**

In summary, it is acknowledged that spiritual leadership experiences are associated with the state of the mind, will and feelings of individuals about leadership and how it is developed which are shaped by the environment. The study findings show that spiritual leadership approaches provide the experiences that will move individuals to connect deeply with their innate self and recognise their abilities and develop the willingness to engage with leadership activities and achieve leadership outcomes. This is because the spiritual leadership learning approaches support individuals to use reasoning and develop their intuitions to make sense of what is being learnt - leadership and how it can be developed.

Anderson (2000) expounding on the roles of the consciousness in learning contends that:

A person's conscious (spirit) is the vital principle or animating force believed to be the intangible, life affirming force that create awareness and knowledge in self and all human beings (p.24).

The argument posed by Anderson is that without the development spiritual experience, no knowledge can be created because the very sense of being is within our consciousness (spirit). There is multidisciplinary literature that studies the re-emergence of the spiritual paradigm and its role in collaborative learning (Hoppe, 2005) The increased interest in spirituality and learning is attributed to the need to find solutions to the ills of modern society, which depends hugely on deep understanding of leadership and how it can be developed throughout many professions, organization and society as a whole (Crossman, 2003). The interrelationship between spiritual leadership learning experience and other forms of leadership experiences such as practical leadership learning experiences is noted.

#### **4.4.2 Practical Leadership Learning Experiences**

Although literature review carried out as part of this study reveals that the term, "practical leadership" is adopted in the fields of consultancy and management, the irony is that it (practical leadership) is hardly defined and applied to the concept of leadership. In this study, practical leadership learning experiences support are concerned with the development of concrete skills and expertise through hands-on performance of leadership acts or actions resulting in positive behaviour change for improved leadership performance rather simply acquiring knowledge about the principles and theories of leadership (TTA2; TTB1; FFZ1). The development of practical leadership experiences are supported in the main by leadership learning approaches such as leadership apprenticeship, job placement, job rotation as well as job mixing, job shadowing and practical coaching (TTA1; TTA2, FFZ2; TTB2; FFY1). The various learning approaches that support the development of practical leadership experiences were highly rated by participants because they enable members of the organisation to acquire the skills necessary for performing and developing leadership expertise which is essential for organisational leadership development (TTA14; TTB4; FFY2; FFZ2).

Practical leadership learning experiences involve a variety of activities, which are "in-house" and "out-of-house" activities which enhance both human and social capital. These activities involve active experimentation of leadership activities which provide opportunities for individuals and groups to think, perform [do] and develop leadership expertise that contribute to leadership development. In this study, the "in-house" activities are those that are undertaken within individual organisations (TTA1). The "intra-house" activities are those completed within individual departments in the same organisation (TTB2). "Out-of-house" activities, also termed "inter-house" are those leadership activities which are shared and completed by individuals or groups within other organisations and locations other than their own organisation (FFY2).

Practical leadership learning activities involve carefully planned activities that create opportunities for all individuals to:

receive hands-on training in completing important leadership tasks and in making decisions towards the smooth running of the organisations (FFY1).

The insight given from the above statement is that careful planning of leadership learning activities is essential to creating leadership learning opportunities for individuals and groups to develop leadership skills. It is evidenced from the above statement that the acquisition of knowledge and understanding about leadership and how it is developed in itself does not secure leadership development outcomes but it is the performance of leadership activities that is essential for individuals to develop leadership capabilities. Some of the very specific learning activities that were undertaken for members to develop hands-on activities include external assignments and placements and secondments, attachments and conferences (TTA1; TTB2; FFY1). The study findings point out that a systemic approach to leadership development enables organisations to create a culture where continuous development of the leadership capabilities of all individuals within the organisation is the norm rather than the exception (FFY1). The various learning approaches that support practical leadership activities are discussed below.

#### **4.4.2.1 Leadership Apprenticeship**

Leadership apprenticeship was identified as a key practical learning approach in Case 1 (Mean=4.68; SD=1.21) and Case 2 (Mean=4.92; SD=1.24) that supports practical leadership development. An extensive review of existing literature undertaken as part of this study did not provide any evidence of how the concept of apprenticeship has been applied to leadership development (Aldrich, 2005). Nonetheless, in this study, “leadership apprenticeship” was heavily relied on as a key leadership learning approach for developing leadership capacity as evidenced by the high participant ratings. One respondent in describing how the apprenticeship programmes was carried out explained that:

The leadership apprenticeship approach enabled a members (apprentices) of the organisation

to work with others (amateurs) who have special expertise in an aspect of leadership for a period of time until they (apprentice) are confident to perform a repertoire of leadership activities (TTA3).

The revelation made here is that the leadership apprenticeship programme involves a member of staff who works closely with another member of staff either from the same or different organisations to learn how to perform specific leadership activities in order to develop a repertoire of leadership capabilities that address gaps in his or her leadership expertise. Bringing people together within the terms of an apprenticeship programme helps them to draw on the expertise within the same and different organisations to [do] perform practical leadership activities, which enhances leadership development within and across organizations (TTA3). The role of the amateur and that of the apprentice did not depend on the position of the individual in the organisations (FFY1). For example, the director of the organisation could be the apprentice who learnt from a junior staff of the organisation because the junior staff had the expertise that the director does not possess (TTA3).

It is clarified that "leadership apprenticeship" supported individuals to engage in leadership activities such as communication, people management, team building, active listening and the development of responsible leadership attitudes and behaviours (FFZ2). These skills are considered as essential elements of leadership and leadership development processes (Day 2000).

In developing communication skills, members were often given the chance to deliver messages to members of organisation during staff meetings. We discussed the verbal and non-verbal cues used by members of the organisation (TTA3).

The observation made here is that the members of the organisation were given the opportunity to develop verbal and non-verbal communication skills by delivering messages to the members of the organisation as part of planned leadership activities. All the members of the organisation are given the chance to play specific roles such as team leader, team scribes or team members (apprentice) in order to understand to learn key aspects of leadership (FFZ1). Each member (apprentice) within each team receives feedback from others (who serve as amateurs) to improve on their leadership skills

(FFY3). Each member is often asked to conduct self-appraisals often using psychometric self-assessments or questionnaires (TTB1; TTA1; FFZ3). The outcomes of such assessments and/or questionnaires inform the professional development plan for each member of the organisation to ensure that they continue to receive support to develop a repertoire of leadership expertise which are essential for leadership development (FFY2).

As with all other leadership learning approaches, “it cannot be taken for a given that when leadership apprenticeship” is promoted as part of the school-business partnership activities, it will naturally result in expected leadership development outcomes” (FFY3). Nonetheless, “leadership apprenticeship” programmes that involve the physical integration and performance of leadership activities are likely to illuminate leadership processes that can support leadership development. Leadership apprenticeship programmes that draw on an active experimentation approach where less experienced members of staff (apprentice) are influenced by more experienced members (amateur) to learn and take up leadership responsibilities is likely to support organizational leadership development.

#### **4.4.2.2 Job Shadowing**

Although, quite similar to leadership apprenticeship programme, job shadowing is concerned with the process where a member from one area of the organisation works alongside another member (either more or less experienced) within the same or different department or organisation by observing events and actions and actively performing these actions to gain practical leadership knowledge and/or skills in order to make sense of the different leadership experiences (FFZ1; TTB2; TTA1; FFY2). In this study, job shadowing is highly rates within the two cases: Case 1 (Mean=4.64; SD=0.13) and Case 2 (Mean=3.84; SD=0.00).

While there is plethora of literature on the role of job shadowing for professional development of members of organisation, its applicability to organisational leadership development is patchy and inconsistent (Allen and Hartman, 2008). Job shadowing is recognised as one of the most important learning approaches that support the practical development of leadership because it presents the chance for the members of the organisation to perform specific or diverse leadership roles and receive support to help them to perform their leadership roles efficiently (TTA1; TTA3; FFZ2). Job shadowing helps individuals to gain a wide range of expertise and first-hand practical experience of the leadership roles and functions that enable members to gain deeper understanding of leadership concepts and to develop leadership expertise (FFY3; FFZ2; TTA3).

In completing, job shadowing activities, one respondent reveals that:

The members (shadowees) studied and reviewed ... the roles and responsibilities of the person they shadow. The shadowee meets with the person they are shadowing and ask questions about ... how to perform high-order leadership duties. The Members (shadowees) keep a journal and/or narrative descriptions of new things they have learnt about leadership (FFY2).

The observation made from here is that job shadowing involves the review of leadership roles and responsibilities and how they relate to daily performance of leadership roles. The opportunities for discussions on the roles and responsibilities enables members (shadowees) to gain and apply new and deep understanding of different leadership roles to their roles. When members (shadowees) keep a journal and narrative descriptions of “new” learning, they are able refer to these and continually learn from them (new learning) (TTB1). Additionally the journaling and narrative descriptions can be shared with other members so they share different perspectives of leadership roles and performance which can contribute to leadership development in organizations (TTA2).

Job shadowing has been adopted as part of job orientation for new members of an organisation (TTB1). It is revealed here that all new members of the organisation are oriented to their roles



through job shadowing at least for two weeks (FFZ3) or a month (FFY2). This helped new members (shadowees) to ask question about how the organisation operates, what is expected of them and to develop a deeper understanding of the concept of leadership development (FFZ3). By shadowing other members as part of the job shadowing, new members are easily integrated into the organisation and learn about leadership practices across the organisation (TTA1; FFY2). This is more likely to help new members to engage with the leadership development programme (TTB3).

The study finding confirms the work of Lord and Hall (2005) which explains that organisations can secure leadership development when the novices in organisations understand how to develop leadership behaviours and expertise. However, one respondent cautions that:

Superficial observations do not produce the desired leadership behaviour (TTA1).

However, job-shadowing is likely to support novices to overcome gaps in their understanding and performance of leadership activities as they immerse themselves in on-the-job training (TTA1). In leadership development, job shadowing provides individuals, either novices (apprentices) or experienced staff, (amateurs) with the chance to take up leadership roles in the same or a different context; in order to develop a better understanding of the key concepts and practices of leadership, which form integral part of leadership development (TTB2; FFY2; FFZ1).

#### **4.4.2.3 Job Mixing**

Although similar to Conger's (2004) idea of job enlargement, job-mixing is defined in this study as the purposeful planning and performance of different leadership activities that require different leadership skills (TTA2; FFZ1). A respondent exemplifies job mixing by indicating that:

Job mixing is a complex leadership learning tool that requires careful planning ... because it involves the 'mixing' of pieces and pieces of different roles. Careful planning is important in this so that duplication is avoided (TTA1).

It is explained here that job mixing could include discrete leadership roles or aspects of leadership

roles such as health and safety, customer services, and public relations, including senior executive roles such as organisational administration, finance and planning. Although, in this study, job mixing is identified as a complex leadership learning practice that requires careful planning, its contribution to leadership development are found to be immense (FFZ2; TTB2) and highly rated (Case 1 (Mean=4.82; SD=0.13) and Case 2 (Mean=4.10; SD=2.13).

From this study, it is understood that job mixing is largely concerned with the enlargement and enrichment of leadership roles by adding variety of tasks to the assigned roles of members of the organisation in order to motivate and challenge them to develop a wide range of leadership expertise necessary for completing a wide range of leadership responsibilities. In agreement with the findings of Allen and Hartman (2008), job mixing is, “not simply adding identical, boring repetitive tasks to an already boring one but the addition of high-order tasks to perform and more control over how to perform them” (p.4). Job mixing brings excitement to members of the organisations in striving to performing higher-order leadership roles which enables them to develop all-rounded leadership expertise which is essential for leadership development (TTB1).

The job mixing arrangements involve members of one organisation often taking up and performing different and/or discrete leadership activities/roles in another organisation in order to have different perspectives on leadership roles in different organisational context (TTB2). In this study, one key importance of job mixing that is identified is that:

It helps to build up institutional memory so that gaps that exist in the organisational knowledge and skills that are necessary for performing various leadership roles and duties are not lost (TTA3; FFZ1).

The lesson that is learnt here is that job mixing enables all the members of the organisation to learn the assigned roles of each other. Unlike the situation in many organisations where individuals know only about their assigned roles, job mixing ensures that everyone in the organisation knows and can

perform different leadership roles. Therefore, when an individual leaves the organisation, other members can step into that role and ensure that the leadership development process continues. However, like all other learning approaches, job mixing on its own is not likely to result in leadership development.

#### **4.4.2.4 Job Placement**

Job placement is recognised as another important practical learning approach for leadership development (Case 1 (Mean=4.48; SD=0.46); Case 2 (Mean=4.42; SD=1.42)). In this study, job placement is concerned with the lateral, ascendant and descending transfer or movement of members of an organisation from one job to another in the same or different organisation over a short period of time (often from a few days to months) in order to challenge, consolidate and improve their leadership performance. (FFY1; FFZ3; TTB1; TTA1). During job placement, the members of the organisation are assigned either specific or a range of tasks in addition to or as part of changes to assigned leadership roles (TTA2). In line with the findings by Ohlott (2004), this study highlights the role of job placement in building stronger relationships with and across various departments with the same or different organisations involved in the leadership development programme (TTA12; FFY2). The members learn to acquire human relations skills by dealing professionally with different people with different working styles, debating, disagreeing and securing consensus on leadership issues while at the same time maintaining professional respect for each other (FFZ2).

Commenting on the important role that job placement plays in leadership development, one senior member expounds that:

Job placement activities assist members of the organisation to experience how it feels to work in another department for a period of time. This provides opportunities for members of the organisation to reflect and evaluate their interests, values and skills to determine how these relate to their leadership development pathways and choices (FFZ2).

This statement indicates that job placement placements are essential for members of an organisation to develop practical experience in working in different departments and organisations. In doing so, the members are able to identify specific activities that support their leadership development. The members can then ask to be moved to different departments that would help them make the necessary choices for deepening their leadership development experiences (FFY1). As part of the placement, members are given personalized advice through coaching to reach their leadership potential (TTA2).

The very specific activities conducted as part of the job placement include a wide array of cutting edge leadership counselling (TTA2; TTA3), workshops (FFY1), job assistance (TTB1), and job fairs (FFZ2; TTB1) focused on the development of leadership skills and experiences. Several periodicals, directories, brochures and postings about the different concepts and practices of leadership are made available to members so that they can keep themselves updated on new ideas about leadership development (TTB3; TTA3; FFY2). Eventually, the members are able to internalise new ideas about leadership and apply these in “new” situations and consolidate their practical leadership experiences. Job placement creates the opportunity for members of an organisation to agree, trust each other and commit to shared values across the organisation (TTA2; FFZ3). In this study, job placement is identified as a means of creating opportunities for the development of human and social capital (FFY2; TTB2). It is found, however that job placement can support organisational leadership development, when members are matched up with the right job/role and the right persons to learn from each other within an atmosphere of collegiality and unison (TTA1). Job placement creates opportunities for individuals to perform specific leadership activities that enable them to address gaps in their leadership performances - knowledge and skills (TTB1).

#### **4.4.2.5 Job Rotation**

One of the learning approaches that support key practical leadership experiences is job rotation, (Case 1 (Mean=4.62; SD=1.41) and Case 2 (Mean=4.68; SD=0.24)). Job rotation is defined as a developmental tool that is used to support members of organisation to broaden their perspective and develop all-rounded repertoire of skills and expertise by taking up and performing changing job roles and responsibilities in the same or different organisations (TTA3; FFY1; FFY2). Alternatively, job rotation is defined as lateral and/or vertical movement of members of the organisation from one position, task, department or role within or across organisations to a different position, task, department or role in the same or a different organisation over a specified period of time often for months to years to broaden their leadership perspectives and sharpen their expertise (FFY1; FFZ3). In the main, job rotation involves a member of the organisation taking up different but challenging positions and tasks which require different skills and responsibilities in order to motivate them and sometimes prepare them for promotion or higher leadership duties (TTA2; TTB1; FFY3).

One respondent commented on the usefulness of job rotation to individuals and organisations by revealing that:

Job rotation was useful in preparing me for the next stage of my career. This is because I had the opportunity to review my personal and professional needs. I took up responsibilities within the human resources and the executive department and this enabled me to acquire leadership skills quicker. I was well prepared for the next stage of my career (FFZ1).

Job rotation requires careful planning in order to avoid conflicts of interest so that activities are executed to achieve expected goals (TTA2; FFY2). Thus, by involving the members of the organisation in planning the activities to be performed during the job rotation period, they take responsibility and ownership for their own personal and professional development. Equally, when the members are supported to perform leadership roles and activities within different organisation they gain deeper understanding how different organisation operates (FFZ15). Job rotation broadens

the perspectives of the members of the organisation and presents them with different standards to which they could review their performance and develop a range of skills and experiences to consolidate their strengths and address weaknesses in the performance (TTA12) and prepare them for promotion of the next stage of their career (FFZ3).

Contrarily to the findings of Conger (2004), the study finding identifies job rotation as a skill-building approach to leadership development which demands that leadership abilities are not only broken down into simple mechanical processes that can be performed; but also linked to a broader and sequential leadership development activities in order to track the progress of members towards developing a wide range of leadership skills, knowledge and understanding. In this study, job rotation was adopted as a practical learning approach that provides opportunities for members of the organisation to acquire a wide range of leadership experiences through active experimentation – performing [doing] and reflecting [thinking] on what is being done – in order to deepen their knowledge and sharpen their leadership skills by taking up various leadership activities in turn (FFY3; FFZ2).

As part of the job rotation, the members of the organisations kept records of their daily performances in the form of a portfolio (TTA1), studied the employee manuals (TTB2), held regular meetings with the department head (FFY1), met the individuals whose positions had been rotated (FFZ3) and talk through various aspects of the roles and the tasks performed (TTB2). These processes help individuals to understand how different members had tackled the same role and what specific tasks were performed to develop leadership capacity and capabilities which are essential for leadership development (TTA1). Oftentimes, each member is assigned a trainer to support and guide the member each step of the job rotation plan (TTA3). When the members move on a new job, a new trainer is assigned to him or her. (TTA3). The trainer has the responsibility to answer questions and

direct the member to find out information that would enable them to deepen their understanding of key leadership development concepts (FFY2).

The impact of job rotation is found to be immense (FFY1). One respondent who had benefited from job rotation process highlights that:

After the job rotation period, I was a changed person. I came back refreshed, energised and confident to perform set of challenging leadership roles. I learnt from how other people work and understood the ethos of organisation (FFY1).

The finding here is that job rotation exposes members of the organisation to different working environment so that they gain different leadership experiences which refines their working ethics. Thus, job rotation is capable of transforming the personal and professional attitudes and behaviours of members of the organisation by providing them with new challenges that help to expand their knowledge and understanding of leadership concepts and practices. By learning and understanding the different facets of the organisation through the different leadership roles performed in different departments or job functions, the members of the organisation are able to expand their leadership perspectives and expertise which are essential for developing leadership at every level of the organisation.

The study finding agrees with the findings from a study conducted by Schultz and Schultz (2010) which highlights the transforming power of job rotation in overcoming the potential boredom and job dissatisfaction amongst members of the organisation because they are provided with a new perspective on leadership practices. The variety of roles and tasks that are performed by members of staff help to reinforce leadership learning so that individuals understand the different facets of leadership roles (TTA3). Job rotation helps to expand the leadership abilities of the members of the organisation by accelerating the rate at which they develop the necessary leadership skills, knowledge and experiences. Thus, job rotation contributes to build both human and social capital

necessary for developing leadership and across organisations.

#### **4.4.2.6 Practical Coaching**

Although not as highly rated as the other learning approaches, practical coaching is recommended as another leadership learning tool that contributes to the development of practical leadership experiences (Case 1 (Mean=4.06;SD=0.70); Case 2 (Mean=3.84; SD=0.00)). The relatively low rating of this type of learning approach is attributed to the fact that this type of leadership learning has often been adopted on its own to support leadership development but little impact has been seen (TTA2; TTB11; FFY13). One respondent stresses that:

Despite the fact that practical coaching has been relied on for leadership development for a long time, its usefulness to leadership development is debatable (TTA2).

The finding here is that practical coaching has been adopted as leadership learning tool for a long period of time. However, its potency in contributing to leadership development is debatable. While some organisations recognise the important role of practical coaching in supporting leadership development at every level of the organisation (TTA3), others argue overdependence on this learning approach does not always result leadership development (FFZ2).

Practical coaching is recognised as a mutually agreed learning relationship where the coach, through effective questioning and explorations, helps members of the organisation to review themselves, clarify their thoughts and identify gaps in their skills, knowledge and experience that are essential for completing sets of leadership activities. In this study, it is highlighted that practical coaching could be one-to-one (TTB3) as well as group sessions (FFY1). Although, existing literature recognises coaching as “a highly individualised source of learning for building human capital” (Day 2000; Allen and Hartman, 2008), in this study practical coaching is recognised as a mutually identified set of professional goals that enables organisations to build human and social capital necessary for



leadership development. Thus, the cumulative effect of practical coaching in developing leadership at every level of the organisation can be enormous because of its contribution to the acquisition of leadership knowledge, skills and experience at an accelerated rate.

One respondent highlights the important role of practical coaching in leadership development, by revealing that:

Practical coaching sessions enabled me to review my personal preferences, interest and dislikes and how these influence my understanding of leadership. The one-to-one sessions helped me to get answers to critical questions I had about leadership development (TTB2).

It is shown hereafter that practical coaching enables members of organisations to become self aware of their interests and dislikes and use the information gathered about themselves to plan and set targets to reach higher leadership potential. The insight given here is that the specific activities such as one-to-one questioning sessions enable individuals to articulate their thoughts about themselves and their understanding of the concepts of leadership in personalised written form which guides their aspiration to developing the necessary leadership experiences. Additionally, practical coaching has been identified to have the potency to encourage members of the organisation to develop important leadership skills such challenging others to work towards achieving the organisational goals (TTB2).

The very specific practical coaching activities carried out include workshop and training sessions as well as photographs and video recording (TTA3). These activities enabled individuals and groups to learn and re-learn how to coach others (FFY2) and develop critical questioning skills (TTA1; FFZ3), listening to others (TTB2; TTB15) and developing intuitions for gauging the leadership abilities of others (TTB2; FFY1; FFZ3). Thus, the group and individual coaching sessions enables the members to develop effective communication skills within and across organisations which is important for building strong relationships and interactions based on integrity and mutual trust (TTB3). This means practical coaching support the development of both human and social capital which is important for

organisational leadership development. Practical coaching enables members of an organisation to become reflective practitioners by drawing on their prior knowledge and understanding to new situations in order to broaden their leadership expertises (TTA2; FFY7; FFZ2).

#### **4.4.2.7 Summary of Practical Leadership Learning Experiences**

Practical leadership learning experiences provide concrete experiences by providing opportunities for individuals and groups to learn from new and specific experiences within a given context. Practical learning approaches promote active experimentation, which involves individuals or groups of individuals taking risks through hands-on activities to explore new leadership ideas. Thus, practical leadership learning approaches enables organisations to build human and social capital by providing opportunities for individuals and groups to experience different aspects of leadership which are essential for developing leadership at every level of the organisation. Leadership learning approaches such as leadership apprenticeship, job mixing and job rotation as well as practical coaching are critical for members of the organisation to learn new leadership skills and gaining deeper understanding of key leadership concepts and principles which can effectively support organisations to develop leadership capacity essential for organisational leadership development.

#### **4.4.3 Emotional Leadership Learning Experiences**

The emotional aspects of leadership are recognised as key leadership learning approaches to organisational leadership development because they are essential in reviewing one's personality and cognitive constructions of emotions and feelings in relation to leadership performance (Day, 2000; TTA2; FFZ2). This type of leadership experience supports individuals to understand the extent to which they relate to themselves, others and the environment in which they work (Allen and Hartman, 2008; TTA1; FFY13; FFZ2). In line with the study's theoretical framework, it is found that emotional leadership learning approaches enable individuals to engage in reflective observations of

their personalities, assess how their feelings [emotions] influence how they relate to each other and make improvements that support them to develop concrete leadership experiences (TTA1; TTA3).

The emotional learning approaches are intended to enable individuals to take inventory of themselves and recognize their personality – their strengths, the areas that require improvement and design strategies to improve on their relationship building skills which are essential for leadership development (FFZ2). Emotional learning approaches support the members of the organisation to develop key leadership skills such as communicating and human relations within organisations so that they can work collaboratively in achieving organisational leadership development outcomes (TTB2). A participant reveals that individuals who take inventory of their own leadership capabilities through self exploration are able to increase their level of self-awareness support the development of leadership expertise which are essential for leadership development (FFY2). The emotional aspects of leadership development builds on hands-on and academic leadership activities and offers opportunities to sharpen individuals' leadership skills, resolve their weaknesses and address gaps in their knowledge of leadership. This way, human and social capital are developed to support leadership development. One way to develop emotional leadership experiences is through networking.

#### **4.4.3.1 Networking**

In this study, networking (Case 1 (Mean=4.84; SD=100) and Case 2 (Mean=4.10)) is recognized as a key emotional leadership learning experience that enhances the development of human and social capital in an organisation because of its focus on the expansion of a wide range of inner and outward behaviours and competencies amongst all staff within an organisation (TTA12; FFY3). Networking is defined as “the expansion of one's definition of what and how through exposure to other's thinking which can challenge basic assumptions about what we think we know” (Day, 2000, p.596).

The specific leadership learning activities that were carried out as part of the networking include:

Team work within and across departments and the different organisations which resulted strong leadership learning relations which contributed to building leadership capacity (FFY2; TTA3).

In consonance with the existing literature, the observation made from the assertion above affirm that networking is a useful leadership learning approach for mobilising human and social capital through interactions among individuals and teams (Day, 2000). While, networking often occurs in isolation and as one-off activity (*ibid*), in this study, networking occurs as part of an on-going inter-organisational collaborations and contacts among teams who share existing leadership knowledge and expertise. Contact [relationship] making experiences are useful for building social capital as is also evidenced by the study by Day (2000).

It is highlighted that networking plays a very important role in leadership development because it provides opportunities peer observations which are noted to be extremely useful in building strong bonds and sense of trust that facilitated deep leadership learning through face-to-face conversations and discussions using videoconferencing facilities such as Skype or webinar (TTA1). Like other existing studies on leadership development (Day, 2000; Allen and Hartman, 2008) this study recognises the role that networking plays in building a sense of mutuality necessary for harnessing resources and expertise within organisations for leadership development. The finding here is that networking enables individuals and groups of people to build peer relationships which allow the validation of ideas, offer alternative perspectives and create on-going discussions that are critical to develop a repertoire of leadership learning opportunities (FFY2; FFZ1).

It is shown here that while networking events have often concentrated on face-to-face discussions, in contemporary times, the use of technological facilities has facilitated easy access of individuals for deeper leadership learning. The use of technology adds to the creativity required for mobilising both

human and social capital for leadership development (TTA2). Networking events facilitate social interactions which make it easier for individuals' to have access to large groups of people for discussions on various concepts of leadership which are essential for leadership development (FFZ13). In this study, networking is recognised as a process of providing individuals and groups with continual access to resources that equip them with problem-solving skills which are essential for organisations to build self-sustaining capacity and capabilities for leadership development. In exposing individuals to other people's thinking and behaviour, networking helps to expand the emotional capacity as well as refine the assumptions, feelings and actions of groups of people to challenge each other in order to build human and social capital which are essential for leadership development within and across organisations (FFY1; TTA2).

#### **4.4.3.2 Action Learning**

Action learning is another leadership learning approach that supports the development of emotional leadership experiences (Case 1 (Mean=4.88; SD=0.00); Case 2 (Mean=4.10; SD=0.17)). Existing literature defines action learning as a "continuous process of learning and reflection, supported by colleagues, with a corresponding emphasis on getting things done" (Day, 2000, p.601). In this study, action learning is identified as a learning strategy that:

Promotes self-critique and enables individuals and groups to review and improve on their own leadership actions and practices through interactions with others (TTA3).

The insight from the statement above is that action learning is an essential leadership learning processes that enable individuals to watch how others behave, act and perform leadership activities which enables them to analyse and diagnose their personal leadership ills, seek support and re-engage with leadership activities in order to improve their leadership performance. The usefulness of action learning in supporting organisational leadership development lies in its ability to engage individuals and groups of people in community learning where lessons learnt can be measured

against measurable targets (TTA2).

The activities that were carried out as part of the action learning activities include interviews, presentation of views and journaling which enable members to collect different views on leadership development (TTA13; TTB2; FFZ17) and share the lessons learnt so that other members of the organisation can learn from and add to the knowledge and understanding gained for leadership development (TTA2; FFY2). The feedback received by individuals and group of members enable them to understand their strengths and weaknesses – so that they can design action plans to improve on their leadership learning (TTB14). The observation made here is that action learning is focused on supporting individuals and groups to develop capacities for independent as well as collective leadership learning in a particular context (TTA2). More specifically, individuals and groups learn how to develop researching and social interaction skills that are central to developing the leadership skills necessary for organisational leadership development (TTB4; FFZ12)

Although, action learning is described as a complex learning process (Day, 2000; Allen and Hartman, 2008), its benefits to leadership development are immense (TTB3). This is because, in this study, action learning is identified as a key learning process that enables individuals to come to terms with their emotions through closer interaction with others so that they can adopt strategies to manage issues that militate against their leadership effectiveness (TTA2). Such close interactions are essential for building team responsibility and mutual trust in supporting each other to developing leadership capabilities that are essential for leadership development (FFY2). The teamwork that underlies action learning processes promotes the development of social capital which is essential for organisational leadership development (*ibid*). The findings in this study support Day (2000) findings which emphasises the important role that action learning plays in leadership development because it supports the development of a psychological safety for building social capital because it entails “a

shared belief that the team is safe for interpersonal risk taking [that] may lead [team members] to engage in challenging or risky behaviours that lead to [leadership] learning and growth” (p. 603).

The study finding confirms the findings by Conger (1992) which highlights that effective team design plays a key role for successful action learning process because it enables individuals and groups to access diversity of perspectives, receive more insightful and creative ideas for developing a repertoire of leadership knowledge and skills necessary for leadership development (FFY2; FFZ2). In effect, action learning plays a key role in consolidating and maintaining inter-organisational or cross-department arrangements necessary for sustaining continual leadership learning required for leadership development.

#### **4.4.3.3 Multi-Rater Feedback**

Multi-rater feedback programmes, for example 360-degree diagnostics, are known to be effective in helping people to “learn about [their] strengths and weaknesses in a number of leadership skills” (see Conger, 1992). In this study, the multi-rater feedback programmes, 360-degree diagnostics was rated as an important learning approach that contributes to organisational leadership development (Case 1 (Mean=4.44; SD=0.12; Case 2 (Mean=4.62; SD=1.35)). This is because 360-degree diagnostics allow individuals to assess their leadership abilities, understand how others perceive their leadership performance and feel the need to develop leadership behaviours that are essential for leadership development (FFY2).

The extent to which the 360-degree was practiced in the organisations are explained by a respondent who revealed that:

The process involved a circle of colleagues – peers, juniors and superiors – who are expected to provide honest feedback on each other’s performance – strengths and weaknesses. Initially, you get defensive about some of the feedback but with time you tend to accept them and you seek to improve on the weaknesses identified and consolidate your strength (FFZ1).

The finding shown here is that the feedback received from a wide range of members of staff is essential in understanding other peoples' viewpoint about the leadership performance of others. Additionally, the feedback gives a picture of the leadership preferences and perspectives of other members of the organisation because this is what guides the way they provide feedback on others. The understanding is that the feedback is useful only to the extent that the reviewers genuinely provide feedback to help the individual to improve on their practice (TTB2). Another key finding here is that the feedback is only useful and beneficial only to the extent that the individual considers the outcomes as true reflection of their leadership abilities. They should also have the willingness to improve leadership (TTA1).

The study findings confirm the findings from Day's (2000) study which stress that 360-degree feedback enables individuals to develop deeper appreciation for self-understanding which is essential for building leadership capacity for organisational leadership development. This is because “lack of self-awareness can jeopardise projects [for leadership development] by contributing to sub-optimal individual performance, or by creating increased stress and anxiety in others” (Day 2000, p.252).

One of the respondents expounds that:

I did not find the feedback particularly helpful because the ratings were very high. What was useful was the key themes for which I was assessed against. I studied each of these carefully and this has broadened and deepened my understanding of what leadership is. What was even helpful was that the feedback was discusses with peers and a coach. (FFZ2).

The assertion made here points out that the feedback received through 360-degree diagnostics is not always the accurate reflection of what an individual consider their leadership expertise to be. However, a careful study of each of the leadership features that individuals are “rated” against is able to promote a self-study which is able to broaden individuals understanding of the concept of leadership and how it can be developed.



Further discussions of the feedback from the 360-degree diagnostics with peers and a coach helps individuals to develop and increase their self-reflection practices which are essential for developing key leadership skills such as inter- and intra-personal knowledge and awareness (FFY2). Thus, the discussion of the feedback with peers and a coach enables an individual to compare his or her leadership abilities with that of others and more importantly against key leadership standards that are essential for developing leadership expertise. The study findings are in agreement with the existing literature which highlight that the 360-degree feedback helps many individuals to improve on their leadership expertise by reflecting upon, rethinking and transforming leadership behaviours and attitudes that have unconsciously become habitual and meaningless (Chappelow, 2004).

The findings indicate that the feedback from 360-degree diagnostic inform intervention strategies which help to sustain self-development and growth. The feedback is only useful to the extent that it happens within a trusting relationship. The feedback from the 360-degree assessment becomes even more useful when the members of the organisation do not only have the opportunities to think about the feedback but to act on feedback - by thinking and doing [performing]' leadership activities that are likely to improve on their leadership expertise necessary for organisational leadership development (TTA2, TTB1, FFZ2).

#### **4.4.3.4 Mentoring**

In this study, mentoring is identified as key leadership learning tool that supports the development of emotional leadership experiences (Case 1 (Mean=4.24; SD=0.00); Case 2 (Mean=4.24; SD=1.10)). In existing literature, mentoring is considered as a developmental process that is concerned with “pairing junior-level individuals with senior-level individuals outside of their direct reporting line” (Day, 2000, p.594). In this study, however, mentoring is considered as a learning process where a more experienced person supports a less knowledgeable person to develop specific personal and

professional expertise (TTA2; FFZ1).

Mentoring is characterized by progressive dialogue, which encourages and challenges both the mentor and the mentee to achieve mutually agreed developmental targets that are focused on building leadership capacity necessary for leadership development. It is however, identified that:

Mentoring is only useful when it happens within a trusting atmosphere that support open discussions on developing leadership skills including communication and relational skills that resulted in high levels of collegiality within the organisation (TTB2).

Although the existing literature does not mention any reproducible long-term impact of mentoring on leadership development (Eby et al., 2008, p.254), this study points out that within a trusting organisational environment, mentoring is effective at creating opportunities for individuals (mentees) to watch others performing leadership activities and learning to perform specific leadership roles and develop leadership expertise such as communication skills (TTA2). Furthermore, mentoring is identified to support collegiality within organisations and this is essential for mobilising all the members of organisation to build social capital in support of leadership development (TTA2).

Commenting on how the mentoring arrangements were organised, one senior staff explains that:

My mentor was a junior staff who had worked in the industry and held senior positions previously. He had deep worth of knowledge and experience in leadership ... I learnt so much from him. He used several scenarios and photos to support our discussions and this was truly a powerful learning experience (TTA3).

Contrary to the findings from Day's (2000) leadership study which describing mentoring as a relationship when the senior staff mentors the junior staff, this study reveals that a junior member of the organisation can mentor a senior staff because he or she [junior staff] is more knowledgeable and experienced in aspect of leadership than the senior staff (TTA3). For example, there are instances where an individual who has occupied senior leadership positions in another or same organisation decides to demote himself/herself to occupy a junior position for various reasons which could

include health, child care or pension. Such individuals still possess deeper insights into leadership and how it can be developed. They are therefore capable of mentoring ‘new’ senior leaders to develop leadership capacity which is needed for developing leadership at every level of the organisation. (TTB1; FFY3). This means that mentoring ensures that the huge amount of expertise that often lie waste in organisations are harnessed and utilised to develop leadership at every level of the organisation.

Existing literature indicates that effective mentoring relationships can support mentees “to increase [their] self-esteem and satisfaction with their work and the progress of their career” (Bass, 1998, p.835; Day 2000, p.601). In this study, however, mentoring is recognised to support both the mentee and the mentor to develop self-esteem, recognise their strength and boost their confidence for carrying out leadership duties effectively (FFZ2). Thus, mentoring is identified to play a key role in building harmonious learning environment where the needs of all the members of the organisation are recognised and their talents, skills and expertise valued and harnessed for organisational leadership development (TTA2). This means mentoring helps to build social capital by expanding the leadership abilities of all the members of the organisation to contribute to leadership development within and across the organisations.

The study findings indicate that mentoring is effective in helping individuals to take responsibility for leadership learning by asking the right questions and reflecting deeply about new ideas and taking appropriate action to build their leadership capabilities which are essential for leadership development. Nonetheless, the mentoring process is only effective in supporting leadership development within organisations when the mentee is matched up with a mentor who possesses the right expertise necessary for supporting the mentee to develop a repertoire of leadership skills and abilities.

#### **4.4.3.5 Performance Reviews**

One of the leadership learning approaches that is identified to support leadership development is performance reviews (Case 1 (Mean=4.28; SD=0.40); Case 2 (Mean=4.32; SD=0.70)). According to Hawke (2012) performance reviews involve “interrelated strategies and activities to improve the performance of individuals, teams and organizations. Its purpose is to enhance the achievements of [organisational] goals and outcomes” (p.310). In this study, performance reviews are concerned with on-going, cyclical processes of setting the members of the organisation challenging targets which are in line with organisational goals and objectives and; observing and reviewing the targets and providing ongoing feedback so that the members can improve their leadership performance (TTA3; TTB1; FYY2).

The importance of the performance reviews in supporting leadership development is described below:

The performance review is very important because it brings together all the information about yourself, your leadership performance and aspirations and how this contributes to the organisational goals. This enables you to reflect and understand how to develop a repertoire of leadership abilities which are essential for leadership development (TTB2).

The finding here is that the performance reviews can support members of the organisations to develop their leadership skills by using a wide range of information about their professional performance to set targets that addresses their professional needs. Particularly, leadership can be developed at every level of the organisation, when the leadership targets set for all the members of the organisation are closely linked to the organisational goals and appropriate support is given to the members to enable them to achieve these targets (FFZ3). This means that performance reviews help individuals to understand what leadership activities to perform and why they should perform them. This enables members of the organisation to engage with activities that support organisational

leadership development.

The unique contribution that performance reviews make to leadership development is captured by one respondent who highlights that:

The opportunity to review your own performance and set yourself targets using a leadership checklist and fine-tuning these targets continuously helps you to understand what to do to improve on your leadership performance in order to achieve the targets (TTA1).

The assertion made here is that performance reviews are effective when members of the organisation are given the opportunity to review their own performance against a checklist which comprises key leadership elements that are essential for leadership development. This means that performance reviews can support leadership development when the members of the organisation are supported to have ownership of the whole process. When the members of the organisation own the review process they are more likely to take responsibility for their own learning and acquire the knowledge, skills and understanding that supports organisational leadership development (FFY1). Thus, performance reviews can support leadership development only to the extent that individuals are supported through discussions to establish clear and results oriented leadership performance goals and objectives which are linked closely to organisational leadership development outcomes.

Nonetheless, performance reviews are effective supporting leadership development only to the extent the whole process is fair and supportive rather than punitive (FFZ13). This means that all the performance of all the members of the organisation should be reviewed against a set of clearly established performance standards that commensurate their abilities. As a leadership learning tool, performance reviews impact directly on the self-esteem, commitment, and the confidence of the members of the organisation in engaging with the leadership development process (FFZ11). However, this is only possible when clear performance targets are set and are shared by all the members of the organisation (TTB2).

#### **4.4.3.6 Counselling**

Counselling is identified as one of the leadership learning approaches that provide emotional leadership experiences for leadership development (Case 1 (Mean=4.24; SD=0.40); Case 2 (Mean=4.78; SD=1.60)). A review of existing literature shows that counselling is less talked about in relation to leadership development. Nevertheless, the essential counselling skills such as “active listening, questioning, paralinguistics, reflection, summarizing and paraphrasing” (McCabe and Timmins, 2009) are fundamental features of leadership development. Gladding (2004) defines counselling as “skilled and principled use of relationship to facilitate self-knowledge, emotional acceptance and growth and the optimal development of personal resources” (p.6). The study finding confirms that counselling is essential for leadership development because it supports members of the organisation to understand themselves, manage their emotions well and improve their personal as well as professional performance (TTA2; TTB13; FFZ3).

Counselling develops both human and social capital through the interactions between the counsellor and the “counselee” which enables them to address and/or improve on their leadership needs. One participant reveals that:

I found counselling to be a powerful self-diagnosis and professional clinical tool that can be drawn on to perform surgeries on one’s leadership disease, prescribe a cure and secure a healthy leadership lifestyle (TTB1).

The insight provided here is that the usefulness of counselling for leadership development is seen in its efficacy in supporting individuals to undertake an inner exploration of themselves; identify personal and professional weaknesses and find solutions to their problems. Thus, counseling is capable of solving problems that hinder individual’s leadership growth by increasing self-awareness and the awareness of others and for building inter-personal relationships which enhance social cohesion via improved understanding and acceptance of oneself and others (TTA2).

During the interview, one respondent who has participated in a counselling sessions revealed that:

The opportunity to talk to someone who listens and asks important questions that enable you to explore personal and professional problems in a totally objective, impartial and in confidential relationships helps you to open up, reflect on yourself and understand how to improve on your leadership performance and build appropriate leadership capacity (TTA2).

The finding here is that counselling provides a trusting setting where the members of the organisation can talk freely and safely without fear of rejection, criticism or blame. This enables them to establish the linkage between their past experiences and current behaviours and create the space for exploring their thoughts and feelings about themselves and others and find ways for improving on how they relate to others (FFZ2). In this study, the findings indicate that counselling enables members of the organisation to improve their self-esteem and relationships with others, features which are essential for leadership development (FFY1). This is because the members who opted for counselling were supported to create development plans which gave them the opportunity to take on and perform a range of leadership activities to address specific problems that relate to their leadership performance.

The study finding highlights that counselling is an effective learning approach which adopts objectivity, recognises personal values of individuals and provide feedback so that they [individuals] can understand the need to change and build the capacity and self-determination to improve on leadership performance (FFY1). Due to the principled relationship that exists in counselling, the members are expected to take ownership and responsibility for their own personal and professional development (TTA11). This means the members of an organisation are expected to make appropriate choices and changes that would support the development of their leadership capacity. Thus, counselling is focused on dealing with personal and corporate growth of the members of the organisation by addressing intra- and inter- personal concerns that enables members of the organisation to adjust to the organisational settings.

#### **4.4.3.7 Personality Tests**

Personality tests (Case 1 (Mean=4.00; SD=0.20); Case 2 (Mean=4.01; SD=1.23)) received the same ratings within each case. The findings from this study reveals that personality tests have the potential to help individuals to understand their personality – who they are and what they can do (FFY3). Additionally, personality tests enable individuals to understand their aspirations and dispositions; and the need to improve on their personal and professional abilities in order to develop leadership capacity and capabilities (TTB2). From this study, personality tests are identified as irregular and linear processes that focus on evaluating an individual’s personal and professional needs in relation to certain agreed development criteria (TTA1, FFY2, FFZ3). Personality tests are noted to have the potency to help individuals to recognise the weaknesses in their leadership behaviours and undertake specific leadership activities to enhance their leadership competencies. (FFZ2).

One respondent highlights the potential of personality tests for supporting leadership development by revealing that:

On the surface, the personality tests were considered to be essential for developing individuals but later on we were able to use the test results for team building.

The understanding here is personality tests contribute to an “individual’s enduring and distinctive patterns of feeling, thinking, and behaving” (Cervone & Pervin, 2008, p.8), characteristics which are essential for leadership development. Thus, when individuals learn how to relate to themselves and manage their emotions, then they can be in control of their behaviours and relate well with others. This means that personality tests play support individuals to improve their personal capabilities and for building teams – human and social capital – that essential for leadership development.

#### **4.4.3.8 Summary of Emotional Leadership Learning Experience**

The applicability of emotional learning approaches to leadership development is noted. For example,



the high levels of openness and agreeableness that characterise emotional learning experiences are key features of leadership development. The opportunities presented for self-analysis is essential for developing emotions that influence behaviours associated with organisational leadership. Whilst differences exist among the different emotional learning approaches, the common thing that joins them together is a collaborative and consultative approach to leadership development.

The learning approaches that support the development of emotional experiences for members of the organisation contributes to human and social capital which is key for leadership development. An emotionally stable and persistent workforce creates the foundation for leadership development (FFY3). The main ethos of learning approaches that support the development of emotional leadership experiences is one of facilitation instead of imposition. Consequently, individuals and groups of people engaged in leadership learning projects take responsibility for their own learning and development. The overlap between some of the emotional leadership learning approaches ensures that the knowledge, skills and understanding that peoples acquire about leadership and how it is developed are consolidated. The role of emotional leadership experience in the development of leadership at every level of the organisation is quite distinctive because it contributes to the development of cognitive, affective and behavioural abilities of members of the organisation. Even so, a well-educated workforce with the prerequisite academic knowledge of leadership is essential to organisational leadership development.

#### **4.4.4 Academic Leadership Learning Experiences**

The academic leadership learning experiences were developed through degree programmes, classroom-based courses, online learning together with action research, distance learning and symposia/lectures/conferences. Although, some of the learning approaches received relatively low ratings within specific cases, the overall ratings are high. The academic learning approaches are

essential for providing individuals with the knowledge of wide range of existing case studies necessary for broadening understanding of different concepts and theories of leadership and how it can be developed.

Academic leadership learning practices support abstract conceptualisation of the concepts which encourages individuals to watch leadership actions; think about leadership and how it can be developed (FFZ1). Although, some aspects of academic learning experiences only support the development of human capital, others in themselves contribute to the development of social capital which is essential for leadership development (TTB2, FFY2)). Nonetheless, different combinations of the academic leadership learning approaches that promote human capital support processes that enhance the development of leadership at every level of the organisation (TTB1, FFY30). For example on-line learning together with classroom-based instructions are noted to play a key role in engaging individuals with instructions on leadership and how it is developed (TTB2, TTB3, FFZ1).

#### **4.4.4.1 On-line Learning**

On-line learning (Case 1 (Mean=4.01; SD=0.61); Case 2 (Mean=4.94; SD=1.01)) is highly rated within each of the cases as an essential learning approach for equipping individuals and groups with knowledge about the concepts and theories of leadership. The on-line learning is identified as a key learning approach that promotes interactive and constructive social learning experiences which are effective for deepening the understanding of the members of the organisation of the wide range of leadership concepts and competency development needs that are required for leadership development (TTA2; TTB1).

In this study, several on-line platforms were used to support individuals and groups to develop deeper understanding of the various concepts and theories of leadership and leadership development.

The on-line learning activities including the use of blogs, twitter, facebook, webinars and Skype for discussions through video-conferencing were extremely powerful learning experiences. There was a strong sense of bond, although not physically together, you felt connected with your colleagues and the views shared were brilliant (FFZ2).

The finding here is that specific on-line platforms can be used academic learning approaches for leadership development. This includes the use of blogs, twitter, facebook, webinars and Skype. These platforms enable individuals and groups of people to exchange ideas and to have answers to questions about leadership and leadership development easily and quickly (TTB3). The specific on-line courses and assessments designed to support leadership development were useful in getting individuals and groups to delve deeper into the theories and practices of leadership that support organisational leadership development (TTA2; TTB1; FFY1; FFZ7).

The lessons learnt is that several on-line platforms remove the barriers to learning and ensure that the learners have easy access to a wide range of literature that enhances independent learning so that they acquire at least the basic knowledge and understanding of the concepts of leadership and leadership development which contributes to a more immersive and personalised leadership experiences (TTA2). The on-line platforms shorten the overall time that members of the organisation are physically taken away from their jobs to complete specific leadership trainings (FFY3). Additionally, the on-line learning platforms offer the opportunity for learners to choose the most convenient for them to engage in leadership learning and progressively acquire the knowledge and understanding that enhance their leadership skills and experiences (TTA2).

Access to the “Athens” – an on-line platform gives all members of the organisation access to a wide range of literature on concepts and principles of leadership and leadership development. Such an opportunity supports classroom-based courses and promotes self-study amongst all members in order to broaden their understanding of leadership and leadership development. One respondent elaborates

that “the use of blogs, twitter and LinkedIn ensures that the discussions are always available and for the participants to can revisit and refresh their learning from them again” (TTA1).

Thus access to such huge range of literature on leadership and how it can be developed ensures that leadership learning is continuous and uninterrupted. This means that on-line learning takes leadership development processes from a series of disconnected events to one that is more of a continuous development process (FFZ2). The key lessons is that although online learning platform especially social networking is a relatively recent learning process, it has evolved to occupy a key role in action research processes, which are significantly essential for promoting classroom-based and peer-to-peer leadership learning essential for leadership development.

#### **4.4.4.2 Classroom-based Courses**

Classroom-based courses are rated as equally important for leadership development (Case 1 Mean=4.02; SD=1.0); Case 2 (Mean=4.12; SD=0.26). Classroom-based courses involve the learners coming together physically to learn either independently or in groups by exchanging ideas and completing learning activities (TTB2; TTA3). The efficiency of classroom-based courses in supporting learners to develop leadership skills is seriously criticised because it mainly focuses on enabling learners to acquire knowledge (Tucker, 2001). Classroom-based learning are criticised as being short-lived and removed from the day-to-day work experience of the learner, both in terms of time and real world application to skills development is difficult to substantiate (Tucker, 2001).

In this study, however, classroom-based courses are considered as key learning approach for leadership development. It is argued that interaction amongst groups of people that is provided by classroom based leadership courses are key aspects of leadership development (TTA2). Therefore, classroom-based courses provide opportunities that enable learners to contribute to discussions on the concept of leadership, and process, the information to create meaning of how leadership can be

developed rather than just accumulate information (FFY2).

The classroom-based activities adopt variety of learning approaches such as group work and projects; and stimuli such as DVDs, videos, posters and the audio messages (mp3) which appeals to all the senses of learners and enables to engage deeper understanding of the notion of leadership and how it can be developed. The diverse approaches to learning have direct impact on the emotional, social and the intellectual abilities of individuals and groups of people on developing leadership skills necessary for leadership development (TTA3; TTB2; FFY3). Consequently, classroom-based activities support the development of human and social capital which are essential for organisational leadership development.

Kolb (1984) highlights that adults often prefer practical experiential learning that promotes independent learning instead of instructional learning which is didactic in nature. In this study, the findings indicate that role of classroom-based courses can be both instructional and independent in nature and effectively introduces individuals to the theories and concepts of leadership (TTA1). Thus the implications of classroom-based courses in developing the cognitive abilities necessary for leadership development cannot be underestimated.

The wide range of books, journals, articles and periodicals that were chosen for the leadership development sessions added fun and imagination to the group and independent learning which, ensured controlled repetition and reinforcement learning so that the learners developed innovative experience for practising and applying leadership knowledge and skills learned (TTB2: TTB3: FFY1). The study findings therefore stress the importance of classroom-based courses for leadership development. For example the hundreds of over-subscribed class-room-based academic and professional leadership courses indicate that classroom-based courses are still recognised as

important component for leadership development (see Albert and Vadla, 2009). Some of the classroom-based and on-line courses lead to the award of academic degrees; others are not.

#### **4.4.4.3 Degree and Postgraduate Courses**

Degree or postgraduate courses (Case 1 Mean=4.24; SD=1.42); Case 2 (Mean=4.65; SD=0.82)) were noted to draw on a wide range of leadership learning resources including access to libraries stocked with books, DVDs, CDs, periodicals, journals and articles as well as directories, brochures, videotapes to support leadership learning. The degree and/or postgraduate courses that members of the various organisations enrolled on, were intended to introduce them to high-order critical thinking to enable them to critique existing methodologies that has failed to provide understanding of what leadership is and how it can be develop and to provide conclusions on how leadership can be developed at every level of the organisation (TTA3; TTB2; FFY3).

One respondent who had completed MBA Leadership Development course as part of the partnership activities affirms that:

This academic study was brilliant. ... It (the course) touched on a wide range of leadership theories and how leadership can be developed. ... The course provided opportunities to explore some abstract concepts about leadership (FFZ2).

The finding here is that the degree and postgraduate courses have the potential of promoting critical thinking that is essential for unpacking the complex concepts and theories of leadership and leadership development in order to effectively engage with leadership practices necessary for organisational leadership development. Thus, the intended outcome was for the members of the organisation to devise innovative and cutting edge approaches to leadership development (TTB2).

The degree and postgraduate courses provided guidance on how to develop personal leadership plan. One respondent highlights that “the degree courses involved process that allowed [learners] to self-

assess of their leadership styles in the light of the existing leadership theories and concepts. This was an effective process in supporting learners to develop leadership communication and to understand leadership dynamics (TTB3). By considering the various leadership theories and concepts the learners are able to analyse their motivation for undertaking leadership activities, understand the level of emotional intelligence they possess (TTA13); develop communication skills (TTB2) and team facilitation skills (TTA1), which are essential for improving on their leadership capacity (FFZ3). When the members of the organisation learn key leadership activities such as planning, directing, organising and controlling organizational activities that enables them to envision how to direct the organisations to achieve expected outcomes (TTA2).

The lessons learnt here is that the degree and postgraduate courses provide opportunities for the members of the organisation to review different leadership theories and apply the lessons learnt in exploring their own leadership identity and competencies, and develop all encompassing leadership skills and behaviours that are essential for organisational leadership development. The degree and/or postgraduate courses are focused on equipping members of the organisation to develop key leadership skills such as problem-solving, delegation, supervision, goal setting and techniques for influencing positive social change communication and conflict resolution (TTA3, FFY3). Supported by action research, degree and postgraduate courses become powerful leadership learning tools for creating awareness of the new concepts, theories and practices for leadership development.

#### **4.4.4.4 Action Research**

Action research (Case 1 (Mean=4.12; SD=0.34); Case 2 (Mean=4.92; SD=0.52)) involves the progressive integration of action with research in order to contribute immensely to the overall development of organisations, especially organisational leadership development (TTB1; FFZ2). As part of the partnership activities, the organisations encouraged their members to undertake an action

research projects (TTA2; FFY1). The action research projects are focused on enabling members of the organisation to engage in practices that combine the principles and practices of leadership in order to develop leadership expertise (TTB2, FFZ14).

According to respondent TTA2, “action research projects that use interviews and survey questionnaire to gather information enable individual to gain much deeper understanding of the various concepts of leadership and develop skills and experiences which are essential for leadership development”. The finding here is that action research involves a rich array of learning activities that enhances the ability of members of the organisation to find out answers to questions about leadership and leadership development. The use of interviews and survey questionnaire enables one member to develop the skills for engaging and relating with others in conversations and discussions (TTA2). These skills are critical to leadership development (FFZ1).

The views captured through action research projects are extremely relevant because they are closely related to specific processes and practices that support organisational leadership development. The ability to interview others is key leadership skill that is critical to organisational leadership development (FFY14). Thus, action research brings the processes of searching, re-searching and thinking together by allowing members to engage in active experimentation of leadership activities which produce new insights about leadership and how it can be developed.

The study finding indicates that the members of the various organisations found action research to be “enlightening exercises” (TTA1); “insightful projects that deepen relationships with oneself and with others through critical thinking and discussions” (FFZ3) “which provides deeper understanding of concepts of leadership and leadership development” (FFY1). The observations made here indicate that action research processes support intrapersonal and interpersonal learning that promote self-and



organisational awareness which are key components of organisational leadership development. The co-operative inquiry approach to action research supports collective learning which encourages group dialogue, interactions and feedback and self-study which are essential for leadership development. Action research is closely linked to and forms an integral part of the leadership roles and responsibilities (TTA2). The findings from action research are therefore authentic and focused on developing leadership practices which are essential for leadership development.

The study findings indicate that action research is noted to develop human and social capital by encouraging mutual inquiry which is critical for leadership development. The core concepts of co-operation, interaction and self-assessment that characterises action research are key principles that support leadership development processes. In sum, action research supports leadership development because it enables the identification and presentations of insights on leadership practices which are shared amongst members of an organisation to support continual leadership learning.

#### **4.4.4.5 Distance Learning Programmes**

In this study, distance learning was rated relatively highly in one case (Case 1 (Mean=4.36; SD=0.00)); than the other (Case 2 (Mean=3.24; SD=1.34)) as key learning approaches to leadership development. In Case 2, distance learning was not mainly used as a leadership learning tool because School BB was a training school which required that staff from other schools visited them to engage in leadership learning activities. However, when the partnership with Bank ZZ started, some members of the organisation [School BB] engaged in distance learning programmes and share ideas via text, audio, video, or other internet-supported media.

“The distance learning programmes proved to be very useful to all the members who found it difficult to travel long distances and attend classes in a classroom setting” (TTA3). Additionally,

this type of leadership learning is found to be helpful to the leadership development process because staff are not taken from the job but develop on-the-job skills which support organisational leadership development (TTA3). The distance learning programmes are noted to provide access to learning “on the go” - [wherever and when the members choose to learn] (FFZ1). “Even when at work members of the organisation can still learn or access learning” (FFY3). This means that the distance learning programmes are useful for ensuring that the members of the organisation have access to huge levels of knowledge and insights about leadership and how it can be developed which otherwise could not be possible through other learning approaches (TTB2). Thus, the use of e-mails, listservs, podcasts, DVD-recorded courses, and web-based resources enables learners to have access to information about leadership and how it can be developed at anytime so that learning is not hindered (FFY1).

The finding from this study is that distance learning fulfils the benefit–cost criteria for leadership development because it is efficient and equitable (TTA2). The self-paced format that characterises distance learning ensures flexibility and accommodates multiple learning levels that enables members of the organisation to access learning or revisit learning materials to consolidate their knowledge and understanding of various concepts that support leadership development (TTB1; FFY2). Even though the distance and the online learning approaches are interrelated, each approach presents unique experiences that contribute to leadership development (TTA12). Distance learning supports individuals to learn at their own pace and to access support from a ‘distanced’ tutor, sometimes through the use of on-line facilities in order not to miss out on key leadership learning experiences (FFY1). The changing nature of the concepts of leadership means that all forms of leadership learning approaches are exploited as part of the school-business partnership programmes in order to secure organisational leadership development.

#### **4.4.4.6 Symposia, Lectures and Conferences**

Symposia, lectures and conferences promote academic leadership experiences through the presentation of “new” findings, the exchange of ideas and the identification of exemplary leadership development practices (TTB1; FFY2). Symposia, lectures and conferences were rated relatively lower in Case 1 (Mean=3.28; SD=0.00) than in Case 2 (Mean=4.01; SD=1.00) as essential for equipping individuals with knowledge about the concepts and theories of leadership; and how leadership can be developed. Symposia, lectures and conferences often provides opportunities for the members of the organisation to meet, engage in discussions and learn new ideas about leadership from people from different backgrounds - social and academic (FFZ3). Such new ideas contribute to organisational leadership development (TTA1).

Seminars, lectures and conferences are therefore useful for guiding and directing organisations to, coordinate and organize how leadership development programmes should be pursued in order to maximise the outcomes. Thus, the information that organisations receive from symposia, lectures and conferences enables them to reshape and improve on their leadership development programmes. The opportunities for members of organisations to engage in discussions and draw on new ideas in a systematic manner enables organisations to optimize time, resources and get more benefits from their approaches to leadership development (TTA3).

Although symposia, lectures and conferences were not rated highly by respondents as a key leadership learning approach, its impact on illuminating ‘new’ leadership ideas from discussions is highly acknowledged. The study findings indicate that academic leadership experiences on their own cannot achieve organisational leadership development (FFY3). This is because the acquisition of knowledge about the concept and context of organisational leadership does not in itself help individual and groups to develop leadership expertise but when combined with other leadership

learning experiences, they (academic leadership experiences) accelerate leadership development processes within organisations (TTA2, TTA13, FFZ3).

#### **4.4.4.7 Summary of Findings of Academic Leadership Experiences**

Although, in this study academic learning approaches are rated relatively lower than other forms of leadership learning approaches, the value that academic experiences add to leadership development is huge and cannot be overlooked. The academic learning approaches are noted to mainly develop human capital which supports leader development. Nonetheless, the corporate approach to academic learning ensures groups of people instead of individuals participate in leadership learning. The corporate approach to academic learning therefore build social capital which supports leadership development. This means that academic leadership learning approaches like all other leadership learning approaches play a significant role in leadership development.

The various academic learning activities equipped the members of the organisations with deeper and profound knowledge and understanding of the various concepts of leadership which are essential for carrying out leadership activities and develop leadership capacity within the organisations. The independent and corporate approaches to academic leadership learning ensure that the learning needs of the members of the organisation are met so that they engage deeply with the leadership development processes. The escalating demands for reforming leadership development procedures reflect the growing dissatisfaction that individuals and organisations have with the lack of integrative leadership development approaches. This state of affairs has resulted in vigorous calls for innovation in leadership curricula, learning methods and education programmes that combine academic delivery with other approaches to leadership learning and development.

#### **4.4.4.8 Summary of Findings To Research Question Three**

The study findings identify, four key leadership experiences: practical, academic, emotional and spiritual. There are twenty-five different learning approaches that support the various leadership development experiences. The distinctive observation, however, is the preference for spiritual learning experiences as the main approach to leadership development over academic, emotional and practical learning experiences. Taken together, the various learning approaches that promote spiritual leadership experiences were rated highly than other learning approaches to leadership development. However, it is appropriate to state that the identification of spiritual learning experiences as the key approach to leadership development should not be taken as endorsement for organisations to choose spiritual leadership learning approaches over the other leadership experiences. No single approach is complete by itself. For example, the impact of the different learning approaches such as job mixing; job shadowing and networking are noted to contribute to leadership development in one organisation than in others. In other organisations, other forms of learning approaches are identified as the most suitable for leadership development.

On the whole, however, spiritual leadership learning approaches such as themes/cues from the Bible, reflections as well as recitals, and records of enlightenment, learning was lauded as valuable for leadership development. Perhaps it is safe to conclude that the different learning approaches underpinning the four main leadership experiences – spiritual, academic, emotional and practical – form an overarching framework for leadership development.

#### **4.5 Findings for Research Question 4: How did the Partnership Activities support Leadership Development?**

To understand how the partnership activities promoted leadership development in the various organisations, the interview data were analyzed, summarized and explored further in the quantitative

study as a means for triangulating the research findings. The partnership activities are mainly the leadership learning activities that were carried out in each organisation. The initial findings indicate that the partnership activities can mobilize the masses to engage with leadership development processes. This means that the partnership activities are useful for building human and social capital by supporting individuals and groups of people to develop interpersonal and intrapersonal skills which are essential for organisational leadership development. The ten key elements were chosen because they were mentioned most frequently in the interview data and highly rated in the quantitative data with a mean rating of more than 2.50 (Yin, 2009) are presented in Table 4.5 below.

The results of the quantitative analysis are ranked based on the mean scores from each school and bank. As discussed in Chapter 3, the higher the mean value for a characteristic, the higher the value that respondents placed on that particular element. These elements are recognized as the components of organisational leadership development. The extent of the contribution that each element makes to leadership development is determined by the leadership capacity that already exists within each organisation (TTA3). Thus, each key element contributes to leadership development differently. This means two or more organisations may rank a key element the same but the mean values may be different. For example, all the organisations, rated “broadened decision-making powers and agreeability” as the eighth most essential element of leadership development but their mean values are different (School AA (Mean=3.08; SD=1.14); School BB (Mean=3.84; SD=0.98); Bank YY (Mean=3.84; SD=1.04) and bank ZZ (Mean=4.29; SD=1.01).

There are instances where two different organizations rated and ranked the same element of leadership development with the same mean values. For example, School BB (Mean=3.84; SD=0.98) and Bank YY (Mean=3.84; SD=1.04) ranked “broadened decision-making powers and agreeability” as the eighth most important component for leadership development, with the same mean value of

**Table 4.5 How did the school-business partnership activities support leadership development?**

Elements of Leadership Development	Overall responses (N=160)			School AA (N=52)			School BB (N=47)			Bank YY (N=30)			Bank ZZ (N=31)		
	Mean	SD	Rank Order	Mean	SD	Rank Order	Mean	SD	Rank Order	Mean	SD	Rank Order	Mean	SD	Rank Order
Effective team development and management	4.40*	0.17	5*	4.24*	0.94	5*	4.94*	1.45	1*	4.10*	1.32	5*	4.32*	2.14	5*
Effective succession planning	3.79*	1.01	8*	3.08	1.14	8*	3.94*	0.98	8*	3.84*	1.04	8*	4.29*	1.01	8*
Organisational leadership learning culture	4.97	1.00	1	4.98	0.12	1	4.92	1.00	4	4.98	1.34	1	4.98	1.04	1
Create Non-threatening atmosphere	4.60	0.12	4	4.44	1.07	4	4.68	1.31	7	4.72	1.27	3	4.58	2.24	4
Innovative and practical leadership	4.79	0.14	2	4.88	1.00	2	4.84	1.07	5	4.78	0.98	2	4.66	2.01	2
Organisational growth and survival strategies	4.68	2.10	3	4.68	1.02	3	4.72	1.01	6	4.68	1.14	4	4.64	1.48	3
Deep Understanding of Leadership Concepts	4.38*	0.17	7*	4.24*	0.94	5*	4.94*	1.45	1*	4.10*	1.32	5*	4.32*	2.14	5*
Broadened Decision-making Powers and Agreeability	3.79*	1.01	8*	3.08*	1.14	8*	3.94*	0.98	8*	3.84*	1.04	8*	4.29*	1.01	8*
Organisational Accountability	4.40*	0.17	5*	4.24*	0.94	5*	4.94*	1.45	1*	4.10*	1.32	5*	4.32*	2.14	5*
"Flat" Leadership Principle	3.79*	1.01	8*	3.08	1.14	8*	3.94*	0.98	8*	3.84*	1.04	8*	4.29*	1.01	8*

(Source: Field Data, 2012)

Note: The rating system to find the mean is: (a) 5= strongly agree; (b) 4 = agree; (c) 3 = somewhat agree; (d) 2 = disagree; and (e) 1= strongly disagree.  
Rank order is 1 = highest to 10= lower (\* = same mean value).

3.84. In other cases, the rank order is the same but the mean values are different (see Table 4.5).

The common observation, however is that the different organisations rated and ranked several elements of leadership with the same mean values. This means that each of the elements is considered as most important partnership activity that contributes to, leadership development (FFY2; TTB1). As explained earlier, the partnership activities between the two organizations – School and Bank constitute a case and each organizations is classified as a sub-case. A within-case analysis was carried out to understand how the partnership activities have contributed to leadership development within each organisation. A cross-case analysis is pursued by comparing how each element contributed to leadership development across the different organisations (Yin, 2009). The findings of the within-case and cross-case analyses are presented and discussed in order to understand how each of the elements of the leadership (partnership) activities contributed to leadership development in each organisation.

#### **4.5.1 Organisational leadership learning culture**

Overall, “organisational leadership learning culture” (Mean=4.97; SD=1.00) was rated as the most important element of school-business partnership activity promoted through the learning approaches that contributed to leadership development. While School AA (Mean=4.98; SD=0.12); Bank YY (Mean=4.98; SD=1.34) and Bank ZZ (Mean=4.98; SD=1.04) consistently rated this item as the one most important element of leadership development, School BB (Mean=4.92; SD=1.31) considered this element as the second most important element for leadership development.

Despite the differences in the ranking, this element is rated very highly in each organisation. The key finding here is that while different organisations engaged in the same activities as part of partnership arrangements, each recognizes the impact of the item on organisational leadership development



differently. It is shown here also that school-business partnerships can support organisational leadership development only when these partnerships enable organisations to create a strong learning culture which engages all the members of the organisation in leadership learning.

Rosenberg (2008) defines organizational learning culture as “an organisation that knows how to learn, with people who freely share what they know and are willing to change based on the acquisition of new knowledge” (p.1). In this study, organisational learning culture is defined as the conditions created within organisations that encourages the members of the organisation to build a sense of commitment to share ideas, develop thinking skills and intelligence and build personal and professional capacity to shape decisions and behaviours that are essential for solving organisational problems and ensure organisational growth and survival.

One participant argues that: learning cultures do not just happen because they are far from being straightforward (TTB2). Organisational leadership learning culture is a process, rather than a destination and one that encourages the acquisition of knowledge, development of skills and the use of expertise to support leadership development ((TTA1; FFY1). Organisational leadership learning culture is the outcome of intentionality (TTB14), a healthy discontent against the status quo (FFY3), and a strong desire to continually understand and know how to develop leadership development are every level of the organisation in order to compete healthily in the global market (FFZ2). Organisational leadership learning cultures support the experimentation and implementation of new strategies that ensures effective performance of leadership activities on continuous basis in order to continually develop leadership expertise at every level of the organisation (TTA1; TTB3; FFZ1).

In explaining the ubiquitous nature of organisational learning culture and its contribution to leadership development, one participant expounds that

Global education on leadership is not only critical but also essential in achieving

effective leadership across organisations and societies. (TTB2)

The observation made here is that the impact of organisational leadership learning is evident when it is pursued on a large scale. This means that if leadership is what helps organisations and societies to function, then leadership learning is the key to achieving leadership development which is essential in sustaining the growth and survival of organisations and societies. The observation made here is that school-business partnerships can support leadership development not only in organisations but in societies around the world when leadership learning culture is established where all individuals are supported to acquire leadership knowledge and develop skills in different contexts and cultures. This way, “new” ideas about leadership which are situated in specific cultures and societies but unknown to the wider world can be captured to enhance the understanding of the notion of leadership and how it can be developed.

Leadership is no more about a position that individuals occupy, titles that people wear or an idea that people think about; leadership is responsibility that is created through learning! (TTA2). This means leadership learning culture should provide opportunities for people to take up leadership responsibilities and learn how to perform different leadership roles in order to develop a repertoire of leadership expertise necessary for organisational leadership development. One respondent elaborates the importance role of learning culture in leadership development by stating that:

The power of leadership learning can be enormous when it promotes genuine organisational self-critique and supports actions to address observable and unanticipated organisational struggles. (FFY2)

This statement explains that organisational learning is fundamental to the development of leadership abilities of people because it enables them to think methodically and forecast how internal and external factors impact on the organisation. This way, the individuals are able to decode any inconsistencies in the leadership learning approaches intended to support organisational leadership development (FFZ10). This enables the members of the organisation to develop deeper

understanding and insights that reshape their current leadership behaviours and sharpen their skills to meet the challenges posed by organisational dynamisms (TTA3). The members are therefore able to undertake specific and different leadership activities because they possess a wide range of leadership capacity and capabilities.

#### **4.5.2 Innovative and Practical Leadership Practices**

The element that was rated as the second most important impact of school-business partnership on leadership development is “innovative and practical leadership practices” (Mean=4.95; SD=0.98). Although, the different organisations ranked “innovative and practical leadership practices” slightly differently, the ratings given to this item is very high (School AA: Mean=4.91, SD=0.98, RO=2; School BB: Mean=4.88, SD=1.14, RO=3; Bank YY: Mean=4.93, SD=1.43, RO=2; Bank ZZ: Mean=4.96, SD=1.08, RO=2) (RO=Rank Order). There is a common agreement that:

In the current changing organisational climate, innovation is the key ingredient for developing leadership capacity necessary for achieving expected organisational outcomes (TTA1; TTB3; FFZ2; FFY3).

The understanding here is that the global organisational climate is ever changing with new technologies and developmental processes, and it becomes essential for organizations to think creatively and adopt innovative approaches to developing leadership capacity that can tackle contemporary issues.

Selman (n.d) defines innovative leadership practices as “intentionally ‘bringing into existence’ something new that can be sustained and repeated and which has some value or utility” (p.1). In this study, innovation and leadership are identified as closely inter-related phenomena. As a multi-disciplinary and cross-functional activity, innovative and practical leadership approaches are related to a set of agreed actions that allow members of an organisation to generate creative ideas and insights that support effective performance of leadership functions that support organizational

growth and survival (TTB3; FFY1; FFZ3). Thus, innovative and practical leadership are concerned with the establishment of learning processes within organisations that influence the members of the organisation to continually review existing leadership styles and produce novice and creative leadership ideas which can be practically applied to solving organisational problems (FFY3).

The adoption of innovative approaches to leadership development involves the development and practical application of authoritative leadership expertise to effectively remodel existing organisational structures and procedures to successfully address contemporary issues (FFZ1). The innovative and practical leadership approaches can support leadership development to the extent that these approaches effectively influence the transformation of outmoded priorities, beliefs, and habits of members of the organisation that fail to challenge the status quo. Thus, innovative and practical leadership practices involve the willingness of organisations to go beyond current leadership practices and to mobilize new discoveries, shed outdated leadership ideas that are entrenched in traditional leadership practices and generating new capacity for developing leadership capacity at every level of the organisation.

To illuminate our understanding of how to promote innovative and practical leadership, a respondent highlights that:

Organisations should create working environments that encourage risk-taking and support leadership behaviours that encourage all the members of the organisation to think outside the box and adopt new but effective ideas in performing leadership roles (FFZ3).

The assertion made here suggests that organisations must put in place systems that provide their members with intellectual stimulation and allow flexibility, opportunism and adaptability to generate as many novel ideas, strategies and solutions as possible and implement these ideas to build leadership capacity at every level of the organisation. The understanding is that the foundation to spreading innovative and practical leadership practices within organisation is the creation of the

climate that encourages learning through searching, discovery, experimentation, and risk taking as well as the building and extension of already existing ideas to leadership development

Promoting innovation in organisations requires a critical and constant study of the organisational culture and how this impacts on the operations of the organisation in order to adopt novice strategies to address internal as well as external demands that seeks to endanger the survival of the organisation. The Book of Proverbs in the Bible reveals that; “where there is no vision, the people perish” (Proverbs 29:18KJV). This is true with all organisations. Lack of clear vision for sustaining the growth of an organisation, endangers its existence. Contingency strategies that are initiated, practiced and fuelled by the vision of an organisation are essential for creating leadership capacity that encourages and supports spontaneous innovation for addressing unexpected problems that may hinder the growth of the organisation. Such innovative approaches will come from the ideas generated by all individuals within the organisation. This means that school-business partnerships can support leadership development when brings together all the members of the organisation and harness ideas and mobilise commitment for innovative and practical leadership by broadening decision-making powers.

#### **4.5.3 Organisational Growth and Survival**

Overall, ‘organisational growth and survival’ (Mean=4.78; SD=0.14) was identified as the third most important aspect of partnership activity that contributes to leadership development. With the exception of School BB (Mean=4.88; SD=1.14) which rated this element as the fifth most important element of organisational leadership development, the rest of the organisation rated this element as the third most important partnership activity that strongly contributes to leadership development (School AA: Mean=4.91, SD=0.98; Bank YY: Mean=4.93, SD=1.45; Bank ZZ: Mean=4.96, SD=1.08). Nonetheless, the mean values are very high and this means that school-business

partnerships can contribute to the development of leadership at every level of the organisation by rallying all the members of the organisation to engage in activities that support organisational survival and growth.

In Chapter 3 of this study, it was explained that the partnerships began because the organizations identified the need for survival as the primary goal. Gross (1968) stress that “organizations that do not have survival as a primary objective or goal should have re-think [because] the goal of organisational survival underpins all other goals (p.454). It is however, ironic that organisational survival and growth is identified as the third most important factor that partnership arrangements should focus on in order to develop leadership at every level of the organisation. One respondent explained that:

Organisational survival and growth is still a key goal of the organisations. With time, however, we recognised that focusing mainly on organisational survival and growth will not secure growth and survival. Other factors such as leadership learning and innovation are key to securing growth and survival (FFZ3).

The finding here is that while organizational survival and growth have been argued as the primary goal of every organization, an overemphasis on securing growth and survival at the expense of the key actions that need to be taken to secure growth and survival would rather be detriment to the organisation. This is because organizational survival and growth are “implicit organizational goals requiring the investment of energy and resources” (Douma and Schreuder, 2013). Paying attention to investing the energy of the members of the organisation and a range of resources to achieving organisational goal is what would secure organisational goal and survival (TTA15; FFY17).

Robbins and DeCenzo (2005) define organization as “a systematic arrangement of people brought together to accomplish some specific purpose” (p.7). In this study, an organisation is said to be “biotic system that requires essential resources to develop the capacities of its members to perform functions that would keep it [the organisation] growing and alive (TTA2; FFY1; FFZ3). This

means that organizational survival and growth can be achieved when the members are supported to engage in organizational learning activities that create a culture of innovation for performing practical leadership functions which is important for tackling difficulties within the organisation. A respondent emphasize that an effective organisation is the one which is made up of an orderly arrangement of people brought together to accomplish some specific purposes, it has to grow in order to achieve its purpose for existence (TTB2).

A respondent quotes Henry Ford who illuminates the importance of organisation survival and growth by highlighting that:

Coming together is the beginning. Keeping together is progress. Working together is success. Keeping on succeeding results in organisational growth and survival and that's when leadership can be developed (TTB3).

The insight provided here is to achieve organisational survival and growth, the members of the organizations must first of all come together and decide how they can survive and grow (TTA2). The members should then continue to work together by performing leadership activities that enable the organisation to achieve its goal. This means that organisations should continually devise new ways of dealing with new and emerging challenges so that they continue to grow and survive. By doing so, the organisations will have to continually developed leadership capacity to support innovation and diversification in order to compete effectively and consistently secure organisational growth (FFY2).

Some of the respondents reiterate that “no organisation will continue to grow and survive without equipping all of its human with leadership expertise” (FFY1, TTB3). Even though different organisational resources, such as finance, infrastructure, time and information, are all essential in achieving goals, human resources are the most significant organisational resource that is essential for growth and survival (FFZ3). However, this is possible when organisations invest their energies to develop leadership capacity which is essential for managing all other organisational resources and to

accomplish organisational goals (FFZ3).

Achieving organisational survival and growth requires that investments are directed towards developing effective leadership plans for developing the members of the organisation to be committed, and clearly communicate a sense of purpose and direction. Effective leadership is that kind of leadership that permeates every fibre of organisation at all times and is capable of overcoming all forms of crises that threaten the survival of organisations (TTA3, FFY2). This means that organisational growth and survival is likely to be achieved through careful planning that harnesses the expertise of all staff. To do so, however requires effective leadership expertise that enables organisations to avoid duplication of resources and time wasting so that all energies are directed towards addressing specific difficulties that threaten the foundation of the organisation (TTA2). Organisational planning helps the organisation to look into the future and have in place a formidable contingency plan for dealing with any organisational eventualities (FFZ3). The one most important contingency plan is based on the premise that organisational capacity for growth and survival is enhanced by the creation of a non-threatening atmosphere where and the members of the organisation can take measured steps to addressing difficulties that exist in organizations (FFY2).

#### **4.5.4 Creating Non-threatening atmosphere**

The study finding indicates that organisations can develop leadership at every level of the organisation by creating non-threatening atmosphere that encourages all the members to cooperate with each other and engage with leadership learning activities to broaden their knowledge and understanding of what leadership is and how it can be developed. Overall the participants rated the item, “creating non-threatening atmosphere” as the fourth most important component of leadership development (Mean=4.58; SD=0.12). In School AA, participants rated this item as the fourth most important element of leadership (Mean=4.44; SD=1.07), School BB rated this item as the seventh



(Mean=4.68; SD=1.31). In Bank YY (Mean=4.72; SD=1.27) and Bank ZZ (Mean=4.58; SD=2.24) was rated this item as the third and fourth most important element of leadership development respectively. Generally, the participants equated non-threatening atmosphere to thriving atmosphere (TTA2, TTB2, FFZ1).

Spreitzer et al. (2005) define thriving [stimulating] organizational atmosphere as “the psychological state in which individuals experience both a sense of vitality – the positive feeling of having energy – and feel a sense of learning – the processes of acquiring and applying, knowledge and skills – at work” (p.537). In this study, a thriving organisational atmosphere is defined as not just a state that organisation reach by becoming better at surviving but a sense of community which is established through strong relationships that support continuous learning and generation of new ideas to address difficulties within organisations. Spreitzer et al. (2005) reiterate that “no amount of continuous improvement will turn a surviving organisation into a thriving one. Thriving organisations have learnt to see themselves in a very different way and consequently have learnt to behave in very different ways” (p.538).

Therefore, a non-threatening [thriving] atmosphere is a condition within organisations where all the members of the organisation feel safe, valued and confident to adopt different strategies to address different situations that militate against organisational survival and growth. When the views and the efforts off all the members of the organisation are recognised, then those with professional difficulties and personal challenges can be encouraged to improve their knowledge and performance because they will feel physically comfortable, mentally motivated and emotionally supported (TTB3, FFY2). If learning comes through motivation that encourages people to exchange ideas, it follows then that a non-threatening atmosphere is created by supporting the members of the organisation to acquire leadership experiences which are essential for addressing the challenges that threaten the

survival and growth of organisations (TTA3). To do so, however, the members must understand that the creation of non-threatening atmosphere within the organisation is not the end in itself but the beginning of a wide range of activities that need to be completed in order to secure continuous growth and survival in the organisation (TTB1; FFY2; FFY3). In other words, when a non-threatening environment is created, the expectation is that the members will work extremely hard to contribute to achieving organisational goals (FFZ3). This is because the creation of positive organisational atmosphere optimizes the opportunities that the members of the organisation have to develop a repertoire of leadership abilities and experiences (TTB1; FFY1).

The creation of this is only possible when the primary leaders establish relationships with each member almost on a daily basis in order to build strong rapport that is essential for developing a learning community (TTA2). For example, organisations can establish coffee morning meetings for members to spend time and make strong personal connections so that they can build a learning community that meets the learning needs of each other. Such strong bonds would make the members feel at ease and know that they are important to the organisation (TTB1). Additionally, it is important for organisations to fill their environment with positive messages and feedback that encourage members to feel valued and develop can-do spirit (FFZ2). The members of the organisation should also be empowered to express their concerns about any matters that militate against their growth and the performance of the organisation (FFY3). When a non-threatening atmosphere is created, the leadership learning activities can be effective in developing leadership capacity at every level of the organisation (TTA2; FFY2; FFZ3).

#### **4.5.5 Effective Team Development and Management**

Overall, the need to build and manage effective teams and ensuring organisational accountability were ranked as the fifth most element of leadership development (Mean=4.13; SD=0.17). With the

exception of School BB (Mean=4.94; SD=1.45) which rated and ranked this item as the first most important, the three other organisations rated this item differently (School AA (Mean=4.24; SD=0.94); Bank YY (Mean=4.10; SD=1.32) and Bank ZZ (Mean=4.32;SD=2.14) but they all ranked the item as the fifth most important element of leadership development. The study, the findings stress that social capital which is essential for leadership development can be built when organisations develop and manage teams effectively (TTA1; FFZ2).

In the existing literature, team building is defined as “an effort in which a team studies its own process of working together and acts to create a climate that encourages and values the contributions of the team members” (Gordon, 2002, p.185). Rawlings (2000) expounds that in effective teams, “the energies [of the members] are directed toward problem solving, task effectiveness, and maximizing the use of all members' resources to achieve the team's purpose” (p.39). This means that in an effective team building, it is barely impossible to fully separate the performance of one member from those of others.

In this study, team building is defined as the use of communication skills to rally together all the members of the organisation and to direct their energies towards the completion of a wide range of activities including leadership activities in order to build social capital which is essential for building leadership at every level of the organisation (TTA1; TTA3; FFY2). It is highlighted here that effective team building and management have the potential to bring a strong sense of direction and powerful feeling of identity amongst the members of the organisation which are essential for achieving organisational goals. Hackman and Craig (2009), however caution that if team building process are poorly planned and managed, then this could lead to disenchantment, low morale and low productivity which will fail to deliver the results expected.

When elaborating on how team building can contribute to leadership development, one respondent explains that:

Team building without clear purpose results in fatal blunder. However, when everyone works towards a common goal better outcomes can be achieved (TTA1).

The lesson learnt from this statement is that if teams focus on the wrong tasks without clear goals, the expected outcomes will be negligible. Therefore, team building requires careful planning that provides strategic direction for team members to focus on developing capacity for developing leadership at every level of the organisation. It is highlighted that team building has the potential to equip members of the organisation with strong interpersonal skills including communication, negotiation, and motivation skills for completing leadership activities which are essential for achieving organisational leadership development (TTB2).

When teams are built and managed effectively to engage in and complete complex activities which militate against organisational growth and survival, they are likely to develop leadership skills which are essential for leadership development (FFY1). Additionally, effective team building ensures that the members of the organisation learn and support each other to develop specific skills necessary for performing leadership duties (TTA2). Therefore, team building builds human and social capital which support organisational leadership development. The cohesive and community learning approach that teams create enables the members of the organisation to trust each other and to engage with leadership learning processes to achieve leadership development outcomes (TTB2).

It is however critically essential that team building is backed by meaningful leadership practices that result in tangible improvement within an organization as a result of team building activities (TTA2). If improvements are seen members may feel motivated to continue to engage with leadership activities; otherwise they will feel discouraged and disengaged with the team activities (FFY2). To motivate the team members to continually engage with the team exercises, the team should

focus on completing discrete aspects of leadership development so that the members will achieve success gradually, evaluate the impact of their efforts systematically and make the necessary adjustment where necessary towards achieving the ultimate goal (FFY3).

#### **4.5.6 Organisational Accountability**

Organisational accountability and team building and management are ranked the same as the fifth most significant impact of school-business partnerships on leadership development (Mean=4.13; SD=0.17). School BB (Mean=4.94;SD=1.45) rated this item as the most element of leadership development. Although, the mean scores of the rest of the organisation for this item are different (School AA (Mean=4.24; SD=0.94); Bank YY (Mean=4.10; SD=1.32) and Bank ZZ (Mean=4.52; SD=2.14), these organisations ranked "organisational accountability" as the fifth most important element of leadership development.

According to Dowdle (2006) defines organisational accountability as “the obligation of an individual or organisation to account for its activities, accept responsibility for them, and to disclose the results in a transparent manner” (p.1). In this study, organisational accountability is concerned with agreed processes that organisations adopt to deliver services in order to achieve organisational goals (TTB2; FFZ1). The organisational accountability is identified as the corporate awareness and the willingness of each member of an organisation to take responsibility for his/her actions and work. Organisational accountability involves processes that provide the necessary support to the members of the organisation to act in the best interest of the organisation and to accept full ownership of the results of their work without fear of being unnecessarily judged (FFY3).

No organisation is capable of achieving its goal and sustaining high performance necessary for organisational development if accountability is not embedded in every aspect of the organisation

(TTA1; TTA3). Accountability and responsibility are the core features of true leadership which are essential for organisational stability and longevity. (FFZ3). The study findings corroborate the work of Whitty (2008), which highlights that “‘accountability’ is dynamic but embedded in social and organisational structures” (p.7). Without accountability, organisations are likely to disintegrate (TTA2). Ironically, the concept of organisational accountability has escaped many organisations because it has been described as complex and hard to grasp (Newell and Bellour, 2002).

Nonetheless, the organisational cultures that demand high staff performance and corporate accountability support organisational leadership development (FFY3). Organisational accountability can be achieved when organisational workforce are committed to supporting and holding each other accountable for achieving and exceeding organisational goals (FFY1). This means that although, accountability is not always nurtured within organisations, it can create concerted effort for achieving organisational stability and survival. Within a supportive and thriving organisational environment, individuals have the tendency to take ownership for achieving organisational goals, because the concept of accountability can be inclusive and contagious and include all the members of the organisation in the process (TTB3). When the members of the organisations are held to account and their achievements are recognized and communicated so that other members can learn from them, organisational leadership development can be achieved (TTB2).

#### **4.5.7 Understanding of Leadership Concepts**

The study identifies that school-business partnerships can support leadership development when the organisations create opportunities for the members of the organisation to develop deep understanding of a wide range of leadership concepts (Overall (Mean=4.55; SD=1.23); School AA (Mean=4.84; SD=1.00); School BB (Mean=4.62;SD=1.27); Bank YY (Mean=4.52; SD=1.00) and \_ Bank ZZ (Mean=4.52; SD=0.00)). Although, this item is ranked as the seventh most important item that

supports leadership development, it is variously ranked by the different organisations. School BB rated this item as the [the first] most important and the fifth most important item by School AA, Bank YY and Bank ZZ.

Hartley and Allison (2000) conceptualise leadership from three perspectives – ‘person, position and process’. They argue that leadership can be developed within organisations when the members understand how their personalities, positions and behaviours influence how they lead and how leadership can be developed. In this study, however, key leadership concepts identified are: ‘personnel, practice and performance’ of experiential leadership activities that support leadership development (TTA1; TTB3; FFZ2). Thus, leadership development can be achieved when the leadership learning processes create opportunities for all the personnel within the organisation to participate in leadership practices (activities) in order to achieve high organisational performance.

The study affirms that the greatest asset of an organisation is the personnel (human workforce) it possesses (FFY2). Without the high-performing personnel, an organisation is likely to fail in achieving its goals; its survival will be threatened (FFZ2).

Using a variety of learning platforms ... key leadership concepts can be discussed so that the members of the organisation understand the range of leadership tasks to perform. ... to achieve high organisational performance (TTB3).

The observation made from the statement above is that when the members of an organisation adopt different learning approaches including spiritual, practical, academic and emotional approaches they can understand the different leadership concept and develop ‘new’ insight for leadership development. Thus, the study of the various leadership concepts should support the personal and professional development of the members of the organisation and promote shared responsibility for performing a wide range of tasks towards leadership development (TTA1). The performance of these tasks is expected to be on a rotational basis instead of being fixed and linear so that all individuals

have the chance to develop a wide range of leadership experiences by applying (practising) different leadership expertise in different organisational contexts (TTB2; FFY1). This way, the members are able to widen their leadership capacity for performing different leadership tasks efficiently. Additionally, the collaborative approach to performing leadership tasks enhances values and approves the principle of inclusivity that secures leadership capacity building and corporate responsibility necessary for achieving organisational leadership development goals (TTA3).

The study findings indicate that although the leadership position that a person occupies in an organisation or society contributes to achieving organisational leadership development, it is the leadership practices that individuals perform which is critical to leadership development (TTB2; FFZ1). The study highlights that while the leadership processes within an organisation are important to leadership development, these processes can potentially obstruct leadership development because they can create havoc which can undermine organisational activities which are essential for development leadership potential at every level of the organisation (TTB2). This is because these processes can add extra burden to the work of the members of the organisation so that it becomes unbearable for them to perform assigned roles effectively.

Thus, school-business partnership activities can support organisational leadership development when they help all individuals or groups of individuals to understand leadership concepts through well-coordinated processes that enable them [the members] to find easier ways of performing leadership activities or roles within and across different organisations. Organisational personnel capacity is developed when the members of the organisation work with one another, see how others work, reshape the way they work and then enhance their leadership performance (TTA3). Taking on practical leadership responsibilities, watching and learning from others while at the same time performing specific and varied leadership responsibilities promotes deeper understanding of



leadership concepts necessary for organisational leadership development (TTB2; FFZ3). This is however, possible when organisations build strong teams where the members contribute to decision-making and agree to work cooperatively to achieve leadership development outcomes (TTA2; FFY2; FFY3).

#### **4.5.8 Broadened Decision-Making Powers and Agreeability**

Another key factor that is identified to contribute to leadership development is “broadened decision-making powers and agreeability” (Overall Mean=4.69; SD=2.10). The observation is that the different organisations rated this item differently (School AA: Mean=4.68, SD=1.02; School BB: Mean=4.72, SD=1.01; Bank YY: Mean=4.86, SD=1.14; and Bank ZZ: Mean=4.84, SD=1.48) but they all ranked it as the eighth most important item that supports leadership development. The study findings indicate that when organisations ‘broaden decision-making powers and agreeability’; amongst members of the organisation, they are able to mobilise the workforce and harness the expertise of their members for leadership development. (FFZ2). This is because the members feel responsible to ensure that the decisions made are achieved (TTA1).

To broaden decision-making powers, the primary leaders must make conscious effort and take deliberate actions to engage all the members of the organisation in decision-making process by soliciting their views and delegate discrete leadership responsibilities to enable them develop leadership expertises that are essential for leadership development (TTA3; TTB2; FFY3). The effectiveness of broadening decision-making powers and agreeability is based on high levels of trust which allows primary to delegate powers to secondary leaders, knowing that the commitment from the secondary leaders will secure expected leadership development outcomes. Thus, the primary leaders must be assured that when powers are relegated their trust will not be abused.

To remind ourselves here, the primary leadership constitutes the people in an organisation who are originally entrusted with decision-making powers and willingly decide to develop and share leadership with all members of the organisations. Secondary leaders comprise the group of people who are supported by the primary leaders to learn to grow in confidence in performing their leadership roles and duties in order to achieve leadership at different levels of the organisation. This means that the process of broadening powers and agreeability within organizations would require collaborative implementation of change where the primary leaders share responsibility with the secondary leaders and hold each other to account in performing leadership roles and achieving expected leadership development outcomes (TTB2).

While it is not always possible for all the members of the organisation to agree on specific issues, opportunities for members to give their views on all matters relating to the development of the organisation ensures that they feel responsible for ensuring that specific projects are completed (TTA1). For example, when decision-making powers are broadened, individuals tend to debate, agree and feel motivated to take responsibility for performing a wide range of tasks for achieving leadership development outcomes (FFY2). One respondent affirm that when the members of an organisation are consulted on matters relating to the growth of the organisation:

They get to understand why they are being asked to complete specific tasks. They feel motivated and empowered to engage and initiate projects that would contribute to achieving leadership development outcomes (FFZ3).

This means that when school-business partnership activities empower people to undertake leadership initiatives, this secures their commitment to leadership development process and the outcomes are often desirable (FFZ3). The more the decision-making powers are broadened, the higher the levels of agreeability and commitment from the members of the organisation, and the more effective the organisation becomes in supporting self-initiated learning activities which are necessary for building capacity and consensus for leadership development (TTB3).

Nonetheless, it is essential that the members of the organisation understand what they are expected to do when powers are delegated to them (TTB2). Thus, it becomes futile to delegate powers to the members of the organisation when they do not know how to exercise the leadership powers and the need to agree with others in achieving a common goal. This means that the process of delegating powers to members of the organisation should be carefully planned so that whatever each member is assigned to do complements what others do. Otherwise, the broadening of powers could conflict what each members does and this would be detrimental to leadership development processes.

#### **4.5.9 Succession Planning**

The item “succession planning” and “flattened leadership principle” received the same overall rating and ranking (Mean=3.77; SD=1.01). The various organisations rated “succession planning” lowly (School AA: Mean=3.08, SD=1.14; School BB: Mean=3.94, SD=0.98; Bank YY: Mean=3.84, SD=1.04; Bank ZZ: Mean=4.29, SD=1.01). This is because these organisations had already implemented succession planning programmes that were focused on developing leaders instead of leadership (TTA2; TTB1; FFY1; FFZ2). Although, a review of existing literature suggests that succession planning is focused on leader development, Nemethy (2011) acknowledges that the invaluable contribution that succession planning makes towards leadership development.

Nemethy (2011) defines succession planning as “the process for identifying and developing employees with specific potential to fill key business leadership positions in the organisation” (p.178). The argument here is that developing only specific people with specific talents to take up specific leadership roles only promotes leader development. This study therefore identifies succession planning as a process that is focused on supporting all the members of an organisation to develop personal and professional abilities through the acquisition of a repertoire of leadership skills, knowledge and understanding and the performance of leadership roles and duties in order to

contribute to achieving organisational goals (TTA3; TTB1; FFY1). When the masses are supported to develop leadership abilities, then the emphasis is shifted from building human capital to developing social capital which is essential for leadership development.

Effective succession planning concerns itself with building a series and/or constant flow of leadership capacity throughout the entire organisation progressively (TTA2; TTB3). Thus, succession planning is a process where the members of an organisation are supported to develop a wide range of knowledge, skills and abilities essential for performing specific roles within the organisation and to advance their expertise in performing even more challenging leadership roles. This means that succession planning guarantees that organisations have the leadership workforce at all times to perform leadership roles and develop leadership capacity which is essential for sustaining leadership development processes continually (FFZ2; FFY1).

The study finding therefore argues that without succession planning there could be no leadership development and the growth and survival of the organisation will be threatened (TTA3; TTB1). Given that human personnel is the most important asset of an organisation, succession planning is identified as a very important element of leadership development because it involves processes for building human and social capital essential for organisational leadership development (FFY2).

The study findings agree with the work of Barnett and Davis (2008), which identifies succession planning as a key leadership protocol that helps to draw the talent pool within an organisation for the benefit of the organisation and its members.

A well-thought-through and clearly articulated succession plan is [essential] for leadership development and invariably very important for organisational development and survival (FFZ2).

The above statement from a respondent indicates that succession planning plays a key role in developing a constant flow of human resources with capabilities that are essential for supporting

leadership development processes continually. Undoubtedly, no organisation can thrive successfully by merely producing individuals to fill positions in organisation (FFZ3). This means that partnership activities that support succession planning should be focused on developing leadership at every level of organisations by equipping all individuals with a wide range of leadership expertise for performing leadership roles and duties.

Nonetheless, succession planning is far from being simple and requires special efforts in producing the high-performing individuals at all levels of an organisation with the highest leadership expertise needed for contributing to leadership development by performing specific or varied leadership tasks in a consistent and repeatable manner (FFY3; FFZ2). To develop leadership within and across organisations means that the organisations should have a plan or plans that promote systematic approaches to creating a “positive and coordinated flow of leadership across many years and amongst numerous people” (see Hargreaves and Fink, 2006).

#### **4.5.10 Flat Leadership Model**

In this study, the idea of “flat leadership” (Overall Mean=3.77; SD=1.01) received a lowest rating and ranking (School AA (Mean=3.08; SD=1.14); School BB (Mean=3.94; SD=0.98); Bank YY (Mean=3.84; SD=1.04) and Bank YY (Mean=4.29; SD=1.01). This is because the participants were of the view that the roles of primary leaders are still important in ensuring that every member of the organisation receives the necessary support for developing leadership expertise that are essential for performing leadership roles (TTA2; TTB2; FFY2).

Commenting of the concept of “flat” leadership, Carpenter (2010) reveals the concept is concerned with “leadership structure within an organization that carries no hierarchies or with extremely reduced hierarchy” (p.273). This concept is considered to be important for organisational growth

because it brings leaders into direct contact with all the members of the organisation (Carpenter, 2010). In this study, however, the idea of "flat" leadership is defined as leadership relationships within organisations which are characterised by a high degree of devolved responsibility and accountability amongst all members of the organisations so that decision-making powers does not lie with the minority but with the majority of the people (TTB2; FYY2).

Anderson and Brown (2010) reveal that there are several authors who argue that the lack of hierarchy (structure) in organisations that characterises the concept of "flat" leadership instills some doubts about organisations' abilities to function effectively to achieve expected outcomes. However, Anderson and Brown (2010) argue that:

Given the consistent negative relation found between hierarchy and [leadership] attitude-related outcomes, and the highly mixed findings on performance, it is reasonable to conclude that ... more hierarchical groups [do] not uniformly function better than flatter groups. In fact, not only did more hierarchical groups often fail to outperform flatter groups – they often performed worse than flatter groups (p.11).

This insight provides by Anderson and Brown (2010) suggests the identification of "flat leadership" as a key element of leadership development is more advantageous for organizational success.

One respondent elaborates that:

The idea of flat leadership brings a sense of responsibility and commitment; mutual respect amongst members within a harmonious environment. These characteristics are extremely essential for leadership development (TTA2).

The insight given here is that the "flat leadership" model creates empowering and enabling environment within organisation where creativity, innovation and collaboration are encouraged (FFY2). Thus, the concept of "flat leadership" takes away the fear and the lethargy that associates with hierarchical relationships within organisations and prevents the members of the organisation from engaging with organisational processes but gives great reward to critical thinking (TTB3). The study findings affirm that within the principle of "flat leadership" the practices such as recognition,

acknowledgement and reward of the performance all members can be encouraged to support leadership development.

It is emphasized that “flat leadership” have the potential to support constant dialogue among the members of an organisation and to draw out the tacit knowledge and capabilities of all individuals to support leadership development (TTB2). To ensure that all leadership actions are carried out with the sole purpose of building leadership capacity at every level of the organisation, honest communication that challenges preconceptions and misconceptions about leadership is absolutely essential (TTA3). Dialogue helps the members to embrace new learning approaches that help to unearth new meanings about leadership (FFZ1). The concept of “flat” leadership promotes “self-leadership” where all the members of the organisation take responsibility to work together and lead themselves towards developing leadership at every level of the organisation (FFZ1).

#### **4.5.11 Summary of Sub-question Four**

This section summarises the key findings to research sub-question 4: how did school-business partnership support organisational leadership development. The findings identify ten different attributes that come together in different combinations to contribute to leadership development. The extent to which the different combinations of elements of leadership development contribute to leadership development are, however, determined by the organisational context and the level of commitment to the members of the organisation to the various leadership programmes. Although, the various study findings indicate that it takes the different experiential leadership learning activities to develop leadership at every level of the organisation, these learning activities converge together in the ten elements of leadership development to produce the expected outcomes.

To achieve organisational leadership development as a result of school-business partnership activities (leadership learning activities), the organisations must remove all legalistic structures that prevent the members from developing leadership capabilities that are essential for performing leadership duties effectively. The caution, however is that the organisations should identify which elements of leadership development the most applicable to their leadership development needs. This is because, although two or more organisations may consider a particular element as the most significant aspect of leadership development but how they apply these elements to leadership development may be different because of the different organisation contexts.

The key observation is that “effective succession planning” was recognized by all organisations as the least important leadership attribute that supports leadership development. Nonetheless, existing literature indicates that succession planning is increasingly discussed as a major organisational issue of the decade and the “dangers of not having adequate succession plans and mechanisms in place are recognised as damaging to organisations” (Rothwell, 2009, p.9). The general consensus, however, is that school-business partnerships that promote leadership learning activities can support organisational leadership development through different combinations of the various elements of leadership development. In summary, the different leadership learning approaches and the element of leadership development pursued is dependent on how the context, capacity and culture of the organisation impact on the outcomes of leadership performance of the personnel.

#### **4.6 Chapter Summary**

The findings from this study highlight that school-business partnerships can support organisational leadership development only to the extent that the partnerships are well planned and have run for at least five (5) years and engage all the members of the organisations in leadership learning activities. The profound lesson learnt is that when school-business partnerships are formed because of



desperation for organisational growth and survival and promote experiential learning, then leadership development can be achieved. The experiential learning activities should however adopt different combinations of twenty-five different learning approaches to enable the members of the organisation to develop experiential learning skills such as abstract conceptualisation, reflective observations, active experimentation and concrete experimentation.

This means that when partnership activities promote spiritual, emotional, practical and academic experiences for all the members of organisations through a combination of the different leadership learning approaches such as reflection, story-telling and coaching as well as degree courses and job rotation, where they learn to observe (see), reflect (think), experience (feel) and perform [do] leadership activities, they are likely to secure profound organisation leadership development outcomes. Such an outcome is, however, possible when school-business partnership activities ensure organisational accountability and promote continual understanding of different leadership concepts as well as endorse “flat leadership model”, broaden leadership powers and agreeability and encourage innovative and practical leadership practices. The main study finding is that when all the members of an organisation engage with leadership learning activities promoted by partnerships, they are more likely to develop leadership expertise essential for organisational development. The key findings are discussed in detail in the next chapter.

**CHAPTER FIVE:**  
**DISCUSSION OF KEY RESEARCH FINDINGS**

## Chapter Five

*“When you take stuff from one writer it's plagiarism; but when you take it from many writers, it's research.” (Wilson Mizner, 19 May 1876 – 3 April 1933: American playwright, raconteur, and entrepreneur)*

### Discussion of Key Research Findings

#### 5.0 Introduction

Chapter four (4) of this thesis provided an in-depth analysis of the how school-business partnership activities that promote experiential learning support organisational leadership development. The specific insights obtained and how school-business partnerships serve as alternative approach to leadership development are discussed in chapter four (4). Before discussing the key findings in this chapter it is important to remind ourselves that this study was carried out in two schools and two banks in the south-east of England. The study adopted a mixed-method explanatory case study design which draws on both qualitative and quantitative methods to bring to light the important role of school-business partnerships in developing leadership at every level of the organisations. In this chapter, the main original contributions that this study makes to fields of partnership and leadership development are presented and discussed.

#### 5.1 Original Contribution to Knowledge

This study makes several original contributions to knowledge. The main original contribution that this study makes to knowledge is that inter-organisational collaborations such as school-business partnerships that promote experiential leadership learning can support leadership development at every level of the organisation. An extensive review of existing literature on leadership, leadership development and inter-organisational collaboration such as school-business partnerships do not provide any evidence of existing research into how school-business partnership can serve as an alternative means for organisational leadership development. The focus of this study therefore breaks fairly new grounds in its contribution to the field of inter-organisational collaboration and leadership development.

Additionally, this research study makes several original contributions to knowledge in the field of organisational leadership development, inter-organisational collaboration and academic research.

- Firstly, this study analyses, identifies and describes twenty-five (25) leadership learning approaches that support leadership development. While some of the leadership learning approaches identified in this study are discussed in existing literature relating to the concepts of leadership and leadership development (Day, 2000; Allen and Hartman, 2008), some of these learning approaches are new to the leadership development and inter-organisational fields. For example, the application of leadership learning approaches such as story telling, leadership apprenticeship, recitals and themes from the Bible as well as leadership voice bulletin and reflection to leadership development is unfounded in existing literature. This means that these learning approaches make novice contribution to organisational leadership development. Besides, it is safe to emphasise that this study makes deeper contributions to knowledge on the concepts of leadership development because it discusses in greater detail how the identified leadership learning approaches contribute to leadership development.
- Secondly, the research findings provide four main comprehensible categories of leadership learning approaches: practical, emotional, spiritual and emotional that support leadership development. Although, there are several categorisations of leadership development processes, the ones identified in this study are new to existing literature. Even more importantly, there are exhaustive discussions of the links and distinction between how different combinations of the four categories of leadership learning contribute to leadership development.
- Additionally, ten (10) main elements of leadership development are identified. These elements are the key impacts of the leadership learning activities which come together in

different combination to support leadership development. While existing literature (Day 2000; Allen and Hartman, 2008) indicates that different leadership learning activities undertaken within various organisations would directly contribute to organisational leadership development, the findings in this study reveal that the leadership learning activities indirectly support leadership development through ten main elements of leadership activities. The study finding reveals that it is absolutely essential that the learning activities equip all the members of the organisation to acquire a repertoire of skills, knowledge and understanding which are essential for performing leadership duties. For example, it is revealed that the various leadership learning activities would not result in leadership development unless, these activities create a leadership learning culture within a non-threatening learning atmosphere that promotes innovation leadership practice for organisational growth and survival.

- Furthermore, the study presents the guidelines for partnership arrangements that support leadership development. Existing literature encourages ‘struggling’ organisations to partner with those that are ‘well off’ in order to derive support to tackle their needs (Harrison et al, 2003; Douglas 2009). In this study, the findings reveal that it is the partnership arrangements between organisations with similar problems and a genuine desperation for survival that secures expected organisational leadership development outcomes. What is even more important is that the school-business partnerships should mobilise all the members of the organisation (personnel) to engage in leadership learning activities in order to produce human and social capital which are essential for leadership development
- Finally, this study makes a unique methodological contributions to research study. The study adopted a sequential multiple case study mixed methods approach to understand how school-business partnerships impact on leadership development. Considering that the two main

concepts – partnerships and leadership development – are complex, it was important the research methodology chosen is able to allow for triangulation and corroboration of the findings in order to ensure validity and reliability of study. The research methodology is extremely unique to this study (not commonly applied to other study) and provides answers to the research question, providing a more comprehensive understanding than could be obtained from the use of a quantitative or qualitative method in isolation.

The key findings of the study are discussed in greater detail to substantiate the main original contribution that this study makes towards the body of knowledge in the field of leadership development and inter-organisational collaboration.

## **5.2 Overview of Main Findings**

Taking an overall review of the study findings, there are several evidence to suggest that school-business partnership activities can serve as an alternative means for organisational leadership development when these activities support experiential learning that builds the leadership capacity of all members within and across different organisations (see Section 4.2). The findings reveal interrelated factors that should be present in an organisation before school-business partnerships can support the development of leadership capacity and capabilities within an organisation. Some of the research findings corroborate other research findings within this study and those within existing literature relating to leadership development. However, other findings are new and make original to the existing literature on leadership development. The high response rates provide validity and reliability of the research findings

### **5.2.1 Reasons for High Response Rates**

In the first place the high response rates and scores of the various the interview and survey questionnaire items means that the findings are reliable and representative of the target population

(see Gillham, 2000). Equally, the high response rates make the generalizations of the insights about leadership development to the larger population plausible. Whilst it is not always easy to provide specific reasons for high response rates for specific items in a questionnaire, Dillman, Smyth, Christian (2009) argues the most common reasons for high response rate to specific items in research questionnaires should be provided. Some of the main reasons for high response rates include “the salience of the topic, personalised request and communications to encourage participation and multiple follow-up contacts” (*ibid*, p.234). In this study, however, respondents/participants indicate that they were motivated to participate in the study because the questionnaire was found to be concise and easy to complete. Respondents/participants indicated that they were familiar with the terminologies used in the questionnaire (FFA2, FFY1).

In addition, the respondents and the participants highlighted that the general positive publicity of the survey, because it was focused on understanding the impact of activities that all members of the organisations have been involved meant that they had a sense of ownership and strong connection with the research study. The members of the organisation were eager to understand the extent to which their efforts has contributed to developing leadership at every level of the organisation. Majority of the respondents/ participants indicated they respected and trusted an external researcher to carry out the research to ensure that the finding are unbiased and give a true presentation of the impact of the school-business partnership on leadership development.

Furthermore, the high publicity and transparency about the research study encouraged members to participate in the research. The primary leaders recognised the need for the research and so encouraged the members of the organisation to participate in the study freely but honestly so that they could understand the extent to which the partnership activities have supported organisational leadership development, hence the high response rate. The members of the organisation revealed that

the “whole idea of carrying out the study appealed to their interest because they had invested a lot of energy into the partnership activities and wanted to know how beneficial their input has been in securing leadership at every level of the organisation” (see FFY2, TTB1, FFZ3). Before the data collection had started the large majority of the members of the various organisations had freely and willingly volunteered to take part in the study. This is mainly because they found the research topic to be very important, as it was useful for them to understand the extent to which they have developed their expertise as leaders and how their leadership roles have contributed to the survival of the organisations.

As much as possible, every effort was made for respondents/participants to understand the value of the survey and their response. Respondents/participants were able to point out their personal connection to the topic. Drawing on the Dillman, Smyth, Christian’s (2009) admonition for securing high response rate, the interview communications were tailored and personalized to the personality of the each respondents/participants. Every effort was made to ensure that the content of the survey questionnaire was easy to understand. “The outline of the questionnaire was made attractive, easy to complete and easy to return” (ibid, p.245). The respondents/participants were appreciated and shown a positive regard for their time and participation by thanking each of them. The access given me to post the survey questionnaire in participants’ pigeonholes and trays made it easier for questionnaires to reach the participants which made it easier for the questionnaire to be completed. Additionally, participants could return the questionnaire in a ‘questionnaire return box’ in each organisation. This took away the added burden of having to return the questionnaire through the post, hence the high response and return rate.

Participants indicated that the easy contact they had with me (the researcher) to explain aspects of the questionnaire that they had difficulties with enabled them to complete the questionnaire easily and



quickly. Being away that any explanation I provided to each participant could raise ethical issues, any explanations that I provided was limited to the aim of the research so that participants could make meaning of each question for themselves. Where a participants failed to return a questionnaire, multiple follow-up contacts by mail, email, telephone, 'little' polite reminder notes and sometimes in person were made to encourage participants to spare some time to complete the questionnaire. For many participants the questionnaires had been completed but did not know when to return them to. Some participants handed over the questionnaire to me when I visited them in person. The high response rate and the short time (two month) within which the questionnaires were completed and return facilitated the rate at which the research occur and this contributed immensely to the reliability and generalisation of the research findings to other research locales. Additionally, the criterion for participant participation facilitated the high response rate because all participants were fully acquainted with the questions that were being asked.

### **5.2.2 The Unusual Findings**

Overall, the findings are unusual especially the contribution that the spiritual experiences make to leadership development. Sinclair (2007) reveals that some scholars argue that the notion of spiritual leadership and particularly any lessons on the notion of leadership from religious books such as the Bible has no place in academic research in the Western cultures. However, renowned leadership development scholars from the western world including Fry (2003) and Giacalone and Jurkiewicz (2003) argue vehemently that:

organizational environments in the 21st century are chaotic and require rapid response from highly committed, productive, intrinsically motivated learning organizations ... spiritual leadership is necessary to create and sustain these learning organizations(*ibids*, p. 717).

This means that any suggestion to excise any findings relating to the notion of spiritual leadership is completely unacceptable, ethically immoral and academically deplorable. This is because the failure to allow the data to speak for itself defeats the whole import of academic research. It is however,

correct to say that the notion of spiritual leadership is in its embryonic stage and therefore difficult to be fully explained. Nonetheless, as an emerging paradigm, “the notion of spiritual leadership ... has the potential to guide organizational and [leadership] development ... where human well-being and organizational performance can not only coexist, but can be maximized” (Fry, 2003, p.717).

The argument, however, is that in all research studies, usual findings are the expectation, otherwise there is no need to undertake a research (see McCarney et al., 2007). Before, researchers could make any generalisation from research findings, it is advised that they consider the Hawthorne effect (commonly referred to as the **observer effect**) (Levitt and List, 2011). “The Hawthorne effect is a form of reactivity whereby subjects improve or modify an aspect of their behaviour, which is being experimentally measured, in response to the fact that they know that they are being studied, not in response to any particular experimental manipulation” (McCarney et al., 2007, p.30). Any variation in meaning could come from the different interpretations put on the original studies. This is the reason why the data collected which constitutes the findings for this study has been allowed to speak for itself instead of being hugely interpreted by me the researcher. To comment fully on each finding will amount to writing a thesis on itself. It has therefore been recommended that future research should explore any unusual finding in this study in greater depth.

On the basis of the study findings, an interactive leadership development model (See Figure 5.1 below) has been developed to summarise the key findings of this study. In addition to the main original contributions that this study make to knowledge in the field of leadership development listed above this model makes a positive contribution to knowledge in the leadership development field and it adds to the originality of this study.

## Interactive Leadership Development Model



Fig. 5.1: Interactive Leadership Development Model

The model above describes a systemic framework and a dynamic interactive relationship between the attempts to visualize the building blocks that are essential for developing leadership at every level of the organisation. Based on the key findings in this study, the model highlights six key building blocks for leadership development. The building blocks are: the context, personnel and the culture within the organisation as well as the leadership learning processes that support the leadership capacity-building through the performance of leadership activities. The different colours in the model show the building blocks that belong to the same group. These building blocks are joined together in an outer circle to indicate that it is the inter-connectedness of all the six factors that come together to support leadership development (See Fig. 5.1).

Thus, the summarised model (figure 5.1) highlights that leadership capacity can be built at every level of the organisation when there are carefully planned processes that support dynamic learning

interactions and creates opportunities for the members to perform a wide range of leadership in order to build leadership capacity within well-coordinated organisational contexts and cultures (See Sections 4.2 and 4.3). The discussion in the subsequent sections describe in detail the extent to which each of the six building blocks contribute originality of this study and to knowledge in the leadership development field.

### **5.3 The Context of Organisations and Partnerships**

The findings reveal that leadership development is context-specific and, although differentiated among different organisations (see section 4.2) each organisation has its unique contextual factors that either impedes or facilitates leadership development processes. This means that the context for leadership development are multifaceted and based on the strategies that are unique to each organisation, given its context. Nonetheless, in this study it is equally highlighted that there are shared commonalities of the organisational context that support leadership development (See section 4.2.1).

In this study, the key context for the organisations to engage in partnership activities was to develop leadership capacity at all levels of the organisations in order to sustain growth and survival (See section 4.2.1). The key finding here is that the shared context with different organisations motivates and secures commitment amongst their personnel to selflessly draw on both internal and external resources to engage in activities that support leadership development (see section 4.2). This means that although it is essential for organisations to have their distinct contexts, it takes both the shared and varied contexts to encourage all the organisations to be fully engaged in the leadership development process in order to achieve expected outcomes.

The key finding here is that inter-organisational collaborations such as school-business partnership can support leadership development within different organisation, when the shared and varied contexts are clearly defined and inform the planning of leadership learning activities that are relevant to the needs of each organisation. This way, the partnership [leadership learning] activities can focus on tackling very specific problems in and across the different organisations in order to secure support for leadership development.

As mentioned above, the school-business partnerships were started in response to threats to the survival and growth of the different organisations. The finding here which adds to the originality of knowledge indicates that the reasons for setting up partnerships arrangements are at complete variance to what is found in existing literature. A review of several literature relating to school-business partnerships shows that partnerships are often set up in response to skilled workforce shortages and lack of resources (see Foskett, 2005; Douglas, 2009; Muijs, Ainscow, Chapman and West, 2011). Other studies indicate that partnerships have been started because of the need to improve on the quality of education through enrichment activities such as field trips, special workshops, and providing funding and training of staff (see Saunders & Machell, 2000; Foskett, 2005, p.253). In this study, however, the reason for setting up the partnership is to build leadership capacity to secure organisational growth and survival. The reason for setting up the partnership in this study, therefore makes a novice contribution to existing literature as there is no known reason for setting up partnership for leadership development as a means for organisational growth and survival.

Additionally, the study highlights the effectiveness of the partnerships in these organisations is dependant on their desperation for survival and growth. There seems to be no existing literature that reveals that the various organisations engage in partnerships because they were desperate

for survival and growth. This study therefore makes an original contribution to knowledge because it highlights that it is the sense of desperation that would motivate organisations to be unwaveringly committed to the partnership arrangements in order to achieve expected outcomes. In existing literature, it is recommended that organisations which are struggling for survival and growth should partner with those organisations which are already thriving (see Saunders and Machell, 2000; Harrison et al, 2003; Douglas, 2009). However, it is argued that such unequal relationships often result in inferior-superior relationships which lead to exploitation of the vulnerable organisation (Saunders and Machell, 2000). In the end, the chances for the vulnerable organisations to survive and grow become even slimmer (Muijs, Ainscow, Chapman and West, 2011).

Contrary to the recommendations in existing literature for partnership between dissimilar organisation, this study finding, however, indicates that it is the partnership arrangements between organisations with similar needs that secures the motivation for addressing organisational needs. The partnership between organisations with similar needs often prevents inferior-superior relationships that result in unhealthy competitions and stifle expected outcomes. The key finding here is that when organisation-specific and shared context like those discussed above are clearly defined, they ensure that partnership activities support leadership development within and across different organisations.

The key contribution that this study makes to knowledge is that partnership activities can support leadership development is only possible when they [partnership activities] take account of context of the organisations and create internal and external conditions that facilitate leadership learning and support the members of the organisation to develop a wide range of leadership experiences. This means that it takes desperation and goodwill among the members

of organisations to successfully set up and perform partnership (leadership learning) activities to produce desirable organisational leadership development outcomes.

#### **5.4 The Process of Partnerships and Leadership Development**

The study finding suggests that the processes of setting up partnership arrangements for leadership development are extremely essential for mobilising all the members of the organisation to build leadership capacity of all the members of the organisation (see section 4.3). Nonetheless, the partnership processes are often complex and require careful considerations (see 4.3). This is because it is often difficult to achieve a common consensus amongst all the members of an organisation because of the different perceptions and views that people hold. It becomes even more difficult in securing agreement amongst members from different organisation to engage in common activities. The means that well defined processes are essential to secure consensus and agreeableness amongst members of the organisation to engage in leadership development activities (see Foskett, 2005).

The key finding in this study is that organisations are capable of securing commitment from the members through well-planned consultation processes that solicit the views and the commitment of all the members of the organisation. It is found in this study that consultation process, motivated members of the organisation to engage with the partnership arrangements and even so with the leadership learning activities because they felt empowered. Existing literature shows that school-business partnerships are often imposed on schools and business organisations with little or no input from the members of the organisations (Kappeler and Nemoz, 2010). Consequently, these partnerships, in many ways fail to go through the process of gaining the full commitment of the members of organisation and therefore achieve very little outcomes (Jupp 2003). This study therefore makes original contribution to know by identifying and emphasising the need for effective consultation and engagement of all the members of the organisation in leadership development.

This study stresses the importance of ensuring that the processes for setting up partnerships and leadership development programmes within organisations empower the members to take ownership of how the partnerships in order to develop leadership at every level of the organisation (see section 4.3). When the members have ownership of the leadership development programme, they become committed and take full responsibility for developing their own as well as the leadership skills and abilities of others. The study findings affirm that when the partnership processes are focused on involving all members of the organisations in the planning and implementation of the partnership activities with opportunities for interaction through leadership learning programmes then leadership capacity can be developed at every level of the organisations (See Section 4.3).

Besides the need for effective processes for setting up the partnership, the study findings indicate that it is even more important for the organisations to agree clear processes for carrying out the partnership activities (See 4.2.1). To do so, an agreed development plan which details the leadership learning activities to be undertaken by each members of the organisation and at what times is essential. This would ensure that disruptions to the operations of the organisations are kept to the barest minimum.

Additionally, the study findings reveal that it is invariably important that the processes for monitoring and evaluating the impact of the partnership activities are clearly set out ((See Section 4.2.1). Thus, the monitoring and evaluation process should involve the members of the organisation and engage them in an even deeper dialogue so that they gain deeper insights into which aspects of the leadership learning processes are effective or require modification. The members can take responsibility to make the necessary changes to the leadership activities based on their experiences in order to secure better outcomes. By involving the members in the various decision-making processes the knowledge, skills and experiences, they possess can be harnessed and shared to make



extraordinary contributions to organisational leadership development (Taylor, 2008, p.45; Abbas and Yaqoob, 2009, p.279). This study emphasise that leadership development can be achieved when the partnership processes focus on mobilising the workforce and skills inherent in the organisations through exchange of ideas has often helped organisations.

### **5.5 Mobilising Personnel for Leadership Development**

Evidence from literature indicates that partnership arrangement between schools and business organisations often engaged only a cross-section of the members of the various organisations (Pettrigrew, 2003; Muijs, Ainscow, Chapman and West, 2011). By engaging only a small number of the members of the organisation means the knowledge, skills and experiences of other members which could be crucial to success of the partnership activities are not harnessed and this often has severe consequences on the outcomes of these partnerships (Douglas, 2009). The study findings make significant contribution to knowledge in the field of partnership and leadership development because it emphasises the need to mobilise all the members of the various organisations in order to harness a wide range of expertise essential for leadership development (See section 4.3).

When organisations fail to engage all their members in partnership activities, it becomes difficult to gain general consensus and genuine commitment for solving complex organisational problems (See section 4.3). Although, there are instances where the members of the organisation may lack the knowledge and expertise to fully contribute to the partnership activities (See section 4.1). Even in such cases, it is important that the members are made to feel valued by engaging them in other activities and soliciting their views on matters that are equally essential for organisational growth and survival (see section 4.3).

The significant contribution that this study makes to existing knowledge is that organisations are capable of mobilising all of their personnel to participate in organisational if they are unwaveringly committed to do so (see section 4.2). Nonetheless, this is only possible when organisations pursue partnerships on an equal footing with general consensus, commitment and a common desire to implement change collaboratively, without unhealthy competition within and amongst the organisations (see section 4.2.2.3). Thus, school-business partnerships have the potency to empower all the members of the organisation to develop leadership capacity to negotiate real changes in organisations and deal with the problems that threaten the survival and growth of the organisations.

The caveat for achieving the organisational leadership development, however, depends on the opportunities for all the members of the organisations to work in groups and share a common purpose of leadership learning culture, which encourages members to continuously communicate with each other and collectively reflect on and improve their leadership practices. Thus, the success of partnership arrangements is based on the ability of organisations to mobilise their personnel and secure their unwaveringly commitment to engage with leadership learning processes so that they develop skills, knowledge and experiences for solving common problems that mitigate against leadership development processes.

## **5.6 Leadership Learning Culture**

Another key finding from this study is that partnership activities that promote leadership learning culture within and across organisations make significant contribution to organisational leadership development (See section 4.3). A leadership learning culture is concerned with the promotion of leadership learning by providing experiential learning opportunities for the members of the organisation to share ideas, gain experiences and perform specific leadership activities in order to develop a repertoire of leadership knowledge and experiences that are essential for leadership

development (FFY2; FFZ1).

This study finding identifies twenty-five (25) leadership learning approaches that are new to existing literature on leadership and categorised into four main leadership learning experiences: practical, academic, emotional and spiritual leadership which are essential to creating leadership learning culture within and across different organisations (see 4.3). Whilst some of the learning approaches such as job placement, on-line learning and coaching have been drawn on to support existing leadership development programmes (Day, 2000; Yukl, 2002 and London, 2002); others such as leadership apprenticeship, reflections, recitals, story-telling as well as themes from the Bible and the use of records of enlightenment and leadership voice bulletins make a novice and original contribution to knowledge on leadership development (see section 4.3). The finding here is that when organisations engage in leadership learning processes, there is a high possibility that they would identify new leadership learning approaches that enable them to develop a learning culture for organisational leadership development (see section 4.3).

More specifically, the study appears to be the first of its kind to highlight that experiential learning practices which involve the processes of seeing, feeling, doing and thinking about leadership practices (Kolb's Learning Theory) support the development of a learning culture which is essential for continual leadership development (see section 4.2). This means that the leadership learning culture that creates opportunities for learners to bond in new ways and inspire critical thinking in a purposeful learning organisation are important to support the development of human capital which is meant for personal growth and social capital which are essential for continual development of leadership at all levels of the organisation (see section 4.3).

The key observation made here is that leadership learning culture does not necessarily require the learning activities to be offered in a linear fashion; they can be offered in a blend of different ways involving a combination of different leadership learning activities. For example, individuals may need to draw on a learning approach such as on-line learning, which promotes academic understanding of the concepts and theories of leadership development, combined with job placement for practical experience, and reflections, to help tailor leadership learning specifically to how they lead. However, the study findings highlight that new leadership learning approaches such as storytelling, recitals, themes from the Bible as well as reflections that promote the development of spiritual leadership learning experiences have the most powerful effects on creating a learning culture which encourages all the members of the organisations to develop corporate leadership capacity across the different organisations (see section 4.3).

### **5.7 Performance of Partnership Activities for Leadership Development**

Given that the ultimate goal of the school-business partnership activities is to achieve organisational leadership development, the learning activities were focused on empowering all individuals to engage with their leadership learning journey, perform a wide range of leadership development activities and develop inquisitive minds, which lead to 'new' knowledge and profound leadership learning experiences (see section 2.1). The lesson learnt here is that the acquisition of knowledge on its own does not necessarily result in leadership development. The original contribution to knowledge is that unlike many partnerships which engage only a cross of the members of the organisation, this study emphasises the need for the organisations to engage all the members of the organisation in various leadership learning activities that contribute to organisational leadership development (see section 4.3).

The study argues that although many different partnership activities described in existing literature emphasise acquisition of knowledge (Saunders & Machell, 2000; Harrison et al, 2003; Douglas, 2009), it is the opportunities created for members to perform leadership tasks in different contexts that produces the desired leadership development outcomes (see section 4.5). The study findings emphasise that it is the combination of knowledge acquired through leadership learning and; the skills and experiences gained through the performance of leadership duties that enables members of the organisation to develop leadership experiences essential for leadership development. For example, the study makes significant contribution to knowledge on leadership development by highlighting that it is the different combinations of the ten elements of leadership development such as leadership learning culture, succession planning and inter-organisational leadership learning as well as organisational accountability and flat leadership learning that come together to develop leadership at every level of the organisation (see section 4.5).

The study highlights that it is the activities performed by the members of organisation to develop organisational leadership learning culture (within organisations) together with activities carried out to develop deeper understanding of leadership concepts (across organisations) that may corroborate to result in leadership development within and across organisations (see section 4.5). This means that some of the leadership learning activities and elements of leadership development identified in this study do not in themselves constitute leadership development. It is the cumulative effect of the knowledge, skills and experiences acquired by the members of the various organisations through the learning process and the performance of leadership activities that contribute to leadership development in organisations (see section 4.5).

Equally, the study findings stress that the combination of leadership activities performed and how they support leadership development will be different in each organisation because of the ethos, the

culture and the vision of each organisation. For example, one organisation may focus on undertaking activities that support the development of innovative and practical leadership practices while another will consider succession planning as the most important means for developing leadership at every level of the organisation. The new lesson learnt from here is that the leadership learning activities are multifaceted and context-specific but they cross organisational boundaries (see section 4.5).

The study findings elaborates that because the personnel from different organisations think and perceive things differently, they are likely to use different learning approaches and perform the same leadership activities differently, because they are motivated by different goals and aspirations (see section 4.2). The lesson learnt is that when divergent views relating to leadership development are encouraged, accumulated, shared and refocused on the performance of leadership activities, they are likely to build leadership capacity for developing leadership at every level of the organisation. This means, it is the interconnectedness between knowledge acquisition and performance of context-specific leadership activities that are likely to result in organisational leadership development (see section 4.5).

### **5.8 Building Leadership Capacity for Leadership Development**

Capacity building is defined as a developmental approach that focuses on enhancing the abilities of the members of an organisation to tackle problems that inhibit an organisation from addressing its needs and to achieve measurable and sustainable results (Stoll, 2009). In this study, capacity building is concerned with activities performed by the members of the organisation to equip themselves with leadership expertise that enables them to perform leadership activities to deal with problems within the organisation (see section 4.5). Thus, effective capacity building processes encourage participation by all the members of the organisation to promote shared ownership and responsibility for achieving desirable organisational leadership development outcomes.

To achieve the expected outcomes, it is essential that all the members of the organisation are involved in the decision-making process and have the opportunity to perform leadership development activities that meet their personal and professional needs. Involving the members of the organisation in the decision making process encourages them to have a sense of ownership that encourages them to work towards achieving sustainability of the leadership development processes (see section 4.5). When the members of the organisation feel empowered to take responsibility for their own leadership expertise they are likely to develop critical minds and insights into how leadership can be achieved at every level of the organisation (see section 4.5).

It is worth noting that collaborative leadership learning is critically essential to building leadership capacity within and across organisations (see section 4.3). The finding is that when leadership learning is pursued in the spirit of mutual trust, where all members of the organisation reflect collectively on leadership ideas and share their leadership experiences and deal with their fears and frustrations then leadership capacity can be developed within and across organisations (see section 4.3). What matters most, however, is that the organisations should ensure that these partnership activities result in the personal growth of each member of the organisation. Whilst leadership learning activities are seen to be context-specific the dynamic opportunities that experiential learning creates makes it possible to apply different forms of leadership learning approaches which are essential for building leadership capacity. The study findings make original contribution to knowledge by revealing that when partnership activities are not episodic or short-lived but have run for more than two or three years and focused on leadership learning, then leadership capacity can be built at every level of the organisation (see section 4.3).

## **5.9 Chapter Summary**

To conclude, it is safe to highlight that the key findings discussed in this chapter make original contribution to knowledge in the leadership development field because there is no known literature that explores how school-business partnerships can be adopted as an alternative means for organisational leadership development. The focus of this study therefore breaks new grounds in its contribution to the inter-organisational collaboration and leadership development fields.

The study makes significant contribution to knowledge because it reveals that it is context of each organisation that determines the extent to which partnership activities can create leadership learning culture in organisations in order to develop leadership capacity. This means that the organisational context and culture are essential for organisations to determine which combinations of the twenty-five (25) different leadership learning approaches are most applicable in supporting leadership development within specific organisations. More specifically, the study finding emphasises that it takes both the shared and varied contexts within organisations to determine the specific leadership learning activities that would support the organisational leadership development.

However, leadership development is only possible when the partnership processes are well planned and engages all the members of the organisation in the leadership learning process. Unlike, the processes in existing literature that tend to coerce organisations to engage in partnership activities (Pettigrew, 2003), this study reveals leadership capacity can be developed within organisations, when the organisations consult all the members of the organisation and reach consensus on what partnership activities should be carried out. This study makes original contributions to knowledge by highlighting school-business partnerships can serve as alternative means for leadership development when these activities provide opportunities for experiential learning and for all the members of the organisation to gain practical, emotional, academic and spiritual leadership experiences.



**CHAPTER SIX:**  
**CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS AND REFLECTIONS**

## CHAPTER SIX

*“People do not like to think. If one thinks, one must reach conclusions.  
Conclusions are not always pleasant.”  
Helen Keller (US Blind & Deaf Educator: 1880 - 1968)*

### **Conclusion, Implications and Reflections**

#### **6.0 Introduction**

The purpose of this final section of the thesis is to state the extent to which the study has answered the main research question and what contributions to knowledge the study has made. This section also presents a reflective commentary on the extent to which partnership activities can serve as alternative means for leadership development. The implications of this study to research, policy and practice are presented. The study highlights theoretical and practical implications of the school-business partnership and its applicability as an alternative or complementary form of leadership development process in contributing to the efforts to address leadership shortages in diverse organisations. This section acknowledges the limitations of the study and suggests some opportunities for future research. The chapter concludes by placing the research outcomes in the broader context of the efforts to develop leadership capacity in organisations through partnership activities.

#### **6.1 Summary of Findings**

This section summarises the key findings that attempt to answer the research questions. Firstly, the study made significant contribution to knowledge by providing a series of evidence to establish how inter-organisational collaborations such as school-business partnerships serve as alternative means for organisational leadership development. The study explains why a clear rationale for establishing school-business partnerships is essential for leadership development with organisations.

More specifically, the study makes significant contribution to knowledge by highlighting that partner organisations should be convinced that they share similar needs, goals and aspirations before

engaging in partnership arrangements. Thus when organisations faced with similar problems willingly engage in partnerships without external pressures, they [organisations] are likely to avoid unhealthy competitions and develop the capacity to solve common problems and achieve desirable organisational leadership development outcomes.

Additionally, the study makes original contribution to existing knowledge in the leadership field by revealing that school-business partnerships are capable of supporting organisations to build leadership capacity at every level of the organisation by adopting all or different combinations of twenty-five (25) different leadership learning approaches. The findings support the assertion that this study is the first of its kind to categorise the leadership learning approaches into practical, academic, emotional and spiritual leadership learning experiences necessary for developing leadership at every level of the organisation. Even so, the study makes original contribution to knowledge by revealing that the leadership learning approaches indirectly support leadership learning by developing ten (10) building blocks which come together in different combinations to result in organisational leadership development.

The nature and the level of combination of these leadership learning approaches are, however, determined by the organisational context and culture. Thus, the different combinations enable the members of the organisation to learn and perform leadership activities to develop leadership expertise - knowledge, skills and understanding that are essential for leadership development. For example, this study makes significant contribution to knowledge by revealing that leadership learning activities can create a non-threatening atmosphere and effective team work amongst the members of the organisations to enable them understand the key leadership concepts and develop innovative and practical leadership experiences necessary for leadership development.

Given these findings, it becomes evident that partnership activities when represented as leadership learning tool have the potential to facilitate leadership development within organisations. However, the study recommends that future studies should consider assessing the impact of partnership activities on leadership development after they have been establishing for more than five years in order to give enough time for the impact of partnership activities on leadership development to be fully evident. The next session discusses the implications of the findings in the light of existing literature and the limitations of the research, and explains how it has contributed to broader efforts on promoting organisational leadership development.

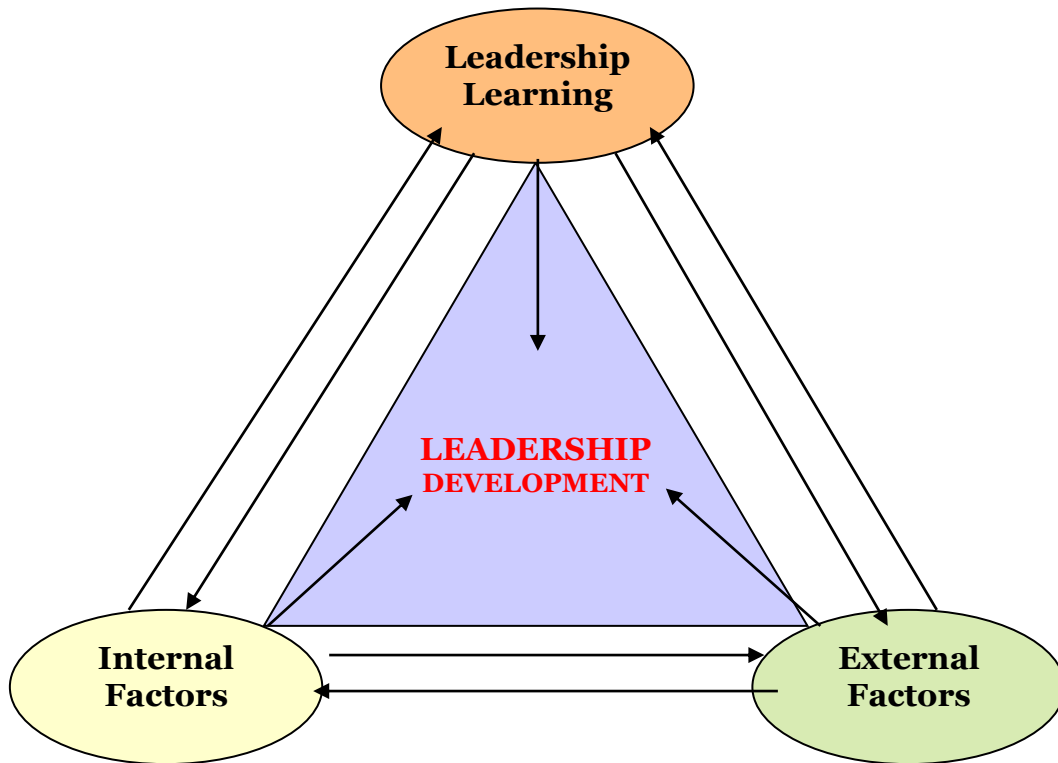
## **6.2 Implications of the Study**

The research findings in themselves provide evidence of the various contributions to the body of knowledge on the concepts of partnerships and leadership development in organisations. The study establishes the important roles that school-business partnerships play in promoting experiential learning which is crucial to building the leadership capacity and capabilities within organisations. The research findings confirm some previous findings in the organisational leadership development field (Day, 2001; Allen and Hartman, 2008). The study bears some resemblance to the work of Allen and Hartman (2008), who explored how adult learning theory could support leadership development. The key difference, however is that whilst Allen and Hartman's study still emphasise leader development, this study emphasise leadership development. Key learning theories, such as social learning which have been employed by other writers in the leadership field were also employed in this study. However, this study makes a unique contribution to knowledge in the leadership development field in the sense that it focuses on the overlooked link between experiential learning promoted through inter-organisational collaborations such as school-business partnership and leadership development (see chapter 4).

A review of existing literature shows that a number of the learning approaches described in this study, such as story-telling, cues and themes from the Bible, and recitals together with reflections and counselling make novice contribution to knowledge in the leadership development field (see chapter 4). This study recognises, however, that each of the learning approaches could be equally applicable to other human and organisational development purposes and not only for leadership development.

The study reveals that leadership development processes are context-specific and so the processes that achieve better outcomes in one organisation may not work in another. This study proposes that the all-encompassing approach to leadership development caters for both internal and external factors and transcends organisational boundaries so that the methods and methodology adopted are replicable in different organisational contexts. The findings highlight that differentiated and context-specific approaches coupled with broad and balanced mechanisms to address complexities in organisation create the platform for leadership development. This study therefore makes original contribution to knowledge by revealing that it is the interconnectedness between all the constituent parts of the leadership learning processes that are likely to result in leadership development.

Thus, the findings provide a platform for further theoretical development that will form the basis for refining future organisational leadership development programmes. A synthesized model that demonstrates the dynamic interconnection between the learning approaches - process, personal and performance, the internal organisational dispositions – culture, capacity, and culture – and the external context – policy change has been presented below. This synthesised model for leadership development suggests that leadership learning approaches are likely to yield desirable leadership development outcomes when they take account of the internal and external factors that facilitate or impede hegemony amongst the members from the different organisations.



**Figure 6.1: Synthesised Model for Leadership Development**

Thus, this model is based on the understanding that internal and external conditions within the organisations have to be continually managed in order to create a learning culture where the continuous development of leadership is the norm and not the exception. Doing so will create a system or culture of continual leadership development rather than a one-off leadership development programme which rather emphasise leader development (See Allen and Hartman, 2008). The research findings and their implications for research, policy and practice are discussed below.

### **6.2.1. Implications for Further Research**

The implications of the study findings for further research activities are discussed. Further research endeavours could exploit the richness of results and the descriptions in this research and expand the study in different contexts and in different methodological pathways. Such a study will benefit from avoiding the limitations of this study. The research was conducted in two multi-case (four

organisations) environments in a small part of the UK context. Although the study findings identify that leadership development approaches are generic in nature, considering the complex nature of concepts of partnership and leadership development, the question that could be asked is whether the findings are transferable to other organisations in other parts of the UK or abroad. Based on the resources available, future research could be countrywide or inter-continental in nature to check any similarities or variations in results to ensure the replicability of the study across the boundaries of different organisational cultures.

Further studies could be carried out on a large scale; for example, in organisations which adopt partnership as a means for leadership development and those which adopt other means for leadership development, in order to make exhaustive comparisons of the outcomes and draw formidable conclusions about whether partnership activities, in fact contribute to leadership development. Although there are definitive conclusions about the role of school-business partnerships in mobilising all the members of the organisation to engage in leadership learning activities in order to develop leadership capacity at all levels of the organisation, because of the limited number of cases used in this study. For example, future leadership studies could explore further the question: how do organisations get everyone to be fully engage with the leadership development process?

A longitudinal study, as well as lateral studies in different contexts, is required in order to explore in greater detail any unusual findings in order to establish the impact that each component of the leadership learning approaches has on leadership development. These factors as well as the limited sample make any generalization of the study findings tentative. For example, the research framework demonstrates a strong case that partnership activities which promote experiential learning support leadership development. However, this new framework has only been applied to the cases in this study. Testing this framework in different contexts and adopting appropriate methodological

processes will help to generalise the findings with confidence to other organisations. These observations in this study make it clear that leadership development processes are by no means a straightforward process, and that further interaction of research and practice is needed to help develop the potential that partnership activities offer for leadership development.

The interest in leadership development as a means for solving complex issues at the organisational and governmental levels raises many political debates. These political influences often result in the imposition and prescription of specific leadership development approaches by governments and executives of various organisations - the primary leaders who are empowered with decision-making privileges. Future studies will do well to ascertain in greater depth any politically motivated views and policies that support or hinder leadership development in organisations.

### **6.2.2 Implications for Policy**

A number of key findings identified in this study are relevant for policy-making. In the first place, no one seems to know what leadership is and how it can be developed, although several leadership shortages exist in all organisational sectors (Morse and Buss, 2010). Therefore, providing an alternative means of adopting partnership activities as a means for leadership development is of interest not only to the academia but also to all forms of organisations and governments in an effort solve organisational leadership shortages.

However, to reach a definitive conclusion that partnership activities support leadership; requires extensive and wide-ranging leadership development studies within and across different departmental, organisational and national boundaries. This is because large amounts of data which are free from bias are fundamental to understanding at a deeper level how partnerships in general, not necessarily school-business partnerships, could support organisational leadership development. In this study,



only limited data from limited cases were collected, so there must be caution in generalising the findings to the general population. A policy decision needs to be made to raise funds, recruit expert researchers and address many ethical issues, in order to collect large amounts of data from which the findings can be generalized to the general population.

Existing leadership development approaches tend to place much emphasis on developing individuals as leaders. The findings of this study call for a change in leadership development policies that promote leader development. Since the 'love' for leader development is deeply entrenched in diverse societies and the ripple effects could be seen in organisations, the findings have huge implications for policy change. For example, policy decisions about leadership development are often made by individuals or groups of individuals. Thus the findings of this study challenge the stereotypical role of leadership development policy-makers and call for the individualistic decision-making position to be replaced by corporate decision-making systems in order to mobilise general consensus which are essential for organisational leadership development.

### **6.2.3. Implications for Practice**

The opportunities provided through school-business partnerships for promoting interactions of various leadership learning activities are acknowledged to be the key to supporting leadership development in organisations. Although school-business partnerships are familiar ventures for solving problems in schools and business organisations, this study has shown that they are dynamic approaches applicable to the leadership development field.

In practice, school-business partnerships can induce fundamental changes to the core values and beliefs which often perpetuate leader development. The study highlights that organisation intending to adopt school-business partnerships as a means for organisational leadership development should

consider the following:

- Understand the context of the organisation and the 'very' specific problem that needs to be solved and why partnership is the solution.
- Recognise that school-business partnerships have the potential to mobilise the workforce and harness the skills inherent in organisation for solving complex organisational problems.
- Understand that partnerships can be risky ventures with no guarantee that they would secure the desired outcomes but they become the ultimate option when the survival and growth of the organisation is threatened.
- Select organisations for partnership on the basis that they have similar needs and share similar desperation and willingness to develop leadership at every level of the organisation
- Show mutual interest and unwavering commitment - from partner organisations – schools and business - to address similar issues
- Promote leadership learning by adopting all or different combinations of twenty-five (25) learning approaches to enable the members of the organisation to develop practical, emotional, academic and spiritual leadership experiences.
- Understand that leadership learning activities indirectly support leadership development through ten (10) building blocks of leadership development
- Provide opportunities for all individuals to receive constructive feedback and to criticise their own practices, take risks and contribute to the creation and utilization of leadership knowledge

These key findings are essential for improving on the leadership practices of organisations as well as individuals with responsibility for developing the leadership capacity of the members of the organisation.

#### **6.2.4 Implications for Researcher's Professional Role**

My previous experience in conducting nationwide large-scale research into maternal and infant health care enabled me to conduct this research. As I have never had the sole responsibility for conducting a research project from start to finish, and in the UK, I was not aware of the complexities inherent in a doctoral research study. I have, however, learnt to adapt to different situations at different times, sometimes as an educational practitioner and in other circumstances as a researcher. Adjusting to and conducting research in diverse and unfamiliar territory has helped me to develop sensitivity and resilience and widened my experience in research studies as well as in leadership roles, which are essential for my professional development and for achieving personal and professional goals.

Although, I previously laid blame on others for failing to engage all individuals in the school system or business organisations in the leadership development process, in the course of this study I have had learnt to hold myself accountable by taking the leading role in supporting other members to develop their leadership practices. Thus, by pursuing this study, I have dared to challenge the “imposition” of current leadership development approaches that prescribe and emphasise leader development, and to offer an alternative means, which embraces experiential learning principles in promoting leadership development at all levels of the organisation. This study was pursued as part of the efforts to respond to the chronic and harmful annual leadership vacancies in schools and business organisations. By conducting this research, I have developed a sense of self-awareness and stronger sense of trustworthiness by shedding my own views when handling data so that the findings are presented as exactly as they are.

During the course of this study, I have had to manage several responsibilities as an education leader and several unforeseen circumstances that served to hinder my progress in completing the doctoral

studies. The opportunities for managing these difficult situations have instilled in me a sense of resilience and the capability to manage time efficiently. The many dilemmas I have had to grapple with have helped to transform me into a different but well-positioned and all-rounded person who is resilient and persistent in every venture.

### **6.3 Implications for Publication and Dissemination**

Thompson (2000) points out “in the gimlet eyes of the world, research unpublished is research undone” (p.20). In line with the purpose of this study, the findings contribute to broader efforts to identify alternative means of organisational leadership development that will seek to develop leadership skills in all individuals in organisations rather than certain individuals. The study will be disseminated to the schools and the banks that form the context of this study to further inform their practices. The findings will be made available to other schools and business organisations in the localities where the study took place. As part of requirement for this study, the final thesis will be made available at the University library for reference to inform further research studies.

The feedback received from a the panel of organisers of The 11th International Education Business Partnership Conference, held in Durban, South Africa, on 23–25 September 2012 and a review by a professor of leadership development has helped to improve on this thesis. A revised version of this thesis has been accepted by the WILEY online publishers for publication in the *Organisational Leadership Journal* series. Considering that this study breaks fairly new ground and makes significant contribution to organisational leadership development, it is planned that further large scale research study will be undertaken in the future and the final document submitted for publication as an academic book. It is intended that such a book will contribute immensely to reaching a conclusive meaning of what leadership is and how it can be developed through inter-organisational collaborations.

## **6.4 Final Note**

The incremental learning and development over the course of the doctoral studies and particularly during the time of completing this thesis has exposed me a wide range of research methodology and designs and has gradually impacted and transformed me into a researcher and an advocate for positive change. Soliciting peoples' views, feelings and emotions required that I handled sensitively the information provided by respondents. I have learnt to take my position as trustworthy individual and the responsibilities to handle all data seriously and sensitively.

I have learnt to constantly reflect on all projects in order to come out with insightful ideas that are essential to leadership development processes. The ability to critique literature and data and make reliable inferences; the skills to communicate findings in a coherent way and the confidence to share what is learnt and advocate for a change of the status quo which hinder human development could not have been achieved except through resilience, reflections and the moral purpose to contribute to human development. Whilst this study shows that partnership activities can support leadership development, the findings are made available to individuals and organisations to make their own decisions on how to apply the findings to their specific situations. It is recommended, however, that individuals and organisations should move the emphasis away from leader development to leadership development by developing leadership capacity at every level of our organisations and societies in order to achieve better outcomes in all our endeavours.

# **BIBLIOGRAPHY**

## Bibliography

- Abbas, Q. and Yaqoob, S. (2009). 'Effect of Leadership Development on Employee Performance in Pakistan', *Economic and Social Review*, 47 (2), pp.269-292.
- Abra, J., M. Hunter, R. Smith, and S. Kempster, (Eds) (2003). *What Leaders Read: Key Texts from the Business World*. Nottingham: National College for School Leadership.
- Ajjawi, R. and Higgs, J. (2006). *Advances in Clinical Reasoning*, Paper presented at the APA NSW State Branch Conference: Paving the Way with Evidence, 14th October, Sydney, Australia, pp. 626.
- Ajjawi, R. and Higgs, J. (2007). 'Using Hermeneutic Phenomenology To Investigate How Experienced Practitioners Learn To Communicate Clinical Reasoning', *The Qualitative Report*, 12(4), pp. 612-638.
- Ajjawi, R., Higgs, J. and Hunt, A. (2005). 'The Challenge of Learning To Communicate Clinical Reasoning'. In *Dean's Research Seminars: Delivering Better Health Care*, Faculty of Health Sciences, The University of Sydney, May 11, p. 68.
- Aikin, S. F. (2006). 'Pragmatism, Naturalism, And Phenomenology', *Human Studies*, (29), pp.317–340.
- Ainscow, M., Muijs, D. and West, M. (2006). *Improving Schools In Challenging Circumstances: A Study Of School-To-School Collaboration*. Paper presented at the Australian Association for Research in Education Conference, Adelaide, Australia, pp. 194.
- Albert J.A. and Vadla, K. (2009). 'Authentic Leadership Development In The Classroom: A Narrative Approach. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 8(1), pp. 72-92.
- Aldrich, C. (2005). *Learn By Doing: A Comprehensive Guide To Simulations, Computer Games, and Pedagogy In E-Learning And Other Educational Experiences*. San Francisco: Pfeiffer.
- Aldrich, R. (2005). [1997 in A. Heikkinen and R. Sultana (Eds), *Vocational Education and Apprenticeships in Europe*]. "13 - Apprenticeships in England". *Lessons from History of Education*. Routledge. pp.195–205.
- Allred, P. and Gillies, V. (2002). Eliciting Research Accounts: Re/producing Modern Subjects? In M. Mauthner, M. Birch, J. Jessop & T. Miller, editors, *Ethics in Qualitative Research*. pp. 146-165. London: Sage.
- Allen, J. S., and Hartman, N. S. (2008). 'Leadership Development: An Exploration of Sources of Learning'. *Advanced Management Journal*, 73(1), pp.1-62.
- Allen, J. S., and Hartman, N. S. (2009). 'Sources Of Learning In Student Leadership Development Programming. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 3(3), pp.6-16.
- Altman, D. G and Bland, J.M. (1998). Generalisation and Extrapolation *British Medical Journal*, **317**: pp.409–410

- Anderson, P. (2000). This Place Hurts my Spirit! *Journal for Quality and Participation*, pp.16–17.
- Anderson, C. and Brown, C.E. (2010). The Functions and Dysfunctions of Hierarchy, *Research in Organizational Behaviour*, pp.1-35
- Antonucci, D. (2011). Leadership Practices Which Affect Organisational Effectiveness Management. *Journal of Organisational Management*, 4(3), pp.21-32
- Armistead, C.G. and Pettigrew, P. (2004) “Effective Partnerships: building a sub-Regional Network of Reflective Practitioners”, *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 17(7) pp.571 – 585
- Armistead, C. G., Pettigrew, P. and Aves, S. (2007). ‘Exploring Leadership In Multi-Sectoral Partnerships’. *Leadership*, 3(2), pp. 211-230.
- Armstrong, M. (2004). *Human Resource Management Theory And Practice*. London: Bath Press Ltd, pp. 233.
- Ashmos, D.P., and Huber, G.P. (1987). ‘The Systems Paradigm In Organisational Theory: Correcting The Record And Suggesting The Future’. *Academy of Management Review* 12 (4), pp.607-621.
- Attride-Stirling, J. (2001). Thematic Networks: An Analytic Tool for Qualitative Research. *Qualitative Research*, 1(3), pp.385-405.
- Aubrey, C. (2011). *Leading And Managing In Early Years Settings* London: Sage Publications, pp.1-5.
- Avolio, B.J. (2005). *Leadership Development in Balance: Made/Born*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum, pp. 194.
- Ayres, L., Kavanaugh, K. and Knafl, K. A. (2003). Within-case and Cross-case Approaches to Qualitative Data Analysis. *Qualitative Health Research*, 13(6), pp.871-883.
- Babbie, E. (2010). *The Practice of Social Research*, 12<sup>th</sup> edition. Belmont, Wadsworth. Australia, pp. 207-208.
- Barbor, R.S. (1998). ‘Mixing Qualitative Methods: Quality Assurance Or Qualitative Quagmire?’ *Qualitative Health Research*, 8(3), pp. 352-361.
- Barnett R and Davis S (2008). ‘Creating Greater Success in Succession Planning’. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 10, pp.721–739.
- Barton L. (2001). *Crisis in Organizations II*, College Divisions South-Western, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, Cincinnati, OH, pp.23-29
- Bass, B. M. (1998). *Transformational Leadership: Industry, Military, And Educational Impact*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Bassey, M. (2000). ‘Reviews of Educational Research: Annex II: .BETS on Homework’. *Research Intelligence* ,71, pp. 28-45.



- Bazerman, M. H. and Watkins, M. D. (2004). *Predictable Surprises: The Disasters You Should Have Seen Coming and How to Prevent Them*. Boston, Harvard Business School Press.
- Beatty, B. (2000). *Pursuing the paradox: Emotion and educational leadership*. Paper presented to the New Zealand Educational Administration Society on the occasion of the First Inaugural NZEAS Visiting Scholar Programme, November, New Zealand.
- Belson, W. A. (1986). *Validity in Survey Research*. Aldershot: Gower.
- Benson, P. L., Scales, P. C., Leffert, N. and Roehlkepartain, E. C. (1999). *A Fragile Foundation: The State Of Developmental Assets Among American Youth*. Minneapolis: Search Institute.
- Bennett, B. (2003). Job rotation: Its role in promoting learning in organizations. *Development and Learning In Organizations*, 17(4), pp.7-9.
- Bennett, N., Wise, C., Woods, P. and Harvey, J.A. (2003). *Distributed leadership. Summary Of A Literature Review Carried Out For The National College For School Leadership*, pp. 7-25.
- Bennis, W. and Nanus, B. (1985). *Leadership: The Strategies For Taking Charge*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Bible, The (1901), *The Book of Luke*, The Bible Society, UK
- Bible, The (1901). *The Book of Proverbs*, The Bible Society, UK
- Bilhuber Galli, E. and Müller-Stewens, G. (2012). How To Build Social Capital with Leadership Development: Lessons From an Explorative Case Study of a Multibusiness Firm. In: *The Leadership Quarterly*, 23(1), pp.176-201.
- Billot, J., Goddard, T. and Cranston, N. (2007). ‘How Principals Manage Ethnocultural Diversity: Learning From Three Countries. *Journal of the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration & Principal Leadership Magazine*, 4 (7).
- Bird, K. and Jones, K. (2000). “‘Partnership’ as Strategy: Public-Private Relations in Education Action Zones”, *British Educational Research Journal*, 26(4), 491 – 506.
- Blake, R. R. and Mouton, J.S. (1964). *The Managerial Grid*, Houston: Gulf Publishing Company.
- Blake, R. R. and Mouton, J. S. (1978). *The New Managerial Grid*, Houston : Gulf.
- Bland, J.M. and Altman, D.G. (1998). ‘Survival Probabilities. The Kaplan-Meier Method’. *British Medical Journal*, pp. 317: 420.
- Blodgett, L., Boyer, W and Turk, E. (2005). “‘No thank you, not today’: Supporting Ethical and Professional Relationships in Large Qualitative Studies”, *Qualitative Research Forum*, 6, (3), pp.55-68
- Bolden, R.G. (2003). *A Review of Leadership Theory and Competency Frameworks*. Dunsford Hill: University of Exeter, pp. 6.

- Bolden R.G. (2004). 'What Is Leadership? Research Report'. *Centre for Leadership Studies*. Exeter: University of Exeter, pp. 2.
- Bolden, R.G. (2005). 'The True Face Of Leadership', *European Business Forum*, 21, pp. 54-57.
- Bolden, R. G. (Eds) (2006). 'Leadership Development in Context', *Leadership South West Research Report*, Centre for Leadership Studies, pp. 36.
- Bolden, R., Gosling, J., Marturano, A. and Dennison, P. (2003). 'A Review of Leadership Theory and Competency Frameworks'. Report for Chase Consulting and the Management Standards Centre, *Centre for Leadership Studies*, UK: University of Exeter,
- Borkowski, N. (2005). *Organizational Behaviour in Healthcare*. Sudbury, MA: Jones and Bartlett Publishers, pp.23-46
- Bowling, A. (2002) *Research Methods in Health: Investigating Health and Health Services*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Boyles, D.R. (Eds) (2005). *Schools or Markets Commercialism? Privatization and School-Business Partnerships*. London: Earlbaum, pp. 3.
- Boydell, T., Burgoyne, J. and Pedler, M. (2004). 'Suggested Development'. *People Management* 10 (4), 32-34.
- Boydell, L., and Rugkåsa, J. (2007). Benefits of working in partnership: a model. *Critical Public Health*, 17(3), 217-228.
- Boynton, M.P and Greenhalgh, T. (2004). Hands-on guide to questionnaire research Selecting, designing, and developing your questionnaire, *BMJ*, 238, p.1312-1314
- Boud, D., Cohen, R. and Sampson, J. (2001). *Peer learning in Higher Education: Learning From & With Each Other*, Routledge, pp. 184.
- Bradburn, N., Sudman, S. and Wansink, B. (2004). *Asking Questions: The Definitive Guide To Questionnaire Design*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Brannen, J. (2005). Mixing Methods: The Entry Of Qualitative And Quantitative Approaches Into The Research Process. *The International Journal of Social Research Methodology, Special Issue*, 8(3), pp. 173-185.
- Briggs, A.R.J. and Coleman, M. (2007). *Research Methods in Educational Leadership and Management*: Sage.
- Brinkmann, S., and Kvale, S. (2005). Confronting the ethics of qualitative research. *Journal of Constructivist Psychology*, 18(2), pp.157-181
- Brinkerhoff, Jennifer M. (2002). *Partnership for International Development. Rhetoric or Results?* London: Lynne Rienner Publishers. pp. 52.
- Bromley, D. B. (1990). 'Academic Contributions To Psychological Counselling: I. A Philosophy Of

- Science For The Study Of Individual Cases.’ *Counselling Psychology Quarterly*, 3(3), pp. 299-307.
- Bryman, A. (1984). ‘The Debate About Quantitative And Qualitative Research: A Question Of Method Or Epistemology’, *The British Journal of Sociology*, 35(1), pp. 76-92.
- Bryman, A. (1992). *Charisma And Leadership In Organisations*. London: Sage.
- Bryman, A. (2004). *Social Research Methods, Revised Edition*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bryman, A. (2007). ‘The Research Question In Social Research: What Is Its Role?’, *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 10(1), pp. 5-20.
- Burrell, G. and Morgan, G. (1979). *Sociological Paradigms And Organisational Analysis*, London: Heinemann.
- Bush, T. and Glover, D. (2003). *School leadership: Concepts and Evidence*, <http://www.ncsl.org.uk/media/F7A/88/bush-school-leadership-full.pdf>, p.8. (Retrieved on April 10, 2012), pp. 8.
- Burns, J.M. (1978). ‘Leadership’. In: Barker, R.A. (1997). How Can We Train Leaders if We Do Not Know What Leadership is? *Human Relations*, 50(4), pp.34-36.
- Buss, D.M. (2004). *Evolutionary Psychology: The New Science of the Mind*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. Boston, MA: Pearson
- Caldwell, B. (2005). *Towards A New Enterprise Logic In Public Education*, Paper presented at the Economic and Social Outlook Conference, Available from: [www.educationaltransformations.com.au/files/publishedpapers/sustaining%20prosperity%20paper.pdf](http://www.educationaltransformations.com.au/files/publishedpapers/sustaining%20prosperity%20paper.pdf). [Accessed on 20/5/2011].
- Callahan, J. L. (2008). Managing The Emotions Of Leadership: To Have, To Create To Manipulate? In: Morse, R. S., and Buss, T.F. (Eds). (2008). *Innovations In Public Leadership Development*. Armonk, N.Y.: M.E. Sharpe, pp. 288.
- Campion, M., Cheraskin, L. and Stevens, M. (1994). “Career-Related Antecedents and Outcomes of Job Rotation”. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(6), pp. 1518-1542.
- Carlyle, T. (1888). ‘On Heroes, Hero-Worship and the Heroic in History’. In: Legier, J.T. (2002). *Assessing Leadership Effectiveness: The Relationship Between Emotional Intelligence And Leadership Behaviours On Group and Organisational Performance*. Southern Illinois University at Carbondale.
- Carmeli, A. and Sheaffer, Z. (2008). ‘How Learning Leadership and Organisational Learning From Failures Enhance Perceived Organisational Capacity to Adapt to the Task Environment’. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 44(4), pp.468-489.
- Carnwell, R. and Carson, A. (2005) ‘Understanding Partnerships and Collaboration’, in R. Carnwell and J. Buchanan (Eds) *Effective Practice in Health and Social Care: A Partnership Approach*, pp. 3–20. Maidenhead: Open University Press.

- Carpenter, M. (2010), *Principles of Management*, Irvington: Flat World Knowledge, p.273
- Cerone, D. and Pervin, L.A.(2009). *Personality: Theory and research*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley and Sons;
- Chance, P.L. and Chance, E.W. (2002). *Introduction to Educational Leadership & Organisational Behavior: Theory Into Practice*. New York: Eye on Education, pp. 23-33
- Chappelow, C.T. (2004). "360-Degree Feedback." In McCauley, C.D. & VanVelsor, E. (eds.) *Handbook of Leadership Development*, 3rd edition. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, pp.58-84.
- Ciulla, J.B. 2003. 'The Ethical Challenges Of Nonprofit Leaders'. In Riggio, R. and Murphy, E. (Eds.), *Improving Leadership in Non-profit Organisations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Clemens, J. K. and Mayer, D.F. (1999). *The Classic Touch: Lessons in Leadership from Homer to Hemingway*. McGraw-Hill Professional.
- Clarke, M. and Stewart, J. (1997). 'Partnerships And The Management Of Co-Operation'. In: Armistead, A. and Pettigrew, P. (2004). *Effective partnerships: Building a sub-regional network of reflective practitioners*. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 17(7), pp. 571-585.
- Coates, M. (Ed) (2010). *Shaping a New Educational Landscape*. London Continuum, pp. 74.
- Cohen, E.H. (2005). *Facet Theory Bibliography*. Rome – Jerusalem.
- Cohen, L., Manion, I. and Morrison, K. (2007). *Research Methods in Education*, 6<sup>th</sup> edition. London : Routledge Falmer, pp.60-94
- Coleman, M. and Briggs, A. R. J. (Eds) (2007). *Research Methods In Educational Leadership And Management*, London: Sage Publications, pp. 135.
- Collins, H. (2010). *Tacit and Explicit Knowledge*, The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, USA, pp.1-54
- Commission of The European Communities (2004). *Green Paper on Public-Private Partnerships and Community Law on Public Contracts and Concessions*, Brussels, pp.1-12
- Conference Board of Canada. (2003). *Partnerships Survey Report: Findings From The 1<sup>st</sup> Global Business-Education-Community Partnerships Issues And Trends Survey*. Available from: <http://www.conferenceboard.ca/topics/education/survey> [Accessed on 10/5/2012], pp. 6.
- Conger, J.A. (1992). *Learning to Lead*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. pp1-10
- Conger, J.A. (2004). 'Developing Leadership Capability: What's Inside The Black Box?' *Academy of Management Executive*, 18 (3), pp. 30, 136-139.
- Conger, J. A. and Riggio, R. (2006). *Best Practices in Leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, pp. 34.

- Conger, J., and Toegel, G. (2002). 'Action Learning And Multi-Rater Feedback As Leadership Development Interventions: Popular But Poorly Deployed.' *Journal of Change Management*, 3(4), pp.332-348.
- Craig, M. (2010). 'Susan Kozel: Closer: Performance, Technologies, Phenomenology'. *Human Studies*, 33 (1): pp.103-108.
- Cranton, P. (2006). *Understanding and Promoting Transformative Learning*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, pp.23-28
- Creswell, J.W. (2003). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches*. 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, pp. 20-27.
- Creswell, J.W. (2005). *Educational research: Planning, Conducting, and Evaluating Quantitative and Qualitative research*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.
- Crotty, M. (2003). *The Foundations of Social Research: Meaning and Perspective in the Research Process*, London, Sage
- Cuban, L. (1988). *The Managerial Imperative and the Practice of Leadership in Schools*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.
- Cunnigton, C. (2011). *Supporting Economic Growth through Local Enterprise Partnerships and Enterprise Zones*, Department for Communities and Local Government, Department for Business, Innovation & Skills and Department for Transport
- Cyert, R.M. (2006). 'Nonprofit Management and Leadership', 1(1), pp. 29–38.
- Daily, C. M., McDougall, P. P., Covin, J. G. and Dalton, D. R. (2002). Governance and Strategic Leadership in Entrepreneurial Firms. *Journal of Management*, 28, pp.387–412.
- Dale, K. (2001). *Anatomising Embodiment and Organisation Theory*. London: Sage.
- Dale, . and Burrell, G. (2000). 'What Shape Are We In? Organisation Theory And The Organized Body'. In J. Hassard, R. Holliday and H. Willmott (Eds.), *Body And Organisation*. London: Sage, pp. 15-30.
- Daniel, L. G. and Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2005). Evidence-based guidelines for publishing articles in *Research in the Schools* and beyond. *Research in the Schools*, 12(2), pp.1-11.
- Daresh, J. and Male, T. (2000). Crossing the Border into Leadership: Experiences of Newly Appointed British Headteachers and American principals, *Educational Management Administration and Leadership*, 28(1), pp.89–101
- Day, C. (2000). 'Beyond Transformational Leadership'. *Educational Leadership*, 57(7), pp. 581-606.
- Day, D. V. (2000). 'Leadership Development: A Review in Context' *Leadership Quarterly*, 11(4), pp.581-613.
- Day, D. V., and Halpin, S. M. (2004). 'Growing Leaders For Tomorrow: An introduction'. In: D.

- Day, V. Zaccaro, S. J & Halpin, S. M. (Eds.) *Leader Development For Transforming Organisations: Growing Leaders For Tomorrow*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum, pp. 3-22.
- Day, C., Sammons, P., Hopkins, D., Harris, A., Leithwood, K., Gu, Q., Brown, E., Ahtaridou, E., and Kington, A. (2009). *The Impact of School Leadership on Pupil Outcomes: Final Report*, UK Department for Children, Schools and Families Research
- DCSF. (2008). 'Academies And Trusts: Opportunities For Schools, Sixth-Form And FE Colleges' in *Building Stronger Partnerships: With Schools, Colleges, Children and Families*.
- de Jong, H.L. (2003). In: Johnson, R.B., and Onwuegbuzie, A.J. (2004). 'Mixed Methods Research: A Research Paradigm Whose Time Has Come'. *Educational Researcher*, 33 (7), pp.14-26.
- Deschamps, J. P. (2008), 'Innovation Leaders: How Senior Executives Stimulate, Steer And Sustain Innovation', pp. 47-60.
- Dess, G. G. and Lumpkin, G. T. (2001). Emerging Issues in Strategy Process Research. In M. A. Hitt, R. E. Freeman, & J. S. Harrison (Eds.), *Handbook of Strategic Management*: Oxford: Blackwell Publishers, pp.3-34
- Devins D. and Hogarth, T. (2005), 'Employing the Unemployed: Some Case Study Evidence on the Role and Practice of Employers', *Urban Studies*, 42(2), pp. 245-249
- De Vaus, D. (2004). *Surveys in Social Research*. London: Routledge, pp. 11.
- Dhillon, J. (2005). 'The Rhetoric And Reality Of Partnership Working', *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 29(3), pp.211-219.
- Dhillon, J. K. (2009) 'The Role Of Social Capital In Sustaining Partnership'. *British Educational Research Journal* 35 (5), pp.387-704.
- Dietz, G. (2004). 'Partnership And The Development Of Trust In British Workplaces'. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 14(1), pp. 122-128
- Dillman, D. (2000). *Constructing the Questionnaire*. Mail and Internet Surveys. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Dillman, D, Smyth, J.D. and Christian, L.M. (3Eds). (2009). *Internet, Mail And Mixed-Mode Survey: The Tailored Design Method*, John Wiley & Sons, pp. 234-299.
- Dinham, S., Aubusson, P. and Brady, L. (2006). Distributive Leadership through Action Learning. Paper presented at the 15th International Educational Leadership Conference, University of Wollongong, 15th-16th February 2006.
- Douma, S. and Schreuder, H. (2013). *Economic Approaches to Organizations*. 5<sup>th</sup> edition. London: Pearson
- Douglas, A. (2009). *Partnership Working*. London: Routledge, pp.17-156.
- Douglas, A.S. (2011). 'The Different Learning Opportunities Afforded Student Teachers In Four

- Secondary School Subject Departments In An Initial Teacher Education School-University Partnership' *Journal Of Education For Teaching*, 37(1), pp.93-106.
- Dowdle, M. (2006). 'Public Accountability: Conceptual, Historical, and Epistemic Mappings', in M. Dowdle (ed.), *Public Accountability: Designs, Dilemmas and Experiences*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press: pp.1-26
- Driscoll, C. & Wiebe, E., 2007. Technical Spirituality At Work: Jacques Ellul On Workplace Spirituality, *Academy of Management Meeting*, , Philadelphia.
- Duffy, A. (2007). A Concept Analysis of Reflective Practice: Determining its Value to Nurses. *British Journal of Nursing*. 16,(22), pp.1400-1407
- Duin, H.A., Baer, L.L and Starke-Meyerring, D. (2001). *Partnering in the Learning Marketplace*, John Wiley and Sons, pp.98-105.
- Eagly, A.H., and Carli, L.L. (2008). *Through The Labyrinth: The Truth About How Women Become Leaders*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press, pp. 656.
- Easen, P. (2000). Education Action Zones: Partnership Is No Panacea For Progress, *Westminster Studies in Education* 23, pp.55-69.
- Easterby-Smith, M. and Lyles, M. (2003). *The Blackwell Handbook of Organizational Learning and Knowledge Management*. Oxford: Blackwell, pp.23-78
- Eby, L. T., Allen, T. D., Evans, S. C., Ng, T., and DuBois, D. L. (2008). 'Does Mentoring Matter? A Multidisciplinary Meta-Analysis Comparing Mentored And Non-Mentored Individuals'. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*. pp. 72, 254-267.  
Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2007.04.005>[Accessed on 5/6/2012],
- El Ansari, W., Phillips, C.J. and Hammick, M. (2001). 'Collaboration And Partnerships: Developing The Evidence Base', *Health and Social Care in the Community*, 9 (4): pp.215-227.
- Elias, D.G. (1997). It's Time to Change Our Minds, *ReVision*, 20, pp.2-6.
- Ernst & Young (2010). *Redrawing The Map: Globalization And The Changing World Of Business*.
- European Commission (2004). Resource Book on PPP Case Studies. Directorate General Regional Policy, pp. 33.
- Falagas, E.M., Zarkadoulia, A.E and Samonis, G. (2006). 'Arab Science in the Golden Age (750–1258 BC) and Today', *The FASEB Journal*, 20, pp.1581–1586.
- Fanning, E. (2005). Formatting a Paper-based Survey Questionnaire: Best Practices. *Practical Assessment Research & Evaluation*, 10(12). Available online: <http://pareonline.net/getvn.asp?v=10&n=12> (Retrieved 25/01/2013)
- Ferguson, H. (2006). *Phenomenology and Social Theory: Insight and Experience in Modern Society*. New York: Sage.

- Field Data (2011). Thesis Research
- Field, J. (2006). Social Capital in Scott, J. (Ed.) *Sociology: The Key Concepts*, Routledge, p.152-155.
- Findlay-Brooks, R., Visser, W. and Wright, T. (2007). 'Partnerships for Sustainable Development: An Inclusive, Cross-Sector Approach' *Cambridge Programme for Sustainability Leadership Paper Series*, 4, p.2.
- Finlay, L. (2003). 'The Intertwining of Body, Self And World: A Phenomenological Study of Living with Recently Diagnosed Multiple Sclerosis'. *Journal of Phenomenological Psychology*, 34(6), pp.157-178.
- Fiedler, F.E. (Eds) (1964). 'A Contingency Model Of Leadership Effectiveness'. In: L. Berkowitz, *Advances In Experimental Social Psychology*, NY: Academic press.
- Flood, L.R. (1999). *Rethinking The Fifth Discipline*. Routledge, London.
- Flyvbjerg, B. (2001). *Making Social Science Matter*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Flyvbjerg, B. (2006). 'Five Misunderstandings About Case Study Research.' *Qualitative Inquiry*, 12(2), pp. 219-245.
- Ford, J. (2006). 'Discourses of Leadership: Gender, Identity and Contradiction in a UK Public Sector Organisation', *Leadership*, 2(1): 77-99.
- Foskett, R. (2005) 'Collaborative Partnership In The Higher Education Curriculum: A Cross-Sector Study Of Foundation Degrees'. *Research in Post-Compulsory Education*, 10, (3), pp.351-372
- Fowler, F.J. and Mangione, T.W. (1990). *Standardized Survey Interviewing: Minimizing Interviewer-Related Error*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Frank, F. and Smith, A. (2000). The partnership handbook. : *Human Resources Development*, Hull, pq, Canada, pp.12.54
- Fry, L. W. (2003). Toward a Theory of Spiritual Leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 14(6), pp.693-727
- Fry, L. (2004). Toward a theory of ethical and spiritual well-being, and corporate social responsibility through spiritual leadership, R. Giacalone, C. Jurkiewicz (Eds.), *Positive psychology in business ethics and corporate responsibility*, Information Age Publishing, Greenwich, CT (2004), pp. 47–83
- Fullan M, (2003). *The Moral Imperative of School Leadership*, London: Sage, pp. 2-3
- Fyall, A. and Garrod, B. (2005). *Tourism Marketing: A Collaborative Approach*. Channel View Publications: Clevedon. pp. 139.
- Gall, M.D., Borg, W.R., and Gall, J.P. (Eds) (1996). *Educational Research: An Introduction* White Plains, NY: Longman Publishers, pp. 232- 575.



- Gall, M. D., Borg, W. R. and Gall J. P. (Eds) (2003). *Educational Research: An Introduction* San Francisco: Pearson Education, pp. 212-603.
- Galvin, K. A., Thornton, P.K., de Pinho, J. R., Sunderland, J and Boone. R. B. (2006). 'Integrated Modeling And Its Potential For Resolving Conflicts Between Conservation And People In The Rangelands Of East Africa'. *Human Ecology* 34, pp.155-183.
- Gambin, L., Hasluck, C. and Hogarth, T. (2010) "Recouping The Costs of Apprenticeship Training : Employer Case Study Evidence From England" *Empirical Research in Vocational Education and Training* 2 (2), 127 – 146
- Gardner, J. (1990). On leadership. New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Garman, A.N. and Glawe, J. (2004). Succession Planning. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice & Research*, 56(2), pp. 119-128.
- Garvin, D.A. (1993). "Building a Learning Organisation" *Harvard Business Review*, pp.78-91.
- Giacalone, R. and Jurkiewicz, C. Eds. (2003) *Toward a science of workplace spirituality. Handbook of workplace spirituality and organizational performance*, Sharpe, Armonk, NY (2003), pp. 3-28
- Gibbs, B., Hedge, R. and Clough, E. (Eds) (1991). *Managing Partnerships: Taking The People Into Account. The Reality Of Partnership: Developing Education Business Relationships*, Harlow: Longman, pp. 70-79.
- Giddens, A. (1979). *Central Problems in Social Theory*, Berkeley, CA :The University of California Press.
- Gillham, B. (2000). *The Research Interview*. New York: Continuum, pp. 59.
- Gladding, S.T. ( 2004). *Counselling: A Comprehensive Profession* (5th edition). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill/Prentice Hall. pp.6-7.
- Glatter, R. (2003). 'Governance, Autonomy and Accountability in Education', in M. Preedy, R. Glatter and C. Wise (eds) *Strategic Leadership and Educational Improvement*, pp. 44-59. London: Paul Chapman.
- Glendinning C, Hudson B, and Hardy, B. (2002). 'National Evaluation of Notifications for Use of the Section 31 Partnership Flexibilities of the Health Act 1999: Final Project Report'. *National Primary Care Research and Development Centre/Nuffield Institute for Health*, Manchester, Leeds.
- Googins, B. K. and Rochlin, S. A. (2000). 'Creating the Partnership Society: Understanding the Rhetoric and Reality of Cross -Sectoral Partnerships', *Business and Society Review*, 105(1), pp. 127 -144.
- Gorard, S. (2004). 'Scepticism or Clericalism? Theory as a Barrier to Combining Methods', *Journal of Educational Enquiry*, 5 (1), pp.1-21.
- Gordon, J. (2002). Team Building. *Journal of American Academy of Business*, 2(1), pp.185-

- Graetz, H. (1893). *Geschichte der Juden, 11 vols., 1853-1876*. Philadelphia, Jewish Publication Society of America, 5, p.594
- Grant, A. M. (2006). 'Workplace And Executive Coaching: A Bibliography From The Scholarly Business Literature'. In D. R. Stober & A. M. Grant (Eds.), *Evidence Based Coaching Handbook*, New York: Wiley, pp. 367-387.
- Green, A. (1990). *Education and State Formation: The Rise of Education Systems in England, France and the USA*. Macmillan, 53-64
- Gross, B. (1968). *Organizations and Their Managing*. New York: The Free Press, p.454.
- Hackman, M. Z. and Craig E. J. (2009). *Leadership: A Communication Perspective*, 5<sup>th</sup> edition. Long Grove, Illinois: Waveland Press, Inc. pp. 102–104.
- Hammersley, M. 1999. *Taking Sides In Research: Essays on Bias And Partisanship*. London: Routledge.
- Hammersley, M. and Atkinson, P. (1983). *Ethnography: Principles in Practice*. London: Tavistock, pp. 177-8.
- Hansen, H., Ropo A. and Sauer, E. (2007). 'Aesthetic Leadership'. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18(6), pp.544-560.
- Hanson, J. (2008). 'Incorporating the Human Element – The Role of Interpretive Research in Operations Management'. *POMS Annual Conference - La Jolla, CA*.
- Hargreaves, A., and Fink, D. (2006). *Sustainable Leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass, pp.32-48
- Harris, J. (2002). 'How Senior Research Scientist Perceive The Impact Of Restructuring On The Discretionary Element Of Their Role', Cranfield School of Management, Cranfield, *Doctoral Review Paper*, pp. 7.
- Harris, A. (2008). *Distributed Leadership In Schools: Developing The Leaders Of Tomorrow*. Routledge & Falmer Press, pp. 198.
- Harris, A. & Lambert, L. (2003). *Building Leadership Capacity for School Improvement*. Philadelphia: Open University Press. pp.1-12
- Harrison, R., Mann, G., Murphy, M., Taylor, A. and Thompson, N. (2003). *Partnership Made Painless – A Joined-Up Guide To Working Together*, Lyme Regis: Russell House Publishing, 1-57.
- Harrison, E., (2002) 'The Problem with the Locals': Partnership and Participation in Ethiopia'. *Development and Change* 33 (4), pp. 587–610.
- Harrison, R, Leitch, C and Chia, R 2007, 'Developing Paradigmatic Awareness in University

- Business Schools: The Challenge for Executive Education', *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 6(3), pp. 332-343.
- Hanson, B. 2008. Wither Qualitative/Quantitative?: Grounds for Methodological Convergence. *Quality and Quantity* 42: pp.97-111
- Hartley, J. (2004). 'Case Study Research'. In Catherine Cassell & Gillian Symon (Eds.), *Essential Guide To Qualitative Methods In Organisational Research*, London: Sage. pp.323-333.
- Hartley, J. and Allison, M. (2000), 'The Role of Leadership in the Modernization and Improvement of Public Services', in *Public Money and Management*. April to June, pp.35-40.
- Harvey, D. (2005). 'Policy Futures in Education'. 5(2), pp. 141.
- Hatch, M. J. (1997). *Organisation Theory: Modern, Symbolic and Postmodern Perspectives*, Oxford University press.
- Hawke, L. (2012). Australian Public Sector Performance Management: Success or Stagnation? *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 61(3), pp.310-328.
- Hedge, R. and Clough, E. (1991). *The Reality of Partnership: Developing Education Business Relationships*, Longman, Harlow, Essex, UK, pp.1-54
- Heifetz, R. A. (1994). *Leadership Without Easy Answers*. Cambridge, MA: Belknap.
- Heifetz, R., Grashow, A. and Linsky, M. (2009). Leadership in a (Permanent) Crisis, *Harvard Business Review*, pp.62-69
- Hersey, P. and Blanchard, K.H. (Eds) (1982). *Management of Organisational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources*, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, pp. 83.
- Hersey, P. and Blanchard, K.H. (1996). *Management of Organisational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources*, 7<sup>th</sup> editions, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Hernez-Broome, G. and Hughes, R.L. (2004). 'Leadership Development: Past, Present, and Future Center for Creative Leadership', *Human Resource Planning*, 2004 27(1), pp. 20- 26.
- Hesse-Biber, S. N. (Eds) (2010). *Qualitative Research* (co-author). London: Sage Publications.
- Hiatt, S. (2009). Exploring Implementation Methods in a Long-term Leadership Development Program, ProQuest LLC
- Hickman, G. R. (1998). *Leading Organisations: Perspectives For A New Era*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Himmelman, A. T. (1994). Communities Working Collaboratively For A Change. In: M. Herrman (Ed.), *Resolving Conflict: Strategies For Local Government*. Washington, DC: International City/County Management Association, pp. 1-38.

- Himmelman, A. T. (2002). *Collaboration For A Change: Definition, Decision-Making Models, Roles, Collaboration Process Guide*. Minneapolis: Himmelman Consulting, pp. 3-8
- Hitchcock, G. & Hughes, D. (Eds) (1995). *Research And The Teacher: A Qualitative Introduction To School-Based Research*. London: Routledge.
- Hogg, T. and Huberman, B.A. (2006). *Taking Risk Away from Risk Taking: Decision Insurance in Organizations*. HP. Palo Alto: HP Labs.
- Hopkins, D. (2009). The Emergence of System Leadership, *School Leaders Report*, NSCL
- Hopkins, D. and Higham, R. (2007). 'System Leadership: Mapping The Landscape', *School Leadership and Management*, 27(2). pp. 147-166
- Hoppe, S. (2005). Spirituality and Leadership. In S. Hoppe & B. Speck (Eds.), *Spirituality in Higher Education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass (pp.83-92).
- House, R., Hanges, J.P., Javidan, M., Dorfman, W.P and Gupta, V. (2004). *Culture Leadership And Organisations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, pp. 67.
- Howe, K. R. and Berv, J. (2000). 'Constructing Constructivism, Epistemological and Pedagogical.' In D.C. Phillips (Ed.). *Constructivism in education: Opinions and second opinions on controversial issues: 99th yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, pp. 20.
- Howson, J. and Sprigade, A. (2011). *The State of the Labour Market for Senior Staff in Schools in England and Wales*. Paper presented at The 16th Annual Report prepared for the National Association of Head teachers (NAHT).
- Hughes, R.L., Ginnett, R.C. and Curphy, G.J. (2002). *Leadership Enhancing the Lessons of Experience*. Boston: McGraw-Hill, pp. 1.
- Hubbard, G., Backett-Milburn, K. and Kemmer, D. (2001) Working with Emotion: Issues for the Researcher in Fieldwork and Teamwork. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 4(2): 119-137.
- Huxham, C. and Vangen, S. (1998). 'Creating a TIP: Issues in the Design of a Process for Transferring Theoretical Insight about Inter-organisational Collaboration into Practice', *International Journal of Public-Private Partnership*, 1(1), pp. 19-42.
- Huxham, C. and Vangen, S. (2005). *Managing to Collaborate. The Theory and Practice of Collaborative Advantage*. London: Routledge.
- Iles, PA. and Preece, D. (2006). Developing leaders or Developing Leadership? The Academy of Chief Executives' Programmes in the North- East of England *Leadership* 2(3), pp.317-340.
- Iossa, E., and Martimort, D. (2008). 'The Simple Micro-economics of Public Private Partnerships,' *Mimeo Toulouse School of Economics*, pp. 2-12.

- James, C. (2010). The Psychodynamics Of Educational Change. *In: Hargreaves, A., Lieberman, A., Fullan, M. and Hopkins, D., Eds. The International Handbook of Educational Change.* Dordrecht: Springer, pp. 47-64.
- James, N. and Busher, H. (2007). 'Ethical Issues In Online Educational Research: Protecting Privacy, Establishing Authenticity In E-Mail Interviewing'. *International Journal of Research & Method in Education*, 30 (1), pp. 101-113.
- Jean-Marie, G., & Normore, A. H. (Eds.) (2010). *Educational Leadership Preparation: Innovation and Interdisciplinary Approaches to the Ed.D. and Graduate Education.* New York: NY: Palgrave MacMillan, pp.i-xi
- Johnson, R. B and Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). Mixed methods Research: A Research Paradigm Whose Time has Come. *Educational Researcher*, 33(7), pp.14-26.
- Johnson, R., Onwuegbuzie, A. and Turner, L. (2007). 'Toward A Definition Of Mixed Methods Research', *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1(2), pp.1-15.
- Jupp, S. (2003). 'Partnership' – Use, Non-Use, Buzzword Or Passé? What's In A Name?' *Review Paper*, Postgraduate Certificate in Cross-Sector Partnership, University of Cambridge.
- Kappeler, A. and Nemoz M. (2010). 'Public-Private Partnerships In Europe –Before And During The Recent Financial Crisis. European Investment Bank'. *Economic Finance Report*. 4, pp. 1 – 30
- Katz, D. and Kahn, R. (Eds) (1978). *The Social Psychology of Organisations.* NewYork: Wiley.
- Kearney, M. (2003). A New Tool For Creating Predict-Observe-Explain Tasks Supported By Multimedia. *Science Education News (SEN)*, 52(1),pp.13-17.
- Keller, H. (1903). *Optimism: An Essay*, New York, Crowell, p.6
- Khumwong, P. (2004). 'Research Design: Quantitative, Qualitative and Mixed Methods Approach', p.1-24.
- Khadaroo, M. (2007). 'The Actual Evaluation of School PFI Bids for Value for Money in the UK Public Sector', *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*, 19, (8), pp. 1321-1345.
- Kilburg, R. (2000),Executive Coaching: Developing Managerial Wisdom in a World of Chaos, American Psychological Association, Washington, DC
- King, W.R. (2008). An Integrated Architecture for the Effective Knowledge Organization. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 12(2), pp.1367–1380.
- Kisner, M. J., Mazza, M. J., and Liggett, D. R. (2002). Building Partnerships. *New Directions for Community Colleges*, 97, pp.23-28.
- Kolb, D. A. (1984). *Experiential Learning: Experience as the Source of Learning and Development*, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Kolb, D. A. (1998). *The Kolb Learning Style Inventory Version 3.* Boston: Hay Group.

- Kolb, D. A., and Kolb, A. Y. (2005). 'Learning Styles And Learning Spaces: Enhancing Experiential Learning In Higher Education'. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 4(20), pp. 193-212.
- Kolb, D. A., Rubin, I. M. and McIntyre, J. M. (Eds) (1984) *Organisational Psychology. An Experiential Approach to Organisational Behaviour*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall
- Kotter, J.P. (1990). *A Force for Change: How Leadership Differs From Management*. New York: Free Press, pp. 25.
- Kotter, J.P. (1999). *What Leaders Really Do*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press, pp. 10-13
- Kouzes, J. M. and Posner, B. Z. (Eds) (2003). *The Leadership Practices Inventory*. Pfeiffer, John Wiley and Sons.
- Kumar, R. (2008). *Research Methodology*. India: APH Publishing Corporation.
- Küpers, W. & Edwards, M. (2008). 'Integrating Plurality: Towards An Integral Perspective On Leadership And Organisation'. In C. Wankel, (Ed.), *Handbook Of 21st Century Management*, London: Sage, pp. 311-322.
- Küper, W. (2011). 'The Senses of Sense-Ma(r)king – Phenomenology Of Embodied Aesthesis In Organisation', In: Ian King (Eds) *The Sensational Organisation New Directions for Sensing, Perceiving and Imagining Organisational Life*, pp 103-201.
- Kvale, S. and Brinkmann, S. (2009). *Interviews: Learning the Craft of Qualitative Research Interviewing*, Los Angeles, California: Sage.
- Ladkin, D. (2010). *Rethinking Leadership: A New Look at Old Leadership Questions*, Edward Elgar Publishing, Business & Economics, p.84
- Lambert, L., (2003). 'Shifting Conceptions of Leadership Towards A Redefinition Of Leadership For The 21st Century'. In Davies J, and West-Burnham J, (2003) *Handbook of Educational Leadership and Management*, London: Pearson Longman, pp. 16-32, 423.
- Laverty, S. M. (2003). Hermeneutic phenomenology and phenomenology: A comparison of historical and methodological considerations. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 2(3), pp. 5.
- Lee, D. (1955). (Introduction) *The Republic*, London: Plato.
- Lemkow, A. F. (2005). Reflections on our Common Lifelong Journey. In: J. P. Miller, S. Karsten, D. Denton, D. Orr, and I. C. Kates (Eds.), *Holistic Learning and Spirituality In Education* (pp. 17-26). Albany: State University of New York Press, pp. 18-21.
- Leonard, D. and Swap, W. (2004). Deep Smarts. *Harvard Business Review*, 82 (9), pp.88-97.
- Levin, D. M. (1988). *The Opening Of Vision: Nihilism and The Postmodern Situation*. London: Routledge.

- Levitt, S.D. and List, J.A. (2011). "Was There Really a Hawthorne Effect at the Hawthorne Plant? An Analysis of the Original Illumination Experiments". *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics* 3 (1): pp.224–238.
- Lickona, T. (2002). Making Sense Of Tolerance And Diversity. In: Morgan, P. Harkins and M. Goldsmith (Eds). (2004). *Profiles in Coaching: The 2004 Handbook of Best Practices in Leadership Coaching*. Linkage Press, pp. 66.
- Lincoln, Y. S., and Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications, Inc, (99), pp.290-296.
- Lincoln, Y. S. and Guba, E. G. (2000). Paradigmatic Controversies, Contradictions And Emerging Confluences. In N. K. Denzin and Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (2nd ed.), Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc, pp. 163-188.
- London, M. (2002). *Leadership development: Paths to self-insight and professional growth*. Mahwah: NJ7 Elrbaum.
- Lord, R. G., and Brown, D. J. (2004). *Leadership Processes And Follower Self-Identity*. Mahwah, NJ7: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Lord, R. G. and Hall, R. J. (2005). 'Identity, Deep Structure And The Development Of Leadership Skills', *Leadership Quarterly* 16. pp. 591–615.
- Lowndes, V. and Sullivan, H. (2004). 'Like a Horse and Carriage or a Fish on a Bicycle: How Well do Local Partnerships and Public Participation go Together?' *Local Government Studies* 30: 51-73.
- Lowe, K. B., and Gardner, W. L. (2000). 'Ten Years of the Leadership Quarterly: Contributions and Challenges for the Future'. *Leadership Quarterly*, 11 (4), pp.459-514.
- Lupton, R. (2004). 'Schools in Disadvantaged Areas: Recognising Context and Raising Quality, PhD Thesis', *Department of Social Policy*, London School of Economics, pp.2-13
- MacKeracher, D. (Eds) (2004) *Making Sense Of Adult Learning*. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.
- Machin, S., McNally, S and Meghir, C. (2007). *Resources and Standards in Urban Schools*, Centre for the Economics of Education
- Marshall, C. and Rossman, G.B. (1995). *Designing Qualitative Research*. London: Sage Publications.
- Marturano, A., Wood, M. and Gosling, J. (2005). 'Toward a Linguistic Analysis of Leadership,' *Academy of Management Review*. p.14
- Marquardt, J.M. (2000). 'Action Learning And Leadership: The Learning Organisation', 7. (5). pp. 233 -240.
- Mann, K., Gordon, J., & MacLeod, A. (2009). *Reflection And Reflective Practice In Health*

- Professions Education: A Systematic Review. *Advances in Health Sciences Education*, 14, pp.595-621.
- Marsden, C. (1998). *Why Business should work with Education*, BP Education Service, London, pp.1-10
- Marshall, C. and Rossman, G. B. (Eds) (2006). *Designing Qualitative Research*, 4<sup>th</sup> edition, London: Sage Publications.
- McCabe, C. and Timmins, F. (2009). *Day Surgery-Contemporary Approaches to Nursing Care*. Wiley-Blackwell, pp. 55.
- McCarney, R., Warner, J., Iliffe, S., van Haselen, R., Griffin, M. and Fisher P (2007). "The Hawthorne Effect: A Randomised, Controlled Trial". *BMC Med Res Methodology* 7: p.30.
- McCauley, C. D. and Van Velsor, E., Eds (2004). *The Center for Creative Leadership Handbook of Leadership Development*, 2<sup>nd</sup> editon. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- McDonough, J. and McDonough, S. (1997). *Research Methods for English Language Teachers*. London: Arnold.
- McDonald, N., Merenda, D. W., Otterbourg, S. D., Spinner, C. V., and Sysak, G. T. (1990). *Business and Education: A Practical Guide To Creating And Managing A Business/Education Partnership*. Alexandria, VA: National Association for Partners in Education, pp. 21-28
- McDrury, J and Alterio, M. G. (2002). *Learning Through Storytelling: Using Experience And Reflection In Higher Education Contexts*. Palmerston North, NZ :Dunmore Press Ltd.,
- Mercer, J. (2007). The Challenges of Insider Research in Educational Institutions: Wielding a Double-Edged Sword And Resolving Delicate Dilemmas. *Oxford Review of Education*, 33(1), pp.1-17.
- Mezirow, J. (Ed.). (2000). *Learning As Transformation: Critical Perspectives On A Theory In Progress*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Merriam, S. B. (2001). *Qualitative Research And Case Study Applications In Education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass, p. 165.
- Miles, M.B. & Huberman, A.M. (1994). *Qualitative Data Analysis: An Expanded Sourcebook*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, pp. 10-14, 127-171.
- Mills, E., Bonner, A. and Francis, K. (2006). 'Adopting a Constructivist Approach to Grounded Theory: Implications for Research Design'. *International Journal of Nursing Practice*, pp. 103.
- Moerer-Urdahl, T. and Cresswell, J. (2004). 'Using Transcendental Phenomenology To Explore The 'Ripple Effect' In A Leadership Mentorship Programme'. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods* 3(2), pp.1-28.
- Moon, J. (2004). *A Handbook of Reflective and Experiential Learning: Theory and Practice*. London: Routledge.



- Moore, M.R. and Diamond, M.A. (2000). 'Academic Leadership: Turning Vision into Reality'. *Ernst & Young LLP*. SCORE Retrieval File .No. MM04017 2 (2000).
- Morrison K. R. B. (1993). *Planning and Accomplishing School-Centre Evaluation*. Norfolk: Peter Francis Publishers, pp. 39.
- Mouton, J. (2001). *How To Succeed In Your Masters and Doctoral Studies*. Pretoria: Van Schaik, pp. 239.
- Morgan, D. L., Krueger, R. A., and King, J. A. (1998). *Focus Group Kit*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Morse, R. S., and Buss, T. F. (Eds.). (2008). *Innovations in Public Leadership Development*. Armonk, NY: M. E. Sharpe, Inc.
- Morse, J. M., & Niehaus, L. (2009) *Mixed Method Design: Principles And Procedures*. Walnut Creek, CA: Left Coast Press, Inc, pp. 15.
- Mortimore, P. (1999). *Understanding Pedagogy and its Impact on Learning*. London: Paul Chapman Publishing, pp. 15-17.
- Mortimore, P. and Mortimore, J. (1999) 'Does Educational Research Influence Policy Or Practice?' In: I. Abbott (ed.) *The Future of Education Research* London: Falmer
- Muijs, D., Ainscow, M., Chapman, C., and West, M. (2011). *Collaboration and Networking in Education*. London: Springer, pp. 1-39, 100- 144.
- Muijs, D. and Harris, A. (2003). 'Teacher Leadership: Improvement through empowerment? An Overview of Research'. *Educational Management Administration and Leadership*, 31(4). pp.7-10
- Mulgan, R. (2000). 'Accountability': An Ever-Expanding Concept', *Public Administration*, 78(3): pp .555-573.
- Murphy, J. (2004). *Leadership For Literacy, Prek-3: Research-Anchored Practice*. Newbury Park, CA: Corwin Press.
- National Centre for Social Research (NCSR). (2008). 'The Involvement Of Business In Education: A Rapid Evidence Assessment Of The Measurable Impacts', *Department for Children, Schools and Families (DCSF)*, UK. p.28
- National College For School Leadership (NCSL). (2009). 'School Leadership Today', Nottingham, NCSL
- National College For School Leadership (NCSL). (2006). 'Learning from Learning Network's', Nottingham, National College for School Leadership
- National College For School Leadership (NCSL). (2001). 'Leadership Development Framework', Nottingham, NCSL.
- Nelson, The. (Ed.). (2001). *Holy Bible: The New King James Version*. Luke 22:25-26. Philadelphia: Pew Library, p.340

- Nemethy, L. (2011). *Business Exit Planning: Options, Value Enhancement, and Transaction Management for Business Owners*. USA: John Wiley & Sons. p. 178.
- Neuman, W. L. (2000). 4Ed. *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*, Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Newell, P. and Bellour, S. (2002). Mapping Accountability: Origins, Contexts And Implications For Development, *Institute of Development Studies*, Working Paper p.168.
- Ng, K., Van Dyne, L., and Ang, S. (2009). From Experience To Experiential Learning: Cultural Intelligence As A Learning Capability For Global Leader Development. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 8(4), pp.511–526.
- Nisbet, J.D. and Watt, J. (1982). ‘Case Study. Rediguide No. 26’. Oxford: TRC Rediguides, pp. 720.
- Nisbet, J. and Watt, J. (1984). ‘Case Study, Chapter 5’ in Bell, K., et al (Eds), *Conducting Small-Scale Investigations in Educational Management*, London: Harper & Row.
- Noble, C. and Bradford, W. (2000). *Getting It Right For Boys...And Girls* . London: Routledge, pp. 29.
- Norris, C. J. Barnett, G. Basom, M. R. and Yerkes, D. M. (2002). ‘Developing Educational Leaders: A Working Model’. *The Learning Community in Action*. New York: Teachers College Press, p. 4.
- Northouse, P.G. (Eds) (2004). *Leadership: Theory and Practice (3rd Edition)*. London: Sage Publications, p.3.
- Northouse, P. G. (Eds) (2010). *Leadership: Theory and Practice (5th ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Ofori-Kyereh, S. (2011). Framework For The Process and Components of School-Business Partnership And Its Impact On School Leadership
- Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted). (2008). Ofsted Report to Parents.
- Ohlott, P. J. (2004). Job Assignments. In C. McCauley & E. V. Velsor (Eds.), *The Center for Creative Leadership handbook of leadership development* (2nd ed., pp. 151–182). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Oliver, P. (2004). *Writing Your Thesis*, London: Sage Publications.
- Oliver, S., and Kandadi, K.R. (2006). How To Develop Knowledge Culture In Organizations? A Multiple Case Study Of Large Distributed Organizations. *Journal Of Knowledge Management* 10(4), pp.6–24.
- Oliver, D. G., Serovich, J. M. and Mason, T. L. (2005). ‘Constraints And Opportunities With Interview Transcription: Towards Reflection In Qualitative Research’. *Social Forces*, 84(2), pp. 280.

- Onwuegbuzie, A.J and Danniell, L. G. (2002). 'Uses And Misuses Of The Correlation Coefficient'. *Research in the Schools*.
- Onwuegbuzie, A. (2002). 'Why Can't We All Get Along? Towards a Framework for Unifying Research Paradigms', *Education*, vol. 122, 2002, pp. 518-530.
- Onwuegbuzie, A.J and Johnson, R. B. (2006). 'The Validity Issue in Mixed Research'. *Research in the Schools*, 13(1), pp. 48-63.
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J. and Leech, N. L. (2006). 'Linking Research Questions To Mixed Methods Data Analysis Procedures'. *The Qualitative Report*, 11, pp.474-498. Available from: <http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR11-3/Onwuegbuzie.pdf> [Accessed on 3/5/2012], p. 474}.
- Oppenheim, A. N. (1992). *Questionnaire Design, Interviewing and Attitude Measurement*. London & NY: Continuum.
- Otiso, K. M. (2003). 'State, Voluntary And Private Sector Partnerships For Slum Upgrading And Basic Service Delivery In Nairobi City, Kenya'. *Cities*, Vol. 20, No. 4, p. 221–229.
- Pallant J. F. (2007). *SPSS Survival Manual: A Step-by-Step Guide to Data Analysis Using SPSS for Windows (Version 15)*, 3<sup>rd</sup> edition. Crows Nest, New South Wales, Australia: Allen & Unwin.
- Parker, J. (2006). 'Towards Equality And Renewal: Women's Groups, Diversity And Democracy In British Unions' *Economic and Industrial Democracy*. 27 (3), pp 3-10.
- Paterson, B. (2010). Within-case analysis. In A. Mills, G. Durepos, & E. Wiebe (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of case study research*. (pp. 971-974). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications
- Patton, M. Q. (Eds) (1990). *Qualitative Evaluation And Research Methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Peck, J., Barton, R., and Klump, J. (2007). *Principal's Research Review* Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals. pp. 2-3.
- Pedersen, J., Yager, S. and Yager, R. (2010). Student Leadership Ambassadors: Effects of Leadership Distribution Using a Student- Centered Leadership Program. *e-Journal of Organizational Learning and Leadership*, 9(1).
- Pedler M, (Eds) (2011). *Action Learning in Practice*, Gower Publishing Company, Aldershot.
- Penhall, S and Graham, R. (2008). *Collaboration and Competition: A Leadership Challenge*, Centre for Excellence in Leadership, pp.1-24
- Pellegrini, E. K., Scandura, T. A., & Jayaraman, V. (2010). Cross-cultural generalizability of paternalistic leadership: An expansion of leader-member exchange theory. *Group & Organization Management*, 35(4), pp.391-420.
- Pettigrew, P. J. (2003). 'Power, Conflicts and Resolutions: A Change Agent's Perspective on Conducting Action Research within a Multi-organisational Partnership'. *Systemic Practice and Action Research*, 16 (6), pp. 375-391.

- Polgar, S. and Thomas, A.S. (2008). *Introduction To Research In The Health Sciences*, 5<sup>th</sup> edition, Edinburgh; New York: Churchill Livingstone
- Pont, B., Nusche, D. and Moorman, H. (2008). *Improving School Leadership, Volume 1: Policy and Practice*, Paris: Organisation for Economic Development and Cooperation (OECD) Publications, p.14.
- Punch, K. (Eds) (2005). *Introduction To Social Research: Quantitative And Qualitative Approaches*, Sage Publications, London.
- Peters, J. and Smith, A.C. P. (1998). Action Learning and the Leadership Development Challenge *Journal of Workplace Learning*, 10 (6/7). pp.284–291
- Peter, T. (2005). *Leadership*. Dorling Kindersley,
- Pratt, M.G. (2000) Building An Ideological Fortress: The Role of Spirituality, Encapsulation and Sensemaking, *Studies in Cultures, Organizations and Societies*, 6, pp.35-69.
- Rao, V. (2008). *Alternative Education*, APH Publishing, New Dehli, pp.70-79
- Rawlings, D. (2000). Collaborative Leadership Teams: Oxymoron or New Paradigm? *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice & Research*, 52(1), pp.36-48.
- Rein, M., Stott, L., Yambayamba, K., Hardman, S. and Reid, S. (2005). *Working Together, A Critical Analysis of Cross-Sector Partnerships in Southern Africa*, Cambridge:University of Cambridge Programme for Industry, pp.2-8
- Reeves, S., Zwarenstein, M., Goldman, J., Barr, H., Freeth, D., Hammick, M., and Koppel, I. (2008). Inter-Professional Education: Effects On Professional Practice and Health Care Outcomes. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*, 1.
- Rittel, H. W. J. and Weber, M. M. (1973) ‘Dilemmas In A General Theory Of Planning’. *Policy Science*, pp. 4, pp.155-169.
- Robbins, S.P. (Eds) (1998). *Organisational Behavior*, Upper Saddle River , New Fersey: Prentice-Hall Inc.
- Robson, C. (2002). (Eds) *Real World Research*, 1<sup>st</sup> edition. Malden, Massachusetts: Blackwell Publishers, Inc., p.269
- Robbins, S.P. and DeCenzo, D. A. (2005). *Fundamental of Management*. Prentice-Hall.
- Rosenberg, D. (2007). ‘Hermetically Sealed Learning: My Experience Of Jewish Schools’, *Forum*, 49 (3), p.3
- Rosenberg, M. (2008). Building A Learning Culture, *It’s Not Top-Down, But a Web of Knowledge-Sharing Within An Organization*. E-learning Magazine
- Rost, J. C. (1993). *Leadership for the Twenty-First Century*. Westport (C.T), United States: Praeger Publishers. pp.97-187.

- Rothwell, W.J. (2010). (Eds). *Effective Succession Planning, Ensuring Leadership Continuity and Building Talent From Within*. American Management Association, New York.
- Rowan, J. (1981.) 'A Dialectical Paradigm For Research.' In *Human Inquiry: A Sourcebook of New Paradigm Research*. Reason P, & Rowan J, (Eds.) Chichester: John Wiley, pp. 90-99.
- Rowe, M. (2006). "Abusive partnerships: New Forms of Governance, New Forms of Abuse?", *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, 26(5/6), pp.207 - 219
- Rowling, J. K. (2000) *Harry Potter and the Goblet of Fire*. London: Bloomsbury Publishing Plc.
- Saal, F.E. and Knight, P.A. (1988). *Industrial Organisational Psychology: Science and Practice*.
- Sandbakken, D.A. (2004). 'An Investigation Into Leadership Practices And Organisational Performance In A Norwegian Context'. DBA thesis. Henley Management College/Brunel University, UK.
- Sarantakos, S. (2005). *Social Research*. Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan, pp.105.
- Saunders, M. and Machell, J. (2000). 'Understanding Emerging Trends In Higher Education Curricula And Work Connections', *Higher Education Policy*, 13,pp.287–302.
- Scales, P.C., Foster, K.C., Mannes, M., Horst, M.A., Pinto, K.C. and Rutherford, A. (2005). 'School-Business Partnerships, Developmental Assets, and Positive Outcomes among Urban High School Students: A Mixed-Methods Study'. *Urban Education*, 40 (2), pp.144-189.
- Sanchez R., Heene A. (Eds.) (2010). *Enhancing Competences for Competitive Advantage, Advances in Applied Business Strategy, Vol. 12*. Emerald Group Publishing Ltd, pp. 45.
- Schutz, A. (1976) *The Stranger*. In 'Race and Ethnic Relations.' Edited by Bowker, G. & Carrier, J. London, Hutchison
- Schultz, D. and Schultz, S.E. (2010). *Psychology and Work Today*. Boston:Pearson, p.136,144
- Schleicher, A. (2012). *Preparing Teachers and Developing School Leaders for the 21st Century: Lessons from around the World*., OECD Publishing.
- Schön, D. (1991). *The Reflective Turn: Case Studies in Educational Practice*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Schraeder, M., Becton, J.B. and Portis, R. (2007). A Critical Examination of Performance Appraisal: An Organisation's Friend or Foe? *The Journal for Quality and Participation*, Available from: <http://web.ebscohost.com/webapps.d.umn.edu> [Accessed on 15/5/2012], pp. 30, 20-25.
- Scott, J. A. (2007). 'Adult Learning Theory and Leadership Development,' Kravis Leadership Institute, *Leadership Review*, Vol.7, Spring 2007, pp. 26-37.
- Seddon, T., Billett, S. and Clemans, A. (2004). 'Politics of Social Partnerships: A Framework for Theorising', *Journal of Education Policy*, 19 (2) pp.123-142.

- Selman, J.(n.d). Leadership and innovation: Relating to circumstances and change. Online available at [www.innovation.cc](http://www.innovation.cc). Retrieved May 16, 2011.
- Selsky, J. W. and Parker, B., (2005). ‘Cross-Sector Partnerships to Address Social Issues: Challenges to Theory and Practice’. *Journal of Management*, 31(6), pp. 1-25;850- 853.
- Shah, S. (2004). The Researcher/Interviewer In Intercultural Context: A Social Intruder! *British Educational Research Journal*, 30(4), pp.549–575.
- Sinclair, A. (2007). *Leadership For The Disillusioned: Beyond Myths And Heroes To Leading That Liberates*, Sydney: Allen & Unwin.
- Sirotnik, K. A. and Kimball, K. (1996). ‘Preparing Educators for Leadership’. *Journal of School Leadership*, 6(2), pp.180-201.
- Skelcher, C., Mathur, N. and Smith, M. (2005). “The Public Governance of Collaborative Space: Discourse, Design and Democracy”, *Public Administration* , 83 (3): pp.573–596.
- Smith, T. R. & Rosser, M. H. (2007). ‘Leadership Development Through Experiential Learning’. *Paper presented in the Research Session of the Association of Leadership Educators Conference, Ft. Worth, TX.*
- Sprenger, M. (2003). *Differentiation through learning styles and memory*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press
- Spillane, J. P. (2002). ‘District Policy Making And State Standards: A Cognitive Perspective On Implementation. In A. Hightower, M. S. Knapp, J. Marsh, & M. McLaughlin (Eds). *School Districts and Instructional Renewal*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press, pp. 1-20.
- Spillane, J. P. (2006). *Distributed Leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Spink, A., Wilson, T.D., Ford, N., Foster, D., & Ellis, D. (2002). Information Seeking and Searching Study. Part 1. Theoretical Framework and Research Design. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science and Technology*, 53(9), pp.695–703.
- Stake, R. E. (1978). ‘The Case Study Method In Social Inquiry’. *Educational Researcher*, 7 (2), pp. 5-8, 182.
- Stake, R. E. (1995). *The Art of Case Study Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Stake, R.E. (2005). ‘Qualitative Case Studies’. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln, *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research* (3rd edition). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications, p. 454.
- Stake, R. E. (2006). *Multiple Case Study Analysis*. New York: Guilford Press, p.16.
- Starr, J. (2004). The Manager’s Role in Coaching Overcoming Barriers to Success, *Development and Learning in Organisations*, 18 (2). pp. 9 - 12.
- Stepanov, R., Shrives, P. and Nichol, T. (2007). *Institutional Change in Russian Corporate Governance: An Analysis of Corporate Dispute*.

- Stevens, S.S. (1946). On the theory of scales of measurement. *Science* 103: pp.677–80.
- Stogdill, R.M. (1948). Personal Factors Associated With Leadership: A Survey Of The Literature. *Journal of Psychology*, pp. 25, pp.35-71.
- Stoll, L. (2009), Capacity Building for School-Improvement Or Creating Capacity For Learning? A Changing Landscape, *Journal of Educational Change*, 10, pp.115-127.
- Stone, A. G. and Patterson, K. (2005). The History of Leadership Focus. Servant Leadership Research Roundtable. Available: [http://www.regent.edu/acad/global/publications/sl\\_proceedings/home.htm](http://www.regent.edu/acad/global/publications/sl_proceedings/home.htm). [Accessed on 10/3/2011], p 1.
- Storey, J. (2004). ‘Changing Theories of Leadership and Leadership Development’, in J. Storey (ed), *Leadership in Organisations: Current Issues and Key Trends*, London: Routledge, pp.4-26
- Styhre, A. (2004). ‘Rethinking knowledge: A Bergsonian critique of the notion of tacit Knowledge’. *British Journal of Management*, pp. 15, pp.177–188.
- Sull, D. (2001). ‘Siebel Systems: Partnering To Scale’. *Harvard Business School Press Case 9-802-029*, pp. 1–24.
- Tashakkori A and Teddlie C. (Eds). (2003). *Handbook Of Mixed Methods In Social & Behavioral Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, pp. 12-16.
- Taylor, S. J., and Bogdan, R. (Eds) (1998). *Introduction To Qualitative Research Methods* New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Taylor, P. (2008). ‘A Paradox in Public Attitudes, Men or Women: Who’s the Better Leader?’, Pew Research Centre.
- Tennyson, R. (1998). ‘Managing Partnerships: Tools for Mobilizing the Public Sector, Business and Civil Society as Partners in Development’, The Prince of Wales *Business Leaders Forum*, London.
- Thomas, S. A. and Polgar, S. (2000). *Introduction to Research in the Health Sciences*, 4th edition. London: Churchill Livingstone.
- Thompson, J.D. (1967). *Organisations in Action*. New York: McGraw-Hill. pp.34-37
- Thompson, J.C. (2000). ‘Gifts from Surgical Research. Contributions to Patients and Surgeons’. *Journal of the American College of Surgeons*, pp. 20.
- Tomlinson, K. (2004). *Effective Interagency Working: A Review of the Literature and Examples from Practice*, National Foundation for Educational Research in England & Wales, pp.1-30
- Torbert, W. R., Cook-Greuter, S. R., Fisher, D., Foldy, E., Gauthier, A., Keeley, J., Rooke, D., Ross, S., Royce, C. and Rudolph, J. (2004). *Action Inquiry: The Secret Of Timely and Transformational Leadership*. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.



- Torbert, W. (2004). *Action Inquiry: The Secret of Timely and Transforming Leadership*. Berrett-Koehler Publishers, pp.1-2.
- Torbert, W. (2006). 'Generating Simultaneous Personal, Team, and Organisational Development' in J. V. Gallos (ed.), *Organisation Development: A Reader*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, pp. 207-209.
- Tourangeau, R. (1990). 'Comment on Suchman and Jordan.' *Journal of the American Statistical Association* 85 (409): pp.250-251.
- Tucker, S. (2001). Distance Education: Better, Worse, or as Good as Traditional Education? *On-line Journal of Distance Learning Administration*, 5(5), np.
- Turnipseed, D. (1996). "Organizational Citizenship Behavior: An Examination of the Influence of the Workplace." *Leadership & Organization Development Journal* 17, pp.42-47.
- Ubben, G. C., Hughes, L. W & Norris, C. J. (2001). *The Principal: Creative Leadership For Excellent Schools*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Uhlik, K.S. (2006). 'The "Nature" Of Leadership Philosophy In Outdoor And Adventure Education: Partnership Or Predation'. *Journal of Adventure Education & Outdoor Learning*, 6(2), pp. 135-142.
- Uhlik, K. S. (2007). The Ghettoization Of Partnership Research In Leisure Studies. *Leisure Sciences: An Interdisciplinary Journal*. 29(3), pp. 309-314.
- United Nations, (2003). *Enhanced Cooperation between the UN and all Relevant Partners, in particular the Private Sector*, Report of the Secretary-General, Retrieved on the May 26, 2010 @ 4.22pm from: <http://www.un.org/apps/docs/ws.asp?m=A/58/227>
- United Nations Environmental Protection (UNEP), (2011), Global Trends in Sustainable Energy Investment 2010: Analysis of Trends and Issues in the Financing of Renewable Energy and Energy Efficiency. p.9
- Valentine. D. (2002). Distance learning: Promises, problems and possibilities. *Online Journal of Distance Learning Administration*, 5(3), np.
- van Manen, M. (1997). From Meaning To Method. *Qualitative Health Research*, 7, pp.345-369.
- van Manen, M. (1984). Practicing Phenomenological writing, *Phenomenology and pedagogy*, 2(1).
- van Manen, M. (1990). *Researching Lived Experience: Human science for an action sensitive pedagogy*. London, Ontario: Althouse.
- van Manen, M. (Ed.). (2002). *Writing in the dark: Phenomenological studies in interpretive inquiry*. London, ON.: Althouse Press.
- van Manen, M. (2007). Phenomenology of Practice, *Phenomenology & Practice*, 1(1), pp. 11-30.
- Van Maurik, J. (2001) *Writers on Leadership* London: Penguin, pp. 2-13.



- van Tejligen, E.R and Hundley, V. (2001). The Importance of Pilot Studies, *Social Research UPDATE*, 35, pp.1-4
- VanVelsor, E. and McCauley, C.D. (2004). "Our View of Leadership Development." In C.D. McCauley and E. VanVelsor (eds.), *The Center for Creative Leadership Handbook of Leadership Development*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, pp.1-22.
- Venner, K. (2011). "Developing Facilitative Leaders: Action Learning Facilitator Training As Leadership Development" in Pedler M (Ed.) *Action Learning in Practice*, 4<sup>th</sup> edition Aldershot: Gower, pp.211-220.
- Vicere, A.A. (2002). "Leadership and the Networked Economy." *Human Resource Planning*, 25(2): pp.26-33.
- Vroom, V. and Jago, A. (2007). The Role of the Situation In Leadership. *American Psychologist*, 62(1), pp.17-24.
- Vroom, V. H. and Yetton, P. W. (1973). *Leadership and Decision Making*. Pittsburgh, PA: University of Pittsburgh Press.
- Waddock, S. A. (1991). Correlates Of Effectiveness and Partner Satisfaction In Social Partnerships. *Journal of Organisational Change Management*, 4(2). pp. 74-89.
- Wallace Foundation (2011). *The School Principal As Leader: Guiding Schools To Better Teaching and Learning*, Wallace Foundation, pp.1-38
- Watt, W. (2003). Effective Leadership Education: Developing a Core Curriculum in Leadership Studies. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 2(1), pp.1-22
- Weick, K. (1979). *The Social Psychology Of Organizing*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.
- Weller, M and Dillon, P. (1999). Education and Business Partnerships in the United Kingdom: Initiatives in Search of a Rationale, *Bulletin of Science Technology Society*, 19; p.60
- Werstein Hann, L. (2008). Profit and Loss in School-Business Partnerships. *District Administration*. Norwalk: Professional Media Group. 44(5), pp.26-30.
- West-Burnham, J. (2004). *Building Leadership Capacity: Helping Leaders Learn*. National College for School Leadership. England: NCSL. p. 8.
- Whitty, G. (2008). 'Twenty years of progress? English education policy 1988 to the present', *Educational Management, Administration and Leadership*, 36(2), pp.165–84.
- Wright, N. (2001) 'Leadership, "Bastard Leadership" and Managerialism', *Educational Management and Administration*, 29(3), pp.275–90.
- Willard, J.D. and Oplinger, D. (1999). 'Education, Safety Left Behind in Ohio's Rush to Open Academies,' *Akron (Ohio) Beacon-Journal*.

- Williams, M. R., and Wade, V. M. (2002). Sponsorship Of Community Leadership Development Programs: What Constitutes An Ideal Partnership? *Journal of the Community Development Society*, 33(61-71).
- Willoughby, K. and Galvin, P. (2005) 'Inter-organisational collaboration, knowledge intensity, and the sources of innovation in the bioscience-technology industries', *Knowledge, Technology, & Policy* 18(3), 56-73.
- Wolf, E. (2004). Spiritual Leadership, A New Model. *Healthcare Executive*, 19(2), pp. 8-12.
- Woods, P., Bennett, N. Harvey, J, A. and Wise C. (2004) 'Variabilities and Dualities in Distributed Leadership: Findings from a Systematic Literature Review', *Educational Management, Administration and Leadership*, 32 (4), 439-457.
- Woolcock, M. (2001). The Place Of Social Capital In Understanding Social And Economic Outcomes. *Isuma*, 2, pp. 11-17.
- World Bank Development Forum, (1999). Partnering with Civil Society. Available from: [www2.worldbank.org/hm/participate/index.html](http://www2.worldbank.org/hm/participate/index.html) [Accessed 2/9/2011].
- World Economic Forum (2003). 'Global Education Initiative Retrospective on Partnerships for Education Development 2003-2011'. Warsaw: IFIS Publishers.
- World Education Forum (2003). 'Partnering for Success: Business Perspectives on Multistakeholder Partnerships', Geneva, pp.3-4
- Woyach, R. B. (1993). 'Preparing For Leadership: A Young Adult's Guide To Leadership Skills In A Global Age'. In: Watt, W. (2003). Effective leadership education: Developing a core curriculum in leadership studies. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 2(1).
- [www.natcen.ac.uk/cass/surveys.html](http://www.natcen.ac.uk/cass/surveys.html) (2007) Social Research Question Bank (Retrieved on 02/10/2007)
- Wright, P. (1996). *Managerial Leadership*, London: Routledge, pp. 34.
- Yin, R.K. (1984). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications.
- Yin, R.K. (1993). *Applications of Case Study Research*, Newbury Park: Sage, pp. 32.
- Yin, R. K. (1994). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*, 2nd ed., Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, pp. 10-98.
- Yin, R. K. (1998). The abridged version of case study research: design and method. *Handbook of Applied Social Research Methods*. L. Bickman and D. J. Rog. Thousand Oaks, CA, Sage Publication, pp. 84.
- Yin, R. K. (1999). "Enhancing the Quality of Case Studies in Health Services Research," *Health Services Research* (34:5-part 2), pp. 1209-1224.

- Yin, R.K. (2003). *Case Study Research*, 3rd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, pp. 10-98.
- Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case study research: Design and methods* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Yukl, G. A. (2002). *Leadership in Organisations, Fifth Edition*, Upper Saddle River, NJ, Prentice-Hall.
- Yukl, G. (2006). *Leadership in Organisations, Sixth Edition*, Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson, pp. 10, 223-225.
- Zaidah, Z. (2003). An Investigation into the effects of Discipline-Specific Knowledge, Proficiency and Genre on Reading Comprehension and Strategies of Malaysia ESP Students. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis. University of Reading.
- Zimmerman-Oster, K. and Burkhardt, J. C. (2000). Leadership in the Making: Impact and insights from leadership development programs in U.S. colleges and universities. W. K. Kellogg Foundation. pp. 221.
- Zuber-Skerritt, O. (2011) *Action Leadership: Towards a Participatory Paradigm*. Springer International, The Netherlands.
- Zubizarreta, J. (2009). *The Learning Portfolio. Reflective Practice for Improving Student Learning*. 2nd Edition. John Wiley and Sons.

# **APPENDIX**

## APPENDIX 1 – CONSENT LEAFLET



Leading education  
and social research  
Institute of Education  
University of London

### **RESEARCH TITLE: SCHOOL-BUSINESS PARTNERSHIP SUPPORT ORGANISATIONAL LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT**

As indicated above this study seeks to find alternative ways of supporting leadership development in schools. Your fullest participation is important in securing enough data to understand what the current situation is and how we can improve on the existing leadership development programmes. Be assured that anything you say or record will be kept in the strictest confidentiality. Should you require to speak to me about anything relating to this study, you are more than welcome to do so. My contact details are below.

#### **The questionnaire consists of 4 sections:**

- **General Information/Demographic Data**
- **Reasons for the Partnerships**
- **Partnership Activities Undertaken and**
- **Extent to which partnership activities impact on Leadership Development**

Your ability to complete all questionnaire items as detail as you can is important to the success of this study. The interviews will be held at your convenience and in private in line with the British Educational Research Association (BERA). See Consent forms attached.

**Thank you for your willingness to participate in the study. I appreciate your cooperation.**

Samuel Ofori-Kyereh  
Doctoral Research Student  
Institute of Education  
London

Tel: 01279 626163  
Mob: 07950554205

## **CONSENT FORMS FOR RESEARCH INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS**

**Note: Before completing the questionnaire/interview, I would like you to read and then sign this consent form, indicating that you are willing to participate willingly, and that you understand your rights as a participant.**

This research examines how school-business partnerships impact on school leadership in inner-city secondary schools in England. The goal of this study is to understand whether partnerships can in anyway help to develop leadership (not leaders) in inner-city schools.

### **PROMPTS**

**a) RISK**

There is no risk to you in filling out this questionnaire. Your responses are completely confidential.

**b) BENEFITS**

Although the results of this study may be of benefit to others in the future, there is no direct benefit to you by participating in this study.

**c) CONFIDENTIALITY OF RESPONSES**

Your answers are strictly confidential. Only the primary researcher or his/her designee will have access to the confidential raw data.

**d) RIGHT TO WITHDRAW OR DECLINE TO PARTICIPATE**

Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary. You may choose not to participate without any adverse consequences to you. Should you choose to participate and later wish to withdraw from the study, you may discontinue your participation at this time without incurring adverse consequences.

**e) OWNERSHIP OF COPYRIGHT**

Under the Copyright Act 1912 the researcher/author of a document owns the publication. According to **CODE OF PRACTICE FOR THE EXPLOITATION OF INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY**, the ownership of copyright in theses, dissertations and other written work of students will vest in the author (the student who seeks to publish the theses, dissertations and other written work).

I understand that my participation in this study is strictly voluntary and I may discontinue my participation at any time without prejudice. I further understand that any information about

me that is collected during this study will be held in the strictest confidence and will not be part of my permanent record. I understand that in order for this research to be effective and valuable certain personal identifiers need to be collected. I also understand that the strictest confidentiality will be maintained throughout this study and that only the researchers will have access to the confidential information. I understand that at the conclusion of this study all records, which identify individual participants, will be destroyed. I am aware that I have not and am not waiving any legal or human rights by agreeing to this participation. And that I have the right to discontinue at any point in time. By signing below I verify that I am within the age range of 10-60, in good mental and physical condition, and that I agree to and understand the conditions listed above.

I have read the information leaflet about the research.  (please tick)

I will allow the researchers to observe me  (please tick)

I agree to be interviewed  (please tick)

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

NOTE: If you have any questions, please contact, the primary researcher, on  
01279 626163

## **Appendix II: Structured Interview Schedule**

Firstly, I would like to thank you for agreeing to take part in this research study. I am delighted that you have managed to take time to be here. I expect our session to last for about half an hour – I hope that this is fine with you that OK?

As you may know already, I am Doctoral research student at the Institute of Education and I am conducting this research over the next two months to collect information that will help me to understand how school-business partnerships could impact on leadership development.

I'm going to record electronically everything that we discuss today and at the same time make some notes. However, I would like to stress again that everything you say will be strictly confidential. I am not reporting on any individual responses and no one at your organisation will ever know how you personally responded. Do you have any concerns about confidentiality or the project at the moment? If anything crops up during or after the interview that you'd like to discuss or that you have a question about, please do feel free to let me know.

I'll now like to begin to ask you some questions. I'll to probe further some of your responses to help me understand issues better. In the meantime however, I would like to know a little bit about you.

### **Section A**

#### **Collecting Personal Details (Introductory)**

*Using Open-ended, exploratory question:*

1. What is your current position in the organisation?
2. How long have you worked here?

### **Section B**

What prompted the need to engage in school–business partnership(s)?

- 4 Do you know of any partnership and/or leadership development activities undertaken in your organisation\*? How did this partnership start?
- 5 What is your level of participation in the partnership activities with the school or bank?\* (\* Choose as appropriate)

NB: Depending on the respondent's level of participation in partnership activities move to section B or C. If level of participation is low or non-participation move to Section C.

- 6 What organisations did/do you undertake these activities with?
- 7 Why did you choose to engage in partnership with this/these organisation(s)?

### **Section C**

#### **Why did you choose partnership as a means for leadership development?**

I am aware that your organisation are engaged in partnership to specifically develop leadership at all levels of the organisation.

1. Why did you choose to focus on leadership development?
2. How important is leadership development to your organisation? Why?



### **Section D**

What are the main partnership activities undertaken as a means to leadership development?

1. What partnership activities do you undertake in this organisation?
2. How did these partnership activities help to develop leadership at every level of the organisation?

### **Section E**

How did the partnership activities impact on leadership development?

1. In your view how successful has the partnership activities been in achieving leadership development at every level of the organisation?
2. What specific evidence are there to show that these partnership activities have supported leadership development in your organisation?

Is there anything else you would like to tell me?

Thank you very much for your time.

Probes to help with the interview:

[Let them describe generally for a bit and then] ... can you think of a specific incident?

What exactly did he/she do?

How did you respond to this?

Why do you think partnership activities help or did not help to develop leadership at all levels of the organisation?

What else could have been done?

## APPENDIX III - QUESTIONNAIRE

### Section 1: General Information/Demographic Data

Finally I would like to ask you to give us some information about yourself.

1. Your present position. Please tick (✓) where appropriate and state any other position.

Position	Tick (✓)
Head teacher	
Deputy head teacher	
Senior Business Official	
Assistant head teacher	
Head of Department/Faculty	
Other Business Official	
Classroom Teacher	
Teaching Assistant	
Technician	
Other.....	

2. Number of Years in current post (Please tick (✓) where appropriate)

0-2	3-5	6-10	11-more

3. Your Age (Please tick (✓) where appropriate)

24-under	25-34	35-44	45-54	55 or over

4. Are you? (Please tick (✓) where appropriate)

Female	Male

5. Would you describe yourself as being: (Please tick (✓) where appropriate)

		Tick (✓)				Tick (✓)
<b>Asian</b>	Indian			<b>Other</b>	<b>Chinese</b>	
	Pakistani					
	Bangladeshi					
	Other					
<b>Black</b>	African			<b>White</b>	British	
	Caribbean				European	
	Other				Australian	
					Eastern	
					Other	

5. Any comments.....

Section 2: What prompted the need to engage in school–business partnership(s)?

1. Does your organisation have any partnerships with any organisation(s), with any non-profit agencies and any government departments?

Yes

No

If 'No' please go on to question Q2. If 'Yes' please go to Q3.

2. Is your organisation in the process of establishing any partnerships with any businesses, or with any non-profit agencies or with any government departments?

Yes

No

If 'No' please go to Q8.

3. If 'Yes' please briefly describe who the partnerships are/will be with and very generally the purpose of each partnership. If more space is required, please provide the information by a separate attachment.

---

---

---

---

---

4. It is believed that partnership between schools and the business sector can help make schools more effective. Do you agree that schools should have partnership with any businesses or government departments? If No, then skip this question.

Strongly agree  Agree  Disagree  Strongly Disagree  N/A

**Section 1.** Why did your organisation choose to engage in partnership? Please rank your responses in order of importance with No. 5 being the most important and 1 being the least important. (Please circle the number of your choice).

<b>Reasons for Partnership</b>	<b>Rank</b>				
Achieving Organisational Goals	1	2	3	4	5
Safe Working Environment	1	2	3	4	5
Developing Leadership	1	2	3	4	5
Community Liaison/Publicity	1	2	3	4	5
Partnership with an Organisation	1	2	3	4	5
Achieving Organisational Goals	1	2	3	4	5
Other(s) .....	1	2	3	4	5
Don't know					

**Section 2:** Why did you choose partnership as a means for leadership development?

Which of the factors given below could be the reasons why you chose to engage in partnership in order to develop leadership? Please rank your responses in order of importance with No.4 being the most important and 1 being the least important. (Please circle the number of your choice).

<b>Reasons for choosing partnership for Leadership Development</b>	<b>Rank</b>					
Trial and Error with the hope that it will work	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Exposure to other forms of leadership practices	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Opportunities for sharing responsibilities, ideas and resources	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Success with other Partnership Programmes	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Failure of previous leadership development programme	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Other(s) .....	N/A	1	2	3	4	5

Section 3: What are the main partnership activities undertaken as a means for leadership development? Which of these partnerships do you think could make the most significant impact on the expected leadership development outcome? Please rank your responses in order of importance with No. 4 being the most important and 1 being the least important. (Please circle the number of your choice).

<b>Learning Approaches</b>	<b>Rank</b>					
Leadership apprenticeship	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Job placement	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Job rotation	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Job mixing	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Job shadowing	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Practical coaching	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Degree, postgraduate study, etc	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Classroom-based courses	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Online learning	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Action research	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Distance learning	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Symposia/Lectures/Conferences	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Multi-rater feedback (360°)	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Personality tests	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Performance reviews	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Mentoring	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Counselling	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Networking	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Action learning	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Reflection	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Recitals	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Record of enlightenment	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Story-telling	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Themes/Cues from Bible	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Leadership voice bulletins	N/A	1	2	3	4	5

#### Section 4: How did the partnership activities impact on leadership development?

Which of this partnership do you could make the most significant impact on the expected leadership development outcome? Please rank your responses in order of importance with No. 5 being the most important and 1 being the least important. (Please circle the number of your choice).

<b>Learning Approaches</b>	<b>Rank</b>					
Organisational Leadership Learning Culture	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Effective Succession Planning	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Endemic Leadership	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Innovative and Practical Leadership Practices	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Stronger/Effective Interagency Leadership Learning	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Organisational growth and survival	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Deep Understanding of Leadership Concepts	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Broadened Decision-making Powers and Agreeability	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Organisational Accountability	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Flattened Leadership Principle	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Organisational Leadership Learning Culture	N/A	1	2	3	4	5
Symposia/Lectures/Conferences	N/A	1	2	3	4	5

#### **APPENDIX IV      BERA ETHICAL GUIDELINES**

- Provide assurance of complete confidentiality within my power
- Ensure disclosure of the possible benefit of the results of this study to others in the future and not necessarily a direct benefit to participants
- Guarantee participation in this study is entirely voluntary and a participant may choose not to participate without any adverse consequences
- Explain the effect of possible disruption of participants on the research process
- Negotiate ownership of the data
- Negotiate the publication of data (anonymization of participants)

(Nisbet and Watt, 1984)

**THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR PARTICPATION**

