INDIVIDUAL, ORGANISATIONAL AND COMMUNITY EMPOWERMENT: APPLYING A COMMUNITY PSYCHOLOGY FRAMEWORK TO A SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

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ABSTRACT

This study focused on whether empowerment at individual, organisational and community levels was evident in the context of a school development planning programme. A contextualist, multi-method approach to the study was used, combining quantitative and qualitative data. A School Development Planning Evaluation Scale was developed to assess organisational empowerment in a school context. Quantitative data measuring variables associated with empowerment were also examined to establish whether involvement in the programme was associated with empowerment at the individual (locus of control and general and specific efficacy) and organisational (participation and leadership) levels.

An ex post facto analysis based on a post-test only comparison group evaluation design was conducted to explore the impact of the programme. Focus groups and interviews were conducted to establish whether school staff reported that involvement in the programme had led to their personal empowerment and the empowerment of their schools. Archival data relating to the schools were also examined. Relationships between the variables were explored using multiple regression and structural equation modelling. A model of school development was developed and tested.

The results indicated that extent of involvement in the programme was not a significant influence on level of empowerment. More important was the influence of school leadership, and in particular the leadership style exercised by the principal. Impact and relationship matrices, integrating the quantitative and qualitative analyses, indicated that the programme had effects on both individuals and schools, and that the process of school development planning was related to aspects of organisational empowerment. Issues of organisational internal capacity and contextual support, however, influenced implementation of school development planning.

The study suggests that school development planning is a process which is contextually related, and confirms and refines the nomological network of

organisational empowerment. The results indicate that a variety of individual, organisational and contextual factors impact on individual and organisational empowerment and that a multi-level perspective is necessary for understanding the school development process. The study also suggests that community psychology, and empowerment theory in particular, offer useful frameworks for theorising and researching school development issues at individual, organisational and community levels.

Key Words

Community psychology, Empowerment, Organisational development, School development, Ecological perspective, Contextualist epistemology, Multi-method research

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis is my own work and has not been submitted to any other university.

_____

Alexander Richard Hassett

___ day of _____ , 2006

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION, AIMS OF THE STUDY AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1.1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to explore whether community psychology, and empowerment theory in particular, applies in the context of a number of school sites and in the context of a school development programme. Empowerment, as the focus of study in community psychology, has been used to understand a variety of contexts. More recently, but to a lesser extent, it has also been used to explore and understand processes related to organisational change. This study attempted to explore these issues more thoroughly by assessing a school development programme's impact on various organisational aspects of the schools and the individuals within them. In addition it looked at the factors that helped or hindered the implementation of the school development planning process and explored their relationship with empowerment. Based on the analyses the study explored whether this framework provides an alternative, and potentially more useful, way of looking at school development and whether it broadens our understanding of empowerment as it is expressed in its various forms in different contexts and at different times.

Although school development literature has evolved over the last 20 years many of the approaches to school development have ignored, or only given cursory acknowledgement to, the social or broader context in which the school is embedded. Even those approaches based on eco-systems theories of organisations and organisational development, which acknowledge factors and dynamics external to the school, have often ignored or peripheralised a broader contextual or social theoretical analysis in organisational development interventions (Davidoff & Lazarus, 1997). Schools, as contexts for exploring empowerment, have not been fully explored. Empowerment theory allows us to take a multi-level, contextualist view of school change, which has been missing from school development literature.

School development literature appears to lack a strong theoretical tradition from which its formulations of school change have emerged and often these models or frameworks are mechanistic in nature. Under conceptualisation and under theorising in the field of school development has led to the lack of a strong framework for understanding change at the individual, organisational and community levels. Hopkins (1995) makes the point clearly:

> One of the great debates that our field is still to have, is that on the theories, models and strategies that underlie the work of school improvement practitioners, policy makers and researchers … Without considerably more work at the level of theory and strategy, school improvement will still be referred to as 'random acts of kindness' (p. 3).

Sarason, as early as 1973, argued for the contribution psychology could make to the schooling system and in 1997 reasserted that position. In 2000 Oxley and in 2006 Rhodes and Camic made a case for the usefulness of school reform and community psychology working together. Boyd & Angelique (2002) argue for the strengthening of the relationship between community psychology and organisation studies. It is the present author's contention that a fuller understanding of school development and change cannot be achieved without placing it within a broader theoretical framework.

By placing school development within the field of community psychology, and more specifically linking it to the concept of empowerment, this study has attempted to strengthen the theoretical basis of school change literature and provide new avenues for exploring how individuals, organisations and communities change and the factors that hinder or support this change process. By viewing empowerment within this context this study has also attempted to expand the understanding of empowerment at various levels of analysis, particularly at the organisational level.

1.2. AIMS AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Using a community psychology framework based on the concept of empowerment, this study aimed to:

1. establish whether empowerment at individual, organisational and community levels was evident in the context of a school development planning programme;
2. explore some of the factors that help or hinder school development planning process;
3. explore the usefulness of conceptualising school development planning as organisational empowerment and its contribution in terms of confirming and refining the nomological network of organisational empowerment.

The research questions emanating from these aims focused on two themes: the first was the impact of the school development planning programme on empowerment of the individuals, the schools as organisations and the communities they served; the second was the relationship between the different variables under investigation in the present study, particularly the relationship between school development planning and those variables associated with empowerment at individual, organisational and community levels.

1.2.1. Theme One: Impact of the Programme at Individual, Organisational and Community Levels

Research Question 1

What effect has the school development planning process had in terms of empowering schools as organisations?

Research Question 2:

What effect has the school development planning process had on variables associated with empowerment at the individual, organisational and community levels?

1.2.2. Theme Two: Relationships between the Variables

Research Question 3:

What factors help or hinder the school development planning process?

Research Question 4:

What is the relationship between the process of school development planning and those variables associated with empowerment at the individual, organisational and community levels?

1.3. TERMS OF REFERENCE OF THE STUDY

Empowerment

Empowerment is defined as a multilevel, context specific, dynamic construct (Zimmerman, 1995) occurring at the individual, organisational and community level (Zimmerman, 1995; 2000).

The following offers a brief description of how empowerment at each level is conceptualised in this study.

Empowerment at the individual level of analysis:

This is a process by which individuals gain mastery and control over their lives and a critical understanding of their environment (Rappaport, 1984, 1987; Swift & Levin, 1987; Zimmerman 1990a). It includes participatory behaviour, motivation to exert control and feelings of efficacy and control. At this level empowerment bears on both the material and the psychological, on acquiring access to resources as well as increasing control and value.

Empowerment at the organisational level of analysis:

This is a process aimed at changing the power structures as they are expressed within an organisation, such as a school, in order to establish new structures, values and forms of interaction. Organisational empowerment includes shared leadership, opportunities to develop skills, expansion and effective community influence (Maton & Rappaport, 1984; Maton & Salem, 1995). Following Zimmerman's (2000) lead a distinction was made between an empowering organisation (what it provides to members) and an empowered organisation (its impact on the community).

Empowerment at the community level of analysis

This level of empowerment is concerned with collective action to improve the quality of life within the community through the active engagement of stakeholders. An empowered community is one that initiates efforts to improve the community, responds to threats and provides opportunities for citizens to participate (Zimmerman, 2000).

This conceptualisation of empowerment was explored within the context of a school development programme, the key element of which was a process of school development planning. School development planning is a multi-dimensional, whole school strategy that aims to bring key stakeholders together within the school to identify problem areas, agree where improvements can be made and then decide how to make change happen with the resources they have available (Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1995; 1991; Hopkins, Ainscow & West, 1994). It seeks to:

1. develop the structural and procedural aspects of the school;
2. establish a decision-making process which is collaborative, with visible procedures of accountability, transparency in the communication of information and leadership characterised by facilitative directiveness;
3. promote staff and interpersonal development, with a culture of collegiality in which such development can occur;
4. provide a mechanism for establishing structures and procedures for internal evaluation of needs and innovation, as part of an ongoing process of maintaining good practice and managing change.

Impact evaluation

The logic model of programme impact evaluation as described by Kellogg (2004); Taylor-Powell (2005) and NHS Health Scotland (2007) was used to define the outputs, outcomes and impact of the programme. A logic model views outputs, outcomes and impact as follows:

Outputs are the direct results of programme activities. They are usually described in terms of the size and/or scope of the services and products delivered or produced by the programme. They are the activities, services, events and products that reach people who participate or who are targeted. In the case of the programme under investigation this would include school development planning workshops, various training courses (e.g. leadership and management training, school development team training), school based support sessions.

Outcomes and ***impacts*** are defined as results or changes for individuals, groups, communities, organizations, communities, or systems. They include shorter term results of the programme such as specific changes in learning such as, awareness, attitudes, behaviours, knowledge, skills, status, or level of functioning (and are most often expressed at an individual level). Medium term results related to action such as changes in behaviour, practice, decision-making, policies and social action and long-term or ultimate impacts leading to changes in condition such as social, economic, civic and environmental. Thus ultimate impacts are organizational, community, and/or system level changes expected to result from program activities.

Applying this logic model of impact evaluation for the programme under investigation allows the researcher to explicate the level of outcomes to be investigated in the evaluation. Below are the programme outcomes and impacts (including short, medium and long term outcomes).

Short term outcomes included:

- Drawing up of a school development plan
- Skills development e.g. planning ability
- Setting up a School Development Team
- Principal Involved in School Development Planning
- Awareness of the school development plan and its role in school development
- Staff involvement in the development of, implementation of, and evaluation and monitoring of the school development plan
- Management's involvement in school development planning
- Involvement of other stakeholders in the school development planning process.

Medium terms outcomes included:

- Access to resources
- Shared decision making
- Enhanced sense of control and efficacy

- Collaborative working
- Democratic leadership
- Supportive relationships
- Participatory culture
- Involvement of the parent body, the School Governing Body and the broader community
- Develop the process of reflection and planning within the school community

Long term or ultimate impacts included:

- Improved outcomes for children at the school in terms of achievement. (Hopkins, West, Ainscow, Harris & Beresford, 1997). School development planning aims to improve the capacity of the school, particularly the quality of its teaching and learning (Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991, 1995).
- The school becoming a community resource (Schofield, 1999)

These three levels of outcomes or impacts correspond with the development of empowerment as described by Deacon, 1990; Ellsworth, 1989; Neath & Read, 1998; Serrano-Garcia, 1994; & Swift & Levine (1987) which include awareness, action and change in power relations.

This present study's focus was on a combination of shorter term and medium term outcomes and impacts. According to Humphris, Connell & Meyer (2004) there is no univocal agreement as to what constitutes long-term evaluation. However they suggest that these long term or ultimate impacts can only be measured 7 to 10 years after the programme. As some schools had only completed the programme and others had only had a year the focus could only be on short and medium term outcomes and impacts.

For the purpose of this evaluation these programme outcomes were framed in empowerment terms. This was done in two ways. The first was to operationalise definitions of how it would be evidenced in the individuals, the schools and the community they serve. These are by no means meant to be

universal definitions of empowerment at these levels as they relate to individuals, schools or communities.

Operational Definition of Individual Empowerment:
The goal of empowerment at this level is to increase feelings of self-efficacy and locus of control. This is most likely to occur in situations where people feel there is increased access to resources.

Operational Definition of Organisational Empowerment:
At the organisational level of analysis a distinction was made between empowering and empowered organisation (Zimmerman, 2000).

Empowering organisation:
The goal at this level is to create a participative work culture, collaborative work structures, shared decision making. This is likely to manifest in a school context as increased responsibility for school development among the whole staff.

Empowered Organisation:
As an empowered organisation the school is in control of its own development and is able to acquire the resources it requires and is having an impact on the broader educational community. In a school development planning context, this is likely to be found in situations where the school has actively implemented the school development plan and has achieved the goals set for itself (or is in a process of achieving).

Operational Definition of Community Empowerment:
The goal at this level is to have community stakeholders involved in collective action. In a school development context, this is likely to manifest in situations in which parents and members of the School Governing Body actively involved in school activities and enable the school to move towards its goals.

The empowerment literature emphasises that empowerment outcomes should be evident at various levels. In operationalising the study, a framework of

indicators/variables has been developed relating to these levels, as these relate to the aims of the particular programme being evaluated. As previously validated instruments are not available to measure all the constructs in this model, it has been necessary to use both previously validated measures as well as self-developed instruments. The outcomes were also operationalised through a variety of previously validated measures:

At the individual level as:

- Locus of Control, (Locus of Control Scale: Levenson, 1974)
- General Self-Efficacy (General Self-Efficacy Scale: Bosscher & Smit, 1998).
- Context Specific Efficacy (Teacher Efficacy Scale: Gibson & Dembo, 1984)

At the organisational level

- Teachers' perceptions of involvement in decision making (Participation and Decision Centralization Scale: Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins & Klesh,. 1979; Seashore, Seashore, Lawler, Mirvis & Camman, 1982)
- Teachers' perceptions of influence in the decision-making process (Psychological Participation Scale: Vroom, 1960)
- Teachers' perceptions of the opportunities for collaboration with other adults (both teachers and principal) in the school (Collaboration Scale: Chester & Beaudin, 1996)
- Teacher's perceptions of Leadership Style (Profile of Organisational Characteristics Scale: Bass, 1981)
- Teachers' perceptions of the principal's working relationship with his or her staff (Supervisory Leadership Scale: Taylor & Bowers, 1972)
- Teachers' perceptions of peer working relationships within the school (Peer Leadership Scale: Taylor & Bowers, 1972)

The above previously developed instruments relate to the framework of evaluation outcomes and to the empowerment framework offered by Zimmerman (2000). However as this study is being carried out in a new area and an attempt is being made to explore empowerment in a school

development setting there are no validated measure of school development as organisational empowerment. Thus there was a need for self-developed instruments. Within this study a measure of school development planning, the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale was developed in an attempt to assess this construct. This instrument has been based on the ways in which the school development and change process has been conceptualised and implemented in this particular school development programme. In this way the framework of indicators/variables developed relates both to the different levels theorised in the literature on empowerment, as well as the school development programme's implementation theory.

The primary focus of this study is on whether using a community psychology framework, particularly an empowerment one, helps to further understanding of school development. The focus of this study is thus on seeking evidence of empowerment in a school development setting. The way in which this aim has been realised has been through evaluation of a particular school development planning programme. The focus is on seeking evidence of empowerment outcomes in a school development setting, through a multi-method analysis.

Multi-method Research Design

A multi-method or mixed method design was adopted for this evaluation including the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods for data collection and data analysis. (Frechtling & Sharp, 1997). Rosenthal & Rosnow (1991) refer to this approach as "methodological pluralism". They argue that it is imperative to use more than one approach to gathering data given the limitations of any one particular strategy of inquiry, and justify its usage as a form of critical multiplism.

The assumption guiding this thesis is that a strong case can be made for using an approach that combines quantitative and qualitative elements in the evaluation of school development and empowerment programmes (Cook, 1985; Cook & Shadish, 1986; Frechtling & Sharp, 1997; Houts, Cook & Shadish, 1986; Patton, 1990; Shadish, 1986). By using different sources and

methods at various points in the evaluation process, the strength of each type of data collection can be built on and the weaknesses of any single approach minimized. A multi-method approach to evaluation can increase both the validity and reliability of evaluation data.

The range of possible benefits that mixed method designs can yield has been conceptualized by a number of evaluators (Greene, 2007; Greene, Caracelli & Graham, 1989; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007). The validity of results can be strengthened by using more than one method to study the same phenomenon. This approach - called triangulation - is most often mentioned as the main advantage of the multi- or mixed method approach (Denzin, 1978). Combining the two methods pays off in improved instrumentation for all data collection approaches and in sharpening the evaluator's understanding of findings. As Borkan (2004) says “This form of research is more than simply collecting both quantitative and qualitative data; it indicates that data will be integrated, related or mixed at some stage in the research process” (p. 4)

Triangulating or using multiple sources, measures, methods and/or approaches is primarily because multiple methods assess multiple realities rather than because information gleaned from one apparently more objective method necessarily validates information gleaned from another apparently more subjective one (Shinn, 1990). In this study equal weight has been accorded to measurement data, as to the self-reports of teachers and principals involved in this particular school development planning programme. The use of different data sources (various existing measures, a new measure, the self-reports of teachers and principals and externally verified data e.g. achievement of school development objectives) was necessary to provided indicators not only of empowerment, but also of school development planning outcomes.

McCormack, Kitson, Rycroft-Malone, Titchen, Seers (2002) point out that it is now widely accepted that evaluation should emphasise the use of qualitative data including practice narratives and leadership stories, and/or user

feedback. They and the Kellogg Foundation (2002) say that most commonly a multi-method approach is chosen, even though the majority of data is self-reported by the participants, this is considered a valid approach. The combination of multiple methods, empirical materials, perspectives and observers in a single study is therefore best understood as a strategy that adds rigour, breadth and depth to any investigation (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998).

Ex post facto Research Design

An ex post facto research design is an example of a descriptive non-experimental design, which can be used where the evaluator cannot select who is to be exposed to the programme, and to what degree (Lo-Biondo Wood & Haber, 1998). As such ex post facto designs are potentially weak for drawing conclusions concerning the effects of programmes (Potter, 2004). In order to deal with these weaknesses a multi-method design as described above was utilised, in which an ex post facto contrast group design was nested. Because of the weakness of the design it was necessary to collect data from various sources in order to provide any comment on the effectiveness of the programme.

The overall design relied on the use of multiple methods and the logic of triangulation between different sources of data, involving both quantitative measurement and qualitative evidence of different kinds. The qualitative data were used for interpretation of the quantitative results, as well as in their own right, to yield perspectives on what teachers experienced in the programme. This multi-method approach to the study allowed one to explore these various perspectives. In this way unintended consequences could be explored to provide a more thorough picture of the impact of the programme, issues of process and the reasons for success could be tapped and achievement of the specific aims of the programme could be assessed.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter it will be argued that community psychology's ecological perspective and contextualist epistemology, and more specifically its empowerment framework, provides a useful way of conceptualising school development as a process for empowerment at a variety of levels. More specifically it will make the case that it may be possible to conceptualise effective school development planning as a form of organisational empowerment. It will also be argued that in doing so it will be possible to explore these phenomena in context and to look at factors at the individual, organisational and community level that can facilitate or hinder the process of empowerment. At the individual level, focus will be on issues of locus of control, general self-efficacy and efficacy as a teacher. In terms of organisational level factors, attention will be focused on the role of participation and on leadership. At the community level issues of engagement of stakeholders will be explored.

2.2. COMMUNITY PSYCHOLOGY

Community psychology emerged from a field that was permeated by the paradigm of the ahistorical, acultural, ahistorical individual (Heller & Takemoto, 1984; Levine & Levine, 1970; Levine & Perkins, 1987; Sarason, 1981; Trickett, 1984; Trickett, Barone & Watts, 2000; Walsh, 1987) and in response to problems and issues within society. It attempted to deal with these social issues through programmes within the community. Its origins reflect, in a large part, a disagreement with these broader paradigm premises in psychology in general, and clinical psychology in particular (Fatimilehin & Dye, 2003; Orford, 1992; Pretorius-Heuchert & Ahmed, 2001; Swartz & Gibson, 2001). Psychology has been re-evaluating some of its assumptions and in doing so there has been a shift away from locating problems, particularly social problems, in individuals (e.g. blaming the victim, Ryan, 1971) towards more contextual or ecological understandings (Kelly, 1990; Linney, 1990, 2000, Perkins, Hughey & Speer, 2002; Rappaport, 1981; Speer

& Perkins, 2003; Swift, 1984; Trickett, 1984, 1994; Trickett, Watts & Birman, 1993; Zimmerman, 1990a).

While the concept of ecology has many meanings, its general intent is to focus on the community embeddedness of persons and the nature of communities themselves. The essence of the ecological perspective is to construct an understanding of the interrelationship of social structures and social process of the groups, organisations and communities in which we live and work. The concept of interdependence is the basic axiom of the ecological perspective (Kelly, 1966, 1970a&b, 1971, 1979; Kelly, Ryan, Altman & Stelzner, 2000). Designing change processes, creating new organisations and services or reducing the harmful impacts of environmental and societal factors requires a working sense of not only the current interdependencies of people and structures but also the potential of creating and facilitating new dependencies.

This perspective's focus on context casts a naturalist's eye on the school, the neighbourhood and the region in order to understand the varied ecologies within which persons develop and programmes are implemented. Trickett (1996) argues that a field that is intent on contexualising human behaviour across different levels of analysis is well served by a worldview and epistemology that provides both rationale and guidance for its intellectual journey. He, like many other community psychologists, argues that contextualism can best serve this purpose (Kelly, 1990; Linney, 2000, Rappaport, 1981, 1984, Swift, 1982). Rosnow & Georgoudi (1986) argue that central to the contextualist viewpoint is the conception of social reality as something active, ongoing and changing. The idea is that psychological knowledge is made concrete and is framed by relevant factors, relations, and conditions (the setting or context) within which, or among which, human acts and events unfold. Contextualism underscores the idea that human activity does not develop in a social vacuum, but rather it is rigorously situated within a socio-historical and cultural context of meanings and relationships.

Contexts may be conceptualised as varying in degrees of generality and specificity from macro-level (e.g. political and social institutions) to micro-level (e.g. contexts created in interpersonal exchange and communication) (Moos, 1996; O'Neill, 2000). Everyday life incidents, and the contexts they create, unfold within the wider socio-cultural and historical milieu in which they are embedded. An emphasis on the interrelationship and continuity between contexts is crucial in order to guard against reverting to a monistic position, either of an idealist nature (contexts are products of human intentionally) or a materialist nature (contexts determine the nature of activity) (Rosnow & Georgoudi, 1986). In this way macro-level contexts enter and become incorporated into the micro-level contexts of everyday life and everyday life practices may (in an intentional or unintentional manner) instigate change in the wider context within which they occur.

This framework is useful for understanding the issue of empowerment which itself is a complex, multilevel, dynamic phenomenon. It is also hoped that this framework, applied to empowerment within a school context, will help us understand the process of school development in a more holistic way. In order to understand a complex social process like school development a theoretical framework is needed to guide our thinking. Community psychology with its ecological perspective and contextualist epistemology offers a framework which allows us to understand behaviour in context, focusing on change at various levels within that context and taking into account the dialectical relationship between actors and context, as well as allowing us to attend to the varied social constructions of participants in those contexts (Kingry-Westergaard & Kelly, 1990; McGuire, 1983, 1986). This enables us to explore social processes in their settings and allow us to create interventions of local relevance. Within this perspective there is an acceptance that understanding a psychological event requires an appreciation of the meaning of the event to its participants and that these will vary (Altman, 1986, 1987; Altman & Rogoff, 1987).

Community psychologists are still struggling with the problem of how to incorporate issues of context and culture into the questions they ask, the

research strategies they pursue and the ways they design and carry out interventions. There is also a difficulty in taking a multi-level view of issues and to incorporate the dynamic quality of social phenomena. Empowerment is an area of study in community psychology where researchers have attempted to incorporate context more effectively and to accommodate multiple levels of analysis. These methodological issues in community psychology research will be explored in the next section. Before looking at the research methodology we need to explore the concept of empowerment and those variables associated with it.

2.3. EMPOWERMENT

Rappaport (1987) makes the case for empowerment as the subject of an ecological theory for the field of Community Psychology. He feels that, "whatever our area of study; children, adults, the elderly, organisations, neighbourhoods or social policies what hold these diverse efforts together is a concern for empowerment" (p. 129). Rappaport argues that each of the other candidates for phenomenon of interest tend to be person centred and developed within the traditions of the psychology of individual difference. They are often too narrow, and too biased in the direction of a person blame ideology.

2.3.1. DEFINING EMPOWERMENT

Empowerment is a difficult term to define. There is little clarity at this point on what we actually mean when we talk about empowerment (Perkins, 1995; Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995). Zimmerman (1995) points out there are a vast number of definitions of empowerment. Swift & Levin argued as early as 1987 that empowerment has no clearly operationalised or consensual definition in the mental health field and this is echoed by many recent authors working in organisational development (e.g. Foster-Fishman, Salem, Chibnall, Legler, & Yapchai, 1998), school and teacher development (e.g. Bartunek, Greenberg & Davidson, 1999) and those working in community development (e.g. Rich, Edelstein, Hallman & Wandersman, 1995).

Rappaport (1984) suggested that empowerment is easy to define in its absence – alienation, powerless, helpless – but difficult to define positively because "it takes on a different form in different people and contexts" (p. 2). Empowerment suggests a belief in the power of people to be both the masters of their own fate and involved in the life of their several communities. It is a process by which people, organisations and communities gain mastery over issues of concern to them whether those be events, outcomes or resources (Rappaport, 1987).

A definition by Rappaport (1984) accounts for the fact that empowerment may occur at multiple levels of analysis: "Empowerment is viewed as a process: the mechanism by which people, organizations and communities gain mastery over their lives" (p. 2). However it does not provide details about the process across levels of analysis. Eylon & Au (1999) adapting a definition of Swift & Levin's (1987) see empowerment as an enhancing and energising context-specific process that expands the feeling of trust and control in oneself as well as in one's colleagues and one's organisation, and which consequently leads to certain individual and organisational outcomes.

This definition emphasises that empowerment at the individual level of analysis is a process that expands an individual's power as opposed to merely a state of being. This process results from changes in contextual and relational variables. It also emphasises the growth of power and control at an interpersonal and an organisational level. What is common to these definitions is their suggestion that empowerment is a process in which efforts to exert control are central (Zimmerman, 2000). These definitions also suggest that participation with others to achieve goals, efforts to gain access to resources and some critical understanding of the socio-political environment are basic components of the construct (Zimmerman, 2000).

The reasons for this lack of clarity of the definition of the term empowerment seems to come from a variety of sources and it is vital that one is aware of these philosophical, ideological and practical issues when attempting to look at the notion of empowerment. Being based on a contextualist, ecological

approach empowerment has multiple forms and various levels of analysis; it is contextually embedded and has a dynamic nature. These assumptions of empowerment underlie the theoretical complexity of the term and we need to understand and explore these more fully.

Recent developments in empowerment theory have significantly advanced our understanding of the complexity of the construct of empowerment (Foster-Fishman, *et al*., 1998). Empowerment theorists and researchers have argued that empowerment assumes divergent forms and meanings across people, is contextually determined and changes over time (Rappaport, 1984; Zimmerman, 1995). Thus the desires for, pathways towards and manifestations of empowerment will vary significantly depending upon the populations we target, the setting we examine and the point of time we witness. In light of this no one generic set of empowerment behaviours or outcomes can be specified for a change initiative. However Rappaport (1995) says this may not be necessary:

> I do not think it is reasonable to expect the word 'empowerment' to be a talisman that magically separates the sheep from the goats. … As a practical matter, all that is required is that one declare, in any particular context, exactly what empowerment means … The rest of us can then decide for ourselves if we agree or find useful these definitions, values, and goals for the settings in which we work. Perhaps we will also learn to listen to the voices of the people with whom we work so as to allow them to tell us what it means to be empowered in their particular context.
>
> (p. 798-99)

Although many empowerment researchers acknowledge these assumptions, little attention has been given to the impact they have on our capacity to understand and elicit this complex phenomenon.

2.3.2. EMPOWERMENT'S MULTIPLE FORMS

Empowerment theory assumes that empowerment takes on different forms for different people. While the multifaceted nature of empowerment has been well represented in the literature through the investigation of context-specific questions (e.g. Fawcett, Paine-Andrews, Francisco, Schultz, Richter, Lewis, *et al*., 1995; Gruber & Trickett, 1987; Kroeker, 1995; Prestby, Wandersman, Florin, Rich & Chavis, 1990; Rich *et al*., 1995; Serrano-Garcia, 1984), the range of empowerment experiences within a particular setting has not been

fully explored. Although, within a given context, setting members may be working towards a common goal, these individuals have unique histories, assume different roles and often represent different constituencies (Martin, 1992).

It has been argued that these social and historical characteristics shape individual desire for empowerment (Zimmerman, 1995). Personal history emerges from the intersection of demographic characteristics and social opportunities (Hill Collins, 1986) and because of this individuals with different racial, gender, ethnic, class and social backgrounds may desire different forms of empowerment. These desires are also shaped by previous experiences with empowerment. Bartunek and colleagues (Bartunek, Foster-Fishman & Keys, 1993; Bartunek, Lacey & Wood, 1992) found that individuals who had no previous empowerment experiences within a specific context assigned different meanings than individuals who had more experience. For example, newcomers to a participatory decision-making process were more likely to define a directive leader as empowering while those more experienced in this process needed real influence over decisions to feel empowered (Bartunek *et al*., 1992).

2.3.3. EMPOWERMENT'S DIFFERENT LEVELS OF ANALYSIS

The second assumption is that empowerment differs across levels of analysis (Hughes 1987; Speer & Hughey, 1995; Zimmerman, 1990a; 2000). Rappaport (1987) asserts, "Empowerment is not only an individual psychological construct, it is also organisational, political, sociological, economic and spiritual" (p. 129). Zimmerman (1995; 2000) has provided one of the most widely used distinctions between the different levels of empowerment. He argues that a thorough development of empowerment theory requires exploration and description at multiple levels of analysis. The following is based on Zimmerman's (1995; 2000) descriptions of empowerment at the individual or psychological level as well as the organisational and the community levels.

2.3.3.1. The Individual Level of Analysis

Empowerment at the individual level of analysis is a process by which individuals gain mastery and control over their lives and a critical understanding of their environment (Berger & Neuhaus, 1977; Kieffer, 1984; Rappaport, 1984, 1987; Swift & Levin, 1987; Zimmerman 1990a; Zimmerman, Israel, Schulz & Checkoway, 1992). Zimmerman and colleagues (Zimmerman, 1995; Zimmerman *et al*., 1992; Zimmerman & Rappaport, 1988; Zimmerman & Zahniser, 1991) describe this level of empowerment as psychological empowerment. Building on the ideas of enlightenment and emancipation, critical theory and class consciousness (Deacon, 1990; Ellsworth, 1989; Neath & Read, 1998; Serrano-Garcia, 1984; Swift & Levin, 1987) Zimmerman and colleagues argue that in the most general case psychological empowerment may be conceptualised to include intrapersonal, interactional and behavioural components (see Figure 1).

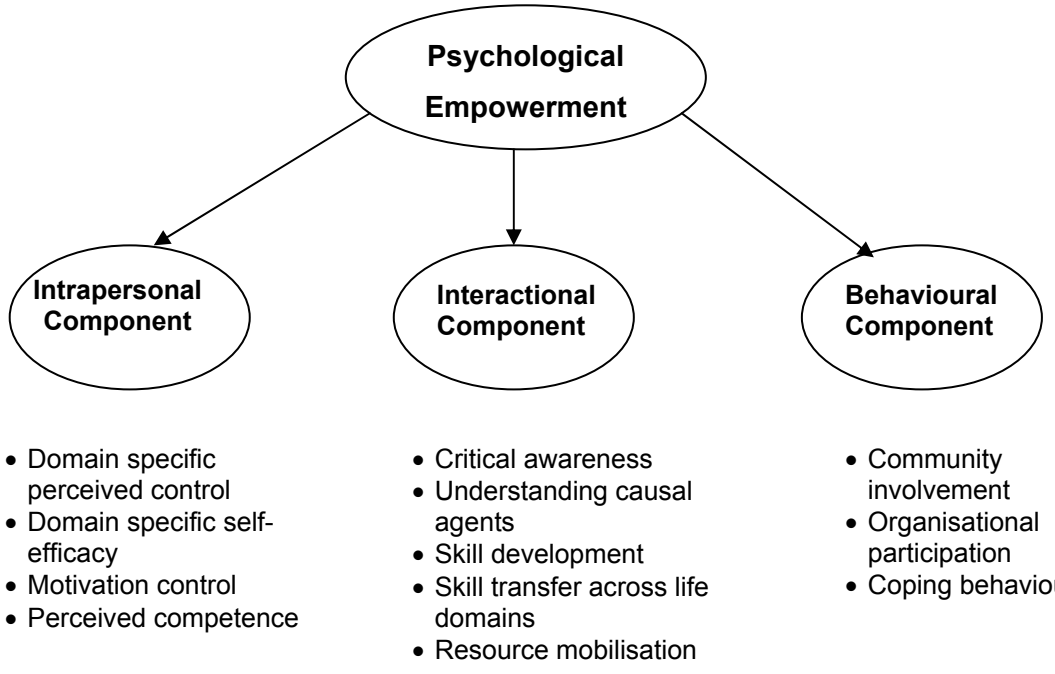


Figure 1: Nomological Network for Psychological Empowerment

(from Zimmerman, 1995)

The intrapersonal component refers to how people think about their capacity to influence social and political systems important to them (Peterson, Lowe, Hughey, Reid, Zimmerman, & Speer, 2006). It is a self-perception that

includes domain specific perceived control (Paulhaus, 1983), self-efficacy, motivation to exert control over community problems and perceived competence. It may also include perceptions about the difficulty associated with trying to exert control over community problems. This perceived difficulty may refer to beliefs about one's own capacity to influence social and political systems or to beliefs about people in general (Zimmerman & Rappaport, 1988).

The interactional component refers to the transactions between persons and environments that enable one to successfully master social or political systems. It includes knowledge about the resources needed to achieve goals (McCarthy & Zald, 1978), understanding causal agents (Sue and Zane, 1980), a critical awareness of one's environment (Freire, 1970; Kieffer, 1984) and the development of decision-making and problem solving skills necessary to engage in one's environment. Zimmerman (1995) suggests that the interactional component may be essential to the construct of psychological empowerment because it connects self-perceptions about control (intrapersonal component) with what one does to exert influence (behavioural component).

The behavioural component of psychological empowerment refers to the specific actions one takes to exercise influence on the social and political environment through activities such as participation. These three components merge to form a picture of a person who believes that he or she has the ability to influence a given context (intrapersonal component) understands how the system works in that context (interactional component) and engages in behaviours to exert control in the context (behavioural component).

Several studies (Kieffer, 1984; Speer, 2000; Zimmerman & Rappaport, 1988) support the idea that psychological empowerment includes personal control, a sense of competence, a critical awareness of the socio-political environment and participation in community organisations and activities, thus suggesting that psychological empowerment includes intrapersonal, interactional and behavioural components.

There is evidence for positive correlations between locus of control and self-efficacy (Biggs, 1987; Harter, 1981; Landine & Stewart, 1998; Njus & Brockway, 1999; Schnieder, Borkowski, Kurtz & Kerwin, 1986; Wallston, 1992) and that these variables are related to a person's propensity and willingness to engage in activities, their achievements and their willingness to engage in change processes (Carns & Carns, 1991; Griffeth & Hom, 1988; Harter, 1981; Jalajas & Bommer, 1999; Johnson, 1979; Judge, Bono & Locke, 2000; Sandler & Lakey, 1982; Schnieder *et al.,* 1986; Solberg, Brown, Good, Fischer & Nord, 1995; Stajovic & Luthans, 1998). It is for this reason that they have been argued to be dimensions of psychological empowerment.

Zimmerman and colleagues (Zimmerman, 1989; Zimmerman & Rappaport, 1988; Zimmerman & Zahniser, 1991) argue that these areas of perceived control, when combined and evidenced in action, represent psychological empowerment. They argue that a sense of personal control (i.e. locus of control) when combined with the confidence that action might be successful (i.e. self-efficacy) will compel people into action. Bandura, as early as 1977, asserted that merely exploring locus of control was not sufficient, that it was also crucial to examine the perceived efficacy people feel about their abilities to affect changes in their lives. Results from several studies clearly indicate the importance of examining not only perceived locus of control but also perceived efficacy or competence beliefs that individuals maintain (Armitage & Conner, 1999; Njus & Brockway, 1999; Wallston, 1992). These studies support the notion that in order for behavioural action to occur individuals need both a personal internal sense of control and a confidence in their ability to carry out the behaviour. An empowered individual has been characterised as reporting personal competence, control and willingness, and desire to exert control in one's life (Kieffer, 1984; Zimmerman & Rappaport, 1988).

Although empowerment has been seen as a useful concept for community psychology the development of measures specifically related to empowerment has been difficult. Zimmerman & Rappaport (1988) report that, while no single measure of empowerment is available, several scales exist that assess what may be thought of as different aspects of psychological empowerment

(Zimmerman & Rappaport, 1988). For example personality aspects of perceived control have been operationalised as locus of control (Levenson, 1973a, b, 1974; Rotter, 1966, 1971) and cognitive aspects of control are reflected in self-efficacy theory and research (Bandura, 1977, 1992).

Zimmerman and colleagues developed measures using a combination of perceived control measures (general self-efficacy and locus of control) in order to look at psychological empowerment. This addresses two of the three dimensions of psychological empowerment. The interactional component has not received much attention. In the workplace literature a measure of psychological empowerment composed of four cognitions (meaning, competence, self-determination and impact) has been developed and refined (Boudrias, Gaudreau & Laschinger, 2004; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Spreitzer, 1995a, b, 1996; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

A significant barrier to studying psychological empowerment is the development of appropriate measures. However as has already been said the development of a universal global measure of psychological empowerment may not be feasible or conceptually sound, given that the specific meaning of the construct is context and population specific. This suggests that measures of psychological empowerment need to be developed for the specific population one is working with. Similarly, measures of psychological empowerment in one life domain may not be appropriate to other settings of an individual's life (Peterson & Zimmerman, 2004).

2.3.3.2. The Organisational Level of Analysis

When looking at the organisational level of empowerment Zimmerman (2000) argues that a distinction must be made between what the organisation provides to members and what the organisation achieves in the community. Organisations that provide opportunities for people to gain control over their lives are empowering organisations. Organisations that successfully develop, influence policy decisions or offer effective alternatives for service provision are empowered organisations. Although a distinction is made, organisations may have both characteristics.

An empowering organisation may have little impact on policy, but may provide members with opportunities to develop skills and a sense of control. Organisations with shared responsibilities, a supportive atmosphere and social activities are expected to be more empowering than hierarchical organisations (Maton & Rappaport, 1984; Prestby *et al*., 1990). Several investigators suggest that formal organisational practices may play a central role in empowering members (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Klein, Ralls, Smith-Major & Douglass, 2000). Maton & Salem (1995) examined three community organisations to identify common empowering themes. They described four vital characteristics of an empowering organisation: (1) a culture of growth and community building; (2) opportunities for members to take on meaningful and multiple roles (3) a peer based support system that help members develop a social identity and (4) shared leadership and commitment to both members and the organisation.

Empowered organisations are those that successfully thrive among competitors, meet their goals and develop in ways that enhance their effectiveness (Zimmerman, 2000). Empowered organisations may or may not provide opportunities for members to develop a sense of empowerment but they do become key brokers in the policy decision making process. Empowered organisations may extend their influence to wider geographical areas and more diverse audiences. They are also expected to effectively mobilise resources such as money, facilities and members. One way to efficiently compete for limited resources is to connect with other organisations to share information and resources, and to create a strong support base.

2.3.3.3. The Community Level of Analysis

At the community level of analysis empowerment may refer to collective action to improve the quality of life in a community and to the connections among community organisations and agencies (Zimmerman, 2000). An empowered community is one that initiates efforts to improve the community, responds to threats to quality of life and provides opportunities for citizens to participate. Iscoe (1974) identifies a community in which its citizens have the skills, desire and resources to engage in activities to improve community life as a

competent community. Cottrell (1983) describes a competent community by the extent to which interdependent components of a community work together to effectively identify community needs, develop strategies to address needs and perform actions to meet those needs. Minkler (1990) suggests that shared leadership and its development are critical to developing empowered communities.

The structure and relationship among community organisations and agencies also helps to define the extent to which a community is empowered. An empowered community is expected to comprise well-connected organisations (i.e. coalitions) that are both empowered and empowering. An empowering community would include accessible resources for all community residents. Empowering processes in a community also include an open governmental system that takes citizens' attitudes and concerns seriously and includes strong leadership that seeks advice and help from community members (Peterson & Zimmerman, 2004).

2.3.3.4. The Dialectical Relationship Between Levels

Each level of analysis, though described separately, is inherently connected to the others. Individual, organisational and community empowerment are interdependent and are both a cause, and consequence, of each other. The extent to which elements of one level of analysis are empowered is directly related to the empowering potential of other levels of analysis. Similarly empowering processes at one level of analysis contribute to empowered outcomes at other levels of analysis. Zimmerman (2000) says that empowered persons are the basis for developing responsible and participatory organisations and communities, and that it is difficult to imagine an empowered community or organisation devoid of empowered individuals.

However recent research indicates that we should not assume that change in one level of analysis necessarily means there will be a concomitant change in another level; for example putting participatory decision-making structures in place within an organisation (making the organisation more empowering) does not necessarily mean that there will be more participation from the

members of the organisation (individual level of analysis) (Campbell & Martiniko, 1998; Chavis & Wandersman, 1990; Gruber & Trickett, 1987; Hardy & Leiba-O'Sullivan, 1998; Liden, Wayne & Sparrowe, 2000; Soet, Dudley & Dilorio, 1999; Speer & Hughey, 1995). For example, Soet *et al*. (1999) found that changes in intrapersonal empowerment were not sufficient to bring about behavioural change, as interpersonal factors play a greater role in whether a person initiated changes in their safer sex behaviours than intrapersonal factors such as self-efficacy.

Gruber & Trickett (1987) take the point even further pointing out that empowering organisational structures may also work to undermine the act of empowerment if members do not share real decision making power. Several authors (Giffin, 1998; Koberg, Boss, Senjem & Goodman 1999; Liden *et al*., 2000; Serrano-Garcia, 1984; Speer & Hughey, 1995) stress a reciprocal or dialectical process between empowerment at the different levels of analysis. Therefore efforts to understand empowering processes and outcomes are not complete unless multiple levels of analysis are studied and integrated and one takes cognisance of the dialectical relationships between the levels.

2.3.4. EMPOWERMENT AS A PROCESS AND AN OUTCOME

The third assumption makes a distinction between empowering processes and empowering outcomes (Swift & Levin, 1987; Zimmerman, 2000). Empowering processes are ones in which attempts to gain control, obtain needed resources and critically understand one's social environment are fundamental (Zimmerman, 2000). The process is empowering if it helps people develop skills so they can become independent problem solvers and decision makers.

Empowerment outcomes refer to operationalisations of empowerment so we can study the consequences of people's attempts to gain greater control in their community, or the effects of interventions designed to empower participants (Zimmerman, 2000). Empowering processes and outcomes vary across levels of analysis (see Table 1 over the page for a comparison of empowering processes and empowered outcomes across levels of analysis).

Table 1: A Comparison between Empowering Processes and Empowered Outcomes across Levels of Analysis

Levels of Analysis	Process (empowering)	Outcome (empowered)
Individual	Learning decision making skills	Sense of control
	Managing resources	Critical awareness
	Working with others	Participatory behaviours
Organisational	Opportunities to participate in decision making	Effectively compete for resources
	Shared responsibilities	Networking with other organisations
	Shared leadership	Policy influence
Community	Access to resources	Organisational coalitions
	Open government structure	Pluralistic leadership
	Tolerance of diversity	Residents participatory skills

(from Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995)

2.3.5. THE DYNAMIC NATURE OF EMPOWERMENT

The fourth assumption concerns empowerment's dynamic nature. An essential aspect of any theory development is the recognition of the time and space constraints of a phenomenon (Altman, 1996; Whetten, 1989). Contexts continually shape themselves; they are dynamic and, at times, fluctuating in their character (Gergen, 1985). As a contextually embedded construct, empowerment is particularly prone to fluctuations over time. Empowerment at all levels of analysis can have different intensities that can change over time.

This suggests that every individual has the potential to experience empowering and disempowering processes and to develop a sense of empowerment at one time and a sense of disempowerment at another. It also suggests that people may become more empowered over time. When the context of empowerment changes over time so too may the indicators of empowered outcomes in the context. Empowerment should not be seen as an absolute threshold that once reached can be labelled as empowerment (Ackerson & Harrison, 2000; Barksdale, & Thomas, 1996; Campbell & Martinko, 1998; Lightfoot, 1986).

2.3.6. THE CONTEXTUAL EMBEDDEDNESS OF EMPOWERMENT

The fifth assumption emphasises the contextual embeddedness of empowerment. Empowerment embodies an interaction between individuals and environments that is culturally and contextually defined (Rappaport, 1987;

Serrano-Garcia & Bond, 1994; Speer, 2000; Trickett, 1984, 1994). Consequently empowerment will look different in its manifest content for different people, organisations and settings. In other words, it takes on different forms for different people, in different contexts, at different time. This contextual emphasis also suggests that psychological empowerment may vary across different life domains (e.g. work, family, recreation). A high level of empowerment might be expected among individuals who can generalise skills across life domains, but some individuals may also experience psychological empowerment in one life domain even if they have been less successful in transferring skills to other life domains (Zimmerman, 1995).

Empowerment researchers have begun to explore the importance of context in understanding empowerment's processes and outcomes. The unique forms empowerment takes in community coalitions (McMillan, Florin, Stevenson, Kerman & Mitchell, 1995), community organisations (Rich *et al*., 1995; Serrano-Garcia, 1984), neighbourhood association (Prestby *et al*., 1990), corporate work settings (Spreitzer, 1996) and human service delivery systems (Foster-Fishman & Keys, 1997) have been explored and documented. The specific characteristics that facilitate empowerment within these settings have also been considered (e.g. Prestby *et al*., 1990; Spreitzer, 1995a). This work has significantly advanced our understanding of the multiple contingencies of empowerment and has emphasised the importance of attending to the unique forms empowerment takes within any given context.

Swift & Levin (1987) point out that an empowerment approach needs to consider environmental factors that may facilitate or hinder the development of psychological empowerment. The focus of both empowerment theory and practice is to understand and strengthen processes and context where individuals gain mastery over decisions that affect their lives. Several models of empowerment (Fawcett, White, Balcazar, Suarez-Balcazar, Mathews, Paine-Andrews, *et al.*, 1994) and school development (Stoll, 1999) that attempt to link different levels of analysis within a contextual framework have been advanced. These models allow us to take a more complex look at the different variables, many of which are modifiable, that can impact on the

empowerment process. They provide a framework to look at the variety of contexts and patterns in which the empowerment process occurs or does not. However most of these models focus on the development of psychological empowerment. Two recurring themes, in the workplace, community and school research, in terms of contextual factors that support or hinder the development of empowerment are the areas of participation and leadership.

2.3.7. PARTICIPATION AND EMPOWERMENT

A review of the literature on participation indicates that this, like empowerment, is a complex, multi-level concept that will vary in type and intensity and will change over time (Robertson & Minkler, 1994). Neumann, (1989) and Pasmore & Fagans (1992), in their work on organisational change, argue that level of participation, not simply a dichotomous measure of participation or non-participation, is important. Few researchers have formally studied the potential impact that differing levels of participation might have on the outcomes of organisational change initiatives. In a study by Bartunek *et al*. (1999) it was found that the level of participation in the change initiative had a significant positive relationship on ratings of its impact on the individual and on behavioural change.

Nurick (1985) argued that there are multiple types, not only levels of participation and that to assume that different levels of participation reflect a linear scale is not always useful. In a similar way the results of Bartunek *et al*. (1999) suggest that if researchers simply assume that more participation is better they are likely to miss important dimensions of the participation experience. Several authors (e.g. Bartunek *et al*., 1999; Le Bosse, Lavalle, Lacerte, Dube, Nadeau, Porcher, & Vandette, 1998/9; Speer, 2000; Speer & Zippay, 2005) have distinguished between active and passive participation as they have a different impact on the individual's behaviour and outcomes. Not only are there multiple levels and types of participation but these levels and types will change over time (Florin & Wandersman, 1984) and different levels and forms may combine in different ways to form a variety of different types of participation (Klein, *et al*., 1999). Studies have also shown that different

levels and types of participation are needed at different phases within the life of a group or organisation (Florin & Wandersman, 1990; Klein *et al*., 2000).

Theoretical inferences of a direct link between community participation and psychological empowerment are suggested by many researchers (Berger & Neuhaus, 1977; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Gruber & Trickett, 1987; Kieffer, 1984; Klein *et al*., 2000; Rappaport, 1987; Wandersman & Florin, 1990; Zimmerman & Rappaport, 1988). Researchers have found a link between participation (in its various definitions) and empowerment in the workplace (Herronkohl, Judson & Heffner, 1999; Koberg *et al*., 1999; Menon, 1999; Tjosvold & Law, 1998); the community (LeBosse *et al*., 1998/9; Perkins, Brown, & Taylor, 1996; Perkins, Florin, Rich, Wandersman, & Chavis, 1990; Price, 1990; Peterson & Reid, 2003; Speer, 2000); and the school (Bartunek, *et al*., 1999; Klecker & Loadman, 1998; Royal & Rossi, 1996).

Despite the heterogeneity of participation measures used, many studies give empirical support to the empowering participation hypothesis (Berkowitz, 2000; Carr, Dixon, & Ogles, 1976; Prestby *et al*., 1990; Rissel, Perry, Wagenaar, Woolfson, Finnegan, & Komro, 1996; Wandersman, & Giamartino, 1980; Wandersman, & Florin, 2000; Zimmerman, 1990b). Locus of control and self-efficacy have been linked to participation (Abramowitz, 1974; Bandura, 1993; Busch, 1998; Levenson, 1974; McKinney, Sexton & Meyerson, 1999; Phares, 1978; Sandler & Lakey, 1982). Organisational cultures reflecting participation, collaboration and co-operation have also been linked to empowerment (Bond & Keys, 1993; Foster-Fishman & Keys, 1997; Spreitzer, 1995; Tjosvold & Law, 1998).

In the community psychology literature, participation is frequently pointed out as empirical evidence of psychological empowerment (Le Bosse *et al*., 1998/9). Zimmerman & Rappaport (1988) state that: “Participation may be an important mechanism for the development of psychological empowerment because participants can gain experience organising people, identifying resources, and developing strategies for achieving goals" (p.727). Perkins & Zimmerman (1995), referring to empowerment, proposed that “participation

with others to achieve goals, efforts to gain access to resources and some critical understandings of the socio-political environment are basic components of the construct" (p.571). Elaborating further, they suggest that at the organisational level of analysis, "empowerment includes organisational processes and structure that enhance member participation and improve goal achievement for the organisation" (p. 571).

Implicit in all these definitions of empowerment is the assumption that an individual's active participation in decision-making within the major organisations that substantively influence his or her daily life will engender both an increase in the individual's sense of personal power and effectiveness and an increase in the organisations' abilities to meet the individuals needs. Thus Zimmerman (1995) argues that participation can be viewed as an integral component or important behavioural exemplar of individual empowerment (Zimmerman, 1995).

Rich *et al*. (1995) argue slightly differently that participation is one process that may lead to empowerment. They argue that participation in decision-making can be empowering or disempowering, depending on the nature and outcome of the experience. Thus participation is a process or context from which empowerment may arise (Edelstein & Wandersman, 1987). Le Bosse *et al*. (1998/9) point out that although it seems clear that there is a relationship between the two concepts, as yet little is known about the mechanism which governs the relationship (McMillan, *et al*., 1995).

As discussed above the literature suggests that 'participation' is not related to a single but a complex and multivariate reality (Robertson & Minkler, 1994) and depending on which aspect is examined will have a different effect on psychological empowerment. Robertson & Minkler (1994), like Rich *et al*. (1995), point out that some aspects could even have a disempowering effect. Recent theoretical and empirical studies suggest that community participation becomes an empowering activity when it involves personal contribution to the collective action (Bartunek *et al*., 1999; Le Bosse *et al*., 1998/9). Moreover, community participation, which implies a form of critical consciousness

development, appears to be more effective at improving psychological empowerment.

Perkins (1995) argues that it may be more accurate to think of participation as a cause and effect of empowerment. In either case, the two concepts are closely linked at all levels, from individual to organisational and community. He argues that focusing on citizen participation as a form of empowerment is valuable in research and intervention for three reasons:

(1) As a behaviour, participation can more directly, and therefore reliably, be measured than intrapsychic dimensions of empowerment;
(2) Participation forces psychologists to consider empowerment at various levels of analysis (individual, organisational and community);
(3) A focus on participation highlights the need to understand how those factors affect and are affected by empowerment.

From the above discussion we can conclude that there is evidence to suggest a strong link between empowerment and participation, whether it is seen as a cause of, an effect of, or a form of empowerment (e.g. Berkowitz, 2000; Le Bosse *et al*., 1998/9; Perkins, 1995). However it is clear that further empirical work is needed before the specific contribution of any participation component is to be established.

2.3.8. LEADERSHIP AND EMPOWERMENT

Like empowerment and participation the concept of leadership too is a multi-faceted, contextual and complex one, with definitions abounding. Bass (1981) gives various descriptions of the concept of “leadership”. For instance it can be seen as a personal property, as the art of inducing obedience, as a way of convincing people or of exercising influence, as the result of interaction, as a role differential in group processes or as a form of structuring. The field of leadership research in general, and school leadership in particular, seems to reflect the confusion already manifest in reality (Andriessen & Drenth, 1998; DeCoux & Holdaway, 1999; Hall & Southworth, 1997).

Much research into leadership in both the workplace and schools has been focused on the leader, attempting to explain individual, group or organisational performance outcomes by analysing specific leader behaviours and linking them to those outcomes (Atwater, Dionne, Avolio, Camobreco & Lau, 1999; Giella, 1987; Goertz, 2000; Konovsky & Organ, 1996; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Pratch & Jacobwitz, 1998; Revenson & Cassel, 1991; Sosik & Godschalk, 2000). Andriessen & Drenth (1998) and Bass (1981) point out that it has been impossible to find a single set of characteristics that enables clear and reliable distinction to be drawn between good and bad leaders or for that matter between leaders and followers.

In light of this many writers on leadership have begun looking at the issue of leadership style (Awamleh, & Gardner, 1999; Cant & Bateman, 2000; Deluga, 1995; Diggins, 1997; Leithwood & Jantaz, 1999; Wolverton, 1998). A consistent theme in this research has been on the importance of the bond created between leader and followers. The focus on the bond between leader and member has led to an interest in the interpersonal or relational aspects of leadership (Deluga, 1994; Howell & Merenda, 1999; Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997). Leader focused research implicitly assumes a relationship of some sort between leader and follower and that this implied relationship is fundamental to the link between leader behaviour and follower responses.

Several researchers on leadership are placing more and more importance on the relationship between the leader and follower in understanding organisational and leadership issues (Couto, 2000; Kemp, 1998; Knutson & Miranda, 2000; Settoon, Bennett & Liden, 1996; Sondak, 1998). As Murphy (1988) has pointed out, associating leadership with a person rather than an interaction between leader and followers has led research findings to sideline the influence of followers on leaders and of the context. If we take this interaction into account we begin to have a view of leadership that is more complex and contextual (April & Macdonald, 1998; Connelly, Gilbert, Zaccaro, Threfall, Marks & Mumford, 2000; Mumford, Zaccaro, Johnson, Diana, Gilbert & Threfall, 2000).

Several writers have argued that leadership may need to be viewed contextually (Fidler, 1997; Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Brommer, 1996). In a similar vein more recent writers have begun to argue that different organisations may require different types of leadership and that different forms of leadership may be more appropriate at different phases of change programmes (Andriessen & Drenth, 1998; Connelly, *et al*., 2000; de Vries, Roe & Taillieu, 1998; Wolverton, 1998). Podsakoff, *et al*. (1996) argue that studies out of context do not provide many insights into leadership. What is appropriate leadership at a particular point in time depends on: the context and its pre-history; the nature of followers; the particular issues involved; in addition to the predisposition of the leader. Thus although a leader may have a preferred leadership style this may need to be varied according to circumstance.

Andriessen & Drenth (1998) argue that a more differentiated view of leadership is required. This view holds that leadership plays only a limited role in motivating people, that leader and individual group members influence each together in a process of continuous mutual interaction and that leadership itself is just one element in a complex set of organisational processes.

Andriessen & Drenth (1998) point out that each of the perspectives offered above contain elements that are valuable. Fidler (1997) argues that no one theory or approach can subsume the complexities of leadership and indeed that a search for such all-encompassing theory may be illusory. It is therefore a matter of choosing one or more conceptualisations of leadership which appear appropriate in order to understand a particular situation, and using these to formulate actions. The choice of conceptualisation will depend on the situation and on the purpose for which understanding is being sought.
Fidler (1997) adds:

> Establishing a framework for studying leadership is an important stepping-stone but the extent of the remaining steps to greater understanding of the artistry of leadership may be gained from the analogy offered by Krug (1992) who points out that composers use the same 12 tone scale but the music produced can be very different. The

> results produced by leaders using the same actions in different combinations and ways may be equally variable. (p. 35)

Leadership qualities such as encouraging, supporting and approachability have been reported to play an important role in developing empowerment (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Koberg *et al*., 1999; Kraimer, Seibert & Liden, 1999; Liden, *et al*., 2000). Leadership styles such as participative; democratic and transformational leadership have all been linked to empowerment in the workplace (Bolin, 1989; Fuller, Morrison, Jones, Bridger & Brown, 1999; Tjosvold & Law, 1998); in the community (Bond & Keys, 1993; Saegert & Winkel, 1995) and in schools (Lightfoot, 1986; Stimson & Appelbaum, 1988). Similar results, linking locus of control and self-efficacy to leadership (Chemers, Watson & May, 2000; Hoffi-Hofsteter & Mannheim, 1999; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Judge, Thoresen, Pucik & Welbourne, 1999; Valentine, 1999; Weiss, 1996) have been found. Several writers (Ballentine & Nunns, 1998; Mathieu, Martineau & Tannenbaum, 1993; Relich, Debus & Walker, 1986) argue that leadership qualities and styles moderate the relationship between these personal control and competence beliefs and performance.

What can be concluded is that leadership is a complex issue and that no global, agreed upon definition of leadership exists (Andriessen & Drenth, 1998). It is also clear that leadership needs to be seen in context; that is, we need to take a situational view of leadership rather than trying to understand it outside of the context of the area of study (Podsakoff *et al*., 1996). It is therefore pragmatic to take Fidler's (1997) advice and choose one or more conceptualisations of leadership which appear appropriate in order to understand a particular situation. It is also clear from this brief review of the leadership literature that leadership does not reside within an individual and that we need to examine the relationship between leader and follower. Taking these issues into account it is important for us to begin to clarify what types of leadership and leader member relationships, within which contexts, can promote feelings of psychological empowerment as well as organisational empowerment.

2.3.9. LEADERSHIP, PARTICIPATION AND EMPOWERMENT

Several authors have suggested a link between levels of participation (and thus empowerment) and the role of the leader (Driscoll, 1978; Prestby, *et al*., 1990; Pretorius, 1993; White, 1979). Prestby *et al*. (1993) argue that this link is important, as we may be able to find strategies for increasing individual participation and thereby individual empowerment. They argue that leaders can promote individual participation, and thereby individual empowerment, through incentive management and cost management efforts. Several authors have found a link between participation in decision making and employees' perceptions of supervisor support (Driscoll, 1978; Pretorius, 1993; VanYperen, van den Berg & Willerig, 1999). Van Yperen *et al*. (1999) argue that participation in decision making is associated with perceived support from the supervisor, probably because the opportunity to participate in decision making implies respect for the rights of individual employees and a full-status relationship with the immediate supervisor.

Leadership, participation and empowerment are thus closely linked. Leaders can play an important role in developing participative and collaborative environments within their organisations and thus play a crucial role in developing the empowerment of their staff as well as making the organisation a more empowering place to work in. Exploration of the types of leadership and leadership-staff interactions that would be most conducive to developing empowered staff and organisations is needed.

2.4. RESEARCH ON EMPOWERMENT

As the previous section outlines empowerment is a complex, multi-dimensional, multi-level and dynamic concept. Just as the definitions of empowerment are varied so too is the research on empowerment. A review of the literature on empowerment reveals research in a wide range of contexts (Bartunek, *et al*., 1999; Dickerson, 1998; Klecker & Loadman, 1998; Westphal, 2003), set in a variety of content areas (Beeker, Guenther-Grey & Raj, 1998; Giffin, 1998; Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998); in a variety of populations (Barksdale & Thomas, 1996; Hassin & Young, 1999; Peled, Eisikovits, Enosh

& Winstok, 2000; Schindler, 1999), using a wide range of levels of analysis (intrapersonal, psychological, organisational and community) and a range of different research methods, for example: quantitative (Spreitzer, De Janasz & Quinn, 1999); qualitative (Foster-Fishman, *et al*., 1998); and multi-method (Campbell & Martinko, 1998). Several measures of empowerment in the workplace (Herronkohl, *et al*., 1999; Leslie, Kolzhalb & Holland, 1998; Menon, 1999; Spreitzer 1995b), in schools (Klecker & Loadman, 1998) and community contexts (Speer & Peterson, 2000) have been developed.

Although there has been much research on the concept of empowerment it is open to much criticism in that it has often failed to capture the complexity of the concept it is exploring. For the purposes of this research study we will focus on the research related to empowerment in the workplace, the school and the community.

2.4.1. EMPOWERMENT IN THE WORKPLACE

While earlier research in the workplace conceptualised empowerment as a set of management practices focused on delegating decision-making authority, recent research has provided the conceptual base for a more psychological definition of empowerment in the workplace (Spreitzer *et al*., 1999). The two main thrusts of research in the organisational setting or workplace has focused around developing and refining the intrapersonal component of psychological empowerment (Boudrias, *et al*, 2004; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Menon, 1999; Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998; Spreitzer, 1995a, b; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990) and looking at the preconditions and outcomes or consequences of empowerment (Corsun & Enz, 1999; Fuller, *et al*., 1999; Kizilos, 1990; Koberg, Boss, Senjem & Goodman, 1999; Liden, *et al*, 2000;). Almost all of the research on empowerment in the workplace has focused on empowerment as an intrapsychic cognitive or motivational state.

2.4.2. TEACHER AND SCHOOL EMPOWERMENT

Very little research has been done on teacher empowerment or empowerment of the school at an organisational level even though the literature on school

development calls constantly for the empowerment of teachers (Garrison, 1988; Stone, 1995; Yonemura, 1986). School development literature also emphasises the importance of viewing school development at an organisational or community level rather than at the individual or teacher level (Klecker & Loadman, 1998; Lightfoot, 1986). However empowerment research in the school has predominantly focused on the teacher or on the leadership. Teacher empowerment is described in much of the educational literature as a multidimensional construct that is often used to define "new roles" for classroom teachers. Many researchers identify the construct as essential to the success of school restructuring effort (Fullan, 1993; Giffin, 1991; Sarason, 1997).

2.4.3. CRITICISMS OF WORKPLACE AND TEACHER/SCHOOL EMPOWERMENT RESEARCH

Several criticisms can be levelled at empowerment research in the work place and the school:

(a) Very little of the research is theoretically linked. There has been little attempt to genuinely develop ideas of others by many of the writers in the field other than Spreitzer (1995a, 1995b, 1996);
(b) There has been an over emphasis on the individual intrapsychic level of empowerment (Peterson & Zimmerman, 2004). Research in this area has paid very little attention to other levels of analysis (e.g. Boudrias, *et al*., 2004; Spreitzer, 1995a; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990);
(c) Many of the studies have made use of single methods for their investigation, usually measures and self-report (e.g. Herronkohl, *et al*., 1999; Leslie, *et al*., 1998; Menon, 1999; Spreitzer 1995b);
(d) Under theorising and a focus on the intrapsychic aspects of empowerment has meant that few models capturing the complex interaction between levels have been developed (Beeker *et al*., 1998; Fawcett *et al*. 1994);
(e) The main focus has been on the intrapersonal dimension of psychological empowerment (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990) as defined by Zimmerman (1995,

2000). However, over the years researchers working on this concept have begun calling it psychological empowerment (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998; Spreitzer at al., 1999), which it is not – it is only one dimension of a multi-dimensional concept, as defined by Zimmerman (2000). This leads to confusion and simplistic notions of psychological empowerment.

2.4.4. COMMUNITY-BASED EMPOWERMENT RESEARCH

Community based empowerment research provides many ideas, models, interventions and evaluations of empowerment for a variety of populations within a wide range of contexts. One of the main differences between this community based research and that focusing on empowerment in the workplace and the school is that it attempts to take into account the complex nature of empowerment: its multiple forms, its contextual nature, its expressions at different levels of analysis and its dynamic nature.

Kroeker (1995) demonstrates how the local and national context can impede or facilitate different levels of empowerment. Speer & Hughey (1995) and Serrano-Garcia & Bond (1994) look at the role of social power. Fawcett *et al*. (1994) provide a context behavioural model for the way in which empowerment and environmental factors interact. Many of these writers attempt to incorporate the issue of power within their formulations of empowerment. Even those authors focusing on the individual level of empowerment (Balcazar, Seekins, Fawcett, & Hopkins, 1990; Dickerson, 1998; Giffin, 1998; Peled *et al*., 2000; Schindler, 1999) attempt to incorporate issues of contextualism, power and the socio-political. Many of these writers, such as Saegert & Winkel (1996) emphasise the dialectical nature between the different levels of empowerment.

2.4.5. CONTEXT AND EMPOWERMENT

As was argued earlier, empowerment involves a critical understanding of the socio-political environment; it is not a “static personality trait” but a “dynamic contextually driven” construct (Zimmerman, 1990a). As Rappaport (1987)

argued, we need research to examine “the nature of settings in which empowerment is developed or inhibited” (p.130). While contextual influences have been studied in the area of community psychology they have received less attention in the workplace and school development literature. However, more recently there has been an increase in research that looks at individual and contextual variables that can impact on the empowerment of the individual (Beeker *et al*., 1998; Dickerson, 1998; Fawcett *et al*. 1994; Giffin, 1998; Peled *et al*., 2000; Schindler, 1999).

Although these models do incorporate other aspects and levels of the empowerment process they do not fully integrate the various levels of empowerment. It is essential to remember that empowering processes may occur at all levels of analysis. The challenge for researchers interested in empowerment is not to ignore one level of analysis in the interest of another but to struggle with efforts to integrate levels of analysis for understanding the construct in its entirety. However we need to acknowledge our limitations as researchers. As O’Neill (2000) rightly points out none of these levels of analysis gives a picture of reality that is true while the other levels are false. However, we need to be aware that when one way of looking at a problem is in the foreground other ways tend to fade into the background.

2.4.6. CROSS-CULTURAL ISSUES:

Although community psychology has emphasised diversity as a key theme in its theorising and has conducted research in many varied contexts little account has been taken of issues of culture. Similarly, in the areas of school development, empowerment, participation and leadership research very little attention has been paid to the issue of culture. However, the research that has been done in this area shows that culture is an important issue when looking at school development (Cheng, 1999; Godwin, 1999; Hallinger & Kantamara, 2000), empowerment (Eylon & Au, 1999; Fan & Mak, 1998; Soet *et al*., 1999), leadership (Kets de Vries, 2000; Rahim, Antonioni, Krumov, & Ilieva, 2000) and participation (Ang & Chang, 1999; Tjosvold & Law, 1998). Most of the theory and research in the fields of empowerment, participation

and leadership have been developed in the context of western, first world or developed countries.

Studies of school development and empowerment from North America and Western Europe have been well represented in the literature over the last ten years whereas studies from “developing” countries and regions have not (Elliott, 1999; Walker & Dimmock, 2000). Dimmock & Walker (2000) argue that there is an ethnocentricity underlying theory development, empirical research and prescriptive argument where Anglo-Americans continue to exert a disproportionate influence on theory, policy and practice.

Including the issue of culture and taking a cross-cultural view on empowerment has some important implications for empowerment theory, research and programme development. Firstly, as implementers and policy developers, if we want to provide successful empowerment programmes we need to ensure that the intervention is appropriate for the culture within which it is to be implemented. Secondly, as Eylon & Au (1999) stress, we need to consider cultural differences when conducting research on organisational and community phenomena. Thirdly, it is vital for developing countries to begin developing knowledge within their own countries, not only to reflect on and critique the application of models within their countries, but also to enter the more global debate on these issues. Fourthly, reinterpretations of “borrowed” models need to find their way into the mainstream debate and researchers and theorists from the “lending” countries need to acknowledge the contribution these can have both to their understanding of the concepts and to reinterpretations of it.

The programme under investigation in the present study, although applying many of the frameworks developed in these “lending” countries, is applying them in a very different context, with a very different group of people. It is thus important for us to consider the cross-cultural implications of this. The schools in the present study provide a context to look at cross-cultural issues related to organisational empowerment and will help to develop knowledge about how school development planning, a process conceptualised in

"developed" countries, has been understood and re-invented in a "developing" country. Community psychology has not only been critiqued on its lack of focus on cross-cultural issues but has also been critiqued on some of its dominant assumptions.

2.5. CRITIQUE OF EMPOWERMENT'S DOMINANT ASSUMPTIONS

Several writers and researchers (Amaro, 1995; Ellsworth, 1989; Riger, 1990, 1993; Saegert & Winkel, 1996; Serrano-Garcia, 1994; Serrano-Garcia & Bond, 1994; Walsh, Bartunek & Lacey, 1998) have criticised empowerment theory and research for its lack of integration with theories of socio-political power, and thus its depoliticised, individualistic perspective which has led to a study of individual cognitive process based on traditionally masculine concepts of mastery, power and control.

Riger (1993) points out that although many definitions offered of empowerment include both a psychological sense of personal control and concern with actual social influence, political power and legal rights (e.g. Perkins, 1995; Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995; Rappaport, 1987; Zimmerman, 1990), in a great deal of research actual control is conflated with the sense of personal control. Thus a complex phenomenon is reduced to individual psychological dynamics. This proclivity stems from a deeper unresolved tension between two views of human nature, one that holds that "reality creates the person" (as reflected for example in behaviourism/materialism) and the opposing view that "the person creates reality" (as reflected for example in cognition/idealism) (Riger, 1993, p. 281).

The emphasis in American and to a lesser extent British psychology (Riger, 1993; Rappaport, 1995) has been to ignore or downplay the influence of situational or social factors in favour of individuals' perceptions. In the context of empowerment, if the focus of inquiry becomes not actual power but rather the sense of empowerment, then the political is made personal and ironically the status quo may be supported (Seedat, Cloete & Schochet, 1988).

Confusing one's actual ability to control resources with a sense of empowerment depoliticises the latter (Riger, 1993).

This distinction between an individual's sense of empowerment and actual group or community empowerment becomes critical in the post-apartheid South Africa context. Self-empowerment, self-validation and self-actualisation must not become substitutes for critical thinking about socio-political issues and political action. Although a sense of psychological empowerment is an important aspect of political effectiveness, community empowerment that involves actual socio-political power will be needed to carry out these tasks and produce social change. Therefore for psychology to be relevant in the new South Africa, psychological intervention or a sense of empowerment must go hand in hand with clear political intervention or actual community empowerment (Nicholas, 1993; Seedat *et al*, 1988).

Several writers (Amaro, 1995; Soet *et al*., 1999) argue that this individualistic approach ignores the interpersonal aspects of behaviour such as power in relationships, socialisation and social roles. They argue that a person's ability to change their behaviour does not only depend on psychological empowerment but also on the ability to influence those people in his or her environment. In a similar vein other writers (Hughey & Speer, 2002; Speer, 2000; Walsh *et al*., 1998) have commented on the lack of attention paid to the interpersonal or relational aspects of empowerment.

Riger (1993) argues that the underlying assumption of empowerment theory is that of conflict, rather than co-operation, among groups and individuals, control rather than communion. The image of the empowered person in research and theory reflects the belief in psychology in separation, individuation and individual mastery. Gilligan (1982) contrasts this view of human nature with an alternate vision that emphasises relatedness and interdependence as central values of human experience.

Many writers and researchers have emphasised the role relationships play in one's personal development and empowerment (Fletcher, 1998; Surrey,

1987; Walsh *et al*., 1998). In a relational approach, individuals experience a sense of empowerment when group or organisational members work together to create mutual, fulfilling connections with each other and use these connections to facilitate change processes and act in a manner explicitly consistent with their goals (Walsh *et al*., 1998). Others argue in a similar vein that empowerment can only be realised through organisation, that social power is accessed only through relation-based organising and that organisations hold power to the extent that members collectively pursue a common goal or purpose (Kroeker, 1995; Speer & Hughey, 1995).

School development literature has focused on the quality of the relationship and its role in personal development – however the authors have not framed school development in empowerment terminology (Fullan, 1981; Little, 1993; Rosenholtz, 1989). Fullan's (1991) theory of change emphasises relationships between peers and the principal as central to the change process with the quality of working relationships among teachers being strongly related to implementation. Fullan & Hargreaves (1992) argue that people do not develop in isolation, they develop through their relationships, especially those with others who are significant for us.

More recent research has begun to explore the positive working relationships amongst peers as important contexts for empowerment. Research on peer relationships and empowerment has been done in the organisational and school setting (Barksdale-Ladd & Thomas, 1996; Jex & Bliese, 1999). Corsun & Enz (1999); Liden, *et al*. (2000); Soet *et al*. (1999); Speer (2000); Spreitzer at al. (1999) and Walsh *et al*. (1998) have all found a positive relationship between leadership and peer relationships and empowerment. Corsun & Enz (1999) report that work environments fostering support based relationships, which they defined as relationships that are characterised by helping, participation, trust and/or involvement, result in worker empowerment. They argue that the effects of a strongly pro-social culture are not only felt by the individual members of the organisation but also by the groups in the form of collective efficacy.

Some writers have argued that the development of individual empowerment works against a sense of community, in that empowerment of all underrepresented or needy groups merely increases the competition for the same resources (Riger, 1993). Finding one's voice, controlling one's resources, becoming empowered may reduce the interdependence that produces a strong sense of community. Empowered individual's rational pursuit of their own best interest may end in the destruction of neighbourhoods and networks of support.

Paradoxically, situations which foster community may be the opposite of those, which foster empowerment. Lee (1999) makes a similar observation: that empowerment at the organisational level may function as a form of oppression for empowerment at the individual level. Recent research suggests that there may be circumstances in which the two phenomena are not contradictory, where a sense of community is linked to individual empowerment (Bond & Keys, 1993; Chavis & Wandersman, 1990; Maton & Rappaport, 1984).

These issues of power, individualism, community and culture relate to people's worldviews, which will determine if we give or enable empowerment, whether we view the individual or the social as the primary target and whether we see constructs as separate or interdependent (Dickerson, 1998; Hughes, 1987; Swift &Levin, 1987). One of the difficulties of defining empowerment is that it does not fit easily into the philosophical worldview used most commonly by social scientists. Interventions at the level of the individual are rarely sufficient because lives do not exist in a vacuum; social, cultural and political factors exert a profound influence on the behaviour of individuals. The concept of empowerment is only meaningful in this larger context. It is hoped that by viewing empowerment in the context of a school development programme this will help us to take the issues of context and the interaction between different levels of empowerment into account.

2.6. SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT: A CONTEXT FOR EXPLORING EMPOWERMENT

Community psychology's contextualist perspective, its focus on dealing with issues at a variety of levels, social justice, equality and its emphasis on empowerment of people and communities, provides a useful framework for viewing school development in the South African context. School development programmes in this context provide a unique opportunity for exploring the concept of empowerment in a developing country facing rapid social change. The school development process allows us to explore empowerment at a variety of levels and explore organisational change through a process of school development planning. It brings together the issues of individual and organisational change, empowerment, participation and leadership.

However, before exploring the ways in which community psychology, and empowerment theory more specifically, can provide a framework for viewing school development it is important to look briefly at the school development literature and research. The research and literature on school development, over the last two decades, has been dominated by two separate approaches, the school effectiveness and the school improvement approaches (Bennett & Harris, 1999).

2.6.1. SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS APPROACH

This approach to school development research has taken for granted that schools are rational, goal-oriented systems, that the goals are clear and agreed, that they relate to learner-achievement and that those achievements should be measurable (Bennett & Harris, 1999). Effectiveness can be measured by comparing the level of achievement in these measurable attainment targets in order to identify which school's pupils are achieving more and which less. The issue of educational goal definition is not for debate within the research: it centres on the extent to which school effects can be consistent over time. Thus, despite its increasing methodological sophistication, research on school effects typically adopts a very basic conceptualisation of the school as input-throughput-output. School

effectiveness research attempts to link the quality of performance with particular characteristics of the schools. A wide range of school characteristics has been identified and correlational research has been undertaken to link particular characteristics with higher pupils' performance (Brighthouse & Tomlinson, 1991; Reid, Hopkins & Holly, 1987; Sammons, Hillman, & Mortimore, 1995).

Several criticisms have been levelled at the school effectiveness approach:

(a) The research is often not detailed enough to provide information on what is needed for school improvement and the focus on structural organisational aspects of schools is a severe weakness (Bennett & Harris, 1999; Gultig & Butler, 1999; Hopkins, 1995). For this reason the field has largely resided at the level of description rather than action;

(b) This approach treats complex organisations like schools too simplistically, ignoring the way in which characteristics interact with one another in particular schools (Gultig & Butler, 1999; Hopkins, 1995) and they assume that ineffective (or weak) schools could improve by developing the same characteristics as effective schools (Gultig & Butler, 1999);

(c) The range of outcomes being studied is often too narrow (Daly, 2000; Gultig & Butler, 1999; Hopkins, 1995) and often does not address issues of equity and social justice (Slee, Weiner & Tomlison, 1998);

(d) This approach has emphasised a positivist approach with an over reliance on correlational studies that have applied statistical modelling to hierarchically structured data (Daly, 2000);

(e) Review of past research has shown that policy and innovations, which aim to develop teachers from lists of teacher effectiveness, have failed to effect any observable change at the classroom level, or in student outcome, beyond a few individual cases (Harris & Hopkins, 1999).

2.6.2. SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT APPROACH

The recognition of the school effectiveness approach's inability to map out a strategy for school improvement led to a shift towards school improvement

and the development and application of school development planning (Hopkins, Ainscow & West, 1994). In marked contrast to the school effectiveness approach, a key assumption within the school improvement literature is that school improvement strategies can lead to cultural change in schools through modifications to their internal conditions (Hopkins, Harris & Jackson, 1997). It is the cultural change that supports the teaching and learning process which leads to enhanced outcomes for students (Hopkins, West, Ainscow, Harris & Beresford, 1997). The types of school culture most supportive of successful school improvement efforts appear to be those that are collaborative, have high expectations for both students and staff and which exhibit a consensus on values, support and orderly and secure environment and encourage teachers to assume a variety of leadership roles (Hopkins *et al*., 1997).

School improvement writers thus emphasise two particular dimensions of schools: the norms and values that shape individual and collective action; and the structural arrangements made at the school level. Collectively these two dimensions produce a view of the organisation as a culturally coherent and unified artefact. In particular they see a process of development planning as crucial to creating a culturally coherent response to change, which alone will increase the school's capacity for further development. In development planning a collaborative or at least participative process leads to priorities being set and agreed upon, action plans created and organisational frameworks established for their achievement (Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1995). Through this collaborative activity it is argued that teachers begin to talk to each other more about teaching, collaborative work outside of the particular project becomes more commonplace and management structures are adapted to support this and future changes.

When taken together such changes in culture and structure increase the school's capacity for development and prepare the ground for future change efforts (Hopkins, 1996). Consequently the school improvement literature tends to reflect Schein's statement that 'the only thing of real importance that leaders do is to create and manage culture" (1992, p. 5). The emphasis of

school improvement is on cultural change, that is the processes that occur within the structure and assumptions and values of the leaders and the led.

Several criticisms have been levelled at the school improvement approach:

(a) Despite its clear view on the change process there is much less clarity about the theories upon which school improvement writers can justify their practice and predict how interventions may work (Daly, 2000; Hopkins, 1996);

(b) Its research often concentrates its attention inside schools, without locating these schools in their broader contexts (Davidoff & Lazarus, 1997; Gultig & Butler, 1999);

(c) Its literature does not question what quality is and why some have it and others do not, assuming that good schooling always means the same thing and that this is available to everyone (Griffiths, 1998; Gultig & Butler, 1999; Slee *et al*., 1998);

(d) Its approach is too strongly linked to market oriented forms of educational management (Slee *et al*., 1998).

2.6.3. SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

Many different approaches to school improvement have been offered over the last 20 years (Delaney Horsch, 1992; Fullan & Miles, 1999; Miles, 1993; Pristine & Bowen, 1993; Rainer & Guyton, 1999; Solkov, 1992; Vedder & O'Dowd, 1999). Most of these approaches have taken an organisational perspective on the change process within the school. One of the most pervasive school improvement approaches which has been implemented in countries as diverse as North America, Britain, Scotland, Australia and South Africa is the school development plan approach to school development (Davidoff, 1995; Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991, 1995). School development planning aims to improve the capacity of the school, particularly the quality of its teaching and learning. Its strategy is to bring key stakeholders together within the school to identify problem areas, agree where improvements can be made and then decide how to make change happen with the resources they have available.

School development plan is not a simple step-by-step approach to change (Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991, 1995) but rather it assumes that change is a complex and dynamic process: it is cyclical (Hopkins, *et al*., 1994). School development planning is a multidimensional process, seeking to address change in a variety of key areas for example developing the structural and procedural aspects of the school; establishing a decision-making process, which is collaborative, with visible procedures of accountability and a transparency in the communication of information, and leadership characterised by facilitative directiveness; promoting staff and interpersonal development, and a culture of collegiality in which such development can occur; and providing a mechanism for establishing structures and procedures for internal evaluation of needs and innovation, as part of an ongoing process of maintaining good practice and managing change.

2.6.4. RESEARCH ON SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

It has only been recently that research has focused on the impact that school development plan has had on schools. Studies on the implementation of school development plans have shown some interesting results. Firstly questions have been raised about whether the plan is used as a blueprint in a strategic way, linking issues of resources management and finances, or if it is used in different ways. Bennett, Crawford, Levacic, Glover, & Earley (2000) found that although most teachers want a say in the planning of the curriculum and in resourcing to make teaching interesting and effective, they are not concerned with strategic and developmental whole-school issues unless their job security is threatened. West (2000) reported that schools found it difficult to set priorities for more than a year and even then this is seen as too long term due to the ever changing environment. West found that, though priorities were important, it is not merely how these priorities are selected but how effort within the school is managed around these and how capacity to add or to vary from these priorities is created, which determines the progress of the school.

Secondly, the role of the principal in school development plan has been explored. Bennett *et al*., (2000) report that in the primary schools they studied

the principal was responsible for major strategic and financial decisions. West (2000) found a contradiction in the role played by the principal. Although a picture emerged of a strong principal with vision for the school who offered clear leadership and management, they found that principals in these moving schools have quite often deliberately distanced themselves from the development within the school, expressing the belief that teachers must be encouraged to take on the leadership of improvement activities themselves. This suggests that principals may have a more complex view of leadership than is apparent from studies on schools.

Thirdly, the focus on teaching and learning in the school development plan has been explored. Several researchers (Broadhead, Hodgson, Cuckle & Dunford, 1998; MacBeath, 1994; West, 2000) found that organisational need is the major preoccupation whilst student learning is given very little emphasis. Fourthly, although Reeves (2000) found a positive correlation between the process of development planning and school effectiveness, he cautions that there is evidence for a very complex set of relationships between a number of variables related to planning in schools. In the study only internal factors were considered and he cautions that the picture becomes even more complex once one considers the external environment.

Given the findings from this study, Reeves (2000) stresses that the process of planning for development and improvement in schools cannot be considered simply as a matter of managerial competence. Planning and its outcomes are linked to a complex set of personal and organisational variables which appear more likely to influence its effectiveness than any attempt simply to refine on planning techniques. Essentially development planning is a management technique which is used more or less fruitfully according to the intentions, commitment and skills of its users and the nature of the organisational context in which they operate. Thus we are presented with a dynamic and systemically complicated set of interaction within schools which we must not ignore.

2.6.5. SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT – A SOUTH AFRICAN PERSPECTIVE

Although education provides such a promising arena for transformation in South Africa the crisis in South African Education is well documented (Christie, 1998; Moonsammy & Hassett, 1997). It has a long history as a tool of the apartheid government (Carrim & Sayed, 1992; Marah, 1987) and is slowly trying to rebuild itself. Most teachers who were trained under the apartheid system are not teaching in ways that prepare students to meet the needs and demands of a society in transition (Davidoff, 1995). There are still concerns about the low morale among teachers, tensions between teachers and administrative staff (principals, deputies, heads of department), conflicts among staff members, discipline problems with students, lack of vision and direction and many other issues which make schools unhappy places to be for most teachers and pupils (Davidoff, 1995). Since the advent of the new government, and the restructuring of the education departments, many new policies and ideas have been proposed for schools, placing an increasing demand on teachers and school mangers to address issues beyond the classroom and relating to the school as a whole. All of these issues highlight a real challenge to develop effective schools and thereby quality education.

Because of the history of apartheid education in South Africa, many attempts have been made to provide in-service training to teachers to rectify the situation. A common trend in most in-service training (INSET) has been individually focused, course based training. Other initiatives have tried to move beyond this to what has been referred to as school focused INSET (Hofmeyr, 1991). Davidoff & Robinson (1992) argue that ideally, in-service education and training (INSET) needs to be school focused, located at schools and with the initial interventions and support from INSET agencies. Many Southern African writers on school development argue that in looking at classroom practice and experience, we need to look at the whole school and not only focus on classroom based activities (Halliday & Coombe, 1994; Schofield, 1995).

Thus over the last 10 years there has been a shift away from classroom focused, teacher individualised forms of teacher development. In general the

focus has been on whole school development or organisational development of the school (referred to as the school-as-organisation approach). A more recent addition to the school development approaches has been what is termed by Gultig & Butler (1999) as the school-as-community approach (for example Schofield, 1999). While the two approaches do have different emphases, they are not mutually exclusive; their differences lie in the emphasis they place on different factors. The school-as-organisation approach focuses on the internal dynamics of schools and the school-as-community approach gives more emphasis to external (out of school) dynamics. Some writers (Gultig & Butler, 1999) suggest that they represent positions on a continuum of approaches to school change, ranging from a strong focus on the school to a strong focus on the community.

Organisational development has its origins in the business world. More recently however organisational development has become an important strategy for building organisational capacity in many different kinds of organisations, including schools (Davidoff, 1995; Davidoff & Robinson, 1992; Davidoff & Lazarus, 1997; Keys & Frank, 1987; Shinn & Perkins, 2000). It is an important strategy for school development and indeed is often used synonymously with the term “whole school development” (Gultig & Butler, 1999). Many of the agencies who have worked within this approach in South Africa have focused on the implementation of School Development Plans (Catholic Institute for Education, 1996; Halliday & Coombe, 1994). More recently some of the provincial education departments have adopted this strategy; thus school development planning has become a requirement for schools in some provinces including Gauteng, the province in which the present study was located.

2.7. SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING AND ORGANISATIONAL EMPOWERMENT

Although empowerment is considered to be multilevel in nature most of the empirical work done on the construct has been limited to the individual level (Minkler, Thompson, Bell & Rose, 2001; Seibert, Silver, & Randolph, 2004). These studies have tended to focus on the development of psychological

empowerment through participatory mechanisms, rather than on processes, structures and outcomes that are relevant for organisations and communities. The Seibert, *et al*. (2004) study is one of the few that looks beyond the individual level and focuses on a work-unit-level construct that they describe as empowerment climate. A thorough development of empowerment theory requires exploration and description at multiple levels of analysis. It is important to stress that organisational and community empowerment are not simply the aggregate of many empowered individuals.

Several authors (Bartle, Couchonnal, Canda & Staker, 2002; Boyd & Angelique, 2002; Klein, *et al*., 2000; Peterson & Zimmerman, 2004) argue that research on empowerment at the organisational level, what Peterson & Zimmerman (2004) call Organisational Empowerment, is particularly needed. Efforts to understand organisational and community empowerment are clearly necessary to help move the theory beyond the individual bias of psychology. Applying the general definition and framework of empowerment as laid out by Zimmerman (2000) to an organisational level of analysis suggests that empowerment may include organisational processes and structures that enhance member participation and improve organisational effectiveness for goal achievement (Zimmerman, 2000).

Zimmerman (2000) noted that a focus on organisational empowerment would assist in moving empowerment theory beyond the individual bias with its tendency to reduce complex person-in-environment phenomena to individual dynamics. A focus on organisational empowerment may also help to address the criticisms that empowerment theory favours traditionally individualistic and conflict-oriented values (Riger, 1993), by incorporating collective principles needed to describe empowerment in organisations (Rappaport, 1995; Peterson & Zimmerman, 2004).

2.7.1. A NOMOLOGICAL NETWORK OF ORGANISATIONAL EMPOWERMENT

Zimmerman's (2000) theoretical framework, described earlier, provides a basis for defining organisational empowerment and its interdependence with

empowerment at individual and community level analysis. This framework is useful because it extends empowerment theory and asserts that there are specific processes and outcomes across levels of analysis and that these need to be developed in more detail to delineate a nomological network for organisational empowerment.

Until recently, empowerment theorists have not developed a clear and coherent nomological network for organisational empowerment that articulates a clear distinction from psychological empowerment. Although the term appears in the empowerment literature, organisational empowerment is often defined as individual empowerment derived within organisational contexts (Hardiman & Segal, 2003). This conceptualisation however fails to incorporate organisational level constructs that are separate and distinct from individual members. This focus on the individual may be why some researchers (for example Rissel, 1994) caution against empowerment as a major goal of intervention due to the lack of a clear theoretical underpinning beyond the individual.

The conceptual distinction between empowering and empowered organisations (Zimmerman, 2000) underscores differences between what organisations achieve internally for members and what they achieve externally for communities. Efforts have been made to move forward on identifying organisational characteristics of empowering organisations (for example Foster-Fishman & Keys, 1997; Maton & Salem, 1995; Matthews, Diaz & Cole, 2003). These studies encourage further development of conceptual models that explicitly include organisational-level attributes that define organisational empowerment. Yet most of the focus of this work is on the characteristics of organisations that make them empowering for their members.

Peterson & Zimmerman (2004) argue that those characteristics of organisations that indicate their level of empowerment are both less studied and less conceptually developed. What they try to do in their 2004 paper is present a model of organisational empowerment that allows us to examine the

extent to which organisations, and in the case of the present study, schools, are empowered. In doing so they try to extend and develop the ideas presented by Zimmerman (2000). They argue that an ecological perspective is critical to the development of a theoretical model of organisational empowerment because it offers an overarching framework that focuses attention on levels of analysis beyond the individual and provides a lens for examining the confluence of factors that characterise empowered organisations.

Their model of organisational empowerment provides a first attempt to develop a conceptual foundation upon which to build an empirical literature on empowerment theory that extends beyond the individual level of analysis. Using the framework of empowering processes and outcomes they suggest that a conceptual model of empowered organisations includes three components:

(a) **Intraorganisational** – This refers to the ways organisations are structured and function as members engage in activities that contribute to individual psychological empowerment and organisational effectiveness needed for goal achievement. This forms part of the assessment of organisational empowerment achieved by an organisation. Intraorganisational empowerment is essential for conceptualising organisational empowerment as it provides the foundation for actions necessary to achieve organisational goals.

(b) **Interorganisational** – This includes connections and relations between organisations such as collaboration with other organisations and resource procurement. This component of organisational empowerment is vital because it provides the linkages for organisations to gain resources, share information, attain legitimacy and accomplish goals.

(c) **Extraorganisational** – This refers to actions taken by organisations to affect the larger environments of which they are a part. This includes qualities that characterise organisations' efforts to exert influence beyond their boundaries. This component of organisational empowerment is important because the capacity or organisations to achieve changes in

their environments may be considered a critical foundation for attainment of more specific organisational goals.

These components combine to create a snapshot of organisations that possess characteristics indicative of being empowered. They define outcomes as operationalisations, whether quantitative or qualitative, which reflect the efforts of organisations to thrive and be successful at achieving their missions. Processes in the context of organisational empowerment, create opportunities for organisations and their members to gain control and achieve individual and shared goals. Table 2 presents outcomes that represent empowered organisations and processes that are related to the empowerment characteristics of each component.

Table 2: Processes and Outcomes of Intraorganisational, Interorganisational, and Extraorganisational Components of Organisational Empowerment.

Component	Process	Outcomes
Intraorganisational	• Incentive management • Subgroup linkages • Opportunity role structure • Leadership • Social support • Group-based belief system	• Viability • Underpopulated settings • Collaboration of coempowered subgroups • Resolved ideological conflict • Resource identification
Interorganisational	• Accessing social networks of other organisations • Participating in alliance-building activities with other organisations	• Collaboration • Resource procurement
Extraorganisational	• Implementing community actions • Disseminating information	• Influence of public policy and practice • Creation of alternative community programs and settings • Deployment of resources in the community

(From Peterson & Zimmerman, 2004)

Empowered organisations possess internal features (intraorganisational outcomes), linkages that promote organisational and shared interest (interorganisational outcomes) and actions that influence the broader community (extraorganisational outcomes). Once concrete operations for

variables in a nomological network are made explicit, the validity of a construct can then be empirically tested.

As was discussed previously however, empowerment like other constructs is open-ended and the variables used to represent the construct may change over time and depend on the specific circumstances in which they are measured. Thus organisational empowerment may not be assessed by a single operational definition because it takes different forms for different types of organisations, environments in which organisations operate and times. Nevertheless, one might expect each operationalisation to capture intraorganisational, interorganisational and extraorganisational qualities of organisational empowerment that are appropriate to that context. The nomological network for organisational empowerment indicates that although concrete operations may be context specific, data would need to be captured on variables representing all three components to provide a complete picture of an empowered organisation.

Concrete examples of organisational empowerment, such as school development planning, can be developed for organisations, like schools. Researchers could then test the validity of organisational empowerment by empirically examining its relationship with goal achievement (e.g. achievement of objectives set in the school development planning). Creating ways of assessing and validating concepts are essential for designing corresponding interventions focused on the organisational level.

CHAPTER THREE: SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING AND ORGANISATIONAL EMPOWERMENT

3.1. THE SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING PROGRAMME UNDER INVESTIGATION

All of the schools that participated in the present study had been engaged in a school development planning programme offered by a non-governmental organisation. The programme's aim was to 'facilitate the development of the primary schools in that area so that they were functioning organisations providing quality education' (Outreach, 1996, p.1).

The programme conceptualised empowerment as a process that expands the feeling of trust and control in oneself as well as in one's colleagues and one's organisation which consequently leads to certain individual and organisational outcomes (Outreach, 2001b). It sees empowerment as a multilevel and context specific concept (Zimmerman, 1995) and thus the interventions are based on multiple levels. The programme emphasised that empowerment at the individual level of analysis was a process that expanded an individual's power as opposed to merely a state of being. This process resulted from changes in contextual and relational variables. It also emphasised the growth of power and control at an interpersonal and an organisational level.

Empowerment was seen as an interactional process linking the individual, colleagues and the organisation. In this way empowerment referred to both the phenomenological development of a certain state of mind (e.g. feeling powerful, competent, worthy of esteem etc.) and to the modification of structural conditions in order to reallocate power (e.g. modifying the interactional and organisational opportunity structure) – in other words, empowerment refers to both the subjective experience and the objective reality and is thus both a process and a goal (Swift & Levine, 1987).

The programme emphasised the link between the different levels of empowerment. It saw the creation of a sense of empowerment not only at an

individual level, but at the interpersonal and organisational levels as well as vital. In this way processes are created that facilitate empowerment outcomes (Outreach, 2001b). This is in line with Riger (1993) who emphasised how a perceived sense of power (psychological empowerment) is not synonymous with actual power (socio-political empowerment).

The programme stressed the distinction between an individual's sense of empowerment and actual group or community empowerment as this is seen as critical in the post-apartheid South Africa context. Self-empowerment, self-validation and self-actualisation must not become substitutes for critical thinking about socio-political issues and political action. Although a sense of personal empowerment is an important aspect of political effectiveness, community empowerment that involves actual socio-political power will be needed to carry out these tasks and produce social change. The programme thus emphasised that a sense of empowerment must go hand in hand with actual organisational or community empowerment (Outreach, 2001b)

3.2. DIFFERENT LEVELS OF EMPOWERMENT RELEVANT TO THE PROGRAMME AND STUDY, AND THEIR OPERATIONALISATIONS

The following offer a brief description of how empowerment at each level was conceptualised by the programme. This is then followed by an operationalised definition based on theoretical descriptions and empirical evidence related to empowerment. These operationalisations were used in the study to assess the outcomes of the programme and as indicators of empowerment in this setting.

1. Individual Level

At this level empowerment focuses on both the material (acquiring access to resources) and the psychological (increasing control and value). The programme emphasised that the process of empowerment requires some immediate successes, in areas expressed as needs by the participants, particularly give the factors of powerlessness. However empowerment does not occur if the process remains at the material level. Using the ideas of Kroeker (1995) the programme argued that as people understand their reality

and the possible consequences of acting upon it, they can begin to visualise possibilities of change and choices (Outreach, 2001b).

Operational Definition:
The psychological goal of empowerment is to increase feelings of self-efficacy and locus of control and individual participation in the school's activities and people feel there is increased access to resources

2. Organisational Level

The programme saw the aim of organisational empowerment as changing the power structures of society as they are expressed in the school (Outreach, 2001b). Based on this idea the programme emphasised that within an organisation, new structures, values and forms of interaction can be established. By sharing control and allowing broader participation in decision making people are given respect, value and power in the group. Collective action also increases the potential to change things, the school/organisation can carry out communal projects, pursue resources and overcome dependence. The school can work to develop the skills and confidence of its members, which enhances the potential for other changes. When the organisation increases its self sufficiency in society, it also increases the level of control and social status of its members.

Following Zimmerman (2000) the programme distinguished between and empowering organisation and an empowered organisation. The programme sees school development planning (discussed previously as a process for empowering schools in order that they can change the contexts in which they find themselves and this will result in empowered outcomes for the school.

Operational Definition:
Empowering organisation:
The goal at this level is to create a participative work culture, collaborative work structures, shared decision making and increased responsibility for school development among the whole staff.

Empowered Organisation:

As an empowered organisation the school is in control of its own development and is able to acquire the resources they require and are having an impact on the broader educational community. The school has actively implemented the school development plan and has achieved the goals set for themselves (or is in a process of achieving).

3. Community Level

The programme emphasised the role of the parent body, the School Governing Body and the broader community in enabling the school to achieve the changes it had planned through the school development planning process. It was felt that without their involvement the school could not sustain change (Outreach, 2001b).

Operational Definition:

The goal at this level is to have community stakeholders involved in collective action. In a school development context, this is likely to manifest in situations in which parents and members of the School Governing Body actively involved in school activities and enable the school to move towards its goals.

3.3. AN EMPOWERMENT APPROACH TO SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT

The programme's view on the process of becoming empowered was based on ideas of enlightenment and emancipation, critical theory and class consciousness (Deacon, 1990; Ellsworth, 1989; Levin, 1975; Neath & Read, 1998; Serrano-Garcia, 1994; Swift & Levine, 1987). This process involved the following steps:

1. A cognitive and affective awareness of one's position with regard to the distribution of power and the position of others relative to oneself in the system.
2. A sense of what action can be taken to deal with the empowerment deficit
3. The action is taken to produce changes in the distribution of power so as to improve ones own or ones group's condition.

Therefore one needed both the cognitive awareness of one's own position and that position within the broader society or broader socio-political issues

and affective energy in order to undertake or participate in empowering activities. Each stage is a necessary precondition for those that follow; the sufficient condition for the sense of empowerment is the combination of all three stages (Levine, 1975). This perspective formed the foundation of the programmes approach to training and development with the schools (Outreach, 2001).

3.4. THE PROGRAMME

The programme offered to the schools took a whole school development approach to school development (Outreach, 1999a) similar to the organisational approach of Davidoff and her colleagues described earlier (Davidoff, 1995, Davidoff & Robinson, 1992; Davidoff & Lazarus, 1997). The focus was on the development of the school as an organisation (Outreach, 1998). The central focus of the organisational change programme was on the drawing up and implementation of a school development plan. This focus was in line with several other similar programmes being implemented in Southern Africa (Halliday & Coombe, 1994, Potterton, 1998; Schofield, 1995) and was in line with regional education department policy. However the programme did have a distinct focus on the issue of empowerment, particularly in terms of developing empowered outcomes through leadership development (Outreach, 2000) and school development planning (Outreach, 1999a).

The focus on School Development Planning is based on the assumption that in order for a school to be empowered as an organisation it needs to take charge/control of its own development process. By working with schools on this process the programme assumed that schools would be empowered to determine their own developmental path. The aim of school development planning is to improve the performance of schools, particularly in relation to the quality of teaching and learning. Development planning involves schools in:

- Identifying their problem areas
- Agreeing on areas where improvements can be made

- Identifying local resources for making such improvements
- Building on existing good practice and developing new techniques
- Improving the management skills of all staff
- Improving the allocation of existing resources within the school

(For a fuller description of the model of school development planning see the sections on school development planning 2.6.3. and 2.6.4.).

The aim of the programme was that schools would be actively implementing the plan and taking steps to achieving the goals set out in the plan (Outreach, 1998). In order to put this in place the programme worked with staff, management and the school governing body on drawing up a School Development Plan. Although the outcome of this workshop was a physical plan with both broad objectives and specific action plans, the main aim in this process was to develop the process of reflection and planning within the school community (Outreach, 1998). A critical issue here was the emphasis on smaller goals (Kroeker, 1995; Perkins, 1995) while developing and strengthening the organisation and individual skills development.

A variety of training courses, to further develop the capacity and skills of teachers and management, were offered to the schools to support their change initiative (Outreach, 1999b). Each school set up a School Development Team (made up of the principal and at least 2 teachers) which had the task of monitoring the implementation of the plan at the school and provided fund-raising skills training to aid in the achievement of the plan (Outreach, 1998). This committee was offered training over a year to develop skills to fulfil their role at the school and to develop their leadership skills.

The programme assumed that in order for development planning to be successful the change process needed to be managed in a planned and coherent manner and reflect a management style within the school that was consultative and participatory (Outreach, 1998). It was assumed that staff involved in the process of development planning would be more directly responsible for improving aspects of school performance and in formulating

priorities for development, and would be better motivated to implement agreed priorities (Outreach, 1999a).

It was also assumed that the role of the principal and other senior members of staff were crucial in developing and maintaining a consultative climate in the school, and thus these staff members should lead by example in using appropriate management styles. For this reason the school management attended a year long Leadership and Management Training Course with the express purpose of developing a more democratic, participatory and consultative form of management style within the school (Outreach, 1998).

The programme worked with 24 primary schools in a township outside of Pretoria. Ten of the schools have been working with the programme for between 3-4 years, 6 for 2 years and 8 for 1 year. All of the schools had engaged in a process of auditing their school, drawing up a school development plan, selecting a school development team who attended training and had sent some of the management on the leadership and development course (Outreach, 2001).

3.4.1. The Approach of the Training Programme

While the programme itself has definite assumptions about empowerment the groups of school development team members and leaders are encouraged to explore and develop their own understandings thus no working definition of empowerment included in the process. The intention of the training is to engage people in a collaborative effort of identifying, examining, reflecting on and influencing the manifestations and effects of patterns of power with regards to themselves and their settings. The process is an ongoing construction of a shared reality among group members through their interaction with one another within the programme.

The Training Programme's Process

Making use of concepts from Transactional Analysis (Berne, 1964a;b; 1963; 1961) people reflect on the ways in which they are disempowered. They examine the school setting in terms of patterns of disempowerment and share

their values for democracy, social transformation and empowerment. They discuss the extent to which their behaviour is determined by the system and become aware of the fact that one can either allow oneself to be pushed by the past or be pulled by one's vision and goals. Education is discussed as the critical arena for transmitting disempowerment or achieving social transformation. They assess the possibilities for being democratic and empowering in their own settings. They reflect on and make choices about whether to perpetuate the cycle of disempowerment and contribute to maintaining their own powerlessness and those under their power or how to resist the cycle and work towards transforming their settings to establish a more democratic culture.

What follows during the remainder of the training courses primarily supports people's view of themselves as change agents within their spheres of influence. They examine ways in which they and others maintain power differences at various levels through authoritarianism, closed mindedness, dogmatism and being judgmental and intolerant. People are taken through experiences that enable them to see how their behaviour effects the way others respond to them and how the behaviour of others impacts on them. They are exposed to and develop skills to act in a manner consistent with the values of democracy, empowerment and equality. The exercising of greater responsibility is emphasised throughout the programme and contributes to developing an internal sense of empowerment and lays the foundation for developing addition interpersonal and group skills. People increasingly look within themselves at the inner sense of victimisation or disempowerment and the dynamics of keeping that process going in interpersonal relationships. Issues of how organisations are structured and led or managed are also looked at in terms of how they keep the processes of empowerment or disempowerment going.

The Personal and Political Continuum

The intervention reflects an ongoing process of trying to link the personal and the political in relevant and meaningful ways. The movement to the personal from the political forces of domination involve profound psychological effects.

People often feel victimised and powerless to break the cycle of oppressive values and activities promoted in schools. At times these are best addressed at the personal-psychological level. However it also provides them with an opportunity to see the role the system has played in their sense of powerlessness and to look at concrete actions that can be taken to change this. One is able to critically reflect if the system is actually causing the sense of powerlessness or are there psychological barriers from past experiences that are playing a role in maintaining their own powerlessness. Although this forms the basic underlying approach to the training offered by the programme each training course has its own particular focus. It is to the training of the school development teams and the school management that we now turn.

3.4.2. School Development Team Training

The programme's model, based on those reviewed previously (Hargreaves, & Hopkins, 1995; Jackson, 2000; West, 2000), involves the identification of a small group of staff (the school development team) in each school to manage the school development plan. Since the approach did not seek to impose priorities for improvement on the school but rather encouraged the school to review its own problems and opportunities and to select priorities for development that relate to the particular context and point in time the School Development Team were expected to take a lead in this process. Typically the School Development Team was a cross-hierarchical team, consisting of between three and six staff members (and preferably included the principal). The School Development Team in consultation with the rest of the staff was responsible for identifying the programme focus and for managing efforts on a day to day basis. Their task was thus the monitoring of the implementation of the plan at the school. They were supported through a core training programme and by the fieldworker at their school. The core training programme, offered over a year, attempted to develop skills to fulfil their role at the school and to develop their leadership skills. There were several areas of focus in this training:

1. seeing their role as agents of change
2. developing skills in effective planning and reflection
3. developing skills in working with groups

4. developing an understanding of change

A focus in this area is on developing a collaborative work culture, team work or collective action. It was assumed by Outreach that in order for development planning to be successful the change process needed to be managed in a planned and coherent manner and reflect a management style within the school which was consultative and participatory. Staff involved in development planning were more directly responsible for improving aspects of school performance and in formulating priorities for development, and were better motivated to implement agreed priorities.

3.4.3. Leadership and Management Training

Outreach also assumed that the role of the principal and other senior members of staff was crucial in developing and maintaining a consultative climate in the school, and thus these staff members should lead by example in using appropriate management styles. For this reason the school management attend a year long Leadership and Management Training Course with the express purpose of developing a more democratic, participatory and consultative form of management style within the school. Although certain skills training and capacity building elements are included in the training the emphasis is developing the reflective and process skills of the school leadership and management. This approach did not distinguish between the role of leader and manager as it felt that there was not a clear line between them and that one is attempting to develop a participative approach to both the more developmental and maintenance aspects of the role.

Through a variety of training modules and experiences school management was encouraged to develop more democratic and participatory practices. The programme saw participatory workplace democracy as a true exemplar of empowerment at the individual and organisational levels. Workplace democracy included shared decision making, increased teacher responsibility through teamwork and collaboration, non-oppressive ways of working with people and climate, meaningful feedback, conditions for allowing for help and respect from fellow workers, making work more meaningful, a sense of control

over goals setting and over paths to reach those goals. To be a democratic manager both school leaders (i.e. principals and school management team members) and teachers must be skilled and able to express their views openly, consider opposing views, work for mutual benefit, show respect though they disagree and incorporate opposing views into the solution. They must also create the conditions under which this open discussion is likely, that is, mutually co-operative goals.

In order to do this a focus was placed on the issue of power. It was felt by the programme that, school managers and particularly principals, needed skills in the uses of power so that they had the requisite skills to empower teachers. A focus was placed on having power with people that values equality, co-operation, sharing and interdependence. Power-with involves a relationship of co-agency and allows the school to find ways to fulfil the needs of the school and expand the resources for all rather than only a few. In this way the systems and culture operating in the school would be transformed to create empowering relationships, systems and culture.

3.4.4. School Based Support

Both the management team and the school development team were offered school based support. The support was provided to assist the schools in dealing with specific school issues that arose as they attempted to implement the school development plan and new management systems. This support combined ideas from action/reflection models and from a problem-solving approach. The support provided both emotional support during this time of change as well as the skills necessary for a sense of mastery or control in problem situations faced at the school. These skills included defining the problem, viewing issues from multiple perspectives, comprehending the aetiology of the problem, generating alternative solutions to the problem and foreseeing the possible consequences of those solutions. This approach encouraged a diversity of ideas and solutions that were relevant to the school.

3.5. DEFINING SUCCESSFUL SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING AS ORGANISATIONAL EMPOWERMENT

As discussed in the previous chapter, what is common to most definitions of empowerment is the suggestion that empowerment is a process in which efforts to exert control are central (Zimmerman, 2000). These definitions also suggest that participation with others to achieve goals, efforts to gain access to resources and some critical understanding of the socio-political environment are basic components of the construct (Zimmerman, 2000).

This thesis focuses on applying these notions about empowerment to school development planning, locating it in the multi-level framework developed by Zimmerman (2000) and framing it more specifically as organisational empowerment (Peterson & Zimmerman, 2004). This allows consideration of school development planning as a set of processes that empower a school to take control of its own development, acquire the resources required and have an impact on the broader educational community. The empowered school will have actively implemented the school development plan and achieved the goals set for themselves (or be in a process of achieving them) and in this way school development planning could be operationalised as an exemplar of organisational empowerment.

In order to measure constructs relating to empowerment in a school development context, a School Development Planning Evaluation Scale was developed (this will be elaborated on in the Methodology chapter). School development planning was conceptualised as being made up of five separate but linked components. These components measured aspects of individual, organisational and community level variables that were seen as key to the empowerment of the school, as follows:

(a) Awareness of the School Development Plan and its Role in School Development (School Staff's Perception of Individual Level Change)

This section of the instrument aimed to measure general awareness of the school development plan at the school and its role in school change. Zimmerman (1995) has argued that an empowering organisation is one that

stimulates awareness of the resources and factors which can facilitate the reaching of individual and organisational goals. Awareness can also be understood on a systemic level – where one is aware of the various activities and information of an organisation, it means that such information has become part of the system, and that all have access to this information (Becvar & Becvar, 1996). In this way Awareness of the Plan, although an individual level variable, indicates an organisational process and provide us with an outcome measure – awareness of the plan.

(b) Involvement in the Development of, Implementation of, and Evaluation and Monitoring of the School Development Plan (School Staff's Perception of Organisational Level Change)

This section aimed to measure school staffs' perceptions about how involved they felt in the process of developing, implementing and evaluating the progress of the school development plan. It focused on teachers' sense of ownership of the plan. Participation in important decision-making, as well as collaborative relationships for developing, implementing and evaluating an innovation, is cited as indicating a state of organisational empowerment (Rappaport, 1987; Zimmerman, 1990). 'Involvement' was operationalised in the instrument as a behavioural measure, but one which is facilitated by an empowering organisation, where ecological constraints against it are not present.

(c) Management's Role in School Development Planning (School Staff's Perception of Organisational Level Change)

This section aimed to measure the perceptions of the school staff as to management's role in the school development planning process. Throughout the literature, shared and collaborative leadership is seen as an essential aspect of an empowering organisation (Zimmerman, 1990, 1995). This is typically a behavioural measure, but one which suggests that ecological constraints that exist from authoritarian leadership are not. Certainly, such management arrangements can be seen as the structural aspects of leadership, which stimulate the important processes of involvement and participation.

(d) Assessment of the Effectiveness of the Plan in Bringing About School Change (School Staff's Perception of Community Level Change)

This section aimed to measure the school staffs' perceptions of how successful they thought the school development planning had been in terms of facilitating the change process at the school. It focused on what outcomes they felt the plan has effected at the school and beyond. Several empowerment researchers (Kroeker, 1995; Rich *et al*., 1995; Suaz-Balcazar, Orella-Damacela, Portillo, Sharma & Lanum, 2003) have argued for the importance of outcome-focused measures as part of the overall assessment of empowerment.

(e) Involvement of Other Stakeholders (School Staff's Perception of Community Level Change)

This section aimed to measure school staffs' perceptions about whether the parent body as a whole and the school governing body were aware of and involved in school development planning. Like involvement above, participation is an important measure of empowerment, especially for those stakeholders who are not normally involved in important organisational activities (Peterson & Zimmerman, 2004). Systemically, it means that shared meanings exist more widely throughout the larger system; ecologically, it represents the fact that further resources enter the setting, and all resources are cycled more widely. Again, this is a behavioural measure, but one which reflects an important state of organisational empowerment.

These were the conceptual bases of the items included in different sections of the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale. Overall, the instrument attempted to integrate various measures to illuminate various aspects of the organisational empowerment process, and to operationalise the construct of empowerment to school development contexts. Intrapsychic and behavioural levels of analysis were used, which were conceptualised as demonstrating ecological and systemic phenomena. It was assumed that this combination of variables would best describe a school that was successful in terms of school development planning, and thus a school that was empowered as an

organisation. The development of the scale and its analysis will be further explored in the Methodology and Results sections.

The aim of using the broad frameworks of contextualism and ecological perspectives and the developments within the field of empowerment research was to enable a fuller picture of school development to emerge. By conceptualising school development planning as a form of organisational empowerment and focusing on the organisational level, this study would be able to include organisational and community levels (in line with Zimmerman's conceptions of empowerment), as well as empowerment at the individual level of analysis. This would also enable analysis of organisational empowerment and its relationship with other organisational as well as individual and community level variables.

3.6. SUMMARY OF THE ARGUMENT

From the literature it is argued in this thesis that a contextualist epistemology and an ecological perspective of community psychology as expressed in an empowerment framework can provide a vehicle for exploring the processes of individual, organisational and community change brought about by a school development programme. In this framework empowerment is conceptualised as a multilevel, context specific, dynamic concept. It has different dimensions and is thus difficult to define as a unitary factor (Zimmerman, 1995).

Using Zimmerman's (2000) theories of the different levels of empowerment, empowerment in school development planning contexts is conceptualised as occurring at the individual, organisational and community level. By extending this multilevel view to include the interpersonal level, issues related to collective or relational empowerment are incorporated into the theoretical framework explored in this study.

The aim of this study is to apply a multilevel, dynamic and contextual empowerment framework to school development planning. An argument is presented that the various levels and processes of empowerment identified by community psychologists can be found in the sense of empowerment

experienced by teachers and principals involved in school development planning.

Central to the operationalisation of this contention is the development of a measure of school development planning (the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale), which has been conceptualised as having different sections, each relating to the various levels of empowerment proposed in the literature. The development of this instrument has been undertaken to enable the relationship between school development planning and variables associated with empowerment to be explored, at the various levels of analysis identified in the empowerment literature, as this applies in the sample of schools studied. The assumption is that these levels of empowerment may also apply more generally in educational contexts.

In conceptualising this study, organisational empowerment has been operationalised as a construct by using Peterson & Zimmerman's (2004) nomological network of organisational empowerment. The assumption has been made that school development planning can by this means be directly operationalised as organisational empowerment, enabling confirmation and refinement of the nomological network of organisational empowerment on the one hand, and exploration of its application in a school development context on the other. A central thread in the logic of this study is whether it is possible through the analysis of a measure of school development, for its relationship to variables associated with empowerment to be established.

3.7. RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

The rationale of this study is that, although much research has focused on the importance of context in understanding empowerment's processes and outcomes, little has been done in the area of educational settings such as schools. No studies to date have attempted to conceptualise school development planning both as an empowering process for schools and one that can achieve empowered outcomes. Recently several practitioners have been applying community psychology as a framework for working with, and intervening in, school settings, for example Camic & Rhodes (2003); Rhodes

& Camic (2006); Wood (2006). However whether school development planning can be conceptualised as organisational empowerment has not been explored, either in the context of research conducted in schools in developed countries, or (importantly in terms of the sample of schools focused on in this study) in developing countries.

The theoretical implications of this study are that utilising a contextualist/ecological perspective can provide a framework for looking at the complex social issues of empowerment and school change. If such a framework can be applied to school contexts, it allows questions to be asked within organisations, such as schools, that go far beyond intrapsychic or interactional person-environment fits, and view persons embedded completely within the ecological resources and constraints of their settings (Trickett, 1984; Yoshikawa & Shinn, 2002).

This allows for the exploration of both school development processes and empowerment at various levels of analysis (for example teacher change, change in leadership, change in participation and decision-making and change in the organisation) and allows for the exploration of factors that hinder or support this process. By focusing on the dialectical relationship between the levels, insight into whether school development planning as an organisational intervention impacts on other levels of analysis can also be gained.

By exploring these issues within the context of South African township schools, cross-cultural views on empowerment and school development can also be gained. An empowerment-based analysis allows for the development of knowledge about how school development planning, a process conceptualised in “developed” countries, has been understood and re-invented in a “developing” country.

Social issues, like education in a post-apartheid South Africa, are complex and interrelated and the solutions to these problems needs to take into account the interdependence of the world’s political, economic and social

structure (Roesch & Carr, 2000). Cowen (2000) suggests that intrinsically complex human and social problems require multiple, divergent and changing solutions. In the same way these complex multilevel issues require contextualist multi-method approaches to their investigation.

3.8. CONCEPTUALISATION AND MEASUREMENT OF VARIABLES RELATED TO EMPOWERMENT

The literature reviewed indicates that many variables have been associated with empowerment at various levels of analysis (Foster-Fishman & Keys, 1997; Klein *et al*., 2000; Prestby *et al*., 1990; Spreitzer, 1996; Zimmerman, 2000). Zimmerman's (2000) framework of empowerment at different levels of analysis, namely the individual, organisational and community provides exemplars of empowerment at each of these levels (see Table 1 and review, Chapter 2.3.3). For the purposes of this study aspects related to the individual and organisational level have been focused on as these were the focus of the school development programme. Zimmerman (2000) highlights issues of control and efficacy as exemplars of empowerment at the individual level of analysis. At the organisational level issues of democratic or participatory leadership, supportive organisational climate, collaborative working and opportunities to participate in decision making are seen as indicators of an empowering organisation (Zimmerman, 2000). As has been argued empowerment is a context specific construct (Speer, 2000) and as such context specific measures at both the individual and organisational levels of analysis would be important to include in the study as exemplars of these levels in a school development context.

3.7.1. MEASURES ASSOCIATED WITH INDIVIDUAL EMPOWERMENT

As no single measure of psychological empowerment has been developed, and following previous research on empowerment at the individual level of analysis (Chavis & Wandersman, 1990; Florin & Wandersman, 1984; Zimmerman & Rappaport, 1988), a combination of locus of control and self-efficacy measures were used in this study to measure the intrapersonal aspects of psychological empowerment (Segal, Silverman & Temkin, 1995; Speer & Peterson, 2000; Zimmerman, 2000).

In previous research on empowerment, measures of general self-efficacy have been used (Zimmerman & Rappaport, 1988; Chavis & Wandersman, 1990; Florin & Wandersman, 1984). Although many authors argue for the use of a general measure of efficacy (Bosscher & Smit, 1998; Bosscher, Smit & Kempen, 1997; Gardner & Pierce, 1998; Jacobs & Rogers, 1982; Tipton & Worthington, 1984) there has been some debate about whether situation specific measures should be used (Bandura, 1992; Bandura, Adams, Hardy & Howells, 1980).

It was therefore decided in conceptualising this study to include a context specific measure of efficacy in the form of a Teacher Self Efficacy Scale to assess if there were differences between general and specific measures of efficacy with relation to organisational empowerment. It is acknowledged that, while none of these three measures, or combination of measures, fully assesses psychological empowerment, each measure used has been associated with empowerment, particularly intrapersonal empowerment at the individual level of analysis (Kieffer, 1984; Zimmerman, 1995, 2000).

3.7.2. MEASURES OF PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING AND COLLABORATION

Evidence for the link between participation and empowerment has been established in the workplace (Herronkohl, *et al*., 1999; Koberg *et al*., 1999; Menon, 1999; Tjosvold & Law, 1998); the community (LeBosse *et al*., 1998/9; Perkins, *et al*., 1996; Perkins, *et al*., 1990; Price, 1990; Peterson & Reid, 2003; Speer, 2000); and the school (Bartunek, *et al*., 1999; Klecker & Loadman, 1998; Royal & Rossi, 1996). Several authors (e.g. Bartunek *et al*., 1999; Le Bosse, *et al*., 1998/9; Speer, 2000; Speer & Zippay, 2005) have made a distinction between active and passive participation arguing that they have a different impact on the individual's behaviour and outcomes.

In a similar vein Frank, Cosey, Angevine & Cardone (1985) make a distinction between being involved in the decision-making process and having actual influence on the decision taken. Zimmerman and colleagues (Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995; Zimmerman & Rappaport, 1988) argue that an individual's

active participation in decision-making within the major organisations that substantively influence his or her daily life will engender both an increase in the individual's sense of personal power and effectiveness and an increase in the organisations' abilities to meet the individuals needs. Following the distinction proposed by Frank *et al*., (1985) the present study focused on both involvement in decision making and actual influence in terms of the decision made.

Participation in decision-making is only one aspect of participation as a concept (Robertson & Minkler, 1994). Several researchers have argued that the type of participation is an important factor in determining its link to empowerment (Bartunek, et al., 1999; LeBosse et al., 1998/9; Speer, 2000). The school development literature emphasises the importance of collaboration within the schools if the development process is to be success (Hole, 1998; Lyman & Foyle, 1998; Mueller, Procter & Buchanan, 2000; Sullo, 1998). Collaboration in this literature is seen both as an outcome and a vital process of the school change process. Collaboration has also been linked to many positive individual and organisational outcomes (Ambrosie, 1989; Conely, Schmidle & Shedd, 1988; Bickmore, 1998; Bryk & Driscoll, 1988; Fox & Faver, 1984; Hord, 1986; Lee, Derick & Smith, 1991; Royal & Rossi, 1999). Several writers have also stressed the important role collaboration play not only in facilitating school development efforts but also it minimising the overwhelming dimensions of change (Duttweiler, 1989; Miles & Louis, 1990; Payne, 1991).

Collaboration and its relationship to empowerment per se has not been fully explored, however links with indicators of psychological empowerment such as self-efficacy have been found in several studies (Bryk & Driscoll, 1988; Lee, *et al*., Royal & Rossi, 1996). In terms of the evidence for the link between participation and empowerment and because this study's area of interest is empowerment in a school development setting a measure of collaboration was also included in the study.

3.7.3. MEASURES OF LEADERSHIP

The link between various aspects of leadership and empowerment has been established. Several researchers report that leadership qualities such as encouraging, supporting and approachability play an important role in developing empowerment (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Koberg *et al*., 1999; Kraimer, Seibert & Liden, 1999; Liden, *et al*., 2000).

Leadership styles such as participative; democratic and transformational leadership have all been linked to empowerment in the workplace (Bolin, 1989; Fuller, Morrison, Jones, Bridger & Brown, 1999; Tjosvold & Law, 1998); in the community (Bond & Keys, 1993; Saegert & Winkel, 1995) and in schools (Lightfoot, 1986; Stimson & Appelbaum, 1988). Organisational cultures reflecting participation, collaboration and co-operation have also been linked to empowerment (Bond & Keys, 1993; Foster-Fishman & Keys, 1997; Spreitzer, 1995; Tjosvold & Law, 1998). The link between leadership and participation has been established by several researchers (Driscoll, 1978; Prestby, *et al*., 1990; Pretorius, 1993; VanYperen, van den Berg & Willerig, 1999; White, 1979).

Leaders can play an important role in developing participative and collaborative environments within their organisations and thus play a crucial role in developing the empowerment of their staff as well as making the organisation a more empowering place to work in (Bond & Keys, 1993; Foster-Fishman & Keys, 1997). The quality of the relationship leaders have with their staff also play an important role in developing empowerment (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Koberg *et al*., 1999). Thus in order to take into account both the relationship aspects of the leadership role and the organisational culture related to the leadership style both of these aspects will be measured in the present study.

The link between peer working relationships and empowerment has been established in the organisational and school setting (Barksdale-Ladd & Thomas, 1996; Jex & Bliese, 1999). Corsun & Enz (1999) report that work environments fostering support based relationship result in worker

empowerment. With the emphasis on collaborative relationships (Hole, 1998; Lyman & Foyle, 1998; Mueller *et al*, 2000; Sullo, 1998) or collegiality (Barth, 1990; Little, 1981) amongst teachers in terms of successful school development, and as empowerment in this setting is being explored it was decided to include a measure of peer working relationships.

3.7.4. CONCLUSION

These measures have been included so as to provide and form reference points of existing well-researched variables which could be used for validating the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale developed as part of this study. Including these variables also provided additional evidence as to the presence of empowerment in the school development setting at various levels of analysis. Information relating to the actual measures used and their reliability and validity will be presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR: METHODOLOGY

4.1. INTRODUCTION

The central tenet of this thesis is that empowerment is complex, manifests in different situations and can be tapped in various ways. As such it is assumed that it occurs in school development, and that if it occurs in this particular context, it can be measured. Thus the exploration of empowerment, in a school development setting is a central focus of this study.

To assess whether empowerment is evidenced in schools a comparison of schools that had been on the programme for three years with those that had been on one year was undertaken. If evidence of empowerment at the individual and organisational levels was found then the theoretical argument would have been confirmed and it could be concluded that the school development programme has been successful. The logic of the analysis was that where evidence of empowerment at the individual and organisational levels was found, then this could be taken as evidence that the theoretical argument had been confirmed. It could also be concluded that the school development programme had been successful.

An ex post facto, post hoc group comparison design was utilised to analyse the impact of the school development planning programme. It should be noted that ex post facto designs are descriptive, non-experimental designs, and thus potentially weak for drawing conclusions concerning the effects of programmes (Potter, 2004). In order to deal with these weaknesses a multi-method design was utilised, in which an ex post facto contrast group design was nested. The overall design relied on the use of multiple methods and the logic of triangulation between different sources of data, involving both quantitative measurement and qualitative evidence of different kinds. The qualitative data were used for interpretation of the quantitative results, as well as in their own right, to yield perspectives on what teachers experienced in the programme.

An attempt was also made to measure the empowerment construct directly through the construction of a school development questionnaire, the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale. A pilot study on this instrument was conducted, the results of which indicated that, though the factors measured by the scale appeared to form a single construct or composite area, the construct or area itself which was difficult to define. For this reason, the scale was amended and its factorial structure scrutinised again. Again the scale yielded indications that a unitary construct or area was being measured, but it did not appear to comprise one single factor which was interpretable in terms of the loading of its different components. The net result was that it was not possible to establish whether or not the underlying school development construct measured by the test was in fact an empowerment factor.

It should be borne in mind in this respect that Zimmerman (2000) has suggested that empowerment is a multilayered construct which is difficult to define. It may well be that this lack of conceptual clarity was the reason for the difficulties experienced in interpreting the single unitary construct identified in the factor analyses of the results of the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale in our pilot study. What could be concluded was that both factor analyses identified almost all the variance as related to a composite area or construct, which, like empowerment, appeared to be an aggregation or composite of many different layers or factorial entities.

However, for purposes of reporting the design of this study it should be noted that it could not assume from the evidence of the pilot study that a unitary factor of empowerment had been found. It could merely be establish that the factor analyses could not be interpreted logically, as the different components of the unitary construct identified were unclear.

For this reason, provision was made in the design of the main study for the additional measures besides the School Development Planning Scale to be used. These enabled the validation of the School Development Planning Scale against a number of other measures which appeared from the literature

to be measuring aspects of empowerment (via separate empowerment-related constructs).

In the main study, the reliability of these additional instruments (relating to locus of control, efficacy, participation and leadership) was first established. The information they yielded was then used for concurrent validation purposes. This was done by administering these additional tests at the same time as the School Development Planning Scale, and then establishing how the results of these additional tests related to the results yielded by the School Development Planning Scale.

In addition to this descriptive analysis, focus groups and interviews were also conducted with teachers, principals and school development teams involved in the programme. These data were collected to establish whether they reported that involvement in the programme had led to their personal empowerment, as well as the empowerment of their schools as organisations and the communities in which their school was situated. Archival data on the particular schools involved in the programme were examined as an additional qualitative data source.

Regrouped data (both quantitative and qualitative) contrasting schools that had performed well on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale with those that performed less well were analysed and interpreted to further explore empowerment as evidenced in the schools. To integrate the findings from the quantitative and qualitative analyses, impact matrices were constructed to identify what the various data sources revealed about the impact of the programme and its meaning in teachers' lives and thus what evidence there was for empowerment at the individual, organisational and community levels of analyses.

In order to further explore the relationships between these variables various qualitative and quantitative analyses were undertaken. The qualitative analyses of factors that helped or hindered the school development process were used in conjunction with multiple regression analysis to develop a model

of organisational empowerment. This model was tested using Structural Equation Modelling. The findings from these qualitative and quantitative analyses were integrated through the construction of relationship matrix and diagrams to offer suggestions about the relationships between the various variables. These various analyses were then integrated to provide conclusions about school development planning as empowerment and about empowerment as evidenced in school settings.

4.2. RESEARCH DESIGN ISSUES IN COMMUNITY PSYCHOLOGY

One of the methodological challenges in community psychology has been how community psychologists can research real world phenomena in a sound and rigorous way (Tolan, Chertok, Keys & Jason, 1990). Community psychology's emphasis lies in the contextual nature of information, the utility of divergent views. It also has an interest in real-life and ill-structured problems (Tolan *et al*., 1990) as well as multiple-level and dynamic constructs such as empowerment (Rappaport, 1990). These imperatives make it difficult to fit the research methodologies used in community psychology within the narrow positivistic framework offered by much of traditional scientific research (Bhana & Kanjee, 2001; Swartz & Gibson, 2001). Community psychology's interests are in matters that are best understood by multiple methods and by multidimensional analysis of data rather than through designs focusing on a single causal element (e.g. Potter, 2004).

More specifically Foster-Fishman *et al*. (1998) argue that the recognition that empowerment is a contextualised and dynamic process poses a critical challenge for empowerment researchers – the identification of research methods that capture this complexity. An overly individualistic conception of empowerment may limit understanding of the construct. If the individual level of analysis is focused on exclusively, single measures of competence and trait-oriented conceptions of empowerment may be advanced while failing to consider environmental influences, organisational factors or social, cultural and political contexts. A more contextual and collectivist orientation however, does not ignore individual experiences of control; rather, it allows for a more

culturally sensitive theory of control that is consistent with empowerment theory (van Uchelen, 2000).

It is not only at a conceptual or research design level that these issues are relevant. By conceptualising social issues, such as empowerment, at only one level of analysis, and by not contexualising it, use can be made of limited or faulty methods for researching empowerment-related issues. Foster-Fishman *et al*. (1998) make the point that two strategies often used in empowerment research may inadvertently obscure the variety of empowerment experiences for persons in a given setting. Firstly, many empowerment research studies and programmatic interventions have been constructed around a particular researcher's own definitions of empowerment (for example, Spreitzer, 1995; Zimmerman & Rappaport, 1988). This definition may not be consistent with the empowerment expectations and experiences of stakeholders, beneficiaries or other community members in a particular social or educational setting.

Secondly, researchers have tended to use singular operationalisations of empowerment within their target setting (for example, Ozer & Bandura, 1989; Spreitzer, 1995; Zimmerman *et al*., 1992; Zimmerman & Rappaport, 1988). While targeting a limited number of process or predictor variables increases the feasibility of an empirical investigation and the ability to identify certain aspects of empowerment that are common across individuals, singular or limited conceptualisations of empowerment potentially ignores alternative routes to increased rigour and/or control. Such an approach can both significantly limit our understanding of empowerment and our ability to promote social change through empowering interventions (Foster-Fishman *et al*., 1998).

Many writers have thus been calling for researchers in community psychology to move away from the individual level of analysis and include other levels of analysis in their studies (Rappaport, 1990; Seibert *et al*., 2004; Trickett, 1991; Zimmerman, 2000). It is not only within the sphere of empowerment research that a call has been made for a different approach that can take into account

complexity, context and multiple levels. A multiple level approach to empowerment research has been advocated by many writers in the area of community psychology (Glenwick, Heller, Linney & Pargament, 1990; Wicker, 1990), leadership (Conger, 1998; Parry, 1998), participation and school development (Stoll, 1999). The use of a multiple level approach to researching and analysing issues in the social world goes by several names: multi-level (DiPrete & Forristal, 1994), cross-level (Shinn, 1990; Shinn & Rapkin, 2000) or mixed level research (Glick, 1980, 1985). Although all of these terms refer to something slightly different the emphasis has been on looking at the interaction of variables between the different levels of analysis.

Kingry-Westergaard & Kelly (1990) and McGuire (1983, 1986) have shown the relevance of a contextualist epistemology for research and intervention in community psychology. Linking contextualist epistemology directly to an ecological perspective, these authors suggest that understanding behaviour in context means attending to the varied social constructions of participants in the context. While this makes sense at a theoretical level the issue of context is still a difficult one to grapple with (Shinn, 1996).

4.3. MULTI-METHOD APPROACHES TO RESEARCH DESIGN

The investigation of complex social realties such as empowerment necessitates the use of multiple research methods (House, 1994). Numerous authors have called for multi-method research in community psychology (Camic & Rhodes, 2003; Wicker, 1990), empowerment research (Campbell & Martiniko, 1998), organisational studies (Bradshaw-Camball & Murray, 1991; Gioia & Pitre, 1990) and educational development (Cafasso, Camic & Rhodes, 2002).

Rosenthal & Rosnow (1991) refer to this approach as “methodological pluralism”. They argue that it is imperative to use more than one approach to gathering data given the limitations of any one particular strategy of inquiry, and justify its usage as a form of critical multiplism (Brewer & Hunter, 2006; Cook, 1985; Cook & Shadish, 1986; Houts, Cook & Shadish, 1986; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007; Shadish, 1986).

Although the debate between qualitative and quantitative methods of inquiry has a long history in the fields of both education and psychology (Bryman, 1984; Collins, 1984; Eisner & Peshkin, 1990; Erikson, 1986; Guba, 1990; Mishler, 1990; Phillips, 1990; Reichardt & Cook, 1979; Rossi, 1994; Smith, J., 1983; Smith, M., 1994) many authors are now calling for a combination of these two approaches, in an attempt to deal with the complex nature of the phenomena of interest to community psychologist and also to deal with the limitations of both approaches (Brewer & Hunter, 1989; Crabtree, Yanoshik, Miller, & O'Connor, 1993; Fontana & Frey, 1998; Hedrick, 1994; Preissle, 1992; Reichardt & Rallis, 1994; Rossi & Berk, 1981; Taylor, 1995; Weinstein, 1991). Smaling (1992a, b) and Rossman & Wilson (1985) argue for a pragmatic view on the combination of the two methods in one study and thereby triangulating data and methodologies. Camic & Rhodes (2003) argue for a 'bending and blending' of data collection through an integration of methodologies in evaluating community psychology approaches in school development.

There are several benefits of using integrated approaches in research discussed in Bamberger (2000) that also apply to impact evaluations (Baker, 2000). Among them:

- Consistency checks can be built in through the use of triangulation procedures that permit two or more independent estimates to be made for key variables
- Different perspectives can be obtained. For example, although researchers may consider income or consumption to be the key indicators of household welfare, case studies may reveal that women are more concerned about vulnerability (defined as the lack of access to social support systems in times of crises), powerlessness, or exposure to violence (Baker, 2000).
- Analysis can be conducted on different levels. Survey methods can provide good estimates of individual, household, and community level welfare, but they are much less effective for analyzing social processes.

- Opportunities can be provided for feedback to help interpret findings. The greater flexibility of qualitative research means that it is often possible to return to the field to gather additional data.

According to Robson (1993) the main advantage of employing multiple methods is that it allows triangulation. Denzin (1978) suggested that this might be done in social research by using multiple and different sources (e.g. informants), methods, investigators or theories. A general prescription has been to pick triangulation sources that have different biases, different strengths, so they can complement each other (Huberman & Miles, 1998). Several writers have written about the value of alternate sources of data for enhancing cross-checking, credibility and depth to one's research (Adler & Adler, 1998; Guba & Lincoln, 1981; Stake, 1995). Potter (1992) referring to Denzin (1970) says:

> a research design based on multiple sources of data, investigators, theories and methodologies had greater potential for providing valid information about phenomena in social settings than a research design based on one source of data alone. To achieve a composite perspective from a variety of data sources however would require appropriate methods of analysis as well as rigorous methodology for integrating indications and inferences drawn from each data source. (p.7)

Using multi-methods, or triangulation, reflects an attempt to secure an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon in question. Objective reality can never be captured through investigation (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). Triangulation is not a tool or strategy of validation, but an alternative to validation (Denzin, 1994; Flick, 1992). The combination of multiple methods, empirical materials, perspectives and observers in a single study is best understood, then as a strategy that adds rigor, breadth and depth to any investigation (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). As Shinn (1990) aptly states this triangulating or using multiple sources, measures, methods and/or approaches is primarily because multiple methods assess multiple realities rather than because information gleaned from one apparently more objective method necessarily validates information gleaned from another apparently more subjective one.

Ratcliffe (1983) and Mischler (1990), among others, argue that there is no one universal guarantor of validity, but there are notions of validity – that the concept of validity is no less a function of successively dominant modes of thought than are the inquiry systems that have prevailed historically or than the distinction between subjective-objective or qualitative modes of inquiry. The point is that reality is difficult to apprehend and it is even more difficult to represent symbolically. By acknowledging that there are a variety of methods of apprehending the world and that there is no one right way to conduct inquiry and generate validity and because every way is necessarily approximate and partial and that each way has its own strengths and weaknesses it is therefore crucial to try and capture a multitude of interpretations.

If it is accepted that no notion of validity is either immutable or inviolate, for all such notions are dynamic, instrumental and evolving – and therefore need not be slavishly followed as if they are universal; laws of nature the process of validation can, like the process of enquiry be broadened to include the perspectives and judgements of the researched – so that those who have been excluded historically from the process of problem definition, data interpretation and validation can begin to participate in these processes as authentic subjects in inquiry (Reason & Rowan, 1981) instead of being limited to their traditional role as mere objects of inquiry. As John Heron (1981) states

> Knowledge fuels power: it increases the efficacy of decision-making. Knowledge about persons can fuel power over persons or fuel power shared with persons. And the moral principle of respect for persons is most fully honored when power is shared not only in the application of knowledge about persons, but also in the generation of such knowledge. (p. 35)

Denzin (1994), talking about the evaluation of social programmes, stresses the importance of understanding the implementation and impact of the programme from the perspective of the participants. He argues that often social programmes are based upon interpretations or judgements that bear little relationship to the meaning, interpretations and lived experience of the people they intend to serve. He feels that often programmes fail as they are

based on a failure to take the perspective of the people being served. He argues that the human disciplines and the applied social sciences are under a mandate to clarify how interpretations and understandings are formulated, implemented and given meaning in problematic, lived situations. Ideally this knowledge can be used to evaluate programmes that have been put in place to assist people or communities. The perspectives and experiences of those people who are served by the project must be grasped, interpreted and understood if solid applied programmes are to be created.

He argues that through the use of personal experience and description of lived experiences the perspective of people can be compared and contrasted and in this way help identify different definitions of the problem and the programme being evaluated. By focusing on the lived experience of people and their judgements of the impact of the programme alternative points of view can be gained. The limits of statistics and statistical evaluations can be exposed with more qualitative, interpretative materials. Its emphasis on the uniqueness of each life and each situation holds up the individual case as the measure of the effectiveness of all applied programmes. This becomes vitally important in the context of the present study because we need to understand how a western model of school development has been implemented, understood and reinterpreted by the community involved in the study.

This multilevel, multi-method approach to our area of study provides a design and methods for our study that are consistent with the values of community psychology. A commitment to diversity should also lead us to employ different methods of understanding and representing people. Our commitment to and valuing of diversity – in questions and solutions, in settings and services, and in voices and perspectives (e.g. Rappaport, 1977) – should make us weary of generalisations and universality and of the power of numeric representations of persons (Trickett, 1990). As Cronbach (1975) argued “the goal of our work is not to amass generalisations atop which a theoretical tower can someday be erected. The special task of the social scientist in each generation is to pin down the contemporary facts” (p. 126).

A commitment to contextual understanding and definitions should make community psychologists wary of predetermined questions and standardised measures which can be as obscuring of local meaning and understanding as illuminating of them. An ecological perspective requires that we take seriously the transactional nature of person-environment relationships (Altman & Rogoff, 1987). A commitment to collaborative, empowering research methods (e.g. Rappaport, 1990; Reinharz, 1992) should lead community psychologists to converse with people they work with, to aim for intersubjective, emic accounts of their lives and understandings and to the extent possible to amplify their voices and foreground their expertise. In this way community psychologists are being consistent with the value of collaboration and empowerment of those they work with (Serrano-Garcia, 1990).

4.3.1. Evaluation and Multi-Method Design

Although these ideas have been expressed for over a decade the values of community psychology are often not reflected in the studies published (Stewart, 2000). There is still an over reliance on individual level analysis, quantitative measures and little attempt to incorporate issues of context. Shadish (1990) argues that community psychology has been limited by the social structure of its academic setting. He argues that programme evaluation may offer a useful framework for community psychology research.

Spielberger, Piacente & Hobfoll (1976) argue that often research and evaluation are seen as distinct from each other. They argue that programme evaluation is seen as providing immediate feedback which permits continual adjustments to programme objectives whereas research is generally seen as being designed to test theories and contribute to general store of knowledge. School development studies have relied almost exclusively on the evaluation side of this distinction and this is reflected in the lack of theorising around the process of school development. However Spielberger et al. (1976) and Chen & Rossi (1983) argue that it is vitally important that impact evaluations take on the task of developing theory as to why projects are successful.

Chen & Rossi (1983) argue that many mainstream programme evaluations only focus on the impact or outcomes of the programme. They suggest that by focusing solely on the attainment of goals without much reference to why the programme was successful or not we are often left with narrow and sometimes distorted understanding of programmes. Thus they feel that it is vital that evaluators look at the process (what factors contributed to the success of the programme) as well as the outcomes. Qualitative approaches may be better suited to these descriptions of process and development (Guba & Lincoln, 1995). Thus again the importance of a multi-method approach to the evaluation is stressed.

In discussing the use of evaluation models in community psychology research Chen & Rossi (1983) raise the issues of what criteria are to be used for assessing the impact of a development programme. The specifying of outcomes or goal specification constitutes one of the important distinctions between basic and applied social research (Chen & Rossi, 1983). In basic research outcome variables express the disciplinary interests of the researcher; in applied social research, outcome variables are those of interest to policy makers or other sponsors of applied research. As traditionally viewed, goals specification in evaluation research tends to be a search for appropriate operational definitions of the intended effects of the programme. Chen & Rossi (1983) criticise the dominant paradigm allied to evaluation in which the only focus is on the outcomes of the programme as defined by the programme, policy makers or legislators. Their argument, in line with that of Spielberger et al. (1976) is that by merely focusing on the attainment of goals without much reference to why the programme was successful or not, and by ignoring unintended consequences, evaluators may provide narrow and sometimes distorted understandings of programmes.

Chen & Rossi (1983) argue that programmes may be accomplishing something that were not intended by their designers and that such effects may either be desirable or undesirable, may produce effects that offset those intended and that a good evaluation should take into account inferred effects as well as those directly intended. Related to this is the underlying

assumption in empowerment theory that empowerment in different contexts will take different forms and thus we need to beware of putting forward predetermined notions of empowerment as such an approach can both limit our understanding of empowerment and our ability to promote social change through empowering interventions (Foster-Fishman et al., 1998). This is of vital importance in this context as notions of school development through school development planning and notions of empowerment based very much on "western" theories and frameworks was being applied in a developing country context. However as argued previously the programme has some clear aims and it is legitimate to explore whether school members behaviour and organisational outcomes change in ways that are consistent with the expectations of the initiative (Bartunek et al., 1999).

Again a multi-method approach to the study allowed one to explore these various perspectives. In this way unintended consequences could be explored to provide a more thorough picture of the impact of the programme, issues of process and the reasons for success could be tapped and achievement of the specific aims of the programme could be assessed.

Using multiple methods, or triangulation, reflects an attempt to secure an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon in question (Potter, 2004). The combination of multiple methods, empirical materials, perspectives and observers in a single study is therefore best understood as a strategy that adds rigour, breadth and depth to any investigation (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). This multilevel, multi-method approach not only provides a design and methods for this study that are consistent with the values of community psychology but also strengthens weaknesses in the ex post facto design and provides an approach to the evaluation that will allow conclusions about the programmes effectiveness to be made.

4.4. RESEARCH DESIGN OF THE PRESENT STUDY

In line with the ecological and contextualist approach being advocated in this study for understanding both community psychology and the field of school development, a contextualist, multiple method approach to the evaluation was

taken combining both quantitative and qualitative data. Through this methodological triangulation it was hoped that a more complete, holistic and conceptual portrayal of the units under study could be captured (Jick, 1979) as well as what Trickett (1991) refers to as the unintended as well as the intended "ripples" of the intervention being evaluated. Due to the exploratory nature of this study (i.e. attempting to apply empowerment concepts in a school setting) it was felt that it was important to have a comparison of results across methods as a means of triangulation (Jick, 1979). At present research on empowerment within school settings appears to be in an exploratory phase with very few studies of empowerment conducted in the school setting (exceptions are Cafasso *et al*., 2002; Rhodes & Camic, 2006).

The use of multiple methods alleviates some of the issues associated with questionnaire measures in empowerment research, particularly the restriction of the range of potential responses from participants in the study (Foster-Fishman *et al*., 1998). Empowerment theory is predicated on the assumption that empowerment is a context specific construct that will vary across individuals and time (Zimmerman, 2000). Researchers in the field of empowerment have been criticised for constraining respondents' views within their own predetermined notions of empowerment (Foster-Fishman *et al*., 1998). Thus qualitative techniques, like focus groups and interviewing, allowed the exploration of teachers' and principals' perceptions of the change process without predetermined dimensions, categories or constraints.

Measurement questionnaires are more appropriate in well-developed theoretical domains where the variables and their relationships are well known. However since the application of empowerment theory to school development at an organisational level is in an exploratory phase, qualitative methods are needed to fully examine the depth and range of the application of empowerment theory in school settings. The use of multiple methods provided the potential for a more thorough and in-depth understanding of empowerment in the school setting.

To explore the impact of the programme an ex post facto analysis was conducted based on a post-test only comparison group evaluation design. Being an essentially descriptive, non-experimental design, a multi-method approach followed the suggestions made by Cohen & Manion (1989) for strengthening potentially weak research designs in education, with their attendant problems of external and internal validity. Through the use of different methods, and a process of triangulation across different sources of data, the aim was to alleviate the problems encountered when conclusions are drawn based on use of one method or one source of data only.

It has been necessary in this study to accord weight not only to measurement data, but equally importantly to the self-reports of teachers and principals involved in this particular school development planning programme. The use of different data sources (various existing measures, a new measure, the self-reports of teachers and principals and externally verified data e.g. achievement of school development objectives) was necessary to provided indicators not only of empowerment, but also of school development planning outcomes. This use of multiple data sources was also necessary for the ex post facto design used in the study to be nested within a larger multi-method analysis.

Using a logics model of impact evaluation the focus of this study has been on looking for impacts and effects of the programme (as defined in the terms of reference Chapter 1 and explored in more detail below, and operationalised in the evaluation model adopted in the study as described in Table 5a) across a number of different data sources. The study also looked for various kinds of evidence relating to the impact of the programme in line with previous studies using similar an evaluation framework. Scriven (1983), talking about the multi-model in evaluation, argues for the need for multiple perspectives when conducting an evaluation. He says “it is often absolutely essential that different points of view on the same program or product be taken into account before any attempt at synthesis is begun, some preserved to the end” (p. 257).

The logic of a multi-method evaluation design relies on examination of more than one source of data. The reason for this is that it is not possible to conclude either that the programme is effective, or that is it ineffective, on the basis of an ex post facto design. An ex post facto design is a descriptive design. In order to provide any comment on the effectiveness of the programme it was necessary to collect data from various sources. The results of the analyses of the quantitative data would thus at best be one element considered in building a case for the programme's effects or impact. As Scriven (1983) suggests, the reason for the multi-method model is that evaluation deals with multiples e.g. multiple levels, dimensions, perspective. There have to be other sources of data before firm conclusions become possible.

4.4.1. Impact Evaluation: The Measurement of Programme Outcomes

The terms "effect" and "impact" are defined in a number of different ways in the evaluation literature (Australian Public Service Commission, 2005; Blamey, 2007; Halliday , Friedli, & McCollam, 2004). The focus in this study on shorter term outcomes as "effect" and "impact" used in the current study follows a line of definition and reasoning used by other evaluators internationally.

The current study focuses on programme effects through a multi-method study in which is nested a non-experimental research design focusing on empowerment outcomes. This type of study is in line with international practice in programme evaluation. The World Bank's Independent Evaluation Group, for example, states in a recent discussion paper (http://www.worldbank.org/ieg/docs/world_bank_oed_impact_evaluations.pdf) that:

> the research designs used in impact evaluations range from large scale sample surveys in which project populations and control groups are compared before and after, and possibly at several points during program intervention; to small-scale rapid assessment and participatory appraisals where estimates of impact are obtained from combining group interviews, key informants, case studies and available secondary data. (p. 2)

According to the World Bank's Independent Evaluation Group there are several methods or models of impact evaluation which are summarised below:

Impact Evaluation Model	Design
1. Randomized pre-test post-test evaluation	Subjects (families, schools, communities etc) are randomly assigned to project and control groups. Questionnaires or other data collection instruments (anthropometric measures, school performance tests, etc) are applied to both groups before and after the project intervention. Additional observations may also be made during project implementation.
2. Quasi-experimental design with before and after comparisons of project and control populations.	Where randomization is not possible, a control group is selected which matches the characteristics of the project group as closely as possible. Sometimes the types of communities from which project participants were drawn will be selected. Where projects are implemented in several phases, participants selected for subsequent phases can be used as the control for the first phase project group.
3. Ex-post comparison of project and non-equivalent control group.	Data are collected on project beneficiaries and a non-equivalent control group is selected as for Model 2. Data are only collected after the project has been implemented. Multivariate analysis is often used to statistically control for differences in the attributes of the two groups.
4. Rapid assessment ex post impact evaluations.	Some evaluations only study groups affected by the project while others include matched control groups. Participatory methods can be used to allow groups to identify changes resulting from the project, who has benefited and who has not, and what were the project's strengths and weaknesses. Triangulation is used to compare the group information with the opinions of key informants and information available from secondary sources. Case studies on individuals or groups may be produced to provide more in-depth understanding of the processes of change.

At the definitional level the terms 'impact', 'outcome' and 'results' have been differently defined and operationalised in the literature. For example the Big Lottery Fund (www.biglotteryfund.org.uk/index/evaluationandresearch-uk/eval_res_glossary.htmImpactevaluation) defines impact evaluation in the following way: "Assesses the overall effects, intended or unintended, of the programme on wider social, economic or environmental conditions" and outcome evaluation: "Determines whether a programme caused demonstrable effects on specifically defined outcomes".

The UK Evaluation Society defines impacts as “a general term used to describe the effects of a programme on society. Impacts can be either positive or negative and foreseen or unforeseen. Initial impacts are called results, whilst longer-term impacts are called outcomes”. It defines outcomes as “the longer-term impact, usually expressed in terms of broad socio-economic consequences, which can be attributed to an intervention” and results as “the initial impact of an intervention” (http://www.evaluation.org.uk/Pub_library/Glossary.htm).

The World Bank uses impact and outcome interchangeably when talking about what impact evaluation can be used for: “Measuring outcomes and impacts of an activity and distinguishing these from the influence of other, external factors” (p. 4) Davies (2003) states that “Summative evaluation (sometimes called impact evaluation) asks questions about the impact of a policy, programme or intervention on specific outcomes and for different groups of people” (p. 4). He distinguishes between goals based evaluation (i.e. have the goals of a policy, programme or project, as set out in the targets set, been achieved) and goals free evaluation which is interested in the unintended consequences or outcomes of a policy, programme or project. Goals-free methods determine the actual effects or outcomes of some policy, programme or project, without necessarily knowing what the intended goals might be.

Seymour & Searle (no date) define outcome evaluation as the extent to which a programme achieves its outcomes. May be short or long term effect. May include knowledge, skills or impact on practice. They define Impact evaluation as “A form of outcome evaluation which assesses change which can be attributed to a particular programme or project. This can be done by comparing programme outcomes with what might happen in the absence of the programme.

The definition of impact adopted in this study is linked to a number of previously conducted impact evaluations in both health and educational sectors that have used a similar definition focusing on both shorter term and

longer term outcomes or impacts (Australian Public Service Commission, 2005; Blamey, 2007; Halliday , Friedli, & McCollam, 2004) and those that make use of a similar methodology (Hayton, Boyd, Campbell, Crawford, Latimer, K., Lindsay, & Percy, 2007; Lloyd, O'Brien, & Lewis, 2003; NHS Health Scotland, 2007; Ring, & Finnie, 2004; Philip, Shucksmith, & King, 2004).

Several studies have used frameworks that focus on shorter term outcomes or effects of a programme. The Logic Model of programme evaluation (Kellogg Foundation, 2001; NHS Health Scotland, 2007; Taylor-Powell, 2005) and the Kirkpatrick model of training evaluation (Kirkpatrick, D, 1998; Kirkpatrick, S, 2001; Shea, 2004) offer broader views of impact evaluation. These two frameworks incorporate shorter term outcomes in the impact evaluation of development programmes and of training initiatives respectively. Both frameworks see the assessment of shorter term outcomes as being legitimate assessments of impact.

The four levels of Kirkpatrick's evaluation model (1998) essentially measures (1) reactions of participants to the training; (2) learning in terms increase in knowledge or capability; (3) behaviour and capability improvement and (4) implementation/application results - the effects on the organisation or environment resulting from the trainee's performance. He stresses that all of these measures are recommended for full and meaningful evaluation of learning in organizations.

The definition of impact used in the present study is based on the logic model. The model describes the pieces of the project and expected connections among them. A typical model has four categories of project elements that are connected by directional arrows. These elements are: (1) Project inputs, (2) Activities, (3) Short-term outcomes and (4) Long-term outcomes.

Kellogg (2004) defines outputs, outcomes and impact as follows:

Outputs are the direct results of program activities. They are usually described in terms of the size and/or scope of the services and products delivered or produced by the program.
Outcomes are specific changes in attitudes, behaviours, knowledge, skills, status, or level of functioning expected to result from program activities and which are most often expressed at an individual level.
Impacts are organisational, community, and/or system level changes expected to result from program activities, which might include improved conditions, increased capacity, and/or changes in the policy arena.

Several studies in various settings have used this and similar models in evaluating impacts and outcomes of programme. Halliday, *et al.'s* (2004) impact evaluation was designed to assess the extent to which a series of training workshops was believed by participants to have influenced their practice. The key focus of the evaluation was on impact on practice. It focused on shorter terms outcomes such as: the extent to which participants reported they were able to use the learning from the training event such as: whether or not participants were able to initiate planned action points; were able to influence practice at local or national level, within their spheres of responsibility; developments in local networking following the workshop; barriers and opportunities in implementing evidence based practice in mental health improvement. This study used a combination of written questionnaires and telephone interviews.

In the impact evaluation of a leadership development programme conducted by Humphris, Connell & Meyer (2004) they make the point that little research evaluates beyond individual learning, with only a small proportion of evaluation programmes assess long-term impact and/or organisational impact of development interventions (Kellogg Foundation 2002). They also point out that there is no univocal agreement as to what constitutes long-term evaluation. However, they suggested that organisational impact can only be measured within the time period of 7-10 years after the initial training, assuming that it is a continuous process. Therefore, short-term outcomes are much more frequently investigated.

Humphris et al.'s (2004) evaluation uses a combination of self report data (feedback forms, interviews, narrative data) as well as 'objective' organisational measures based on existing organisational performance indicators. Humphris et al. (2004) argue that it has become widely accepted that evaluation should emphasise the use of qualitative data including practice narratives and leadership stories, and/or user feedback. They recommend the use of a multi-method approach to evaluation. They argue like several others (Kellogg Foundation 2002; McCormack, Kitson, Rycroft-Malone, Titchen, & Seers, 2002) that even though the majority of data is self-reported by the participants, this is considered a valid approach.

Hayton, Boyd, Campbell, Crawford, Latimer, Lindsay, & Percy's (2007) study was an evaluation of the Scottish Executive's national community warden programme to assess the impact community wardens were having upon the quality of life in their patrol areas. The study used a multi-method design including qualitative and quantitative data. The evaluation drew upon a variety of sources of evidence, including case studies, analysis of crime and antisocial behaviour statistics, surveys of wardens and managers' perceptions and surveys and focus groups of residents' perceptions. In this study self-report perceptions between wardens, managers and residents were triangulated and archival data and reports were seen as acceptable forms of external evidence.

In Lloyd, O'Brien, & Lewis's (2003) evaluation of fathers' involvement in a community based programme a mixed method approach to information, data collection and analysis was used. Alongside a national level analysis of published documents relating to fathers' involvement in the programme, staff and service-user accounts and informal observations were also collected. In this study the criteria for selecting comparison groups proved problematic but the authors felt they could still draw conclusions about the programmes which emerged as more effective in involving fathers in service delivery and planning, regardless of categorisation. Their final analysis eventually centred on the identification of common themes in programme approaches rather than

a reliance on a statistically-derived distinction used to classify groups taken at one point in time.

Ring & Finnie's (2004) study focused on obtaining a snapshot picture of awareness and impact of new best practice guidance from a nursing and midwifery perspective. It was conducted within the first year of implementation of the Best Practice Statements and was thus focused on short term outcomes. The study consisted of two parts, quantitative and qualitative, conducted concurrently to gather as much information as possible within the time available.

There are many other examples of impact evaluations of programmes and training that have focused on shorter term outcomes and have used multi-method approaches to their design (Challis, Clarkson, Hughes, Abendstern, Sutcliffe, & Burns, 2004; Heaney, O'Donnell, Wood, Myles, Abbotts, Haddow, Armstrong, Hall, & Munro, 2005; Philip, Shucksmith, & King, 2004). Both Philip et al., (2004) and Challis et al., (2004) studies have used perspectives of multiple stakeholders which are corroborated with external evidence. Heaney et al., (2005) argue that the mechanisms (what was done to produce the outcome, and why) and contexts (the circumstances in which the mechanisms were successful or unsuccessful) need to be considered in order to understand the outcomes of the initiative and how they are produced. The relationship between different settings or models of organisation and achievement of outcomes is particularly important. Factors that facilitate or hinder the delivery of objectives should be studied, along with ways in which the services develop or adapt.

Davies (2003) says that the use of a range of research methods is of paramount importance in evaluation of outcomes or impacts. Policy evaluation uses quantitative and qualitative methods, experimental and non-experimental designs, descriptive and experiential methods, theory based approaches, research synthesis methods, and economic evaluation methods. It privileges no single method of inquiry and acknowledges the complementary potential of different research methods. The methods used in policy evaluation and

analysis are usually driven by the substantive issues at hand rather than *a priori* preferences (Greene, Benjamin and Goodyear, 2001).

In summary evaluation literature at the definitional level is very broad, and terms such as "effect" and "impact" have been differently defined as well as differently operationalised in the literature. There are different traditions represented in the evaluation literature. There is not a single evaluation tradition, nor one single definition or use of the terms "effect" or "impact" which is accepted across the different traditions that do exist.

4.5. MEASUREMENT OF SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

In order to assess whether empowerment was evidenced in school settings an attempt was made to measure the empowerment construct directly through the construction of a school development questionnaire, the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale. Research into the construct of empowerment has demonstrated how measures of empowerment capture aspects of a particular ecological and systemic state. School development planning may be conceptualised as an approach to develop a state of organisational empowerment, facilitative of whole school development. This perspective on development planning as organisational empowerment provided the working definitions of organisational empowerment through school development planning (this was elaborated on in Chapter 3.2.).

In accordance with the guidelines for scale construction proposed by Loewethal (1996) and with reference to Converse & Presser (1986); Liggett & Cochrane (1968) and Smith (1981) the following steps were undertaken in developing the measure.

(a) Item Generation

Combining archival data from the programme under review, with ideas taken from the literature on school development planning (Bennett *et al*., 2000; Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1995; Hopkins, 1995; Hopkins *et al*., 1994; Reeves, 2000; West, 2000), from other general school development questionnaires (MacBeath, 1994, 1999) and from other professionals working in the field of school development, items were generated to form the basis of the original

School Development Evaluation Scale. These were grouped according to 5 categories (as elaborated on in Chapter 3.2).

(b) Expert Content Validity Check

The scale was given to a variety of experts in the fields of educational (5), organisational (3) and community development (3) to check the content validity of the items. Few suggested changes were recommended but where they were identified they were revised accordingly.

(c) Checking for Meaning and Understanding

Six teachers from 6 different schools completed the original version of the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale in their own time. Feedback was collected and suggestions and recommendations made by these informants were then used to modify certain of the questions. The original School Development Planning Evaluation Scale was refined to its final form consisting of 52 items (see Appendix 1) which elicited response to issues related to 5 core areas identified. The original items under their headings can be found in Appendix 2.

(d) Pilot Study

The scale was then piloted as part of an honours thesis study (Connolly, 2000), with six primary schools also participating in the school development programme but not part of the larger study. All had been part of the programme for 2 to 3 years. Seventy-one questionnaires were collected, from principals and teachers. The sample consisted primarily of women, 62 in total, with 9 men. Most participants fell between 40-60 years of age. Most had at least 11 years of experience. Only 3 did not belong to a union.

There was no evidence of systematic attrition from the sample. Those teachers who did not fill out a questionnaire were not at the school at the time of administration. The scale was then subjected to a variety of psychometric analyses, including item and factor analysis, in order to establish the factorial properties and reliability of the scale. These results will be reported in the next section. The resulting School Development Planning Evaluation Scale

can be found in Appendix 3. As will be reported in the next chapter the pilot study indicated that though the factors measured appeared to form a single construct, the construct itself was based on a variety of subcomponents. It was thus difficult to define.

(e) Main Study

The questionnaire was thus amended and its factorial structure scrutinised again. These results will be elaborated on in the next chapter. The measure again yielded clear but uninterpretable results. It was therefore not possible from the psychometric evidence to establish whether the underlying school development construct was in fact an empowerment factor.

4.6. QUANTITATIVE MEASURES OF VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH EMPOWERMENT

Given the evidence that the School Development Planning Scale appeared to measure a construct which was difficult to interpret, it was necessary to use additional measures to attempt to establish evidence of empowerment within the schools. For this reason, several other measures of variables associated with empowerment at various levels were administered to the participating teachers. A number of additional existing measures were thus selected and an attempt was made to establish their reliability and validity, as outlined in the sections following. .

4.6.1. MEASURES ASSOCIATED WITH INDIVIDUAL LEVELS OF EMPOWERMENT

Three measures for the variables associated with empowerment at this level of analysis were utilised in the study. The first was the Locus of Control Scale developed by Levenson (1974) and utilised in previous research on empowerment at the individual level (Zimmerman & Rappaport, 1988). It consists of three sub-scales: internal control, chance control and powerful others. Levenson (1974) reports alpha co-efficient of .64 for the Internal Control Scale, .78 for the Chance Control Scale.77 and for the Powerful Other Scale. The scale is a 24-item scale that is scored on a 6 point Likert scale. The scale, used extensively in a wide range of populations (Burns, 2000;

Chiu, 1997; Farmer, 1999; Miner, 1997, Robinson, Stimpson, Huefner & Hunt, 1991; Ursin & Olff, 1995) including Dutch teachers (Olff, Brosschol & Godaert, 1993) evidenced adequate levels of reliability in all the studies.

In the present study only the overall scale score was used in the analysis which had an alpha co-efficient of .75. A number of problems associated with items in this scale for the population being assessed were identified. For instance item 4 “whether or not I get into a car accident depends mostly on how good a driver I am” was contextually inappropriate as the majority of the teachers in this sample do not own cars nor do they have a driver’s licence. Therefore this item and 2 others were omitted from the data analysis of the teachers’ responses.

The second measure used to assess individual level empowerment was the General Self-Efficacy Scale revised by Bosscher & Smit (1998). This scale was originally developed by Sherer, Maddux, Mercandante, Prentice-Dunn, Jacobs & Rogers (1982). Woodruff & Cashman (1993) obtained a factor structure, based on the original 17 item scale, that represented the three aspects underlying the scale; i.e. initiative (willingness to initiate behaviour), effort (willingness to expend effort in completing the behaviour) and persistence (persistence in the face of adversity).

Bosscher & Smit (1998) revised the scale to 12 items finding support for the three correlated factors and one higher order factor (general self-efficacy). They found reliability scores of over .60 for the overall scale and its sub-scales. In-sue (2000), in a comparative study of general efficacy scale, found adequate levels of reliability for this scale. The original scale (Sherer *et al*., 1982) has been shown to have good criterion-related validity in studies of self-efficacy and success in vocational, educational, and monetary domains and construct validity was demonstrated by confirming several predicted relationships between scores on the self-efficacy sub-scales and on other personality measures (Bosscher & Smit, 1998; Bosscher, Smit, Kempen, 1997).

The scale is made up of 12 items that are scored on a 5 point Likert scale. The higher the score, the greater a person's self-efficacy (Bosscher & Smit, 1998). The scale has been used with a variety of populations (Bosscher, van der Aa, van Dasler, Deeg, & Smit, 1995; de Groot, 2001; McClean, McLenay & Andrews, 2001), however only de Groot's (2001) study used the scale with teachers. In the present study the overall reliability using the alpha co-efficient was .68. For the purpose of this study only the total score was used in the analysis as an attempt was being made to look at self-efficacy as a component of individual level empowerment and its relationship to organisational empowerment.

The final measure was the Teacher Efficacy Scale, developed by Gibson & Dembo (1984) and revised by Guskey & Passaro (1994), which measures two aspects of teacher efficacy. The internal aspect represents the teachers' perceptions of personal influence, power and impact in teaching and learning situations. The external aspect dimension relates to perceptions of the influence, power and impact of elements that lie outside of the classroom and hence may be beyond the direct control of individual teachers. The scale is composed of 21 items. The construct was found to have both convergent and divergent validity (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Guskey & Passaro, 1994; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). In the present study the overall reliability using the alpha co-efficient was .62. Again it was decided to use the overall score in the analysis.

4.6.2. MEASURES OF PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING AND COLLABORATION

Three scales were selected to measure different aspects of participation and collaboration. Often the scales were chosen on the basis of their face validity. The selected measures were then discussed with experts in the area of organisational and school development to assess their content validity. Issues with this will be discussed in more detail in the limitations section (Chapter 9). Two measures of participation in decision-making, one measuring influence and the other involvement, and one measure of

collaboration were selected to measure this organisational level variable associated with empowerment.

The first measure related to involvement in decision making. Two sub-scales, the Participation and Decision Centralization, from the Michigan Organisational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins & Kesh, 1979; Seashore, Lawler, Mirvis & Cammann, 1982), were used. The scale is designed to measure work attitudes and perceptions of leadership with regards to decision-making processes from the perspective of the subordinate (Cook, Hepworth, Wall, & Warr, 1981). The authors of the scale argue that because of the strong correlation between sub-scales in the overall test, short forms or the use of sub-scale items may be used. The authors reported a reliability of .76 for the Participation sub-scale and .81 for the Decision Centralization scale.

These sub-scales were combined to form a single 4 item scale measured on a 7 point Likert scale. The higher the score the higher the perception of involvement (Cook, *et al*., 1981). A modification, replacing the word supervisor with principal, was made to the questionnaire. In the present study the overall reliability using the alpha co-efficient was .82. Several studies have used a variety of subscales from the overall questionnaire (Obruba, 2001; Rumery, 1997; Smidt, van Riel & Pruyn, 2000; Young & Brymer, 2000). Studies by Marcelina (1981), Rainhartlong & Steger (1998) & Richter (2001) have used the Decision Centralization sub scale.

In order to try and access perceptions of influence in the decision-making process, Vroom's (1960) Psychological Participation scale was used. Vroom (1960) set out to measure what he called "psychological participation", the amount of influence which a person perceives him or her self to have. In this scale participation is viewed as influence in a process of joint decision making by two or more parties in which the decisions have future effects on those making them (Cook, *et al*., 1981; Vroom, 1960, 2000).

Several studies have confirmed the construct validity of the measure (Abdel-Halim & Rowland, 1976; Hamner & Tosi, 1974; Morris, Steers & Koch, 1979). White (1978; 1979) reports an alpha value of .81 using a 5 item version. The scale consists of four items each with a five point dimension. A total score is calculated ranging from 4 to 20. The lower the score the higher the perceived level of influence is (Cook, *et al*., 1981). A modification was made to the questionnaire. The word superior was replaced with principal and the word station was replaced with school. In the present study the overall reliability using the alpha co-efficient was .76.

The Collaboration Scale, designed by Chester & Beaudin (1996), measures teachers' perceptions of the opportunities for collaboration with other adults (both teachers and principal) in the school. The scale was made up of 6 items measured on a 7 point Likert Scale. In the Chester & Beaudin (1996) study the scale's reliability was .85 using the alpha co-efficient. In the present study the overall reliability using the alpha co-efficient was .82.

4.6.3. MEASURES OF LEADERSHIP

Two measures were selected to measure issues related to leadership and the principal in the present study. The first measure related to systems of organisational management arising from the principal's leadership style. The other related to the principal's working relationship with the staff. A measure of peer leadership was also included to assess the role of peer working relationships in the empowerment process.

The first measure, the Profile of Organisational Characteristics Scale (Bass, 1981), related to the organisational climate or culture (Denison, 1996) arising from the style of leadership and within the organisation (Sackney, 1988). The scale was originally developed by Likert (1961) and adapted over a period of years (Likert, 1967). The final shorter measure revised by Bass (1981) was used in the present study as it had been used on a population of black South African teachers in a previous study (Legodi, 1999) and exhibited good reliability (.78).

The scale was designed in the light of the Likert's four-fold classification of management systems. Essentially the managerial systems fall into four categories: System 1 - Exploitative-Authoritative; System 2 - Benevolent-Authoritative; System 3 – Consultative; and System 4 - Participative. The instrument incorporates eight characteristics that focus on leadership processes, motivational forces, communication processes, interaction-influence processes, decision-making processes, goal setting processes, control processes and performance goals. These eight variables can be used to map the profile of the school and place it on a continuum from authoritative to participative systems.

Several writers argue that the scale has strong empirical support, and that the measure has validity and reliability (Beehr, 1977; Bennett, 1977; Butterfield & Farris, 1974; Hoy and Miskel, 1982; Owens, 1981). The scale has also been used recently in a variety of organisational (Denison, 1996; Elmuti & Taisier, 1995) and school settings (Cunningham, Childress & Ranson, 1996; Legodi, 1999; Sackney, 1988). Modification to the questionnaire was made: the word superior was changed to principal and subordinates was changed to teachers to make it more relevant for the context. In the present study the internal reliability was at .88.

To assess aspects of the principal's working relationship with his or her staff the Supervisory Leadership Scale developed by Taylor & Bowers (1972) was used. It forms part of the Survey of Organizations questionnaire (Taylor & Bowers, 1972) and the theoretical background to its four-fold focus is set out by Bowers & Seashore (1966). This test covers 4 aspects of the working relationship, namely Support, Goal Emphasis, Work Facilitation and Interaction Facilitation. It is designed to obtain descriptions of the respondents' superior (in this case the principal). The Supervisory Leadership scale consists of 13 items, with the four sub-scales made up of 3, 3, 4 and 3 items respectively. The items are measured on a five point continuum. In all sub-scales, scores are calculated by adding the item responses on the five point continuum. The higher the score the stronger the perception that the area being measured is present in the principal.

Taylor & Bowers (1972) report, alpha co-efficients for Leadership Support, Goal Emphasis, Work Facilitation and Interaction Facilitation were .94, .85, .88, .89 respectively. The reliability and construct validity of the measure has been established (Bowers & Hausser, 1977; Franklin, 1975a, b; Taylor & Bower, 1972). The scale has been used in several recent studies on organisations (Davidson, 2000; Fey & Beamish, 1999; Li & Shani, 1991). The scale has also demonstrated sound psychometric properties when used on South African samples (Ballantine, Nunns & Brown, 1992; Bluen, 1986). A modification was made to the questionnaire by replacing supervisor with principal. In the present study the overall alpha co-efficient for the Supervisory Leadership Scale was .94.

In order to measure the peer working relationships within the school the Peer Leadership instrument developed by Taylor & Bowers (1972) was used in the present study. This test covers 4 aspects of the working relationship, namely Support, Goal Emphasis, Work Facilitation and Interaction Facilitation. It is designed to obtain descriptions of the respondent's peers. It forms part of the Survey of Organizations questionnaire (Taylor & Bowers, 1972) and the theoretical background to its four-fold focus is set out by Bowers & Seashore (1966). The Peer Leadership scale consists of 11 items, with the four sub-scales made up of 3, 2, 3 and 3 items respectively. The items are measured on a five point continuum. In all sub-scales, scores are calculated by adding the item responses on the five point continuum. The higher the score the stronger the perception that the area being measured is present in the peer group.

Taylor & Bowers (1972) report alpha co-efficients for Peer Support, Goal Emphasis, Work Facilitation and Interaction Facilitation were .87, .70, .89 and .90 respectively. The reliability and construct validity of the measure has been established (Bowers & Hausser, 1977; Franklin, 1975a, b; Taylor & Bower, 1972). The scale has been used in several recent studies on organisations (Kreuger, Brazil, Lohfeld, Edward, Lewis & Tjam, 2002; Schultz, Juran & Boudrea, 1997). In the present study the overall alpha co-efficient for the Peer

Leadership Scale was .93. Only the overall score for all of the leadership measures were used in the analysis.

4.6.4. BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

In addition to the above measures a biographical questionnaire was compiled to elicit information on the demographic data pertinent to the sample. Information on personal details, such as age, gender, education level, years of teaching experience, length of time at the school, home language, union membership and involvement in the school development team. A copy of this questionnaire and all of the measures used in the study can be found in Appendix 4.

4.6.5. EXEMPLARS, OPERATIONALISATIONS AND MEASURES OF EMPOWERMENT

As has been discussed previously (see Chapter 2.3.3) empowerment is conceptualised as existing at various levels of analysis: the individual, organisational and community levels (Zimmerman, 2000). Zimmerman (2000) and many other researchers (Foster-Fishman & Keys, 1997; Kieffer, 1984; Klein *et al*., 2000; Prestby *et al*., 1990; Zimmerman, 1995, 2000) have provided what they see as exemplars of empowerment at these various levels of empowerment. Matrix 1 provides a list of these exemplars for the various levels as described by Zimmerman (2000). These exemplars were operationalised and appropriate measures sought in order to find evidence of empowerment in a school development setting. Matrix 1 lays out how the measures used in the study link to the levels of empowerment and exemplars from the framework offered by Zimmerman (2000).

Matrix 1: Exemplars, Operationalisations and Measures of Empowerment

LEVEL OF ANALYSIS	EXEMPLAR (Zimmerman, 2000)	OPERATIONALISED IN THE STUDY AS	MEASURE USED IN THE STUDY
Individual	Control	Locus of Control	Locus of Control Scale (Levenson, 1974)
	Efficacy	General Self-Efficacy	General Self-Efficacy Scale (Bosscher & Smit, 1998).
	Context Specific Efficacy	Teacher Efficacy	Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson & Dembo, 1984)
Organisational	Participation in decision making	Involvement in Decision making	Participation and Decision Centralization Scales, from the Michigan Organisational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann, *et al*., 1979; Seashore, *et al*., 1982)
		Influence in Decision making	Psychological Participation Scale (Vroom, 1960)
	Collaborative working	Collaboration	Collaboration Scale, (Chester & Beaudin, 1996)
	Democratic leadership	Leadership Style	Profile of Organisational Characteristics Scale (Bass, 1981)
	Supportive relationship	Working relationship between staff and leader	Supervisory Leadership Scale (Taylor & Bowers, 1972)
		Working relationship between peers	Peer Leadership instrument (Taylor & Bowers, 1972)

4.7. QUANTITATIVE DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

A meeting with principals and teachers representatives of the primary schools in the township was called to discuss the nature and purpose of the proposed study. All 24 primary schools sent at least two representatives to this meeting, at which they were informed about the purpose of the study and what would be required from their school if they were to participate. Principals and teacher representatives were then requested to discuss the evaluation with their staff and to reply as to whether they were willing to take part or not. An information pack was given to each school to aid them in giving feedback to their staff (see Appendix 5). All of the schools replied positively and participated in the study. Six of these schools engaged in the School Development Planning Evaluation scale pilot study described previously.

The measuring instruments were combined into a single pack for participants to fill in. All of the teachers and the principals of the eighteen schools were invited to fill in the measurement instrument pack. The principals' pack was different from that of the teachers' as it did not contain the questionnaires pertaining to the leadership style (Profile of Organisational Leadership Scale), their working relationship with staff (the Supervisory Leaderships Scale) or the scales related to participation and collaboration (Psychological Participation; Participation and Decision Centralization; Collaboration) and Peer Leadership Scale.

Three people, the author of the present study and two members of the programme staff, administered the instrument pack to the schools. The author spent time training the two programme members in terms of the process for administering the instrument pack and they both observed three sessions of administration with the author (Appendix 6 outlines the main points for administrators). Each of the administrators worked with 6 schools. If teachers were not available at the time of the administration a pack was left for them to fill in and was collected at a later date. Two hundred and twelve questionnaires (85,5%) were completed during the administration time at the school and 36 (14,5%) were completed later by individuals who were not available.

4.7.1. SAMPLE

The people participating in the quantitative section of this study were drawn from eighteen primary schools that were involved in a School Development Programme. The schools ranged in size from 5 to 24 staff (including only teachers and management). Ten of the schools (from here on referred to as Group 1) had been on the programme for three years or more. The comparison group (from here on referred to as Group 2), made up of the other eight schools, had been involved with the programme for one year. A table summarising the demographic information of the sample can be found overleaf.

Of the possible 274 teachers and principals at the schools 248 people participated in the study. This is a response rate of 90,5%. Group 1 consisted of 153 participants (out of a possible 171 – 89% response rate) and Group 2 consisted of 95 participants (out of a possible 103 – 92% response rate).

The schools all came from the same township outside of Pretoria. The reasons for choosing this form of comparison group were two fold. Firstly, the schools are from the same community and thus provide some level of comparison. It would have been preferable to have had schools that had had no exposure to the programme; however the programme has worked with all of the schools in the area. To use schools from another community would make comparison impossible as the contextual differences would be far too great. The second reason was for ease of assess. The author has been working with the schools for several years and has access to the schools. The other 6 primary schools in this area were used to pilot the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale developed for this study. Only one primary school of the 25 in the township was no longer contracted to work the programme, a decision taken by the school's principal two years before this evaluation.

Table 3: Demographic Characteristics of the Quantitative Data Samples:

The specific details of the sample of the quantitative data collection are presented in such a way as to highlight the biographical data pertaining to each of the two groups as well as the sample as a whole.

	Group 1 (n=151)	Group 2 (n=94)	Total (n=245)
Gender			
Males	28 (18,5%)	31 (33,3%)	59 (24,2%)
Females	123 (81,5%)	62 (66,7%)	185 (75,8%)
Missing		1	1
Age			
20-29 years	10 (6,8%)	4 (4,3%)	14 (5,9%)
30-39 years	42 (28,6%)	22 (23,9%)	64 (26,8%)
40-49 years	67 (45,6%)	38 (41,3%)	105 (43,9%)
50 years +	28 (19%)	28 (30,4%)	56 (23,4%)
Missing	4	2	6
Educational Qualification			
Certificate	30 (20,3%)	26 (28%)	56 (23,2%)
Diploma	79 (51,6%)	56 (60,2%)	135 (56%)
Undergraduate degree	30 (20,3%)	8 (8,6%)	38 (15,8%)
Postgraduate degree	9 (6,1%)	3 (3,2%)	12 (5%)
Missing	3	1	4
Teaching Experience			
1-5 years	21 (14,1%)	9 (9,8%)	30 (12,4%)
6-10 years	18 (12,1%)	11 (12%)	29 (12%)
11-15 years	19 (12,8%)	6 (6,5%)	25 (10,4%)
16-20 years	30 (20,1%)	17 (18,5%)	47 (19,5%)
21-25 years	31 (20,8%)	25 (27,2%)	56 (23,2%)
26 years +	30 (20,1%)	24 (25,3%)	54 (22,4%)
Missing	2	2	4
Years at Present School			
1-5 years	37 (25%)	18 (19,8%)	55 (23%)
6-10 years	16 (10,8%)	10 (11%)	26 (10,9%)
11-15 years	24 (16,2%)	7 (7,7%)	31 (13%)
16-20 years	28 (18,9%)	19 (20,9%)	47 (19,7%)
21-25 years	25 (16,3%)	25 (27,5%)	50 (20,9%)
26 years +	18 (12,2%)	12 (13,2%)	30 (12,6%)
Missing	3	2	5
Position at the school			
Teacher	112 (74,2%)	73 (77,7%)	185 (75,5%)
Head of Department	22 (14,6%)	12 (12,8%)	34 (13,9%)
Deputy Principal	7 (4,6%)	1 (1,1%)	8 (3,3%)
Principal	10 (6,6%)	8 (8,5%)	18 (7,3%)
Union Membership			
PEU	32 (21,8%)	18 (19,6%)	50 (20,9%)
SADTU	99 (67,3%)	64 (69,6%)	163 (68,2%)
Neither	16 (10,9%)	8 (8,5%)	26 (10,9%)
Missing	4	2	6
School Dev Team (SDT) Membership			
SDT Member	62 (42,2%)	41 (44,1%)	103 (42,9%)
Non-SDT member	85 (57,8%)	52 (55,9%)	137 (57,1%)
Missing	4	1	5

4.7.2. ANALYSIS OF THE QUANTITATIVE DATA

In order to explore the impact of the school development planning programme on empowerment at an individual, organisational and community level an ex post facto analysis was conducted based on a post-test only comparison group evaluation design. Empowerment was explored as a construct by comparing schools involved in the programme for differing periods of time. Scores on the empowerment-related tests were conceptualised as dependent variables, and period of time (extent of involvement) in the programme as the independent variable.

A general linear model, such as the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), would normally be the technique of choice when wanting to look at these differences. However, as this study was interested in several dependent variables which are linked theoretically and empirically, the simple ANOVA model was inadequate. In these cases multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), which can be thought of as an ANOVA for situations in which there are several related dependent variables, is preferable (Field, 2004). MANOVA is used to see the main and interaction effects of categorical variables on multiple dependent interval variables. MANOVA uses one or more categorical independents as predictors, like ANOVA, but, unlike ANOVA, there is more than one dependent variable (Howell, 1997).

Selecting a MANOVA is preferable to an ANOVA for a variety of reasons (Field, 2004). Firstly, when data about several dependent variables has been collected it is possible to run a separate ANOVA for each dependent variable. However, the more tests conducted on the same data the more the familywise error rate is inflated. Basically the more tests we run on the data the probability of making type I errors increases.

Secondly, there is important additional information that is gained from a MANOVA. If separate ANOVAs are conducted on each dependent variable, then any relationship between variables is ignored and thus we lose information about any correlations that might exist between the dependent variables. MANOVA, by including all dependent variables in the same

analysis, takes account of the relationship between outcome variables. Thus MANOVA has greater power to detect an effect, because it can detect whether groups differ along a combination of variables whereas ANOVA can detect only if groups differ along a single variable (Huberty & Morris, 1989). For these reasons MANOVA is preferable to conducting several ANOVAs.

Field (2004) cautions that as with many statistical techniques it is not advisable to place all of your dependent variables together in a MANOVA unless there is a good theoretical or empirical basis for doing so. However, it had been established both theoretically and empirically in the Literature Review that the constructs being compared in the present study are linked in various ways. Based on this it was felt that a MANOVA would be the most suitable statistical analysis to use to answer the quantitative component of Research Questions 1 and 2.

4.8. QUALITATIVE DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

To further explore whether empowerment was evidenced at an individual and organisational level, focus groups and interviews were conducted with principals, teachers and school development teams. As empowerment is a complex, multilevel and dynamic construct it was important to establish whether the staff within the schools reported that involvement in the programme had led to personal empowerment, as well as empowerment of their schools as organisations and of the community in which they were situated. Archival data pertaining to the use of the school development plan, objectives achieved and other changes in the schools involved in the programme were examined as an additional data source, to yield indicators of empowerment at the various levels of analysis.

4.8.1. FOCUS GROUPS

From an empowerment perspective it was important to use a research method which could incorporate the perspectives of those involved in the programme in order to gain new insights into the programme (Denzin, 1994; Gitlin, 1990; Stewart, 2000). This became even more important in the present context where very little research has investigated Black teachers' experiences of

empowerment and school development from their perspective. Stewart, Shamdasani & Rook (2007) argue that focus groups are particulary useful for exploratory research where little is known about the phenomenon of interest.

Focus groups have been argued to be useful in multi-method data collection (Green & Hart, 1999; Krueger, 1988; Merton, Fiske & Kendall, 1990; Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990; Wolff, Knodel & Sittitrai, 1993), increase opportunities for triangulation (Frey & Fontana, 1993), are suited to dealing with the complexity of behaviour, attitudes and motivation (Morgan & Krueger, 1993); accessing community attitudes about issues (Waterton & Wynne, 1999), exploring the processes involved in organisational change (Barbour, 1999), and can be particularly sensitive to cultural variables and work with minority groups (Chiu &Knight, 1999). For these reasons focus groups were seen as a research method that was aligned with the values underlying community psychology and selected as a method to enter into the world view of those who were involved in the programme, to see how the impact of the programme was experienced from their perspective (Shadish, 1990; Stewart, 2000).

4.8.1.1. Group Composition and Selection

Convenience sampling was employed in selecting the groups. Stewart *et al.,* (2007) point out however that although the generalisability from focus groups is limited one still needs to consider characteristics of the group. Based on work around break and control characteristics of focus groups (Knodel, 1993) and power issues (Krueger, 1988) it was decided that groups would consist of teachers, both school development team members and non-members, based on the desire to stimulate the discussion and to explore agreement or difference between them. The principal was excluded, based on the need for participants in the groups to feel comfortable about openly communicating their ideas, views or opinion (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990). Kitzinger & Barbour (1999) argue that the size of focus groups in the social sciences attempting to explore a complex issue should be kept smaller than usually recommended by those using them in market research. For this reason it was decided to keep the focus groups to between 6 and 8 participants.

On the basis of the results of the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale, four schools from Group 1 (of the quantitative study) and four schools from Group 2 were selected. This was done by ranking the schools according to their groups in terms of their performance on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale. The two highest and the two lowest ranking on the scale from each group were chosen. This was done to try and provide a variety of different experiences of the school development planning process within each of the comparison groups. On the basis of the work by several writers and researchers on optimal numbers of focus groups, it was decided to begin with four schools from each group and if necessary, include more (Morgan, 1997; Zeller, 1993).

As the focus groups for both groups were conducted concurrently it became obvious that the groups were giving similar information, whether positive or negative, successful or less successful, whether in the programme for a longer period or not. However as a comparison between the groups was to be undertaken it was decided that an equal number, in this case four, of each would be conducted.

4.8.1.2. Interview Guide Development

An unstructured phenomonologically driven interview format, adapted for the focus groups, was adopted in order to maximise the articulation of the respondents' own stories (Fetterman, 2001). Although this approach effectively elicits the insider's perspective, it may not necessarily gather the information required to compare and contrast the empowerment experiences between schools and groups (Foster-Fishman *et al*., 1998). Thus, the researcher ensured that the targeted research questions were addressed at some point during the focus group while attempting not to significantly disrupt the emergence of the informants' perspective. Before concluding the group, the researchers directly asked the informant those questions that had not been discussed during the group. Thus an attempt was made to strike the balance between what is important for the group and what is important for the researcher.

Based on the work of several focus group researchers (Krueger, 1993; Merton *et al*., 1990; Morgan, 1997) an interview schedule was developed. The interview schedule was then offered to the same group of people who had offered comment on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale items in the quantitative data collection phase. Once feedback was received from all of these people and the necessary adjustments made the pre-testing of the interview guide took place.

Several schools that formed part of the pilot study of the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale were selected in terms of their availability to pilot the interview schedule. Utilising a rolling interview guide development process (Merton *et al*., 1990) the interview guide, as it was developed, was used for the first group, and then revised for the use in the second group based on the outcome of the first group discussion. The idea was that this process would continue until a guide was developed with which the researcher was comfortable. This process was conducted with two groups and as there were very few changes made to the interview format it was decide that this was acceptable for use with the two groups in the evaluation. (See Appendix 7 for the full focus group interview schedule).

4.8.1.3. Focus Group Procedure

A letter was sent to all of the members of staff at the chosen schools (See Appendix 8) requesting 6-8 volunteers (including several school development team members) for the focus group. A follow up visit was made by the author to ensure that the school understood what was expected from them and to make the necessary arrangements for the focus group. At this meeting the list of volunteer teachers was collected.

Schools chose slightly different methods of selecting participants: at some schools the staff met and selection was based on availability after hours; at others representatives from each of the grades was chosen. At one school, teachers sent in their consent forms as a sign that they were willing to participate and the principal then decided who would be involved. In order to

overcome this bias, which Krueger (1993) cautions against, all of the teachers who filled in the consent forms were invited to attend.

Not all schools were able to ensure that half of the group was made up of school development team members. Five of the schools had three representatives (2 from Group 1 and 3 from Group 2), two had one representative (1 from each Group) and one from Group 1 had four representatives from the school development team. In two of the Group 1 schools teachers who were new to the school had been included. This was not an issue as there were sufficient members who had been through the process and, as Kitzinger & Barbour (1999) point out, this is not a disadvantage and can produce illuminating information, as it did in the two schools.

Each of the sessions was tape-recorded. At the beginning of each session the purpose of the focus group was discussed with the group. Their permission to tape the session was then asked for. If anyone felt uncomfortable with the taping they were then free to leave. None of the participants left. Notes were made during the session of impressions, body language, and points for clarification.

4.8.1.4. Sample Demographics for Focus Groups

The biographical details of the sample for the focus groups are presented in Table 4. The overall sample for the focus groups comprised of 56 teachers. Group 1 was made up of 31 participants making up 55,4% of the sample. There were 25 participants in Group 2.

Table 4: Demographic Characteristics of the Focus Group Samples:

	Group 1 (n=31)	Group 2 (n=25)	Total (n=56)
Gender			
Males	4 (12.9%)	6 (24%)	10 (17.9%)
Females	27 (87.1%)	19 (76%)	46 (82.1%)
Age			
20-29 years	3 (9.7%)	1 (4%)	4 (7.1%)
30-39 years	7 (22.6%)	8 (32%)	15 (26.8%)
40-49 years	16 (51.6%)	9 (36%)	25 (44.6%)
50 years +	5 (16.1%)	7 (28%)	12 (21.4%)
Educational Qualification			
Certificate	9 (29%)	5 (20%)	14 (25%)
Diploma	21 (67.7%)	16 (64%)	37 (66.1%)
Degree	1 (3.2%)	3 (12%)	4 (7.1%)
Teaching Experience			
1-5 years	5 (16.1%)	2 (8%)	7 (12.5%)
6-10 years	1 (3.2%)	7 (28%)	8 (14.3%)
11-15 years	5 (16.1%)	1 (4%)	6 (10.7%)
16-20 years	6 (19.4%)	6 (24%)	12 (21.4%)
21-25 years	7 (22.6%)	4 (16%)	11 (19.6%)
26 years +	7 (22.6%)	5 (20%)	12 (21.4%)
Years at the Present School			
1-5 years	7 (22.6%)	4 (16%)	11 (19.6%)
6-10 years	0	6 (24%)	6 (10.7%)
11-15 years	7 (22.6%)	1 (4%)	8 (14.3%)
16-20 years	7 (22.6%)	8 (32%)	15 (26.8%)
21-25 years	6 (19.4%)	3 (12%)	9 (16.1%)
26 years +	4 (12.9%)	3 (12%)	7 (12.5%)
Position at the school			
Teacher	26 (84%)	22 (88%)	48 (86%)
Head of Department	2 (6.4%)	3 (12%)	5 (9%)
Deputy Principal	3 (9.6%)	0	3 (5%)
Union Membership			
PEU	9 (29%)	4 (16%)	13 (23.2%)
SADTU	19 (61.3%)	17 (68%)	36 (64.3%)
Neither	2 (6.5%)	4 (16%)	6 (10.7%)
School Dev Team (SDT) Membership			
SDT Member	11 (35.5%)	10 (40%)	21 (37.5%)
Non-SDT Member	20 (64.5%)	15 (60%)	35 (62.5%)

4.8.1.5. Analysis of the Focus Groups

Tapes were fully transcribed, immediately after the focus group session, by the author as he knew the members voices well. These were then read while listening to the tape to ensure accuracy. Further notes and impressions were added during this process. Identification of speakers was aided by the researcher reflecting the person's comments to them using their name and asking questions using their name. Litosseliti (2003) highlights the advantage of the facilitator of the focus groups being the person analysing the discussions. This dual role allows the researcher more insight and in-context

knowledge and thus enables one to make links between the research aims and the data collected.

The approach taken to the analysis of the focus group data comes from a variety of sources, particularly from content analysis (Holsti, 1969; Krippendorff, 1980; Linkvist, 1981;Viney, 1981; Weber, 1990); educational qualitative methodologies (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982; Guba, 1978; Huberman & Miles 1998; Miles & Huberman, 1994); naturalistic approaches (Guba & Lincoln, 1981; Lincoln & Guba, 1985); and systematic analysis (Frankland & Bloor, 1999). An attempt was made to incorporate different aspects of different methods of qualitative data analysis that seemed useful to the present study. One of the most common methods of interpreting information through qualitative research techniques is content analysis (Ortlepp, 1998). Krippendorff (1980) describes content analysis as a method of information processing which is a technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specific characteristics of the message.

Although the analysis of focus groups involves essentially the same process as does the analysis of any other qualitative data, the researcher does need to reference the group context (Kitzinger & Barbour, 1999). This means starting from an analysis of groups rather than individuals and striking a balance between looking at the picture provided by the group as a whole and recognising the operation of individual voices within it. Analysis involved drawing together and comparing discussion of similar themes and examining how these related to the variation between individuals and between groups.

The phenomenological approach attempts to minimise the deductive reasoning and the influence of the researcher on the discovery process. Researchers must consistently remind themselves that the constructed knowledge should not reflect their own interpretation, judgements or beliefs. Therefore during the focus groups, interviews and archival data reviews the researcher demarked his thoughts and reactions in brackets to distinguish them from actual respondents' statements, observed behaviours or document

content and by doing so attempted to more accurately reflect the organisational members' point of view.

Before starting the process of analysis each group was assigned a number, each school within the group another number and each individual within the school a number. This was to aid the tracking of the analysis so that even at the very end of the analysis when the data had been reduced to frequency scores a particular item could be relocated within the transcript.

Using an integration of ideas and recommendations from Frankland & Bloor (1999); Miles & Huberman (1994) and Taylor & Bogdan (1984) the following steps were adhered to in the analysis of the focus group data in the present study:

(a) To get a sense of the whole database each transcript of the focus group interview was read and reread listening to the tape. Interpretations and ideas were noted as the data was read and were incorporated with the memos made during the focus group. Notes of emerging themes were also noted in the margins (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

(b) The data were then classified under the main areas of investigation in the focus group using a similar process as outlined by Potter, Meyer, Scott & Da Silva (1991). Statements made by the participants were coded and grouped in the following areas:

- Impact the School Development Plan has had on the school
- Factors that have helped the school in terms of implementing the school development plan
- Factors that have hindered the school in terms of implementing the school development plan
- Impact the School Development Plan has had on individuals in the school

(c) The transcripts were reread and all units pertaining to each of the questions were highlighted and then cut and pasted under the heading. Each unit carried with it its code number and page reference from the transcript.

(d) The data set was now reread looking specifically for themes or categories that were emerging under each question. Initially the categories were kept broad and general. Holsti (1969) talks about having to construct appropriate categories by trail and error, and that a central problem in any research design is selection and definition of the categories into which content units are classified.

(e) All units that pertained to a particular category were then grouped together and sub-categories within the general categories were searched for. Frankland & Bloor (1999) point out that this process of analysis is cyclical and is equivalent to chapter headings and subheadings. Although this process of forming categories and sub-categories is essentially inductive in nature, reference was constantly made to the relevant literature and theoretical work reviewed (Taylor & Bogdan, 1984). It is important to note that the categorisation was done per group so that if different themes were emerging between the groups this would be kept quite clear.

(f) To this point the unit of analysis had been kept intact, as it was taken from the transcript, so as to retain some of the contextual quality. Frequency tables were now constructed to pull the data from each of the groups together and matrices drawn up (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The tracking number of each item was placed in the matrix so that reference could be made back to the original text. The matrices accommodated each school separately and then totalled for the group. It was then possible to compare between groups. Since all analysis is essentially comparative, the purpose of these steps is simply to facilitate comparative analysis by gathering all data on a particular topic under one heading, in order to make the study of material manageable for analysis purposes (Frankland & Bloor, 1999). To account for individual, school and group processes frequency counts were done both in terms of numbers of individual references to particular themes within the group and also to frequency counts of how many schools within a group referred to that particular theme.

(g) Relevant exemplars of each category, which had been collected throughout the analysis, were grouped together in order to add depth to the frequency counts.

(h) In order to interpret these analyses the researcher attempted to stand back and form larger meanings of what is going on in the individual schools and the groups as a whole (Miles & Huberman, 1994). This was done in the form of a written summary of the findings and graphic representations (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This then formed the basis for the integration phase of the analysis.
Section 6.4 and 7.2 present the results of this analysis. Tables 21, 22, 23 provide the categories reported to have changed at the various levels of analysis. Tables 33-39 provide the categories relating to the factors that were seen as helping and hindering in the implementation of the school development plan.

One of the strongest criticisms against qualitative analysis is that it is subjective and inherently impressionistic (Bryman, 1984). In order to counteract this limitation several methods of data authentication were conducted. The researcher discussed the emerging themes and other interpretations with a competent, disinterested third party (Lincoln & Guba, 1986). Lincoln and Guba (1985) refer to this a peer debriefing, a strategy for improving the likelihood that findings and interpretations produced through naturalistic inquiry methods are credible. The peer debriefer for this study was an organisational psychologist working in an organisational consultancy. This process involved discussions throughout the course of the study, discussing the methodology, the data, and the framing of the study.

The focus groups were reanalysed by the researcher several months after the first analysis to assess accuracy of the thematic content analysis. This entailed relooking at the data and reassigning it to the categories. No significant discrepancies in terms of the categories the data had been assigned to were discovered. In addition a subset of the focus groups (data from one school from each group) was reanalysed by an educationalist. There were very few discrepancies found. In cases where there was disagreement and this could not be resolved through discussion the case was excluded. Finally the results were discussed with two experts, an educationalist and a psychologist, both of whom affirmed the conclusions

drawn. An audit trail and copies of the data and the various analyses of the data are available. With the triangulation of methodology, the ongoing authentication and expert validation the credibility of the information gathered was enhanced (Lincoln & Guba, 1986).

4.8.2. ARCHIVAL DATA AND ANALYSIS

4.8.2.1. Objectives Achieved From School Development Plans

One of the central aims of the programme under investigation was the use of the school development plans as a way for schools to take control of their own development and to become empowered. In order to gather more evidence about this eight schools' development plans were evaluated to assess how many of the objectives they had set for themselves they had achieved.

All of the schools drew up a school development plan setting out the objectives they wanted to achieve over a 3-year period. The purpose of this data set was to assess how many of the objectives those schools that had completed the programme had achieved over the three-year period. Eight school development plans were analysed. Objectives from the school development plans were extracted and were then classified in terms of priority areas and then grouped as to whether they related to individual, organisational or community levels of change. Evidence was then sort from the school or from programme reports of the school having achieved the objective. Table 4b describes the type of evidence sort.

Each objective that was achieved was ticked off on a schedule, corroboration sought from the school's development team and the necessary amendments made. The objectives were then categorised and frequency counts and percentages were done to assess how many objectives the group had been successful in achieving. These were scanned for trends in terms of which groups of objectives were being achieved more readily. Results of this analysis can be found in Chapter 6.5 with particular reference to Table 24.

Table 4b: Evidence of Objectives from the School Development Plans Being Achieved By the Schools

Category	Evidence
INDIVIDUAL LEVEL	
Skills training	Of attendance at training either school based or accessed externally (documentary evidence from school or programme e.g. attendance list)
Professionalism	Improved attendance and late coming of teaching staff (documentary evidence from school or from programme worker reports)
Teaching and Learning	Evidence (timetabling of and attendance at) of grade/subject/phases committees
ORGANISATIONAL LEVEL	
Infrastructure upgrade	Observation
Environment	Observation
Resources	Observation
Infrastructure new	Observation
Organisational Development	Observation (e.g. administration – use of new systems; policies – documentary evidence)
Relationships	Programme reports
COMMUNITY LEVEL	
Parent Involvement	Parent meeting attendance registers; timetabling of parenting meetings; agenda for meetings; observation
Community Involvement	Programme reports; copies of letters to community
School Governing Body	Terms of reference, evidence of meetings, observation

4.8.2.2. Changes Reported in End of Programme Evaluations

The programme evaluated changes in eight schools that had completed the programme. Initial data was collected before the school began the programme in order to assess the issues the school was facing and this provided a starting point for schools in their analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of their schools to guide the drawing up of their school development plans. The evaluation compared this data with data collected at the end of the programme. This evaluation covered a variety of areas of organisational functioning such as planning, relationships, policies and procedures, administration, communication, decision-making and stakeholder involvement.

The evaluation reports from the 8 schools included data collected from 111 teacher questionnaires, 8 principal questionnaires, 8 general audit forms, 8

interviews with the principals of the schools, 14 focus groups with the teachers of the 8 schools, 6 School Governing Body questionnaires, 34 parent questionnaires and 8 administrative staff questionnaires. Individual evaluation reports of each school were used in the analysis.

A content analysis of these eight evaluation reports was undertaken following the principles as outlined in the focus group data analysis section. The areas under investigation in the evaluations were used as categories and the information provided in the report was used to assess whether there had been change (yes), only some change or change but still issues (some) or if no change had occurred. The issues reported were noted for that particular category and kept with it in order to add to the understanding of change or lack of it in that particular area. It was felt that this information could be used to ascertain what changes had been noted in the schools over this time period as this would provide corroborating or additional data for both the measures and, more importantly, for the focus group data. This information also had the added benefit of comparing the same school at the beginning and the end of the programme. Results of this analysis can be found in Chapter 6.5 specifically Tables 25 and 26.

The data used for the evaluations was thus based on a triangulation of various stakeholders (teachers, principal, administrative staff, parents and school governing body) views on the school. In addition externally verified evidence was also collected. For example new buildings, classrooms converted into libraries were physically seen. Policies, financial plans and budgets were requested and meetings were attended. Registers from parent meetings were requested as were timetables for meetings with School Governing Body and parents.

4.8.3. INTERVIEWS ON SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLAN IMPLEMENTATION

Approximately a year after the original data for the study were collected a structured questionnaire was used to assess the use of the school development plans by the schools (see Appendix 9 for the interview

schedule). Information was gathered from the principals of the school and the school development team. This information was then corroborated by using archival data in the form of monthly reports on the progress of the schools and externally verifiable evidence. As the researcher was attempting to gain concrete proof of the use of the plan and functioning of the school development team copies of the plans and minutes from school development team meetings were requested by the researcher.

This data set provided evidence on the use of the school development plans but it also provided a temporal dimension, by assessing if the plans were still being used a year after the initial data was collected. It not only provided a qualitative look at the use of the plans but also provided evidence of changes that had occurred. In addition it also provided insight into the role of the principal in the planning process and the functioning of the school development team.

It was also decided to use the interviews as a way of exploring recurrent themes that had emerged during the analysis of the primary and secondary data sets e.g. it seemed that although the plans were being used they were being used in a less formal way than the project had planned, there were issues around the role of the principal in terms of the school development plan; the functioning of the school development team and the role funds played at the school.

4.8.3.1. Sample

All 24 primary school principals whose school were participating in the programme were interviewed by the researcher using the structured questionnaire. Data from all 24 primary schools' school development teams was collected in a similar way.

4.8.3.2. Data Analysis

These data were then looked at in terms of the monthly progress reports written by the fieldworkers on the programme in order to corroborate the information given by the schools. Where the principal, the school

development team and the progress reports concurred this was taken as evidence of what had been reported. Evidence was sort for the following areas (these were linked to the interview questions):

1. School having a school development plan and when it was developed
2. Review of plan implementation by the school?
3. Plan being used by the school to guide their activities?
4. Form the plan is recorded in
5. Achievements the school has made in terms of implementation of the plan
6. Functioning of the school development team
7. Role of the principal in the School Development Team/planning?
8. Role of the school management team in School Development Team/Planning
9. The link between the school development plan and fund-raising activities.

Externally verifiable evidence was also sought. Schools were asked for copies of their school development plans. Evidence of School Development Team meetings was sought through agendas, minutes, or other notes. Evidence was sought of objective achievement e.g. resources and infrastructure were seen by the researcher, concrete evidence of organisational policies and procedures were sought e.g. copies of policies, budgets etc. Where concrete evidence could not be found an attempt was made to triangulate the data with input from various sources and programme reports e.g. the role of the principal in the team was corroborated by the school development team and the programme reports drawn up by the fieldworkers. Once evidence from the interviews and archival progress reports about each school in terms of the above questions was ascertained, content analysis and frequency counts were conducted to get a broad picture of the use of the school development plans within the schools. The same principles used in the analysis of the focus groups were used to analyse this data. Results relating to these analyses can be found in Chapter 6.6.

4.9. COMPARISON BETWEEN SCHOOLS THAT SCORED WELL ON THE SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING EVALUATION SCALE AND THOSE THAT DID NOT

An interesting trend became apparent in the focus group analysis with two of the successful schools (in terms of their scores on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale) in Group 1 and the most successful school in Group 2 reporting similar changes which were not as evident in the other schools. These related to changes in the principal, financial management, conflict management, pride in the school and skills development. Results relating to these finding can be found in Chapter 6.8.

Schools that had been successful (based on their scores on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale), whether they been involved in the programme for three years or one year, were expressing similar types of change. It was for this reason that it was decided to group the schools according to their success in terms of implementation of their school development plans. The two schools from each group that scored highest on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale formed one group of four schools and the two lowest scoring formed another group. Those schools that scored well on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale were referred to as the more successful group and the other as the less successful group.

Once the data was regrouped for these 8 schools the data was subjected to the following analyses:

- The quantitative measures were analysed using a MANOVA to assess differences between the groups;
- The focus group data relating to what had changed were reanalysed to look for differences and similarities;
- The focus group data relating to helping and hindering factors were reanalysed.

4.10. ANALYSIS OF EVIDENCE OF EMPOWERMENT

In an attempt to explore the evidence base for empowerment at various levels of analysis resulting from the school development programme, many sets of data, both quantitative and qualitative, were collected and analysed. This included: quantitative data measuring variables associated with empowerment; focus groups and interviews exploring whether teachers, principals and school development teams reported personal empowerment or empowerment of their schools; and archival data relating to outcomes from the school development plans. This approach added complexity to the overall research design and specifically the analytic design. It attempted to maximise the advantages from both the quantitative and qualitative designs. In conducting a multi-method analysis, it is assumed that analyses of different data sources are accorded equal weight. The researcher could switch back and forth between data sets progressively clarifying the findings of one approach by using the other. This helped to ensure that the scope and focus of the issues were anchored more precisely.

It also helped the discrepancies between methods to be justified, increasing reliability by explaining differences in the results obtained from each method. Adopting this approach helped to triangulate findings and elaborate on the results by using one method to inform another (Rossman & Wilson, 1985; Cheung, 2001). Table 5b (p. 111-112) provides a summary of the various quantitative and qualitative analyses undertaken in the study.

Although many authors have called for the combination of methods or multi-method studies very little systematic evidence has been presented for combining methods at the analytic phase (Miles & Huberman, 1984). Too often researchers gloss over this phase with such generalisations as “qualitative data should enrich survey information” or that “qualitatively-derived hypotheses ought to be tested with subsequent quantitative analyses” (Rossman & Wilson, 1985).

A general prescription has been to pick triangulation sources that have different biases, different strengths so they can complement each other.

However as Huberman & Miles (1998) point out, “In the disorderly world of empirical research, however, independent measures never converge fully. Observations do not jibe completely with interview data, nor survey with written records” (p. 199). In other words sources can be inconsistent or even conflicting with no easy means of resolution. Rossman & Wilson (1985) argue that in such cases a new way of thinking about the data at hand may be needed and in doing so triangulation becomes less a tactic than a model of inquiry. By self-consciously seeking out, collecting and double checking findings using multiple sources and modes of evidence the researcher will build the triangulation process into ongoing data collection and analysis. It will be the way the researcher got to the finding in the first place – by seeing or hearing multiple instances of it from different sources, using different methods, and by squaring the findings with others with which it should coincide.

A process of triangulation has been attempted through out this study. As a first step in collecting evidence of empowerment in the school development setting a measure of school development, the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale was developed. However, as it was not possible to interpret whether the unitary school construct identified was related to an empowerment construct, various other measures of variables associated with empowerment, at both the individual and organisational levels, were measured. The influence of third variables on these results was then explored.

Staff within the schools were then given an opportunity to share whether they felt the programme had impacted on them and their schools through the use of focus groups. The results of this analysis were triangulated with those from the archival data analyses of eight schools. The archival data analysis involved a different cohort of schools who had completed the programme and about whom baseline and end of programme data had been collected by the programme. This data had been captured in audits written for each school. Areas of change noted in the archival data were compared with those noted in the focus groups and similarities and differences were noted. Data about the achievement of objectives set in the school development plans were

triangulated with programme progress reports on the school and through the interview data in order to ensure corroboration of evidence of achievement.

Interviews were undertaken with 24 school principals and 24 school development teams. This was undertaken a year after the initial quantitative data and focus groups had been undertaken. This added not only an extended cohort of schools but also added the principals' views (they were not included in the focus groups) and also added an element of temporal triangulation. Reported changes were triangulated within this set of data. Principal views were triangulated with school development team views and then these were triangulated with evidence from programme reports. Evidence of change was only accepted if all three sources corroborated the change reported. Through the use of these various data sets, each building on the other, an attempt was made to gain a composite picture from various sources for the evidence of empowerment in the school setting.

In order to integrate the findings from these different analyses, data impact matrices, based on the work of Miles & Huberman (1994), were constructed to identify what the various data sources revealed about the impact of the programme and its meaning for school staff. It was decided to make use of the categories suggested by the groups in the qualitative data analysis as well as those measured in the quantitative section. These categories were grouped in terms of whether they were seen as relating to the school development plan, individual, organisational or community level variables. Data from the quantitative analysis were entered first. This included the descriptives, MANOVA and analysis of third variables from the comparison of Group 1 and 2 and the MANOVA results comparing schools that scored well on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale. These were entered according to whether there was evidence of the variables and if there was evidence of impact (gauged by significant results).

Results from the qualitative data sets were entered according to the following coding system:

Symbol	Description	Decision Rule
●	Strong Evidence of Change	More than half of the schools in a group mention this variable as having changed at the school since working with the programme
●	Some Evidence of Change	Less than half of the schools in a group mention this variable as having changed at the school since working with the programme
●	No Evidence of Change	No schools in a group mention this variable as having changed at the school since working with the programme
↑	Higher Cumulative scores	The group's cumulative score was double or more than the other groups when discussing this variable

This matrix then provided an overview of all the data pertaining to Research Questions 1 and 2. By viewing the categories across the data sets, interpretations about the evidence for empowerment at these various levels, the impact of the school development plan and the impact at the individual, organisational and community levels were made. Chapter 6.9 presents these Matrices and reports the results from them.

The primary focus of this study is on whether using a community psychology framework, particularly an empowerment one, helps to further understanding of school development. The way in which this aim has been realised has been through evaluation of a particular school development planning programme. The focus of the study lies on identifying possible variables that support or hinder the school development process. A framework of variables based on empowerment theory has been used as a way of focusing the analysis. In operationalising the study, the literature on empowerment has been used to develop the framework, which posits three different levels of empowerment. The focus of the evaluation thus lies on identifying whether evidence can be found that empowerment has occurred at these different levels, in the school development programme.

Four research questions are posed to guide the analysis.

1. What effect has the school development planning process had in terms of empowering schools as organisations?
2. What effect has the school development planning process had on variables associated with empowerment at the individual, organisational and community levels?
3. What factors help or hinder the school development planning process?
4. What is the relationship between the process of school development planning and those variables associated with empowerment at the individual, organisational and community levels?

As has been demonstrated above the terms “effect” and “impact” are defined in a number of different ways in the evaluation literature. The focus of the evaluation in the current study is not about a systematic impact evaluation of a school development programme (which would require a measurement-based design based on control or contrast groups). The focus is rather on seeking evidence of empowerment outcomes in a school development setting, through a multi-method analysis. In a multi-method evaluation, the use of indicators of outcomes is in line with the ways in which multi-method impact evaluations have been previously conducted in a number of arenas internationally, and in particular in health and education.

This study attempts to do this by operationalising the evaluation in empowerment terms. The indicators of possible empowerment outcomes are defined in several ways in the present study:

a) through measures of various variables associated with empowerment theoretically and empirically (i.e. measured by previously validated scales),
b) contextually through teacher perceptions and
c) by operationalising the school development planning programme outcomes in empowerment terms, in a new instrument (a school development planning scale).

Empowerment theory has offered several constructs which are theorised as indicators of empowerment at various levels. In this study these theoretical constructs have been operationalised as a framework of empowerment outcome variables, which have been related through archival analysis to the particular work that the programme does.

The empowerment literature emphasises that empowerment outcomes should be evident at various levels. In operationalising the study, a framework of indicators/variables has been developed relating to these levels, as these relate to the aims of the particular programme being evaluated. As previously validated instruments are not available to measure all the constructs in this model, it has been necessary to use both previously validated measures as well as self-developed instruments.

These latter instruments have essentially relied on the self-reports of the teachers and principals involved in the programme, and have focused on asking these respondents about their perceptions and possible experience of the various levels of empowerment, as well as their perceptions of the outcomes of the programme at the individual, organisational and community levels of empowerment.

The framework of indicators/variables developed relates both to the different levels theorised in the literature on empowerment, as well as the school development programme's implementation theory. The evaluation thus focuses on attempting to establish whether evidence of school development outcomes can be identified in these different data sources. The design is multi-method, in which is nested a non-experimental ex post facto design using data obtained from two contrast groups. In this way the empowerment outcomes framework links both with the literature on empowerment and equally importantly to the programme's theory.

In essence, the design is based on the assumption that programme envisaged certain specific outcomes. These were established through archival analysis. They were then related to an empowerment framework

based on analysis of the literature at a conceptual level. This framework was then operationalised be identifying specific indicators of empowerment outcomes. Stated a different way, empowerment theory has offered several constructs which are theorised as indicators of empowerment at various levels. In this study these theoretical constructs have been operationalised as a framework of empowerment outcome variables, which have been related through archival analysis to the particular work that the programme does.

Table 5a lays out how empowerment theory has been operationalised and related to particular instruments used in the study and how this relates to the various data sources collected. Table 5a presents a framework of indicators/variables of programme outcomes which are based both in empowerment theory, as well as the programme's implementation theory drawn from analysis of documents related to the programme's conceptualisation, planning and implementation. The table summarises the programme's implementation theory, and how the particular outcomes towards which the programme has worked have been related to particular indicators/variables in the research design, and then to the data sources and instruments used in the multi-method analysis.

Table 5a: Linking Definitions and Outcomes Indicators of Empowerment to Data Sources in the Evaluation

Empowerment as Defined by Zimmerman	Exemplar (Zimmerman, 2000)	Measures	Operationalised Outcomes for programme	School Development Planning Evaluation Scale	Focus Groups	Audits	School Development Plan Analysis	Interviews
Individual This is a process by which individuals gain mastery and control over their lives and a critical understanding of their environment (Rappaport, 1984, 1987; Swift & Levin, 1987; Zimmerman 1990a). It includes participatory behaviour, motivation to exert control and feelings of efficacy and control. At this level empowerment bears on both the material and the psychological, on acquiring access to resources as well as increasing control and value.	Control Efficacy Context Specific Efficacy	Locus of Control General Self-Efficacy Teacher Efficacy	*The goal of empowerment at this level is to increase feelings of self-efficacy and locus of control. This is most likely to occur in situations where people feel there is increased access to resources.*	Awareness of the School Development Plan and its Role in School Development (School Staff's Perception of Individual Level Change)	Self report of individual level change	Self report from various sources triangulated across various stakeholder perceptions. External evidence sought where possible (e.g. records of late-coming)	External evidence possible (e.g. records of late-coming). Triangulated with programme reports.	No data collected relating to this level.
Organisational This is a process aimed at changing the power structures as they are expressed within an organisation, such as a school, in order to establish new structures, values and forms of interaction. Organisational empowerment includes shared leadership, opportunities to develop skills, expansion and effective community influence (Maton & Rappaport, 1984; Maton & Salem, 1995). Following Zimmerman's (2000) lead a distinction was made between an empowering organisation (what it provides to members) and an empowered organisation (its impact on the community).	Participation in decision making Collaborative working Democratic leadership Supportive relationships	Teachers' perceptions of involvement in decision making. (Participation and Decision Centralization Scale) Teachers' perceptions of influence in the decision-making process (Psychological Participation scale) Teachers' perceptions of the opportunities for collaboration with other adults (both teachers and principal) in the school (Collaboration Scale) Teacher's perceptions of Leadership Style (Profile of Organisational Characteristics Scale) Teachers' perceptions of the principal's working relationship with his or her staff (Supervisory Leadership Scale) Teachers' perceptions of peer working relationships within the school (Peer Leadership Scale)	*Empowering organisation:* *The goal at this level is to create a participative work culture, collaborative work structures, shared decision making. This is likely to manifest in a school context as increased responsibility for school development among the whole staff.* *Empowered Organisation:* *As an empowered organisation the school is in control of its own development and is able to acquire the resources it requires and is having an impact on the broader educational community. In a school development planning context, this is likely to be found in situations where the school has actively implemented the school development plan and has achieved the goals set for itself (or is in a process of achieving).*	Involvement in the Development of, Implementation of, and Evaluation and Monitoring of the School Development Plan (School Staff's Perception of Organisational Level Change) Management's Role in School Development Planning (School Staff's Perception of Organisational Level Change)	Individuals perceptions of organisational level change	Self report from various sources triangulated across various stakeholder perceptions. External evidence sought where possible (e.g. observation, minutes of meeting etc)	External evidence possible (e.g. policy documents, minutes of meetings, direct observation). Triangulated with programme reports.	Self report from various sources triangulated principal and school development team perceptions. Triangulated with programme reports. External evidence sought where possible (e.g. records of meetings; direct observation)
Community This level of empowerment is concerned with collective action to improve the quality of life within the community through the active engagement of stakeholders. An empowered community is one that initiates efforts to improve the community, responds to threats and provides opportunities for citizens to participate (Zimmerman, 2000).	Collective action Stakeholder involvement Improvements in the community	(none were assessed)	*The goal at this level is to have community stakeholders involved in collective action. In a school development context, this is likely to manifest in situations in which parents and members of the School Governing Body actively involved in school activities and enable the school to move towards its goals.*	Assessment of the Effectiveness of the Plan in Bringing About School Change (School Staff's Perception of Community Level Change) Involvement of Other Stakeholders (School Staff's Perception of Community Level Change)	Individuals' perceptions of community level change	Self report from various sources triangulated across various stakeholder perceptions. External evidence sought where possible (e.g. observation, attendance registers of meeting etc)	External evidence possible (e.g. minutes of meetings, direct observation). Triangulated with programme reports.	Self report from various sources triangulated principal and school development team perceptions. Triangulated with programme reports. External evidence sought where possible (e.g. records of meetings; direct observation)

4.11. ANALYSIS OF THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE VARIABLES

The focus group analyses of the helping and hindering factors, and advice schools would give to those embarking on a school development process, were explored to offer some insights into the variables school staff felt were important in the school development planning process. In order to integrate these qualitative data sets relating to the relationships between the variables a matrix was drawn up. Miles and Huberman (1994) suggest using a variable ordered predictor-outcome matrix when exploring how several contributing factors function together in relation to the outcome variable. A colour coding system similar to the one used in the Impact Matrix was implemented to look for trends and differences across the groups. Data were entered into the matrix using the following criteria:

Symbol	Description	Decision Rule
●	Strong Evidence of Link	More than half of the schools in a group mention this variable/predictor as being helpful, hindering or would advise another school
●	Some Evidence of Link	Less than half of the schools in a group mention this variable/predictor as being helpful, hindering or would advise another school
●	No Evidence of Link	No schools in a group mention this variable/predictor as being helpful, hindering or would advise another school
↑	Higher Cumulative scores	The group's cumulative score was double or more than the other groups when discussing this variable

Using the variables described by the schools it was possible to explore what variables Group 1 and Group 2 focus group schools saw as important in bringing about change and successful school development planning implementation. Data from the focus groups relating to helping and hindering factors and advice that would be given were entered. The relationships noted in the analysis comparing schools that were successful in implementing the school development plan with those that were not, were then added to the matrix. From this a variety of relationships between the variables were noted. Chapter 7.5 presents the Relationship Matrix.

To further explore the relationship between school development planning and the other variables the quantitative measures were subjected to several statistical analyses. These results are reported in Chapter 7.7. To gain an

initial sense of the relationships between the variables and School Development Planning Evaluation Scale, Pearson's product-moment correlations were used. The correlation co-efficients summarise the relationship between two variables thereby indicating the degree to which variation in one variable is related to variation in another (Kerlinger, 1986). However, it is imperative to acknowledge that a positive correlation between variables is an indication of association and should not been seen as implying causality (Howell, 1997; Kerlinger, 1986).

A multiple regression analysis was conducted to further investigate the role of various organisational and individual level variables in predicting school development planning success. Correlations can be very powerful research tools but they do not give information about the predictive power of variables (Howell, 1997). In regression analysis a predictive model is fitted to the data and this model is used to predict values of the outcome or dependent variable from one or more predictors or independent variables. Simple regression seeks to predict an outcome from a single predictor whereas multiple regression seeks to predict an outcome from several predictors (Field, 1994). This is a useful tool because it allows us to go a step beyond the actual data. The results of the multiple regression give some idea of which variables related to successful school development planning and allows us to construct models of how these variables relate to each other (Howell, 1997). .

By combining the relationship matrix results with the regression analysis a model of successful school development planning was developed. This model was tested using Structural Equation Modelling, a statistical modelling technique that takes a confirmatory (i.e. hypothesis testing) approach to the analysis of a structural theory bearing on some phenomenon. Typically, this theory represents 'causal' processes that generate observations on multiple variables (Bentler, 1988). The term structural equation modelling conveys two important aspects of the procedure (Byrne, 2001):

a) that the causal processes under study are represented by a series of structural (i.e. regression) equations;

b) that these structural relations can be modelled pictorially to enable clearer conceptualisation of the theory under study.

The hypothesised model can then be tested statistically in a simultaneous analysis of the entire system of variables to determine the extent to which it is consistent with the data. If the goodness of fit is adequate, the model argues for the plausibility of postulated relationship among variables; if it is inadequate, the tenability of such relations is rejected. Byrne (2001) argues for Structural Equation Modelling as the method of choice for non-experimental research, where methods for testing theories are not well-developed and ethical considerations make experimental design unfeasible.

Using the information from the relationship matrix and the statistical exploration of the relationships these relationships were then mapped graphically (Miles & Huberman, 1994). This relationship diagram graphically represented the variables according to level of analysis, i.e. individual, organisational and community. Data relating to the comparison between Group 1 and 2 made up the first diagram. A second diagram was drawn adding to it the results relating to the comparison between those schools that were more successful with those that were less successful. A final diagram integrating the statistical relationships was drawn up. In this way a picture began to emerge of the variables school staff felt were contributing to successful school development planning.

4.12. METHODOLOGICAL LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Although the limitations of the study will be explored in more depth in Chapter 9 it is important to deal with some of those at this point so that the reader is aware of them when going through the various analyses offered in the following chapters. As with any evaluation there are limitations, as well as compromises related to instrumentation, sampling, analysis and design as well as the quality of the data actually available to the researcher. A number of assumptions have been adopted in operationalising the study, which have acted as limitations. Quantitative measures of empowerment as defined by the theory and empirical research were identified. However, there was no

previous research which had examined empowerment in the context of school development planning. There were also few previous studies which had explored empowerment in the context of school development, and many of the studies conducted had focused on teachers' perceptions.

Certain previously developed instruments exist which relate to the framework of evaluation outcomes (as described previously and displayed in Table 5a). Others do not, implying the need for self-developed instruments. These latter instruments have been based on the ways in which the school development and change process has been conceptualised and implemented in this particular school development programme. Other limitations relate to the conceptualisation and use of both previously validated instruments as well as a self-developed instrument as measures of empowerment outcomes within the design. Others apply to the evidence obtained from the school development planning scale developed as part of the study.

Self-reports of teachers have been gathered through focus groups. Additional limitations apply to the use of methods of content analysis focusing on indicators of outcomes in the self-reports of teachers concerning their practices in the school contexts in which they work. A number of assumptions were adopted in defining and operationalising the study which has led to the use of non-experimental and multiple methods. The empowerment literature emphasises that because of the contextual nature of empowerment it is necessary to explore how empowerment is defined within that context, by the people engaged in the context. This has influenced the design of this study, in that evidence of empowerment outcomes has been sought in the self-reports of teachers, and not merely in previously standardised measures.

Methods of content analysis focusing on indicators of outcomes in the self-reports of teachers concerning their practices in the school contexts in which they work were applied to assess this. This is a major limitation. However it is still important to assess in this context what people feel about empowerment and school development planning, and it is particularly important to do so as this is a new area of study. Attempts were made to

counter the danger of solely using self-report data by using (analysis of objectives achieved from the School Development Plan, audits and interviews with external verification of self-report) that would act as external verification to these self-report.

The issue of how self-report data have been substantiated against externally verified evidence will be more clearly explicated in Chapters 6 and 8. Very briefly the process involved using different data sources, some based on triangulation of self-reports (i.e. self reports from various stakeholders); others based on project records (e.g. externally conducted audits) and others on direct observation (e.g. the researcher seeing a new library). Table 5a presents these various data sets.

The samples in the study are samples of convenience, which are adequate in the programme's terms, but introduce limitations concerning generalisability as there is no way of estimating the probability of selection for each unit of the population. Such samples are less likely to be representative of the population and are seen as weaker forms of sampling (Blacktop, 1996). However, many researchers do use non-probability samples. This may be because generalisability is not an aim of the research, or that not enough is known about the population to use probability methods. However caution must be exercised in applying findings from such samples to the wider group from which they are drawn. This type of sample is clearly biased because the selection process is influenced by numerous uncontrolled, and often unknown, variables (Polit & Hungler, 1995).

Despite the shortcomings of non-probability samples, they are still useful, and at times the only option for studies such as the present study. They may also be used where generalisability beyond the sample is not an aim. Qualitative research studies commonly use small, non-probability samples because the focus is on gathering rich, in-depth, descriptive data (Holloway & Wheeler, 1996).

Another limitation relates to the issues of levels of analysis of empowerment in the study. Firstly, most of the theoretical conceptualisations of empowerment, although taking cognisance of issues of level, resort to individual level measures. A limitation of much of this research is that the only validated measures, amenable to the type of statistical procedures used in this study, are of the self-report, individual level type. Secondly, in order to access people's perceptions of empowerment qualitative self-report focus groups interviews normally have to be used.

The logic followed in the qualitative analyses is as follows. The study started with an analysis of theoretical constructs, and their working and operational definition in specific variables and indicators. As empowerment is contextual it was important to first explore with the participants' views on empowerment and school development planning. Then three data sets were explored to verify these findings.

While these additional analyses go a certain distance towards justifying conclusions as to empowerment having occurred beyond the individual level, there are still a number of limitations inherent in the type of analysis conducted. It needs to be acknowledged that it is a challenge to establish change at the organisational and community level. If teacher perceptions indicate that change has taken place, and these trends can then be verified by external sources of data (e.g. external audit data) it becomes possible to make claims beyond the individual level. Where externally verified evidence supporting teachers' perceptions cannot be found, a more exploratory view will be taken. It will also be made clearer that such evidence is only based on teacher's perceptions.

The evaluation thus focuses on attempting to establish whether evidence of school development outcomes can be identified in these different data sources. The design is multi-method, in which is nested a non-experimental ex post facto design using data obtained from two contrast groups. The ideal approach to testing hypotheses is to use an experimental design. However, at times this is neither possible nor appropriate because it is impractical or

unethical to manipulate the variable(s) of interest and use random assignment, both required for most experiments (Baker, 2000).

Where this is the case, ex post facto (after the fact) designs are the best that can be used. This design is used in situations where the evaluator has only limited options in terms of making comparisons. A common problem, however, is that any relation which is identified may be spurious rather than real. Nevertheless, ex post facto designs have been used extensively to examine programmes which have been available in the past to the whole of the relevant population (programmes with universal coverage) (Baker, 2000). It must be highlighted though that even in well-designed ex post facto designs, it is difficult to establish causality (Lo Biondo-Wood & Haber, 1998). A multi-method approach, combining both quantitative and several qualitative data sources, attempted to deal with the challenges posed by this area of study and the limitations of the design.

The way on which the evaluation was conceptualised and operationalised has also led to certain tensions and challenges. A central issue in the conceptualisation and operationalisation of the study is that this was not a commissioned evaluation nor was it a planned part of the programme. The decision to undertake the evaluation and the focus on empowerment was the researchers own. The departure point of the investigation was to examine what the programme aimed to do, to pick up on the statements in the programme's planning and policy documents which either directly or indirectly imply an aim of empowerment of teachers and schools and then to operationalise these in terms of Zimmerman's (2000) framework and then to establish whether evidence for these indicators of empowerment could be found in a school development setting. It was therefore the researcher's choice to focus on the effects of the programme with respect to empowerment, in order to evaluate whether the programme has been effective. Thus the evaluation was conducted for the researcher's own purposes, to see whether the programme's statements of aim have actually been fulfilled. This however has contributed to a number of challenges, tensions and limitation in the design.

As this evaluation of the programme was not commissioned, it was not possible for the researcher to design what the programme did so as to include control groups. Also given the nature of the area worked in (all the primary schools in a specific township) it was not possible to find control groups. In order to deal with these realities the best available alternative was to use an ex post facto design with two contrast groups (one three year and one year exposure to the programme). In order to deal with the weaknesses of this design it was necessary to nest this design in a wider multi-method design.

These contextual realities have been challenges in the study. The way in which the programme has worked has affected the design and has also introduced limitations in the study. Specifically, the design tension was that, in order to evaluate this particular programme and establish whether its aims of empowerment had actually been realised, it was necessary to establish effects, in order to establish whether the programme had been effective. A multi-method impact design was thus seen as the best option available to do this. In a different setting in which there are high levels of control enabling randomisation it may have been possible to use a more powerful design with regard to establishing effects. In an educational development programme this was not possible.

There are inevitable compromises and limitations inherent in any ex post facto design. There are also compromises and limitations in content analysis, as well as limitations in analysis of self-report data. Steps taken to counter these limitations will be highlighted in the following sections and explored in more detail in Chapter 9.

4.13. SUMMARY

In this section it has been argued that a multi-method research design, combining quantitative and qualitative data, not only suited the values of the contextualist perspective of community psychology by providing a useful approach to researching complex social issues such as empowerment, but also provided an approach that strengthened the ex post facto design of the evaluation. The procedure and logic for the collection and analysis of the

various forms of data were presented according to the research questions they were aimed at providing evidence about. These research questions focused on two areas, whether empowerment was evidenced in the context of a school development programme and the relationship between school development planning and the other variables associated with empowerment.

The overarching aim is to explore whether it is possible to find evidence indicating that empowerment outcomes have taken place. A framework of variables based on empowerment theory has been used as a way of focusing the analysis. In operationalising the study, the literature on empowerment has been used to develop the framework, which posits three different levels of empowerment. The evaluation focuses on evidence relating to empowerment outcomes at various levels of analysis as described by Zimmerman (2000).

The definitions of the various levels of empowerment provided by theorists are quite clear about the outcomes at each level and most specifically at the level of the organisation. The empowerment outcomes in the research design have been defined theoretically in this thesis based on the work of Zimmerman (2000; Peterson & Zimmerman, 2004). In operationalising the study, a framework of indicators/variables has been developed relating to these levels, as these relate to the aims of the particular programme being evaluated. As Table 5a indicates the outcomes and their indicators wee derived from several sources. Quantitative measures of empowerment as defined by the theory and empirical research were identified. The focus of the evaluation thus lies on identifying whether evidence can be found that empowerment has occurred at these different levels, in the school development programme.

However, there was no previous research which had examined empowerment in the context of school development planning. There were also few previous studies which had explored empowerment in the context of school development, and many of the studies conducted had focused on teachers' perceptions. In this study, it was thus logical to use both quantitative measures as well as instruments tapping teachers' self-reports. These were tapped both by a school development planning scale which attempted to

measure teachers' perceptions of empowerment at individual, school and community levels, as well as through qualitative focus groups. In order to assess the effects of the programme operationalised as empowerment outcomes three other data sets which included external verification were collected (analysis of objectives achieved from the School Development Plan, audits and interviews with external verification of self-report).

It has been necessary in this study to accord weight not only to measurement data, but equally importantly to the self-reports of teachers and principals involved in this particular school development planning programme. It was also necessary to use different data sources (various existing measures, a new measure, and the self-reports of teachers and principals), as this was necessary to provided indicators not only of empowerment, but also of school development planning outcomes.

What follows in the subsequent chapters (Chapters 5 to 7) is a sequential presentation of the results relating to the quantitative analysis. This is then followed by the results of the focus groups and then the data used for external verification is presented. As this is a multi-method study, evidence is first sought in each of the different data sources, separately, with the evidence from each data source being equally weighted in the analysis. This is in line with existing practice in multi-method research (Frechtling, & Sharp, 1997; Hayton *et al.*, 2007; Humphris *et al.*, 2004). An attempt is then made to integrate the findings from these different data sources. Convergences and differences are highlighted. This is again in line with existing practice in multi-method research, which uses triangulation across different methods, data, investigators and time to link and interpret trends from different forms of analysis and different forms of data (Challis *et al.*, 2004; Philip *et al.*, 2004).

Ultimately the data from both themes needed to be integrated and theoretical links made, which is done in Chapter 8. School development literature and research, particularly school development programme evaluation, has suffered from a lack of theorising about how and why interventions succeed or fail (Chen & Rossi, 1983). In order to do this we need to not only assess

impact but also explore process and in doing so make links to theoretical frameworks. Huberman & Miles (1998) argue that “grounded theorists” have long contended that theory generate from one data source works less well than “slices of data” from different sources (p. 199).

At the end of the thesis (Chapter 9) an attempt is made to examine whether the empowerment framework developed to guide the evaluation contributes to the understanding of the school development process followed in the programme, by focusing on the indicators of empowerment outcomes across these different data sources and different forms of data. This focus of the study has lain on effects, impacts and outcomes as opposed to process.

The following two pages offer a summary table of the Research Design. This can be used to guide the reader through the next section on the results of these many sets of data

Table 5b: Research Design Summary

RESEARCH QUESTIONS	DATA SOURCES AND COLLECTION	DATA ANALYSIS	SAMPLING
Research Question 1: What effect has the school development planning process had in terms of empowering schools as organisations?	School Development Planning Evaluation Scale (SDPES)[1]	MANOVA	227 Teachers and 18 Principals Group 1 - 141 Group 2 - 86
	Focus groups with teachers	Content analysis Frequency counts	56 participants Group 1: 4 focus groups 31 teachers Group 2: 4 focus groups 25 teachers
	8 School Evaluations of schools that had completed the programme – focusing on what had been achieved over the 3 years in terms of objectives set in School Development Plan (SDP) 8 School Development Plans evidence of objectives being achieved through archival analysis and through interviews (see below)	Checklist Frequency counts and percentages	8 school development plans of schools who had completed the programme
	Interviews with principal and school development teams (SDT) relating to use of the SDP, functioning of the SDT and role of principal in SDP (this data was collected a year after the above 3 sources) Interviews Copies of SDP SDT meeting minutes Programmes monthly progress reports	Content analysis Frequency count Schools grouped according to year they started on the programme	24 principals interviewed 24 school development teams interviewed
	SDPES Success Regrouped focus group data relating to what had changed in terms of school scores on SDPES.	MANOVA	4 schools were in the SDPES success group 4 schools were in the SDPES less success group
	Impact Matrix Results from the above data sources	Impact Matrix - classifying data as providing evidence of SDP Success or not, SDT functioning and role of principal	All of the results for Research Question
Research Question 2: What effects has the school development planning process had on variables associated with empowerment at the individual, organisational and community levels?	Individual: Locus of control Scale General Self-efficacy Scale Teacher Efficacy Scale	MANOVA	227 Teachers and 18 Principals Group 1 - 141 Group 2 - 86
	Organisational: Involvement in decision making (Participation and Decision Centralisation Scale) Influence in decision-making (Psychological Participation Scale) Collaboration Scale Profile of Organisational Characteristics Supervisory Leadership Peer Leadership	MANOVA	227 Teachers and 18 Principals Group 1 - 141 Group 2 - 86

[1] A list of abbreviations used in the tables can be found on page 357

Table 5b: Research Design Summary

RESEARCH QUESTIONS	DATA SOURCES AND COLLECTION	DATA ANALYSIS	SAMPLING
Research Question 2: Continued	Focus groups with teachers (what impact has SDP had on school, individual and parent and stakeholder involvement	Content analysis Frequency counts	56 participants Group 1: 4 focus groups 31 teachers Group 2: 4 focus groups 25 teachers
	Individual School Audits of 8 schools that had completed the programme – focusing on what changes had occurred over this period	Content analysis and frequency count Change categorised as changed, some change no change	8 evaluation reports (data collected form 111 teachers, 8 principals, 14 focus groups, 6 SGB questionnaires, 34 parent questionnaires, 8 admin staff questionnaires)
	SDPES Success Regrouped quantitative and qualitative data according to how well the school did on the SDPES	MANOVA Looked at differences on the scales Compared focus group results Looked at differences in what schools felt had changed	4 schools were in the SDPES success group 4 schools were in the SDPES less success group
	Impact Matrix Results from the above data sources	Impact Matrix - classifying data as providing evidence of change in individual, organisational or community level variables	All of the results for Research Question
Research Question 3: What factors help or hinder the school development planning process?	Focus groups (what has helped or hindered, advice)	Content analysis Frequency counts	56 participants Group 1: 4 focus groups 31 teachers Group 2: 4 focus groups 25 teachers
	SDPES Success Regrouped focus group data according to how well the school did on the SDPES – questions relating to helping and hindering factors	Looked at differences in what successful and less successful schools were saying about helping and hindering factors Frequency counts	4 schools were in the SDPES success group 4 schools were in the SDPES less success group
Research Question 4: What is the relationship between the process of school development planning and those variables associated with empowerment at the individual, organisational and community levels?	Quantitative measures – what is the relationship between SDPES and the other variables	Pearson's Moment Correlations Multiple Regression Structural Equation Modelling	227 Teachers and 18 Principals Group 1 - 141 Group 2 - 86
	Relationship Matrix	Relationship Matrix,	All of the results for Research Question 3 and 4
	Relationship Diagram	Relationship Diagram	Results from Helping and hindering factors, and advice to other schools, from Group 1 and 2 Results from SDPES success and less successful comparison on helping and hindering factors Regression and SEM

CHAPTER FIVE: STATISTICAL ANALYSES RELATING TO THE ASSUMPTIONS OF THE MEASURES AND THE SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING EVALUATION SCALE

5.1. INTRODUCTION

Before presenting the results as they relate to the research questions the assumptions underlying the statistical tests used in the study will be discussed and relevant analyses presented. In order to answer the research questions the reliability and validity of the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale also needs to be established. The analyses relating to this will be presented. Once the evidence of the measures meeting the assumptions of the statistics that were used and the reliability and validity of the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale have been established the results pertaining to the four research questions will be presented.

5.2. TESTING THE STATISTICAL ASSUMPTIONS

The statistical tests used in the study (discussed earlier in the Methodology Chapter) are all parametric and as such have four assumptions that must be met for the test to be accurate (Field, 2004). These assumptions are:

(a) Normally distributed data – The rationale behind hypothesis testing relies on having normally distributed populations and thus if this assumption is not met the logic behind hypothesis testing is flawed.

(b) Homogeneity of variance – This assumption means that the variances should not change systematically throughout the data. For the present research each of the two groups should not have significantly different variances.

(c) Interval data – Data should be measured at least at the interval level. This means that the distance between points on the scale should be equal at all parts along the scale.

(d) Independence – This assumption is that data from different subjects are independent, which means that the behaviour of one participant does not influence the behaviour of another.

(taken from Field, 2004, p. 37-38)

5.2.1. NORMAL DISTRIBUTION:

To check the assumption of normality the distribution of the sample data was explored. If the sample data are normally distributed then we tend to assume that they came from a normally distributed population (Field, 2004). Summary statistics of the data related to the distribution of the scores including histograms, frequencies, Q-Q plots and Box plots of the data were initially undertaken (Clark-Carter, 1997)[2]. The Box plots, in conjunction with the frequency tables, indicated that there were no significant outliers in the data. However, the histograms (see Appendix 10, Tables 1 and 2) and the Q-Q plots (see Appendix 10, Table 3) indicated that several of the measures for both groups were not normally distributed being skewed towards the positive end of the scales. These summary statistics, however tell us little about whether a distribution is close enough to normality to be useful.

Skewness and kurtosis give an idea of the data distribution as they are both associated with standard error. Data may be skewed, with scores falling predominantly at the lower or upper ends of the distribution (resulting in a positive or negative skewness statistic respectively). The clustering of scores around the mean is referred to as kurtosis, with a positive kurtosis statistic indicating that scores lie close to the mean and negative scores indicating scores are spread out around the mean (Field, 2004).

The z-scores for skewness and kurtosis scores (see Table 4 for Group 1 and Table 5 for Group 2 in Appendix 10), indicate that although all the tests appear to be normal with regards to kurtosis several of the measures exceed the 1.96 limit in terms of their skewness (Field, 2004). It is possible that this skewness has to do with a positive view of the programme and its impact. It is interesting to note that it was generally the organisational level and not the individual level measures that were skewed. This issue will be pursued later in the results.

[2] A list of abbreviations used in the Tables can be found on page 357

In order to assess whether these indications of non-normal distribution are actually significantly different from the normal distribution the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used. This test compares the set of scores in the sample to a normally distributed set of scores with the same mean and standard deviation. If the test is not significant ($p>0.05$) it tells us that the distribution of the sample is not significantly different from a normal distribution (i.e. it is probably normal). However, if the test is significant ($p<0.05$) then the distribution in question is significantly different from a normal distribution (i.e. it is non-normal) (Field, 2004).

Tables 4 and 5 (in Appendix 10) indicated that the data for School Development Planning Evaluation Scale, Psychological Participation Scale, Participation and Decision Centralisation Scale, Collaboration Scale and Peer Leadership Scale reflect a deviation from normality and thus parametric tests cannot be used on the data. In these circumstances non-parametric tests could potentially have been used as a means of testing the hypotheses of interest. However, not all of the scales broke this assumption and parametric tests are more powerful and had more usefulness for the purpose of the present study. Thus it was felt that not being able to use parametric tests would limit the analysis of the data.

Clarke-Carter (1997), Field (2004) and Howell (1997) all argue that when data are not normally distributed it is possible to transform the data into a form which would allow parametric tests to be conducted. To transform the data involves applying the same mathematical formula to each of the values in the set of data. Clarke-Carter (1997) argues that this is perfectly legitimate as long as you do not try out a number of transformations in order to find one that produces a statistically significant result. He suggests that if the data is negatively skewed, as is the case with School Development Planning Evaluation Scale, Participation and Decision Centralisation Scale, Collaboration Scale and Peer Leadership Scale, then all of the data points can be squared. For positively skewed data, as is the case with the Psychological Participation Scale, he suggests using the square root to transform the data.

Transformations to the data were undertaken and the results from a new set of Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests (Appendix 11), histograms (Tables 1 and 2, Appendix 10), z-scores for skewness (Tables 6 and 7, Appendix 10) and Q-Q plots (Table 3, Appendix 10) revealed promising shifts in the data towards a normal distribution. The histograms and Q-Q plots give one a visual sense that there has been a shift to the normal (see Tables 1, 2 and 3, Appendix 10). Calculating the z-scores for the transformed scales also revealed that all of the scores were no longer significantly skewed (see Tables 7 and 8, Appendix 10). The Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests (see Appendix 11) revealed that although some of the scales still show a significant deviation from the norm they have all moved towards the normal distribution.

The need for data to meet the normal distribution has been strongly questioned (Bryman & Cramer, 2001; Welkowitz, Ewen, & Cohen, 2000). Bryman and Cramer (2001) state that, 'a number of studies have been carried out where the values of statistics used to analyse samples have been artificially set up to violate these conditions and have been found not to differ greatly from those samples which do not violate those conditions' (p.117). Exceptions are stated as samples where the variances are unequal or where the comparison variable is also non-normal (Bryman & Cramer, 2001). Parametric tests have also been shown to be robust in the face of a deviation from normality as long as the other assumptions are not violated (Lindman, 1974).

5.2.2. HOMOGENEITY OF VARIANCE

This term means that the variances of the populations of the two sets of scores are the same. However as researchers work with data from samples rather than from populations it is unlikely that the two samples will have exactly the same variance. Clark-Carter (1997) argues that as a rule of thumb if the larger variance of the two samples is no more than three times the smaller variance then it is legitimate to use parametric tests. As the descriptives (Table 4 and 5, Appendix 10) show there is very little variance between the groups. The assumption of homogeneity of variance is tested in different ways for different procedures. Appropriate tests of variance and co-

variance will be applied as needed by further statistical tests applied to the data.

5.2.3. INTERVAL DATA AND INDEPENDENCE

The assumptions of interval data and independent measurements are, as Field (2004) points out, tested only by common sense. The data collected for this study could be considered interval if it is accepted that differences between different points on the rating scale are equal (e.g. that the difference between a rating of 'strongly agree' and 'agree' is the same as the difference between a rating of 'agree' and 'slightly agree'). This is often assumed for rating scales such as the ones employed in this study although there is some controversy about the issue (Field, 2004). It is also accepted that the data from different participants in the study are independent.

Based on the normal distribution of over half the measures, the improved normality tests for those scales that showed a deviation from the norm and the fact that the data meets the other assumptions it was decided to go ahead with the parametric data analysis.

5.3. ANALYSIS OF THE SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING EVALUATION SCALE: PILOT STUDY

In order to answer the research questions evidence that the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale was both a reliable and valid measure and was made up of the proposed five subscales described in Chapter 3.2 needed to be demonstrated. According to Oppenheim (2001) a measure needs to demonstrate the following attributes in order to be useful in a study:

(a) Unidimensionality or homogeneity – the scale should be measuring one thing at a time, as uniformly as possible; this means the item must be internally cohesive and they should 'hang together' to measure the same dimension with as little extraneous variance as possible.

(b) Reliability – this is about the internal consistency of the measure, the correlation of the test within itself. It also relates to consistency over time. Adequate reliability is a prerequisite to validity.

(c) Validity – this relates to the degree to which the scale measures what it sets out to measure. Oppenheim (2001) argues that often it is impossible to find a sufficiently reliable and valid external criterion against which to validate some tests.
(d) Linearity and equal or equal appearing intervals – this has to do with making quantitative scoring possible.

In order to establish the reliability and validity of the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale the measure was put through two phases of development and analysis. The first was a pilot study of the newly developed scale which suggested certain changes. A revised scale was developed and was reanalysed as part of the main study. The results of these analyses will be presented in terms of the evidence they provide for the reliability and the factorial structure of the scale. These will then be drawn together to provide some overall conclusions about the features of the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale and its usefulness for future studies in the area.

The initial scale construction as described in Chapter 4.5 was undertaken by the present author and the pilot study formed part of a study undertaken by Connolly (2000). As part of Connolly's (2000) study the data were subjected to the following analysis.

5.3.1. ITEM ANALYSIS

Connolly (2000) argued that skewness and kurtosis should be measured and items violating these limits removed to ensure the normality of the distribution of the data. Although Cramer (1994) argues that items that produce a skewness of above 1 or below -1 become inappropriate for parametric analysis Connolly (2000) used above 1,5 and below -1,5 as the rule for excluding items, as too many would have been removed using Cramer's criteria. Table 1 (in Appendix 12) lays out these results. Based on this the following 8 items were removed from the set: 1, 2, 11, 14, 18, 20, 34, 43.

As with the measure of skewness items exhibiting a kurtosis of above 1 and below -1 contribute almost no variance and should therefore be removed

(Cramer, 1994). Again Connolly (2000) made use of above 1.5 and below -1.5 as the rule. Table 1 (Appendix 12) presents the results. Under this criterion the decision to remove the items suggested above was confirmed. Six other items were also dropped based on their levels of variance, these were items: 6, 21, 26, 36, 41, 45.

Skewness and kurtosis figures may not be sufficient reason to exclude items when examination of them produces no plausible argument as to why they may be producing less variance than the others may. However, the items generally produced low variance and this could be a problem for the rest of the analyses, which are variance-based procedures. Given that all of the items shared much of the variance and that the items to be excluded were distributed fairly evenly across the five sub-scales Connolly (2000) argued for the exclusion of those items identified as their removal would not weaken the overall scale. Therefore a total of 14 items were dropped, leaving 38 items to be used in the remaining analysis.

5.3.2. VALIDITY ANALYSIS

The validity of a test is the extent to which it measures what it is intended to measure. Validity can be established in a variety of ways (Oppenheim, 2001):

- Face validity:

The extent to which the items within the scale appear to measure what it is they are supposed to measure. This is a very subjective process and not good enough for establishing validity.

- Content validity:

Seeks to establish that the items or questions are a well-balanced sample of the content domain to be measured.

- Concurrent validity:

Seeks to show how well the test correlates with other, well-validated measures of the same topic, administered at about the same time.

- Predictive validity:

Shows how well the test can forecast some future criterion such as job performance or future exam attainment.

- Construct validity:

Shows how well the test links up with a set of theoretical assumptions about an abstract construct such as intelligence, conservatism or neuroticism. This can take place in various ways. It can be established through measuring the extent to which a test correlates with theoretically related (negatively or positively) measures (convergent validity) while explaining its own unique variance in the dependent variable of interest (discriminant validity).

As part of the development of the scale, content validity was established in a variety of ways. Firstly, the items were selected based on the literature in the area. Secondly, the items were discussed with professionals in the related field, as well as representatives of the participating sample. All of this contributes to arguing that the scale has content validity. In the pilot study only construct validity, through item analysis and factor analysis, was undertaken as no other tests were administered alongside the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale. The exploration of the test's validity was further extended in the main study.

5.3.2.1. Item-Total Correlations

In order to establish the unidimensionality (i.e. all of the items in a test measure only one underlying dimension or construct) of the measure item-total correlations were undertaken (Kline, 1994). This procedure correlates a subject's score on the item, with the subject's total score, for all subjects in a set. Where the correlation is high, it suggests that the item tends to measure the underlying construct well. Where the correlation is low, it suggests that the item is not a good measure of the underlying construct and should be removed from the scale (Friedenberg, 1995). In establishing the unidimensionality of a scale, its construct validity would be demonstrated, as this would establish that the scale is measuring only one construct; however what that construct is would have to be further explored (Breakwell, Hammond & Fife-Schaw, 1997).

Based on the Pearson's Product Moment Correlation (see Table 2 Appendix 12) all items significantly correlate with the total (at the 0.01 level) except for

item 52. Connolly (2000) removed the item from the dataset for the rest of the procedures. This updated dataset (with item 52 removed) was subjected to a second item-total correlation. As Table 2 (Appendix 12) illustrates the results for all item-correlations were significant at the 0.01 level except for item 5 which was only significant at the 0.05 level. However it was decided to retain this item for the rest of the procedure. These results indicated that the scale could adequately be described as unidimensional, clearly measuring one construct consistently. However, item-total correlations only go part of the way in establishing a test's unidimensionality. In order to make a conclusive statement about the dimensionality of the test its factorial structure needed to be explored. Several writers (Nunnally, 1978; Oppenheim, 2001) advocate that item analysis be used to make the first item selection and then the items factored.

5.3.2.2. Factor Analysis

Kline (1994) recommends the use of factor analysis in the construction of psychological tests. Factor analysis, unlike item analysis, is a technique whereby the multi-dimensionality of a scale can be examined (Breakwell *et al*, 1997). It is essentially a method of condensing data; the variance of a set of variables (or set of items in this case) is condensed into a specific number of factors which represent hypothetical underlying constructs, which account for the relationship between sets of items. Where a set of items 'load' a particular factor, the factor can be said to be representing a construct which that particular set of items can be said to measure. Such a factor or construct can be described in terms of explaining the variance of the entire set, how important the factor is in explaining the data (Kline, 1994).

Factor analysis for this particular scale and dataset posed some potential problems as the scale yielded very little variance. This issue can be dealt with by using large samples, for example 100 according to Kline (1994) and 200 according to Guildford (1956, in Kline, 1994). However, in the pilot study there were only 71 participants. It could be argued that with the sample size of less than 100 and the issues facing the data set and scale it was inadvisable to use factor analysis in the present study. However factor

analysis is a powerful technique and the factor solution was needed to see if the scale could be conceptualised as multidimensional and if the five hypothesised theoretical subscales derived from the working definition of success in school development planning represent actual constructs explaining the variance of the set. Thus a factor analysis was undertaken being aware of the issues, but with the knowledge that this study would be replicated using a larger group to confirm of disconfirm the pilot study's findings.

An exploration of the assumptions necessary for factor analysis supported the decision to go ahead with it. The Determinant, which was testing for multicollinearity or singularity, was less than 0.00001 indicating that multicollinearity may be an issue. Mild multicollinearity is not a problem for factor analysis; however it is important to avoid extreme multicollinearity and singularity (where variables are perfectly correlated). However no variables correlated very highly ($R>0.8$) (Table 2, Appendix 12) and the anti-image correlation matrix indicates that the vast majority of the items have a value of 0.5 or more. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy score of .846 indicated that the sample was good enough and the significant Bartlett's test of sphericity indicated that the items were not perfectly independent of one another. The test was highly significant ($p<0.0001$) and therefore factor analysis was appropriate.

Due to the small sample size and the lack of variance the analysis was limited to exploratory factor analysis. This is a technique that allows a large number of correlated variables to be reduced to a smaller number of 'super variables' by attempting to account for the pattern of correlations between the variables in terms of a much smaller number of latent variables or factors (Field, 2004). A latent variable is one that cannot be measured directly but is assumed to be related to a number of measurable, observable manifest variables.

There are many different methods of identifying or extracting factors. Two of the most common are Principal Component Analysis and Principal Factor Analysis. Field (2004) argues that both of these methods are the preferred

methods and usually result in similar solutions. When these methods are used conclusions are restricted to the sample collected and generalisation of the results can only be achieved if analysis using different samples reveals the same factor structure.

The difference between principal component analysis and principal factors analysis lies in the communality estimates that are used. Basically, factor analysis derives a mathematical model from what factors are estimated, whereas principal component analysis merely decomposes the original data into a set of linear variates (Dunteman, 1989). As such factor analysis can only estimate the underlying factors and it relies on various assumptions for these estimates to be accurate. Principal component analysis is concerned only with establishing which linear components exist within the data and how a particular variable might contribute to that component. Based on an extensive literature review, Guadagnoli & Velicer (1988) concluded that the solutions generated from principal component analysis differ little from those derived from factor analytic techniques. However there is a lot of debate about this issue (Cliff, 1987; Stevens, 1992).

Based on these arguments it was decided that Principal Axis factoring would be used to explore the factorial structure of the measure. Table 6 presents the results of this analysis. The decision to extract five factors was based primarily on the theoretical question as to whether the five sets of theoretically related items could constitute actual subscales. In an unrotated solution the first factor can be described as the general (unidimensional) construct. After rotation it just represents the most potent of the underlying multidimensional.

The Scree plot (see Figure 2) for confirming how many factors to extract was difficult to interpret. It is clear that one factor exists; however the slope then changes drastically and it becomes hard to determine how many other factors should be extracted. Both the scree plot and eigen values might suggest 8 factors. Connolly (2000) argued that because this was such a tentative suggestion, five were extracted to maximise the potential interpretability of the

solutions in terms of the theoretical conceptualisation of the scale under investigation.

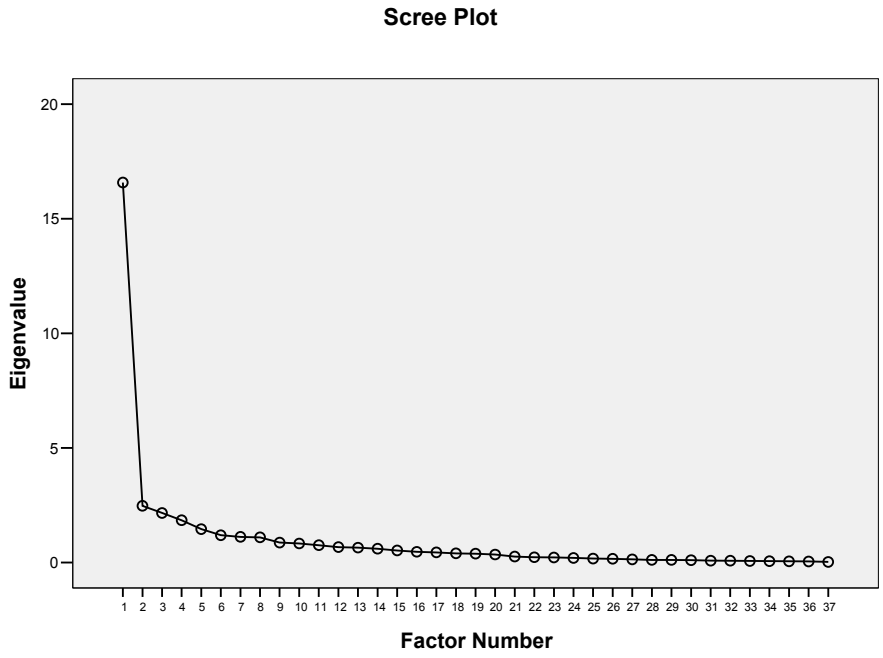


Figure 2: Scree Plot for Principal Axis Factoring of School Development Planning Evaluation Scale items – Pilot Study

The unrotated solution (Table 7) reveals that four items (item 5, 12, 23 and 42) did not load on the general factor. Connolly (2000) made the point that this on its own was not reason enough to make the decision to remove these items, especially as they contribute variance to a test that lacks it. However, three of these four items were negatively stated and the only other negatively item, item 52, had already been removed from the dataset on the basis of the item analysis. Item 5 was also only significant at the 0.05 level for the inter-item analysis. Item 42 loaded on the general factor and was significant throughout the analyses. However, together with item 12, 5 and 52 these have had the lowest correlations throughout the analyses.

Table 6: Factor Analysis for School Development Planning Evaluation Scale Pilot Study: Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	16.582	44.816	44.816	16.215	43.824	43.824	7.660	20.702	20.702
2	2.471	6.680	51.496	2.063	5.577	49.400	5.083	13.739	34.441
3	2.161	5.842	57.338	1.789	4.835	54.236	4.058	10.967	45.408
4	1.843	4.982	62.320	1.434	3.875	58.111	3.031	8.191	53.599
5	1.457	3.936	66.256	1.059	2.862	60.973	2.728	7.374	60.973
6	1.190	3.216	69.472						
7	1.117	3.019	72.491						
8	1.099	2.971	75.462						
9	.871	2.353	77.816						
10	.832	2.247	80.063						
11	.754	2.037	82.100						
12	.674	1.822	83.922						
13	.649	1.753	85.675						
14	.600	1.621	87.296						
15	.527	1.425	88.721						
16	.468	1.265	89.986						
17	.445	1.202	91.187						
18	.399	1.079	92.266						
19	.387	1.046	93.312						
20	.349	.943	94.256						
21	.259	.700	94.955						
22	.231	.625	95.580						
23	.222	.601	96.181						
24	.200	.540	96.721						
25	.172	.464	97.184						
26	.163	.440	97.625						
27	.139	.374	97.999						
28	.115	.310	98.309						
29	.114	.307	98.616						
30	.102	.275	98.891						
31	.082	.220	99.111						
32	.076	.207	99.318						
33	.069	.185	99.503						
34	.059	.159	99.662						
35	.052	.142	99.804						
36	.046	.124	99.928						
37	.027	.072	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Table 7: Unrotated Factor Matrix School Development Planning Evaluation Scale Pilot Study

	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
Item 31	.806	-.143	-.129	-.072	-.197
Item 30	.784	-.133	.062	.078	-.116
Item 39	.778	.121	-.194	-.123	.054
Item 4	.778	.075	.048	.098	.057
Item 38	.773	-.150	-.285	.231	-.092
Item 40	.768	-.063	-.151	-.063	-.207
Item 37	.763	-.356	-.175	.075	.102
Item 19	.756	.129	.039	-.184	-.063
Item 15	.751	.011	.309	-.037	.150
Item 29	.745	.142	-.146	.363	-.058
Item 27	.741	-.155	-.157	-.006	-.027
Item 47	.734	-.003	-.243	-.168	-.058
Item 16	.734	.195	.066	.203	-.040
Item 44	.727	.252	.010	-.149	.261
Item 32	.718	-.371	-.149	-.176	.276
Item 50	.713	.240	-.288	-.072	.014
Item 49	.701	.140	-.419	-.076	-.023
Item 51	.679	.079	.068	-.192	.179
Item 35	.675	-.374	-.066	.078	.133
Item 33	.663	-.457	-.119	.077	.120
Item 24	.660	-.070	-.041	.038	-.040
Item 28	.647	-.335	.209	-.151	.000
Item 9	.637	-.048	.057	.322	-.016
Item 48	.628	.413	-.155	-.233	-.182
Item 17	.625	.083	-.016	.268	-.301
Item 25	.623	.015	.211	-.018	.020
Item 10	.618	.084	.436	-.142	-.010
Item 46	.615	.289	-.115	-.414	.007
Item 3	.585	-.272	.126	.105	.004
Item 13	.571	-.060	.286	-.216	.086
Item 22	.559	.095	.297	.093	-.504
Item 8	.557	-.219	.536	.176	.157
Item 7	.544	.299	.278	.222	-.078
Item 5_r	.260	.454	-.136	.062	.285
Item 12_r	.320	.429	.078	.392	.134
Item 23	.388	.099	.424	-.429	-.121
Item 42_r	.392	.330	.084	.224	.402

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
a 5 factors extracted. 6 iterations required.

On the basis of this evidence Connolly (2000) concluded that these four negatively weighted items (items 5, 12, 42, and 52) demonstrated less construct validity than all the other items. A possible reason for this issue was

that the participants did not speak English as a first language and may have experienced difficulties with negatively worded questions. In light of the fact that the scale was going to be used in the main study with participants who were also not English first language speakers and for the test to be of value for use in assessing effective school development planning in South Africa, it was decided that the items needed to be reworded or dropped from the scale.

Rotation of factors is only useful when analysing a multidimensional scale and should not be used if the scale is conceptualised as unidimensional because rotation takes variance from the first factor and distributes it across the other factors (Kline, 1994). However, when looking at the results in Table 6 we see a general factor, which explains about 43% of the variance on which most items load highly. This is followed by a number of other relatively smaller loadings. In these cases one should be cautious against assuming that this is evidence of a unidimensional test. Such a solution is an algebraic artefact of the method and should not be taken as proof of a general factor or what the factor represents (Kline, 1994).

Kline (1994) points out no matter what method one uses for factor analysis, factors have to be rotated before they can be interpreted in psychology and the social sciences. The reason for this is that the aim of factor analysis is to explain and account for the observed correlations and this means that the factors must be interpreted and identified. For this unrotated solutions are not useful. Rotating the factors is simply a way to distribute the factor loadings in such a way as to make the job of interpreting the 'meaning' of the factors easier. The aim is to ensure that each variable loads highly on only one factor, thus ensuring simple structure. Simple structure is reached when each item loads highly on one factor and does not load on any other (Kline, 1994).

For the pilot study a Varimax Kaiser rotation was undertaken. The rotated solution, presented in Table 8, indicated that simple structure had not been reached with roughly half the items loading on more than one factor. Some of the items load on three factors. What this meant was that half of the items do not clearly contribute to just one of the five theoretical subscale constructs

Table 8: Rotated Factor Matrix: School Development Planning Evaluation Scale Pilot Study

	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
Item 37	.801	.257	.136	.137	.100
Item 33	.799	.132	.139	.082	.029
Item 32	.767	.322	.262	-.133	.061
Item 35	.742	.143	.187	.100	.091
Item 38	.678	.355	-.027	.382	.173
Item 27	.602	.384	.173	.224	.094
Item 31	.579	.465	.240	.349	-.011
Item 28	.564	.137	.490	.127	-.065
Item 30	.563	.265	.321	.387	.122
Item 3	.550	.043	.285	.228	.075
Item 40	.504	.489	.204	.357	.020
Item 9	.483	.090	.156	.396	.306
Item 24	.473	.297	.213	.261	.141
Item 4	.463	.321	.312	.296	.351
Item 48	.065	.711	.228	.283	.185
Item 46	.140	.698	.347	.031	.137
Item 49	.420	.666	-.016	.179	.202
Item 50	.339	.636	.095	.194	.295
Item 39	.441	.588	.219	.157	.251
Item 47	.475	.581	.175	.175	.076
Item 19	.334	.505	.416	.246	.167
Item 44	.315	.491	.388	.024	.436
Item 23	-.023	.245	.680	.098	-.082
Item 10	.210	.175	.660	.237	.182
Item 8	.454	-.228	.578	.214	.250
Item 15	.427	.198	.575	.180	.314
Item 13	.318	.198	.559	.061	.096
Item 25	.340	.200	.428	.229	.205
Item 51	.364	.399	.427	.028	.258
Item 22	.131	.176	.389	.687	-.018
Item 17	.328	.249	.101	.591	.177
Item 29	.464	.315	.020	.485	.426
Item 7	.106	.134	.340	.454	.409
Item 16	.348	.300	.258	.430	.402
Item 42_r	.137	.106	.154	.013	.654
Item 12_r	-.002	.067	.030	.290	.612
Item 5_r	-.041	.316	-.006	-.041	.524

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a Rotation converged in 10 iterations.

and thus the theoretical factors share the overall variance. Examination of the factors, in Table 8, revealed that each factor loaded items from a variety of the five 'subscales' and no factor clearly demonstrated viability as a construct or dependent variable. If the sample size had been much larger one could have

attempted an oblique rotation but due to small sample size this is not advised (Field, 2004). This was undertaken in the main study as the sample size permitted such a procedure.

From these results the current factor solution is uninterpretable within the given theoretical conceptualisation. Examination of the items that did load any given factor did not immediately suggest any particular theoretical coherence and there seemed to be no logical connection between them and as such the factors were impossible to label. The factorial structure of the scale thus needed further exploration in a larger sample to gain some clarity on whether it can be seen as a multi- or uni-dimensional measure.

5.3.3. RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

To establish the reliability of the scale a measure of internal consistency was undertaken (Oppenheim, 2001). This is a measure of how highly each of the items correlates with all the other items in a set, suggesting a certain consistency of measurement. As the scale under investigation produced discrete, ordinal data, a measure using a Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was undertaken (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991). Given the problems associated with the negatively worded questions discussed above (items 5, 12, 42 and 52) they were removed from the reliability analysis. Thus this reliability analysis is for the remaining 34 items. Table 9 provides the reliability coefficient and the inter-item correlation matrix. The descriptive statistics can be found in Appendix 12, Table 3.

Table 9: Reliability Statistics: School Development Planning Evaluation Scale Pilot Study

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.965	.966	34

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
169.2817	1413.548	37.59718	34

The alpha coefficient for the adjusted dataset was calculated as 0.96. This is a particularly high result suggesting that the items were very consistent with one another in the construct that they measure. This again provided clear evidence that the scale produces little variability. If items 5, 12 and 42 were included (52 had been dropped in the item analysis) the reliability figure only changes by about 0.04.

5.3.4. CONCLUSIONS FROM THE PILOT STUDY

It is clear that the scale produced very little variance, with responses both within and between subjects homogeneously positive. This could be interpreted as an indication of the effectiveness of school development programme however there may be other explanations for this. Connolly (2000) suggested that it may be construed as a form of instrument reactivity to subtle forms of contextual effects. For example, it may be that participants felt they had to be positive about the programme in order to receive continued support or funding. In this case the scale may be measuring something other than successful development planning i.e. a desire for continued support.

The five constructs derived from the working definitions of organisational empowerment did not seem to be separate constructs within the data, with each item and each 'construct' sharing a lot of variance with the others. The extent to which factors overlapped and shared variance suggested that while they may be separate constructs in theory, people are, in general, approaching each item as if it were a general evaluation of the programme as opposed to a specific aspect of the programme. It is possible that this led to staff not being differentially critical of the various aspects of the process. Connolly (2000) also felt that confidentiality might have played a part. In the pilot the biographical questionnaire was administered first. Also people sat closely together and could look at each other's papers. Negative responses could be construed as negative about the people with whom participants work. These issues were taken into account for the main study.

The results of the analysis from the pilot study clearly show that there is no theoretical basis at present for viewing the scale as multidimensional. The

results show that the scale is consistently measuring a single construct. However, at this pilot study phase we cannot state what this construct is. On the basis of the results from the pilot study the following fourteen items were omitted from the scale due to lack of variance (items 1, 2, 6, 11, 14, 18, 20, 21, 26, 34, 36, 41, 43 and 45), three of the four negatively worded items were reworded and one was dropped as it was not possible to change the wording to a positive.

5.4. ANALYSIS OF THE SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING EVALUATION SCALE: MAIN STUDY

The revised scale, made up of 37 items (see Appendix 3), was used in the main study that had the benefit of a much larger sample, 248 in total. By revisiting the issues of reliability and validity with this revised scale, on a larger population, it was hoped that something more could be said about the usefulness of this scale as a measure of organisational empowerment through school development planning.

5.4.1. FACTOR ANALYSIS

As in the pilot study some preliminary investigations of the data were undertaken. The inter-item correlations between variables were looked at. As Table 4 (Appendix 12) reflects, all items correlate significantly with the total. The correlations were scanned to check for extremes, for example items that did not correlate (0.05) or that correlated too highly (0.9) and none were evident. The anti-image correlation matrix indicates that vast majority of the items have a value of 0.5 or over. The Determinant was less than 0.00001 and thus multicollinearity could be an issue. However, there were no variables that correlated very highly ($R>0.8$).

The KMO score of .945 indicated that the sample fell in the superb range thus factor analysis is appropriate for these data (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999). The significant Bartlett's test indicates that the items are not perfectly independent of one another. The test is highly significant ($p<0.0001$) and therefore factor analysis is appropriate. These results indicated that the scale can be described as measuring one construct consistently, i.e. the test can be

construed as unidimensional. However, as was mentioned previously, to conclude that this is the case we would need to look at the factorial structure of the scale.

The factor analytic process followed in the main study was as follows: Principal axis, scree plot, Varimax Rotation, oblique Direct Oblimin Rotation. Principal Axis Factoring was used to examine the factorial structure of the scale. In the pilot study the initial five-factor structure that had been proposed was not supported and thus an exploratory factor analysis, in which the number of factors to be extracted was not specified in advance, was used. Similar results to the pilot study emerge from analysis of the tables. As Table 10 (see page 134) indicates there does seem to be a general factor that accounts for 48% of the variance on which most items load highly. The Scree test (Figure 3) indicates that there is one clear factor that exists. After that the slope changes dramatically and it becomes difficult to determine how many factors should be extracted. As was stated in the pilot study, we cannot take this as evidence that the test is unidimensional as such a solution is an algebraic artefact of the method and should not be taken as proof of a general factor or what that factor represents. Table 11 (see p. 135) supported this, indicating that although there is a single factor, several items load on more than one factor.

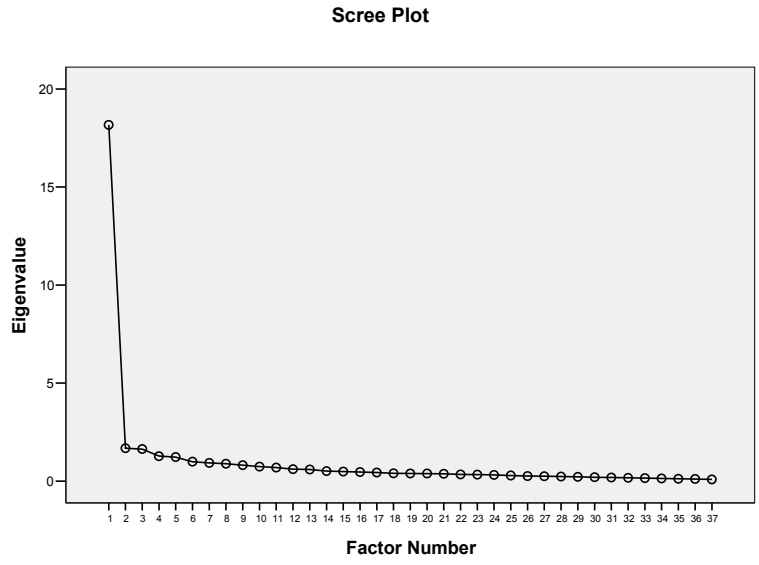


Figure 3: Scree Plot for Principal Axis factoring of School Development Planning Evaluation Scale items – Main Study

A rotated factor analysis (Varimax) was undertaken to see if simple structure could be reached by the test. From Table 12 (see page 136) it is clear that, as in the pilot study, this simple structure was not reached. Although all the factors do load highly on the first factor, several of them do load more highly on the other factors. Twenty-nine of the items load on more than one factor. Twelve of these items load on three factors and one on four items. What this means is that the majority of the items do not clearly contribute to just one of the five theoretical subscale constructs and thus the theoretical factors share the overall variance. It thus appears that many of the items do not clearly contribute to a subscale but rather they all contribute to the variance in the scale as a whole. It would thus appear that the test, rather than measuring a variety of areas, is unidimensional.

Kline (1994) suggests that in cases where simple structure was not achieved using Varimax, an oblique rotation should be utilised. Table 13 (see page 137) gives the results of the oblique rotation. The Pattern Matrix of the Oblique Rotation indicated that there may be five factors, the factor structure of these items is not as simple as is desirable. Other tables relevant to this oblique rotation can be found in Appendix 12, Tables 5 and 6.

Kline (1994) suggests that the content of the highest loading items is the key to the identification of factors, although it should be noted that this is little more than face validity. By looking at largest loadings one gets a sense that it is measuring a particular factor, but because so many are shared this would indicate that they are not purely measuring that factor and as such these factors are linked. Eight of the items load highly on two factors. It is thus not clear that there are five sub-factors within the scale. The correlation matrix between factors (Table 14, see page 138) and the Structure Matrix (see Table 6, Appendix 12) indicated high interrelationships between most of the factors.

Table 10: Factor Analysis School Development Planning Evaluation Scale Main Study: Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	18.171	49.112	49.112	17.788	48.075	48.075	6.230	16.839	16.839
2	1.677	4.532	53.644	1.337	3.612	51.687	5.001	13.516	30.355
3	1.632	4.412	58.056	1.231	3.326	55.013	4.020	10.864	41.219
4	1.273	3.442	61.498	.899	2.431	57.444	3.454	9.335	50.554
5	1.223	3.307	64.804	.810	2.190	59.634	3.360	9.080	59.634
6	.988	2.670	67.475						
7	.928	2.509	69.983						
8	.884	2.389	72.372						
9	.811	2.192	74.563						
10	.741	2.004	76.567						
11	.687	1.857	78.425						
12	.609	1.645	80.070						
13	.590	1.595	81.664						
14	.507	1.372	83.036						
15	.485	1.311	84.347						
16	.462	1.249	85.596						
17	.437	1.181	86.777						
18	.398	1.076	87.853						
19	.390	1.054	88.907						
20	.383	1.036	89.943						
21	.373	1.008	90.951						
22	.339	.917	91.868						
23	.327	.884	92.752						
24	.317	.857	93.609						
25	.284	.766	94.375						
26	.254	.686	95.061						
27	.248	.669	95.731						
28	.232	.626	96.357						
29	.214	.577	96.934						
30	.195	.526	97.460						
31	.182	.491	97.952						
32	.167	.451	98.403						
33	.153	.415	98.817						
34	.134	.362	99.180						
35	.115	.310	99.490						
36	.105	.285	99.774						
37	.083	.226	100.000						

Table 11: Unrotated Factor Matrix: School Development Planning Evaluation Scale Main Study

Item	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
SDPE 27	.826	-.284	.037	-.158	.075
SDPE 29	.821	-.298	-.058	-.129	.136
SDPE 36	.808	-.147	-.107	.018	-.042
SDPE 6	.794	.074	.134	-.102	.104
SDPE 26	.793	-.157	-.043	.155	-.234
SDPE 13	.787	-.103	.098	-.019	-.016
SDPE 35	.769	-.305	.003	-.162	.103
SDPE 31	.763	-.163	-.196	-.102	.125
SDPE 23	.761	.026	-.222	.104	-.106
SDPE 18	.751	.027	.126	.201	-.153
SDPE 24	.746	-.048	-.173	.008	-.141
SDPE 22	.738	-.030	-.079	.143	-.156
SDPE 16	.727	-.034	.084	-.148	-.064
SDPE 37	.722	-.004	-.268	-.138	-.056
SDPE 10	.722	.167	.047	.123	.051
SDPE 28	.719	-.258	-.140	-.203	.209
SDPE 25	.711	-.090	-.157	.127	-.106
SDPE 4	.705	.110	.232	.216	.124
SDPE 33	.705	-.098	.008	.150	.148
SDPE 5	.686	.512	-.170	-.195	-.022
SDPE 9	.672	.374	-.118	-.240	-.121
SDPE 3	.671	.154	.186	-.106	.172
SDPE 19	.655	.153	-.274	.102	-.149
SDPE 21	.654	.125	-.091	.255	.122
SDPE 34	.647	-.114	-.072	.063	-.091
SDPE 7	.643	.172	.210	.253	.302
SDPE 12	.638	-.073	.454	-.223	-.270
SDPE 14	.630	-.061	.092	-.024	-.213
SDPE 17	.610	.192	-.156	.334	.162
SDPE 2	.610	.266	.254	-.138	.221
SDPE 11	.601	-.005	.403	.059	-.181
SDPE 8	.597	.104	.318	.060	-.193
SDPE 30	.586	-.124	.161	.006	.155
SDPE 1	.583	.395	-.094	-.298	.058
SDPE 32	.557	-.141	-.128	-1.56E-005	.144
SDPE 15	.550	.128	-.190	.001	-.126
SDPE 20	.519	-.109	.044	.068	.049

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
a 5 factors extracted. 9 iterations required.

Table 12: Rotated Factor Matrix: School Development Planning Evaluation Scale Main Study

Item	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
SDPE 29	.749	.302	.263	.181	.217
SDPE 28	.734	.226	.126	.232	.169
SDPE 27	.716	.271	.368	.191	.194
SDPE 35	.714	.246	.307	.164	.172
SDPE 31	.639	.368	.128	.265	.207
SDPE 36	.535	.482	.285	.202	.221
SDPE 13	.486	.330	.420	.211	.274
SDPE 37	.473	.465	.137	.387	.088
SDPE 32	.472	.267	.075	.135	.223
SDPE 33	.452	.331	.223	.112	.418
SDPE 6	.445	.217	.387	.386	.361
SDPE 16	.439	.275	.413	.311	.164
SDPE 30	.433	.122	.300	.105	.326
SDPE 20	.343	.234	.228	.071	.247
SDPE 26	.402	.599	.409	.090	.193
SDPE 23	.363	.594	.190	.275	.234
SDPE 19	.217	.592	.119	.335	.191
SDPE 22	.331	.548	.313	.177	.240
SDPE 25	.391	.544	.224	.150	.212
SDPE 24	.415	.533	.251	.261	.143
SDPE 18	.249	.468	.466	.154	.351
SDPE 15	.205	.437	.138	.322	.120
SDPE 34	.385	.429	.262	.131	.175
SDPE 12	.306	.101	.766	.218	.049
SDPE 11	.183	.194	.641	.107	.259
SDPE 8	.120	.246	.573	.197	.259
SDPE 14	.302	.356	.443	.178	.103
SDPE 5	.143	.354	.151	.759	.237
SDPE 1	.215	.174	.143	.686	.172
SDPE 9	.193	.348	.246	.667	.119
SDPE 2	.259	-.014	.335	.460	.429
SDPE 3	.345	.092	.337	.395	.391
SDPE 7	.234	.161	.250	.196	.679
SDPE 4	.252	.254	.386	.182	.562
SDPE 17	.180	.453	.017	.209	.538
SDPE 21	.250	.423	.115	.209	.483
SDPE 10	.261	.358	.291	.311	.437

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a Rotation converged in 10 iterations.

Table 13: Oblique Rotation Pattern Matrix School Development Planning Evaluation Main Study

Item	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
SDPE 28	.876	.083	-.117	-.031	.041
SDPE 29	.847	-.003	.050	.019	-.021
SDPE 35	.809	-.016	.122	-.040	.013
SDPE 27	.781	.008	.190	-.028	.005
SDPE 31	.702	.146	-.092	.054	-.100
SDPE 32	.524	.023	-.093	.143	-.064
SDPE 36	.501	.076	.143	.100	-.238
SDPE 37	.444	.359	-.032	-.059	-.239
SDPE 30	.430	-.052	.178	.216	.112
SDPE 13	.419	.071	.307	.123	-.069
SDPE 33	.418	-.046	.072	.369	-.068
SDPE 16	.365	.224	.310	-.027	-.034
SDPE 6	.348	.284	.232	.190	.103
SDPE 24	.334	.197	.141	.038	-.326
SDPE 34	.329	.031	.176	.096	-.249
SDPE 20	.319	-.048	.139	.183	-.057
SDPE 5	-.090	.870	-.007	.106	-.061
SDPE 1	.073	.768	-.023	-.002	.097
SDPE 9	-.008	.752	.127	-.050	-.098
SDPE 2	.124	.406	.191	.279	.331
SDPE 15	.083	.334	.053	.060	-.273
SDPE 3	.240	.314	.190	.241	.215
SDPE 12	.157	.114	.808	-.210	.075
SDPE 11	-.014	-.013	.682	.142	-.012
SDPE 8	-.111	.122	.605	.161	-.060
SDPE 18	.046	.044	.438	.303	-.243
SDPE 14	.183	.099	.422	-.028	-.193
SDPE 7	.086	.057	.109	.691	.159
SDPE 17	.031	.144	-.129	.625	-.198
SDPE 4	.076	.044	.294	.535	.039
SDPE 21	.118	.126	-.023	.515	-.166
SDPE 10	.088	.237	.176	.389	-.077
SDPE 26	.284	-.036	.363	.118	-.411
SDPE 19	.058	.344	.020	.168	-.402
SDPE 23	.248	.221	.068	.181	-.370
SDPE 25	.314	.056	.124	.160	-.349
SDPE 22	.196	.090	.243	.186	-.345

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.
a Rotation converged in 20 iterations.

Table 14: Factor Correlation Matrix School Development Planning Evaluation Scale Main Study

Factor	1	2	3	4	5
1	1.000	.567	.583	.564	-.385
2	.567	1.000	.462	.508	-.309
3	.583	.462	1.000	.480	-.191
4	.564	.508	.480	1.000	-.284
5	-.385	-.309	-.191	-.284	1.000

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

It is possible that the original theoretical distinction between the five sub-scales accounts for some of the issue here. Close scrutiny of the items, and the dimensions they were initially said to be assessing, highlight that the initial conceptualisation of the items that made up this factor may have not been as clear as originally thought. This relates to issues of empowered outcomes and empowering processes. Very often these can be one and the same thing. In order to achieve certain goals that would describe the school as empowered, certain empowered processes would need to be in place. However these outcomes and processes are interchangeable; for example having parent support for the school development plan may be a goal or an outcome but it is a necessary process if one wants to raise funds effectively. As another example, the school management team's role in the school development plan is closely linked to how involved teachers feel they are with respect to decisions about the plan. Both of these were stated as desired outcomes by schools but they are also processes that are not only linked but are vital to successful implementation of the school development plan. This seems to be true for most of the items and thus it would be difficult to group them, as it would be difficult to know how the school was assessing each issue.

Closer analysis of the factors seems to suggest that there are some factors being highlighted however this would need some critical analysis and it is difficult to think of which would be the higher order area of school development planning and the factors that make it up. We may therefore just have to accept that the test is measuring one broad area of school development planning as a process and as an outcome. If the scale was

going to be seen as multidimensional it would require much more work and analysis of the theoretical and practical realities of the empowerment process.

5.4.2. RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

As can be seen from Table 15 the test, as in the pilot study, showed a particularly high alpha co-efficient (.97). (Table 7, Appendix 12 presents the inter-item correlations).

Table 15 Reliability Statistics School Development Planning Evaluation Scale Main Study

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.970	.971	37

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
189.5202	1723.100	41.51024	37

This again suggests that the items are very consistent with one another in the construct that they measure. This is again clear evidence that the scale produces very little variability. With such high internal consistency and low variance it could be argued that the test could be measuring something quite narrowly.

5.4.3. CONCLUSIONS

In terms of the criteria that Oppenheim (2001) suggested that a measure needed to demonstrate in order to be useful in a study, the scale demonstrated good reliability. Based on both the pilot and main study results that tested inter-item consistency, as well as the item-total correlations and unrotated and rotated factor solutions, the scale seems to measure a single construct consistently. It appears though that it was difficult to clearly define the different components and levels of empowerment. This will need to be pursued in future studies. What is clear though is we have a scale that is very clearly measuring one construct. However, up to this point it is not possible to say what this construct is. Thus in order to further explore whether empowerment is evidenced in the context of school development, other

measures associated with empowerment at various levels were explored. The issue of what the underlying construct being measured by the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale is further explored once these other analyses are presented.

CHAPTER SIX: RESULTS RELATING TO THE IMPACT OF THE PROGRAMME

6.1. INTRODUCTION

An attempt was made to develop a measure of school development planning to assess the level of organisational change brought about by the programme and to establish evidence for this construct as one related to empowerment. However as the results from the previous section highlighted it was clear that although the factors being measured by the scale appeared to form a single construct it was not possible to establish whether the underlying school development construct was an empowerment factor. In order to establish that empowerment was indeed evidenced in the school development setting it was therefore necessary to focus on those variables that have previously been established as being related to empowerment at various levels of analysis.

To assess whether empowerment was evidenced in the schools a comparison of those schools that had been on the programme for three years with those who had been on one year was undertaken. Evidence of empowerment within this setting was sought from a variety of sources. As empowerment is a complex, multilevel and dynamic construct both qualitative and quantitative data, from various sources and collected at different times, were analysed. Research Questions 1 and 2 were operationalised and assessed in the following way:

RESEARCH QUESTION 1

What effect has the school development planning process had in terms of empowering schools as organisations?

This was assessed through the following data sets:

- School Development Planning Evaluation Scale to measure differences between the schools which had been in the programme for 3 years and those which had been in the programme for 1 year;

- Focus groups with teachers to get their perspectives on the impact of school development planning as an empowerment process;
- Objectives from previous school development plans the schools had achieved;
- Interviews with the principals and School Development Teams of the 24 schools involved with the programme related to use of the school development planning, functioning of the School Development Team and role of principal in school development planning;
- Regrouped quantitative data contrasting schools that had performed well on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale with those which performed less well;
- Impact Matrix integrating all of the above information.

RESEARCH QUESTION 2

What effects has the school development planning process had on variables associated with empowerment at the individual, organisational and community levels?

This was assessed through the following data sets:

- Quantitative Measures of variables associated with empowerment at the individual level (intrapersonal empowerment) both personal (locus of control and self-efficacy) and professional (teacher efficacy), and at the organisational level such as leadership (Profile of Organisational Characteristics, Supervisory Leadership), peer leadership (Peer Leadership Scale), participation in decision-making (Psychological participation Scale and Participation and Decision Centralisation Scale), and collaboration (Collaboration Scale) were used to assess if there were differences between the schools that have been in the programme for 3 years and those that have been in the programme for 1 year. No measure of the community level was used, as the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale's stakeholder involvement subscale did not appear to be an independent sub-scale;
- Focus groups with teachers to get their perspectives on the impact of the programme in terms of changes experienced by teachers personally as

well as on organisational variables (such as involvement in decision-making, participation in school activities and management) and community variables (such as parent and other stakeholder involvement);

- Evaluation reports documenting changes in the schools that had completed the programme at the individual, organisational and community levels;
- Regrouped quantitative data contrasting schools that had performed well on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale with those who performed less well;
- Impact Matrices constructed to integrate the various data sources.

Thus an attempt will be made to:

1. Assess whether the programme under investigation has been successful in terms of empowering the schools as organisations through the process of school development planning;
2. Assess the change at an individual, organisational and community level linked to school development planning for evidence of empowerment.

6.2. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR BOTH GROUPS IN THE STUDY

From the descriptives, in Tables 4 and 5 (in Appendix 10), of the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale it can been seen that, on average, participants from both groups felt the school development planning programme had brought about change within their schools, with both mean total scores corresponding to the 'great change has occurred' category on the response scale (that is scores between 185 and 259). However, this does not give a reflection of the schools within the groups. The descriptive statistics for each school (see Table 1, Appendix 13) indicated that all of the schools rated school development planning as having brought about some form of change at their school. Nine (6 from Group 1 and 3 from Group 2) felt it had brought about some change (between 112 and 184) and 9 (4 from Group 1 and 5 from Group 2) felt it had brought about great change (between 185 and 259). Both groups showed a large amount of variability in their scores on this scale. This issue of variability and its impact on comparisons between the groups will be explored later.

In terms of the Locus of Control Scale Tables 4 and 5 (Appendix 10) indicated that both groups scored above the moderate range, indicating that they felt a sense of personal control over the issues that affect their lives. Tables 4 and 5 (Appendix 10) indicated that on the General Self-Efficacy Scale both groups showed moderate levels of self-efficacy as was the case for the Teacher-Efficacy Scale. Again, when looking at the descriptive statistics for the individual schools (see Appendix 13, Tables 2, 3 and 4) both groups exhibit a fair amount of variation on the scales of individual empowerment. For Locus of Control and Teacher Efficacy the variability of Group 2 looks greater.

The groups reported a moderate level of involvement in decision making at the school as measured by the Participation and Decision Centralisation Scale. Both groups felt they have influence, to some extent, in the decision-making processes within the school, as measured by the Psychological Participation Scale. Both groups reported having moderate levels of collaboration within the schools as measured on the Collaboration Scale. (These results are presented in Tables 4 and 5, Appendix 10). Although the groups reported similar means scores on the descriptive statistics, the individual school results (Appendix 13, Tables, 5, 6 and 7) indicated a large amount of variability on the measures of participation and collaboration between schools and large variance within school scores.

According to the development of the Profile of Organisational Characteristics scale the scores are to be interpreted according to the following scale:

System 1 – Exploitative Authoritative: 16-32
System 2 – Benevolent Authoritative: 32-48
System 3 – Consultative: 48-56
System 4 – Participative: 56-64

Tables 4 and 5 (Appendix 10) indicated that the scores of both groups fell within the System 2 level of benevolent authoritative leadership however there was a lot of variation. A slightly different picture emerges when looking at the scores of the individual schools (see Appendix 13, Table 9). As Table 14 indicates, although the majority of the schools from both Group 1 and 2 see

their principals as falling within the benevolent authoritative system, three of the Group 1 schools did fall into the consultative system.

Table 16: Systems Categorisation of Profile of Organisational Characteristics Scores for Group 1 and Group 2 by School

	Group 1	Group 2	Total
System 1: Authoritative	0	0	0
System 2: Benevolent Authoritative	7	7	14
System 3: Consultative	3	1	4
System 4: Participative	0	0	0

Tables 4 and 5 (Appendix 10) indicated that both groups felt that, overall, the qualities measured by the Supervisory Leadership scale were present to some extent in their relationship with the principal. Again there is evidence of variability within and between schools on the leadership scales (see Table 10, Appendix 13). The descriptives for the Peer Leadership Scale (Tables 4 and 5, Appendix 10) indicated that both groups feel that overall the qualities as measured by this scale are present to some extent amongst their peers.

From the descriptive statistics all of the schools' scores reflected that school staff felt the school development programme had brought about some change in their schools. The groups report being involved in the decision making process to some extent, that they have some influence in decision making and that there are high levels of collaborative working. In terms of leadership the groups generally rated their school's organisational culture as being benevolent authoritarian and that the qualities that make up Supervisory Leadership are present to some extent in their relationship with the principal. Both groups also report moderate levels of peer leadership in terms of support, goal emphasis and work facilitation and higher levels of interaction facilitation. The groups also report a moderate sense of personal control, self-efficacy and efficacy as a teacher.

What was also evident from the descriptives was the large amount of variability displayed within the schools, across the schools and between the groups. This may interfere with the ability to compare differences between the

groups. Although both groups of schools express that change has been brought about by the school development programme (as measured by the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale), this provides no evidence as to whether being on the programme for one year or three years makes a significant difference to the various measures of variables related to empowerment. In order to assess this, an ex post facto analysis was conducted based on a post-test only comparison group evaluation design.

6.3. QUANTITATIVE ANALYSES RELATING TO RESEARCH QUESTION ONE

In order to assess the difference between several variables that are linked theoretically and empirically a MANOVA was used to quantitatively assess Research Question One and Two. As was argued in the Methodology, MANOVA has greater power to detect effects based on whether groups differ along a combination of variables.

6.3.1. STATISTICAL ASSUMPTIONS OF MANOVA

MANOVA is based on the same assumptions as those for other parametric tests but some of these are extended to the multivariate level. MANOVA assumes that the independent variable is, or variables are, categorical and that the dependent variables are continuous and interval level. As discussed previously the data are interval and independent.

The additional assumptions for MANOVA are: multivariate normality and homogeneity of variances and covariances. In practice, it is common to assume multivariate normality if each variable considered separately follows a normal distribution. This assumption has already been established. This solution is practical and useful because univariate normality is a necessary condition for multivariate normality but it does not guarantee multivariate normality; however MANOVA is robust in the face of most violations of this assumption if sample size is not small (that is <20) (Field, 2004).

The assumption of homogeneity of variances and covariances is examined by testing whether the population variance -covariance matrices are equal. The

first step in establishing this is to check the univariate tests of equality of variance between groups by using Levene's test, which should not be significant for any of the dependent variables. However Levene's test does not take account of the covariances which need to be checked by using Box's test. Box's M tests MANOVA's assumption of homoscedasticity using the F distribution. If p (M) <. 05, then the covariances are significantly different. In order to reject the null hypothesis that the covariances are not homogeneous M must not to be significant. Box's M is extremely sensitive to violations of the assumption of normality, making it less useful than might otherwise appear and for this reason, some researchers test at the p=. 001 level, especially when sample sizes are unequal (Field, 2004).

Theoretically you can have as many dependents as you want in MANOVA. However, it is important note that as the number of dependents increases there is a decline in interpretability, the likelihood of error based interactions increases, and there is a loss of power (that is, increased likelihood of Type II errors – i.e. accepting the null hypothesis in error and thus missing significant relationships). Stevens (1980) recommends using a fairly small number of dependent variables (less than 10) unless sample sizes are large. It is suggested that at a minimum, every cell must have more cases than there are dependent variables. This criterion is met in the present analysis.

There are four test statistics to choose from when performing a MANOVA. Extensive work on the power of the four MANOVA statistics has been undertaken (e.g. Olson, 1976; 1979; Stevens, 1979). Olson (1976) reports that for small and moderate sample sizes the four statistics differ very little in terms of power. In social science research group differences are often concentrated on the first variate and in these cases Roy's statistic is the most powerful, followed by Hotelling's trace, Wilk's lambda and Pillai's trace (Field, 2004). This is reversed when groups differ along more than one variate. In terms of robustness, all four tests are fairly robust to violations of multivariate normality. Stevens (1979) points out that Roy's root is not robust when the homogeneity of covariance matrix assumption is untenable. Bray & Maxwell (1985) suggest that when sample sizes are not equal (as is the case in the

present study) this can have an impact on the Pillai's trace and as such one needs to check the assumption of homogeneity of covariance matrices using Box's test. If this test is non-significant and if the assumption of multi-variate normality is tenable then assume that Pillai's trace is accurate. For the purpose of the present study Roy's statistics was run.

6.3.2. MANOVA RESULTS

The non-significant result Box's test (M = 71.69, p=.112, df 55) indicated that the covariance matrices are equal and therefore the assumption of homogeneity is met. Levene's test was non-significant and thus the assumption of equality of variance has been met. Table 17 shows the main table of MANOVA results.

Table 17: MANOVA Results: Roy's Largest Root

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Group	**Roy's Largest Root**	.019	.400	10.000	211.000	.946

Table 18: ANOVA Results: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
GROUP	School Dev Plan Eval	1360698.602	1	1360698.602	.007	.935
	Psych Participation	.259	1	.259	.833	.362
	Participation Central	4082.512	1	4082.512	.084	.773
	Collaboration Scale	57759.150	1	57759.150	.351	.554
	Gen Self Efficacy	25.241	1	25.241	.965	.327
	Locus of Control	26.918	1	26.918	.169	.682
	Profile Org Character	2.168	1	2.168	.025	.874
	Teacher Efficacy	67.104	1	67.104	.779	.378
	Supervisor Lead	19.532	1	19.532	.157	.693
	Peer Leadership	4006.413	1	4006.413	.010	.920

For the purpose of this study the group effects are of interest as they tell us whether being on the programme for different lengths of time has had a different effect on the groups of schools. Table 18 contains the ANOVA summary table for the dependent variables. The results indicate that there are no differences between those who had been in the programme for 3 years or more and those that had been in the programme for 1 year.

6.3.3. INFLUENCE OF THIRD VARIABLES

A possible explanation for the lack of difference between the two groups could have been the influence of third factors (e.g. variables such as age, sex, educational level and teaching experience of respondents in the study). In an ex post facto design, such as the present study, in which subjects are not randomly assigned to groups we need to ask whether there have been third variables which have influenced what has been found, and which have changed, moderated or obscured differences (which would be apparent if those third variables were not operating).

One way to establish the influence of third variables is through analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) which is used to test the main and interaction effects of categorical variables on a continuous dependent variable, controlling for the effects of selected other continuous variables, which covary with the dependent. This control variable is called the "covariate" and there may be more than one covariate. Multiple analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) is similar to MANOVA, but interval independents may be added as "covariates." These covariates serve as control variables for the independent factors, serving to reduce the error term in the model. Like other control procedures, MANCOVA can be seen as a form of "what if" analysis, asking what would happen if all cases scored equally on the covariates, so that the effect of the factors over and beyond the covariates can be isolated.

An issue in using ANCOVA or MANCOVA was that in both cases the covariates have to be continuous. However, the biographical data being utilised as ‘covariates’ were categorical. In order to deal with this difficulty it was possible to look at the interaction of the group effect with the covariates such as age, sex etc. by performing a MANOVA with the categorical third variable placed in as a fixed factor. This gave an indication of whether the two factors interact in such a way as to mask the differences between the groups.

In an ideal world the decision to make these comparisons would have been precisely planned, based on hypotheses and other considerations derived

from theory and previous research, before the analysis. However, with psychological theory it is often not possible to predict the precise patterns of outcome expected and thus the details of the statistical analysis are often decided upon after the data has been collected. Comparisons decided upon after the data have been collected and tabulated are called *a posteriori* or post hoc comparisons. It would not be appropriate to analyse and evaluate these comparisons as if one had predicted it all along. The problem here is one of capitalizing on chance when performing multiple tests *post hoc*, that is, without *a priori* hypotheses (Field, 2004).

In making post hoc comparisons a test that was more conservative was needed. Although there is a wide range of post hoc tests the Scheffé test is a widely used method of controlling Type I errors in *post hoc testing* of differences in group means (Field, 2004). While the Scheffé test maintains an experimentwise .05 significance level in the face of multiple comparisons, it does so at the cost of a loss in statistical power (more Type II errors may be made). The Scheffé test is a conservative one (more conservative than Dunn or Tukey, for example), and is thus not appropriate for planned comparisons but rather restricted to post hoc comparisons. There is always a trade-off: if a test is conservative (the probability of Type I error is small) then it is likely to lack statistical power (the probability of a Type II error will be high).

It was decided to look at the interaction of age, sex, educational qualification, teaching experience, membership of the School Development Team, union membership and group to see if these in any way masked a difference between the groups on any of the measures. In this respect the researcher could be accused of fishing (which is probably a justified criticism). However, it is justified in an exploratory piece of research to do some fishing. It is hoped that by utilising a more conservative approach it is fishing in a reasonably focused way (i.e. 'using a fishing rod as opposed to dynamite', Potter, personal communication, 2002). The only significant result produced was between the interaction of group and union membership and as such this will be the only analysis reported on.

The non-significant Box's test result (M = 309.885, p=.113, df 55) indicated that the covariance matrices are equal and therefore the assumption of homogeneity is met. Levene's test was non-significant and thus the assumption of equality of variance has been met. From the results in Tables 19 and 20 it appears that union membership interacted with length of time on the programme to mask differences on both the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale and the Participation and Decision Centralisation Scale.

Table 19: MANOVA Results for Interaction of Group and Union Membership

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
GROUP * UNION	Roy's Largest Root	.134	2.673	10.000	200.000	.004

Table 20: ANOVA Results for Interaction of Group and Union Membership

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
GROUP * UNION	School Dev Plan Eval	1624300361.87	2	812150180.935	4.250	.016
	Psych Participation	.741	2	.371	1.185	.308
	Particip Decis Central	308963.331	2	154481.666	3.224	.042
	Collaboration Scale	76937.692	2	38468.846	.239	.788
	Gen Self Efficacy	18.331	2	9.166	.350	.705
	Locus of Control	73.659	2	36.830	.229	.796
	Profile Org Character	48.942	2	24.471	.285	.752
	Teacher Efficacy	177.808	2	88.904	1.055	.350
	Supervisor Lead	142.196	2	71.098	.583	.559
	Peer Leadership	560848.131	2	280424.065	.712	.492

Figure 4 (see next page) shows that in the case of the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale non-union members exhibit a different trend between the groups. In Group 1 they are the least positive about the implementation of the school development planning, less positive than both Teachers Union and Association members. However, in Group 2 they are much more positive and in the same range as those from the Teacher Association.

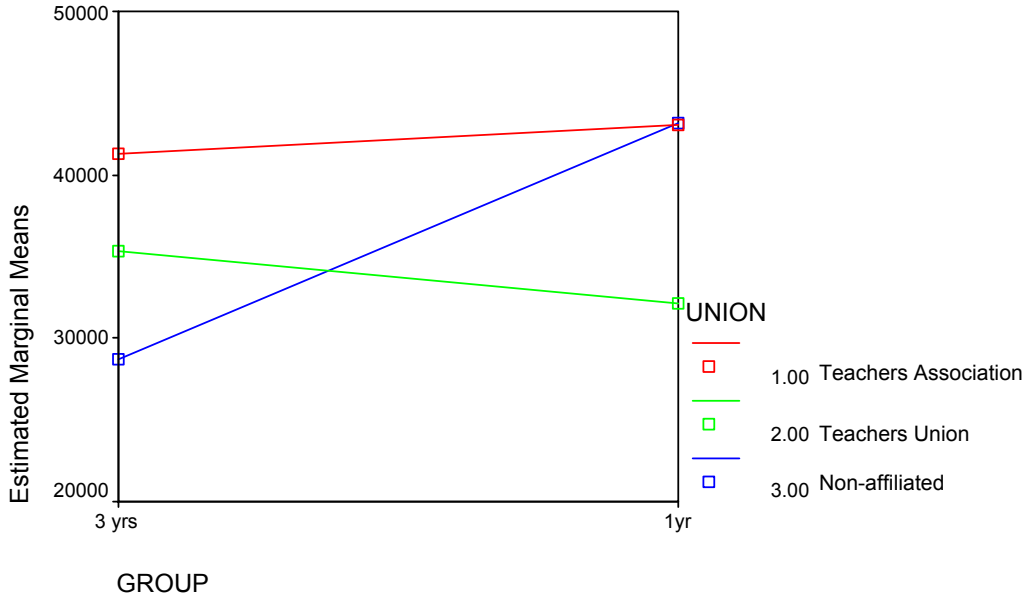


Figure 4: The Effect of Union Membership as a Third Variable on Differences in School Development Planning

Figure 5 shows that with regards to the Participation and Decision Centralisation Scale, measuring people's sense of inclusion in decision making in Group 1 (the schools who have had over 3 years involvement with the programme) the members of the Teacher Association and the non-aligned

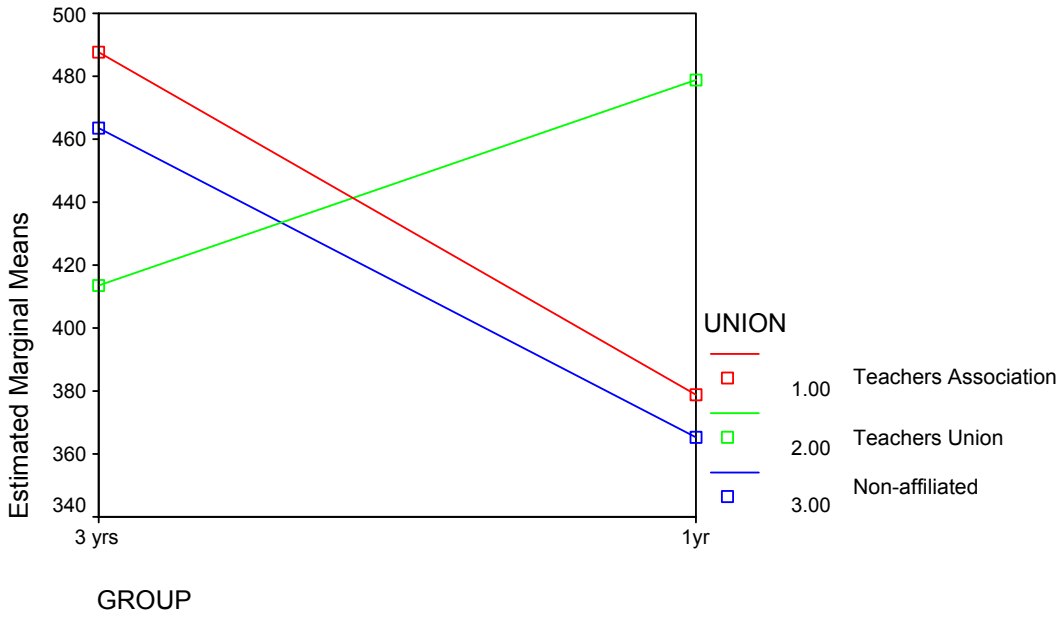


Figure 5: The Effect of Union Membership as a Third Variable on Differences in Participation in Decision-Making

participants are more positive than the Teacher Union members about their involvement in the decision-making of the school. In Group 2 (the schools that had had only 1 year of input) it was the Union Members who were most positive and the other two groups that were less positive.

Differences in union membership between the groups may be masking the impact the programme is having and thus evidence of its empowerment of the individuals and the organisation. Katz (1997) found that teachers' union membership impacted on their view of procedural and interpersonal justice within their schools. The differences in group size between these three groups needs to born in mind when considering these results. However the role that union membership plays in the process of school development needs to be explored in order to understand it more fully.

6.3.4. SUMMARY

The results of the MANOVA show that schools that has been on the programme for three years showed no significant statistical difference from those schools who had been on the programme for one year, on any of the measures. There is some indication that Union Membership may be masking some of these differences particularly on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale and the Participation and Centralisation Scale, however this would need to be further investigated. It is possible that there are a variety of reasons for this lack of significant results.

Firstly it may be that there is no difference in impact between those schools that had had 3 years on the programme and those that had had 1 year. This could be for a variety of reasons e.g. the programme had not impacted on either group, the programme had impacted positively on both groups and there are other variables, rather than time on the programme, that determine whether school development planning is empowering. Another reason for these non-significant results is that there are differences but these are not being measured by the chosen measures or it may need to be measured in some other way or by some other variables. A third possibility may be that schools could be attaching very different meanings to the change process at

different points in the programme e.g. Group 2, because they were new on the programme and getting intensive input may have been in a 'honeymoon phase' and thus very positive while Group 1 has become more realistic in terms of expectations. This could lead to schools scoring the same on measures for different reasons.

However before exploring these issues in any detail the qualitative data gathered from the focus groups, interviews and archival analyses need to be explored. These data may offer additional insight into potential differences between the groups. The qualitative data would also establish whether school staff reported that involvement in the school development programme had led to their personal empowerment as well as the empowerment of their schools as organisations.

6.4. QUALITATIVE ANALYSES: FOCUS GROUPS

The aim of the focus groups was to further explore and clarify the findings which emerged in the quantitative phase of this study by allowing the schools to talk about the changes they felt had taken place within their schools. In the focus groups, schools were asked to talk about the way in which the school development plan had impacted on them as individuals, on their school and on stakeholders in their school community. The data was collected in terms of several broad themes:

1. Changes relating to the individuals within the schools;
2. Changes relating to the organisational level, that is changes within the school as an organisation;
3. Changes relating to stakeholder involvement or community level change;
4. What they felt helped or hindered their school development;
5. What advice they give to a school embarking on the process.

The results of the first three questions are presented in this section as they relate to the impact of the programme and thus provide evidence about whether empowerment was related to time on the programme. Themes relating to questions 4 and 5 are explored later in Research Question 3.

Results pertaining to the individual, organisational and community levels will be presented. For each section a table is shown reflecting the cumulative scores of how often that particular theme was mentioned by the schools making up that particular group, as well as how many schools reported that particular theme. Tables, containing the category label, the definition or description of the category and an illustrative quote from the focus groups, will be offered for each theme. This will provide a deeper understanding of the numerical results presented.

6.4.1. INDIVIDUAL LEVEL CHANGE

Table 21 (see following page) indicates the types of change at the individual level that school staff were reporting. All of the focus group participants from seven of the schools reported changes in themselves as individuals. Only one school from Group 2 reported changes in only one member. As Table 21 indicates there were many common themes related by the individuals in terms of change they have experienced; however there were also differences between the groups.

Table 21: Comparison of Groups 1 and 2 on Individual Level Change

CATEGORY	Cumulative Scores			Number Of Schools		
	Group 1	Group 2	Total	Group 1	Group 2	Total
Attitude towards school	30	26	**56**	4	4	**8**
Teaching and Learning	10	5	**15**	4	4	**8**
Willing to Engage in Collaborative Activity	12	8	**20**	3	2	**5**
Self-confidence	4	3	**7**	2	2	**4**
Attitude towards colleagues	9	1	**10**	4	1	**5**
Planning	6	1	**7**	2	1	**3**
Skills development	3	2	**5**	2	1	**3**

6.4.1.1. Themes Common to Both Groups

Individual's attitudes to the school, teaching and learning, a willingness to engage in collaborative activities and improved feelings of self-confidence were common changes cited by the individuals across the groups.

Category - Attitudes towards the school

Definition - *changes in staff feelings and beliefs (and as a consequence behaviours) towards the school.*

Illustrative Example:

- *it has brought about a great change in me because I now look at the school as not just a building. It is something that needs to, we need to look at the needs of the school besides the building itself and to encourage the learners to do the best of their ability and there are other means that a teacher can help, not coming to school teaching in the classroom other thing environmental things that can help the child (Participant 2.2.2)*
- *If you want to achieve something you must be committed prepared to sacrifice … Sacrifice your time (Participant 1.1.1)*

Individuals from all of the schools felt that there had been a change in their attitude towards the school. The most common elements in terms of individual change in terms of attitude towards the school were an increase in willingness to sacrifice time and effort for the school, in feelings of commitment towards the school and improved professionalism.

Category - Teaching and learning

Definition - *changes in teaching and learning, classroom based activities.*

Illustrative Example:

- *apart from the fund-raising it helped us a lot to come together, more especially when it comes to teaching and learning and where we have the the standard guardians(staff heading that grade) where we sit together, plan together, help each other with the methods we can use in teaching. (Participant 1.2.5)*

Staff in all the schools referred to improvements in teaching and learning. All of the references to change in this area, except for those referring to lesson preparation, were linked to collaboration between teachers. Teachers reported that their teaching had improved through their working with other teachers on classroom issues.

Category – Willing to Engage in Collaborative Activity

Definition - *a change in teacher's ability or willingness to work as part of a team.*

Illustrative Example:

- *me as an individual it has helped a lot I realise I cannot do a thing on my own I have to share with other people and I have to listen to other people as far as decision making is concerned (Participant 1.4.7)*

Twenty individuals from five of the schools reported that their ability or willingness to engage in collaborative activities had improved.

Category - Self-confidence

Definition - *teachers' perceptions that their confidence, self-esteem and willingness to take risks had improved.*
Illustrative Example: • *I think it has changed me because I am confident you see … I can do somethings on my own (Participant 2.4.4)*

Seven participants from four schools mentioned that their self-confidence had grown.

6.4.1.2. Differences Between the Groups

Although there were many common themes across the groups the participants in Group 1 emphasised changes in individual planning abilities and skills development and showed a marked difference in terms of attitudes towards others.

Category - Planning

Definition – *individual's personal planning abilities having improved.*
Illustrative Example: • *when it comes to planning, I mean planning my own things, and I am trying learn to give time constraints, I mean time frames, yes, as to whether I want to do this between this time, and that between this time, and that time, that is what I am learning (2.3.5)*

Seven participants (six from Group 1 and one from Group 2) from three schools (2 from Group 1 and 1 from Group 2) mentioned that their individual planning abilities had changed. All three of these schools had scored well on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale a theme that will be explored more fully on the school level change section.

Category – Skills Development

Definition - *the staff's perception that there has been development of certain skills.*

Illustrative Example:

- *your school development plan it developed our principal to have the know-how of asking those people who sponsored us with money to do the centre then she wrote to them and faxed and did this and this and the other principals didn't know the know-how and at the end of the day she achieved a goal (the media centre) (Participant 1.1.14)*
- *Competence, I think I have improved a lot because compared with what I was in the past I thought I was doing the best but now looking around my classroom now I have improved a lot (Participant 1.1.7.)*

Again only three schools mentioned this theme; all of them had scored well on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale.

Category - Change in attitude towards colleagues

Definition - *changes in teachers' feelings and beliefs (and as a consequence behaviours) towards their colleagues.*

Illustrative Example:

- *I've improved a lot I used to get angry easily now I can tolerate people I can listen I can accept criticism and change, I listen to her and when she says I'm wrong I listen to her, in the past we used to fight (1.3.6)*

Ten individuals from five of the schools (nine individuals from four schools in Group 1 and one individual from Group 2) reported that there had been a change in their attitude towards their colleagues. At the individual level of change this was the main difference between Group 1 and 2.

6.4.2. SCHOOL/ORGANISATIONAL LEVEL CHANGE

In terms of organisational level change there were several common themes relating to change at the organisational level between the two groups. Table 22 reflects the cumulative scores of how often that particular theme was mentioned by the schools making up that particular group as well as how many schools reported that particular theme.

Table 22: Comparison of Groups 1 and 2 on School Level Change

CATEGORY	Cumulative Scores			Number Of Schools		
	Group 1	Group 2	Total	Group 1	Group 2	Total
Collaboration	35	34	**69**	4	4	**8**
Infrastructure and resources	12	8	**20**	4	4	**8**
Organisational Change	35	17	**52**	4	3	**7**
Decision making	12	6	**18**	4	3	**7**
Planning	22	19	**41**	3	3	**6**
Relationships	31	12	**43**	3	3	**6**
Atmosphere	9	4	**13**	3	2	**5**
Fund-raising	5	3	**8**	3	2	**5**
Finances	11	4	**15**	4	1	**5**
School Management Team	17	9	**26**	2	2	**4**
Pride in Achieve and School	10	3	**13**	3	1	**4**
Principal	16	8	**24**	2	1	**3**
Conflict management	2	1	**3**	2	1	**3**

6.4.2.1. Themes Common to Both Groups

Collaboration, infrastructure and resources and fund-raising were all areas that both groups felt had improved whether they had been in the programme for a year or three years.

Category - Collaboration:

Definition - *the staffs' perception that they worked together on issues related to school development and maintenance.*

Illustrative Example:

- *the school development has brought the staff more closer together (agreement from around the table) we know that teamwork, through teamwork, there is nothing that we cannot achieve, through the help of every member of the staff we will be able to achieve whatever we need, we are now a team ,a family that works together (Participant 1.1.1)*

Sub-theme:

Peer Collaboration:

The positive thing as participant 2.2.5 said is that you have that communication … Meaning if you have a problem we do sit here as a staff and the the team will go and give the feedback, the report to the master there (referring to the principal) (laughter) then come back with the feedback then do discuss again about that feedback (Participant 2.2.1)

All of the schools referred to what the literature refers to as collaboration and what they referred to as teamwork as having changed since working on their school development plans. This would make sense in that one of the aims of the development planning process is that collectively the staff develop a vision of how they would like their school to be, draw up a plan of how they would achieve that and implement that plan.

The staff reported an interesting trend in terms of collaboration from five of the schools (three from Group 2 and two from Group 1). Staff in these schools emphasised that it was peer collaboration that was taking place: for example teachers were working together in committees, or taking decisions collaboratively; however the principal was excluded from this process. All of these schools had issues in terms of collaborating with the principal or management. Thus the principal was often seen as outside of this form of collaboration between the teachers. This was often as a result of conflict with the principal over his leadership style (in all cases the principals in these schools were men). This sub-theme was mentioned predominantly by the schools that scored lower on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale.

Category - Infrastructure and Resources

Definition - *the acquisition of infrastructure, administrative resources and teaching and learning resources.*

Illustrative Example:

- *We used to complain previously about a lack of resources but I must say we are amongst a few schools in Atteridgeville that we do not have so many complaints um teaching in the near future will not be as difficult as it used to be because we now have a TV set we have a video and we are in a position to teach by showing the kids videos. We have a photocopier. There are so many schools that have a problem with making copies the question of security. So if we have to talk about lack of resources we are a step or two steps ahead of other schools and its because of the development plan and er perhaps that will make us to solve many of the learning and teaching problems that we have and you know I sometimes wish we were a high school. It's unfortunate that we can't measure our performance the same way that the high schools are doing but er I think the resources that we have helped us to improve our results (Participant 1.1.2.)*

All of the schools reported acquiring resources e.g. photocopiers, computers, and faxes. Two of the schools participating in the focus groups acquired new

infrastructure: one a media centre and sports fields and another four classrooms and an administration block.

Category - Fund-raising

Definition - *changes in the school's ability to raise funds to take care of their prioritised needs.*
Illustrative Example: • *Before the Development plan we never used to raise funds … the school used to rely entirely on school funds (Participant 1.1.1)*

Five schools (Three from Group 1 and two from Group 2) reported that fund-raising had changed. This theme links with the increase in ability to acquire resources and infrastructure. Both groups also mentioned organisational development, decision-making, planning, relationships, atmosphere and management as areas of change however Group 1 schools emphasised these more than Group 2 schools.

Category - Organisational change

Definition - *changes within the schools' structures, procedures and policies in all areas except finance and management*
Illustrative Example: • *We have our subject committees the subject policies are being drawn we have dates we are working with (fieldworker's name) we have elected committees school development teams, disciplinary committee em and what else (Participant 2.4.3)*

Seven of the schools reported changes within the organisational structure of the school. Group 1 made double the amount of references to this theme. The main areas of change related to development of policies, setting up of committees, improved communication flow and improved administration. In some of the schools organisational structures supporting collaboration were being developed. For example committees were being set up, particularly around teaching and learning areas.

Category - Decision-making

Definition - *staff's perception of changes in their involvement and influence in the decision-making processes within the school.*

Illustrative Example:

- *No more unilateral decision-making … We sit together, lets say maybe there is something, we sit together people raising their points, lets say you have raised a point, people don't understand and then they try to help you here and there, how about doing this in this way so I think (Participant 1.2.5.)*

Sub-theme:

Peer Decision-making:

- *We debate issues, we meet as staff, we have an issue we debate we get a decision and then as she said we take it to the [Participant 2.2.1.: Master] up there (pointing to principal's office) and then it gets blocked Participant (2.2.5.)*

Seven of the schools reported improvements in decision-making. Group 1, again, made double the amount of references to this theme. An interesting sub-theme emerged in terms of decision-making in some of the schools that reported an improvement in this area. This related to decision-making as peers, without the principal, and seemed to be linked to peer collaboration. Four schools (two from Group 1 and two from Group 2) report the improvement is in terms of peer decision-making. That is, the staff are more involved in terms of making decisions at a committee or staff level. These four schools report that although they are often consulted more in the decision making process the decisions were often overturned by the principal. The schools reporting this sub-theme scored lower on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale.

The schools made a very clear distinction between being involved and having influence in the decision-making process. The following example clearly illustrates this:

The group were discussing whether staff are involved in decision-making at the school or not:

1.3.4: they are involved
1.3.4: because in the past we used to come into the staff meeting and just sit and the chairman will talk and a few teachers will respond but now it seems everybody is taking part
1.3.6: What was your question, were you asking about the involvement of the staff or the decision making of the staff?
Alex: How involved are the staff in decision-making?
1.3.4: How involved are the staff in making decision, how is it involved? That is why I say, in the past we just come and sit and listen to whoever is talking with no responses I will do whatever I want whether I write or I read I don't respond I don't involve myself in the discussions but now we are all involved
1.3.6: It seems to me ous 1.3.4 is giving answers to two things at present

Alex: okay 1.3.6 talk to me a little bit about why you think she is talking about two things
1.3.6: you are asking about decision making she is answering about involvement… in the past we used to come in there and just listen now I don't think it has improved because we do come in now for decision making and make decisions and it is not carried out
1.3.4: But it is being carried out in the meeting
1.3.6: Ja
1.3.4: In the meeting we share ideas and the decisions are taken
1.3.6: And then [1.3.2 the final decision]
1.3.3: I can give you an example of what happened when we did the AIDS awareness day we had our decision of which people would be coming who will be invited but we were crushed, the other people were invited so decisions are being made but not carried out. So although you asked to contribute [1.3.1: just to get ideas] but then you feel they
1.3.6: It is as if we just contribute to have the ideas and then they are not going to be implemented
Alex: So you feel that in some ways you really are not involved in decision-making
1.3.6: No we are not
Alex: So you don't really have say
1.3.6: We just say
1.3.2: But it is not carried out
1.3.6: Now how do you say about that?

Category - Planning

Definition - *the staffs' perception that relates to changes in the process of school development planning, the skills related to school development planning and the product of the actual plan.*
Illustrative Example: • *We never generated money and we never identified needs before and may I share something with you Alex eh when I started with Mufti, I wonder if some of you still remember, we would collect that money one Friday or two Fridays and then there would be an urgent need and then we would say lets use the mufti money and it was because (all laugh) because you know you taught us we must identify needs before and a make it a point that we, we achieve those needs then we would say is that need written in the development plan, then if the staff said no then we won't spend this money. (Participant 1.1.2)*

Teachers in six of the schools reported that planning had changed. At some of the schools teachers reported that the planning has impacted not only at the level of the school development plan but at all other levels, such as classroom planning.

Category - Relationships

Definition - *staff perceptions that their interactions with their colleagues, in terms of both the quality of their behaviour towards colleagues and colleagues' behaviour towards them, has changed.*

Illustrative Example:

- *We are also celebrating our birthdays [Participant 1.2.7: together] we sit around the table and that teaching mood goes away and we refresh ourselves and another thing Alex the reason why we feel we must do this stokvel is not mainly for us to get the groceries it is to socialise [mm to socialise] to know you and to enjoy the outside of you you know what I mean … Yes that is the motive and even if you know it becomes difficult if I must fight with Participant 1.2.1 today and month end I must go to her house you you can just imagine what happens so we make it a point that you know we finish up this fighting early this understanding thing it helps us a lot the teamwork that is happening outside equals the teamwork that is happening inside … Participant 1.2.6: Even there let me say I quarrel with Participant 1.2.8 I say Oh 1.2.8 it's a joke that day you said this and this [Participant 1.2.8: and I was so angry] and then I say I'm sorry (lots of laughter and comment) … and then it was because I knew somewhere month end I must go to her house and so you see how important it is to go house by house it alleviates the misunderstandings and fights <u>within</u> the school and if you fight within the school yard within the school premises the school development plan will be empty (Participant 1.2.8)*

Six of the schools felt that relationships had changed. Group 1 however made many more references to these changes. The main areas of change in terms of relationships were in the quality of the interaction, spending more time together and that the relationship was no longer only about work but also about one's personal life. This emphasis on the personal aspect of the relationship seemed connected to the issue of conflict resolution, which will be explored later. The improvement in relationships was often linked to a change in attitude towards colleagues, a friendly or improved atmosphere, improved collaboration, particularly around teaching and learning and less conflict, all themes emphasised by Group 1.

Category - Atmosphere

Definition - *changes in the overriding feeling within the school.*

Illustrative Example:

- *there is an atmosphere of friendliness (Participant 2.1.5)*

Five schools (three from Group 1 and two from Group 2) reported that the atmosphere at the school had changed. Often this theme related to reduced conflict leading to a more pleasant atmosphere of open-ness, freedom and friendliness.

Category – School Management Team (SMT)

Definition - *staff's perceptions that the school management team had changed.*

Illustrative Example:

- *And they (referring to the SMT) don't despise us … What I mean is that if if you want to come up with something if you want to, how can I put it, you come up with a solution they don't despise that solution, they simply tell you this is the solution Participant 1.2.7 has brought this solution up lets go on with it [Participant 1.2.4: How do you feel about it] as management they don't [1.2.5: to take a unilateral decision] let us talk about it [1.2.5: get us involved] (Participant 1.2.8)*

Four of the schools reported that management had changed in terms of their own functioning, their relationships with teachers, their involvement of teachers in decision-making, their willingness to share information and their support for teachers in their classroom activities. All four of these schools had scored well on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale.

6.4.2.2. Differences Between the Groups

Although the two groups showed many similarities in the areas of change they see as having taken place at a school level, there were also some differences between the two groups. These included changes in financial management, changes in the principal, improved pride in the school and/or in their achievements and improved conflict management.

Category - Finances:

Definition - *changes in financial administration, management and reporting within the school.*

Illustrative Example:

- *financial management has also improved we are able to know the balance statement in the school [2.1.2: the telephone bills] the financial management has improved (Participant 2.1.1)*

Five schools (four from Group 1 and one from Group 2) reported that financial management had changed.

Category - Pride in Achievement and in the School

Definition - *the staffs' perceptions that relate to having pride in the school and in the school's achievements.*

Illustrative Example:

- *the pride of the teachers concerning their school if you can look at at our school right now at least when it comes to the map we are at the top somehow its because our pride to the prioritising and such things you see (1.2.4.)*

Four schools (three from Group 1 and one from Group 2) reported that pride in the school and/or pride in their achievements had improved since working on the programme.

Category - Principal:

Definition - *staff's perception of changes in the principal, as opposed to the school management team as a whole.*

Illustrative Example:

- *most of the time when we come to a meeting even the principal is so open many things she tells us how she runs the school we come up with our ideas. In the past the principal couldn't tell us many things (Participant 1.1.4.)*

Sub-group:

"The small things":

- *Anytime a teacher want to make tea I meet her here she won't say anything to me mm I didn't have my tea this morning anytime and she doesn't say anything. [1.2.7: maybe it is because she knows when you are in class you work then you are refreshing by coming.] I'm trying to say some of the things that other principals won't allow us to do … Yes and she even makes you feel free in the school I told some of my colleagues .. I wonder if the principal will allow me to go to to the tea-room anytime … I think this is something I appreciate about her this is a change I have seen in her you see and the freedom that I have it is amazing I feel free there are things you know there are those things but there are important things that make me stay here in this school those are the things that I am talking about (Participant 1.2.8.)*

Three of the schools (two from Group 1 and one from Group 2), all having success in terms of the implementation of their plans, reported that the principal had changed. This theme included changes in the staff's relationship with the principal, the principal's support, willingness to include the staff and change in attitude. In terms of changes reported about the principal an important sub-theme emerged relating to the staff's perception of the principal's valuing, respect and trust, in them often shown through small interpersonal interactions and attitudes. This sub-theme was termed "the small things" based on the phrase used by one of the teachers describing her principal's lack in this quality.

Category - Conflict management

Definition - *staffs' perception that there has been a change in the school's ability to deal with conflict in an effective manner.*

Illustrative Example:

- *We solve problems together … We do fight at times, like myself, sometimes I loose my temper but … we sort it out and then things run smoothly again (Participant 1.1.5)*

Three schools reported this change all of which were schools that had been successful in terms of implementation of the school development planning (according to the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale). This change seemed to be based on the connections due to improved relationships, particularly personal, rather than formal procedures (see relationship example above). The issue of improved financial management also seemed linked to better relationships between staff and principal. Teachers reported that financial mistrust within the school was often a source of conflict.

6.4.3. COMMUNITY LEVEL CHANGE

As Table 23 indicates the schools not only reported changes at the individual and organisational or school level but also at the community level.

Table 23: Comparison of Groups 1 and 2 on Community Level Change

CATEGORY	Cumulative Scores			Number Of Schools		
	Group 1	Group 2	Total	Group 1	Group 2	Total
Parent involvement	16	8	**24**	4	3	**7**
School Governing Body Involvement	14	5	**19**	3	2	**5**
Collaborating with other schools	3	0	**3**	3	0	**3**
Community Involvement	2	0	**2**	2	0	**2**

6.4.3.1. Themes Common to Both Groups

Both groups mentioned parent involvement and school governing body as area of community level change that has occurred.

Category - Parent Involvement

Definition - *parents have become more involved in the school in terms of school activities, and/or the educational progress of their children.*

Illustrative Example:

- *Like we are having a trip on Saturday usually we used to go out being teachers alone but this time there are parents who are willing to accompany us with the kids to show that now they are interested in what we are doing here at school (Participant 2.1.3)*

Seven of the schools reported improvements in parent involvement. Group 1 however, made double the amount of references to this theme.

Category - School Governing Body Involvement:

Definition - *improved functioning of the school governing body (SGB), improved interest and support for the school, improved relationship between staff and SGB.*
Illustrative Example: • *We never used to we let me say we never had a SGB going through full term being intact this time we have had a SGB serving for the whole term of office. Being intact. … Meaning that that shows that the SGB is committed and they are interested in the development of the school and as well as in the education of their children (Participant 1.1.1)*

Five schools reported that the School Governing Body had changed, however Group 1 made nearly three times more references to this theme.

6.4.3.2. Differences Between the Groups

Group 1 schools were the only ones to mention collaboration with other schools and improved community involvement. Both of these areas were about building bridges into the wider community and thus would probably only have been possible after an extended time of internal change within the school.

Category - Collaboration with other schools

Definition - *staff's perceptions that there were improvements in the schools working with other schools in a variety of activities.*
Illustrative Example: • *we built a centre and the other schools were envying us and other schools were using it and now we have even encouraged them to get their own centre and at (a neighbouring school) they have their own computers … Yes even the library the media centre other schools want to know how did you go about to get the media centre (Participant 1.1.4)*

Category – Community Involvement

Definition – staff's perceptions of improvements in the involvement of the community in school activities.
Illustrative Example: • *When we were busy with the media centre the members of the community were very very active in that builders themselves were members of the community. Also in that way we didn't have problems with the security because the community was involved and I think they own the building because they proudly when they pass the school that building was built by us and I don't think they would want to see it vandalised (Participant 1.1.2)*

6.4.4. SUMMARY OF FOCUS GROUPS RESULTS

From these results the individuals who participated in the focus groups felt the programme had had a positive impact on the school at an individual, organisational and a community level. There were many themes common to

both groups. Several of the themes were areas assessed by the quantitative measures related to empowerment at various levels of analysis. For example: at the individual level, a willingness to engage in collaborative activities and development of self-confidence; at the organisational level, collaboration, decision-making, relationship with the principal and peers. From the focus groups results one can begin to argue that school staff felt that school development planning had impacted on both groups in terms of areas assessed by the quantitative measures.

There were differences between the two groups. Those that had been on the programme for longer reported more themes, emphasised themes more and showed some marked differences in themes. At the individual level Group 1 emphasised individual planning abilities and reported a marked difference in their attitudes towards their colleagues. At the organisational level Group 1 emphasised changes in financial management, the principal, conflict management and pride in achievements and the school. Group 1 schools were the only one's to mention collaboration with other schools and improved community involvement as changes.

In line with the theoretical conception of empowerment and its expressions, participants reported many other changes, not measured by the quantitative measures, that related to a variety of themes and levels of analysis. At the individual level changes related to attitudes and individual planning. At the organisational level changes related to material and monetary gains. All the schools reported improvements in infrastructure and the acquisition of resources, and linked to this were improvements in fund-raising. Groups also mentioned school atmosphere and other organisational changes in terms of structures and policies. There were also community level changes related to the involvement of the broader school community such as parents and the governing body (which due to the unidimensional nature of the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale we were unable to measure using the stakeholder involvement sub-scale) and links with other schools and the broader community.

This indicates that the school development planning process was seen by the participants to have empowered them, their schools and, for some, their communities. Thus the quantitative data may not have noted any differences due to changes having occurred in both groups of school. However, before any conclusions could be drawn about the presence of empowerment in the context of school development and the impact of the programme other qualitative data sets were examined, in the spirit of triangulation, as additional sources.

From the focus group data one can start to build an argument for effects on participants. However, these data are based on self-reports, which may be distorted. The trends are also based on content analyses, which have their own biases (discussed in Chapter 4 and will be elaborated on in Chapter 9). Following the logic of a multi-method investigation it was thus important to use other sources of data to verify these trends, before reaching a conclusion as to the effectiveness of the programme, or its effects on participants. It is for these reasons that additional data sources were used which are not based on self-reports.

6.5. QUALITATIVE ANALYSES: ARCHIVAL DATA

At the end of the programme's work with the schools an evaluation was undertaken with each school; this provided a baseline comparison of the school's functioning before and at the end of the programme. These were written up for each individual school. The results of the analysis of these evaluations focused on three areas: objectives from the school development plan achieved, the use of the school development plans, and role of the school development team and other areas of change.

6.5.1. OBJECTIVES ACHIEVED FROM THE SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANS

One of the central aims of the programme under investigation was the use of the school development plans as a way for schools to take control of their own development and to become empowered. In order to gather more evidence

about this eight schools' development plans were evaluated to assess how many of the objectives they had set for themselves they had achieved.

All of the schools drew up a school development plan setting out the objectives they wanted to achieve over a 3-year period. These objectives were classified in the current study in terms of priority areas and then grouped as to whether they related to individual, organisational or community levels of change. Evidence was then sort from the school or from programme reports of the school having achieved the objective.

Eight school development plans were evaluated to assess how many objectives had achieved. Table 24 (see following page) indicated that over the 3-year period the eight schools managed to achieve 65% of the objectives they set for themselves. The priority areas for schools in terms of development were related to resources, organisational development, infrastructure and parent involvement. What is interesting is that these issues were prioritised over teaching and learning. Issues of organisational and community development also took priority over individual development. The main areas of achievement were in the areas of infrastructure, resources and organisational development, and parent involvement. All objectives set around environment and professionalism were also met.

One of the central aims of the programme being evaluated was the use of the school development plans as a way for schools to take control of their own development and to become empowered. The data of these eight schools indicates that the schools are being successful in terms of the implementation of their plans particularly in the areas of resources and infrastructure, organisational development and parent involvement.

Table 24: Objectives from the School Development Plans Achieved By the Schools

Category	Priorities Set	Priorities Achieved
INDIVIDUAL LEVEL		
Skills training	4	3
Professionalism	4	4
Teaching and Learning	9	5
ORGANISATIONAL LEVEL		
Infrastructure upgrade	18	18
Environment	4	4
Resources	39	26
Infrastructure new	5	2
Organisational Development	29	15
Relationships	2	1
COMMUNITY LEVEL		
Parent Involvement	16	8
Community Involvement	1	0
School Governing Body	2	1
Other	7	4
TOTAL	140	91 (65%)

From the analysis of the school development plan objectives schools were using the school development plans as a way to take control of their own development and to become empowered. The objectives achieved spanned the three levels described by the empowerment framework used to guide the study. Many of the objectives achieved at the various levels were also in line with the changes school staff had reported as having changed in the focus groups. This data set also provides evidence that was externally verified through various methods (direct observation, collection of documentation). This provides confirmatory evidence to the self-report evidence offered by teachers in the focus groups. In terms of the empowerment literature a key aspect of organisational empowerment is the ability to make changes to the material conditions in which one finds one self (Kroeker, 1995; Zimmerman, 2000). The school staff were particularly successful at making changes to their school environments through access to additional resources and funds and through infrastructure development.

6.5.2. SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING AND SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT TEAM FUNCTIONING

The content analysis also revealed information about the use of the school development plans and the functioning of the school development teams. Although seven of the eight schools had been successful in terms of their

implementation of the plan there was little review or monitoring of the implementation and little feedback from the school development team to the staff on progress made. Only at one school was the school development plan regularly on the staff meeting agenda. In three of the schools disruption in implementation occurred when the principal overturned a decision about the use of funds for a particular objective. In three of the eight schools there was some link between the school development planning/team and the School Governing Body. These three schools were also more successful than the other schools in implementing the plan and achieving their goals.

Six of the eight school development teams were seen as effective in helping the school implement their school development planning. One had been effective but, due to changes in management and conflict between the teachers and the principal, was no longer. Although they were seen as effective what is interesting is that none of these teams had regular meetings, they never kept minutes and only met when the need arose. Reviewing and follow up were also not done on a regular basis. This was interesting as it was an assumption of the programmes that the team needed to be formalised, meet regularly, have clear roles, give regular feedback to the staff and keep track of their meetings as well as review the plans regularly. The informal use of the plans and the functioning of the school development teams links to the issue of how schools use these processes in ways that are meaningful for them in their contexts rather than following set formal procedures.

The analysis of the use of the school development plans and the functioning of the school development teams again provides confirmatory evidence that the schools were using the plans to take control of their development. This may not have been in the way anticipated by the programme but as the previous data set indicated schools were achieving many of the objectives they had set for themselves. This data also provides externally verified evidence of the use of the plans and the functioning of the teams, both seen as key to the organisational empowerment of the school.

6.5.3. OTHER CHANGES

The data from the eight evaluations of schools that had completed their term on the programme was useful in terms of providing information about how individual schools had changed over the programme period, thus providing a baseline comparison of their initial functioning before the programme to their functioning after the programme. Table 25 presents the results of a broader analysis of the evaluation reports which revealed the following changes in the schools' functioning and development. Each of the themes related to a section within the evaluation reports. They were classified for the purpose of this study according to the three levels of empowerment under investigation in the current study i.e. individual, organisational and community. The majority of changes reported related to resources, infrastructure, teaching and learning, collaboration, administration, financial management, staff development and organisational development. What had not changed were issues related to conflict management. In terms of community level change the emphasis was on parent involvement. Although the school development plans did not prioritise teaching and learning it is seen by stakeholders to have changed in all but one school. The data used for the evaluations was based on a triangulation of various stakeholders (teachers, principal, administrative staff, parents and school governing body) views on the school. In addition externally verified evidence was also collected. For example new buildings, classrooms converted into libraries were physically seen. Policies, financial plans and budgets were requested and meetings were attended. Registers from parent meetings were requested as were timetables for meetings with School Governing Body and parents.

Teaching and learning

Seven of the eight schools feel that the quality of teaching and learning in their schools has improved. Five of the schools report that the grade/subject/phases committees (see Collaboration theme below) have been useful in assisting them with their classroom work and has re-oriented them to the curriculum.

Table 25: Changes Reported in the Programme's Evaluations

THEME	MUCH CHANGE	SOME CHANGE	NO CHANGE
INDIVIDUAL LEVEL			
1. Teaching And Learning	7	0	1
ORGANISATIONAL LEVEL			
1. Resources	8	0	0
2. Infrastructure	6	2	0
3. Collaboration	6	2	0
4. Staff Involvement	5	2	1
5. Relationship Between Teachers	4	3	1
6. Relationship With Principal	3	3	2
7. School Management Team	3	4	1
8. Planning	6	1	1
9. Follow Up And Evaluation	1	6	1
10. Decision-Making	4	3	1
11. Financial Management	4	3	1
12. Fund-Raising	7	1	0
13. Policies	3	4	1
14. Committees	7	1	0
15. Procedures (Conflict And Grievance)	0	0	8
16. General Administration	7	1	0
17. Communication	3	4	1
COMMUNITY LEVEL			
1. Parent Involvement	7	1	0
2. School Governing Bodies	3	1	4
3. Community Involvement	3	4	1
4. Collaboration With Other Schools	0	7	1

Resources and Infrastructure

All 8 schools report having acquired more resources since drawing up the plan. All of the schools managed to get a photocopier, a fax machine and at least one computer. Several of the schools acquired many more resources through their planning and fund-raising efforts. Six of the 8 schools made significant changes to the infra structure of their schools. Three of them had new buildings erected such as a media centre, sports fields, classrooms and administration blocks. For all six their were also upgrades in the present structures such as painting of school buildings, cleaning of the school yard, putting up fencing and getting general repairs done to the schools structure. Three of the six schools also converted empty classrooms into mini-libraries. This confirms the focus group findings that the schools report changes in this area.

Collaboration

This change in collaboration related specifically to teachers meeting as a group to discuss issues related to teaching and learning. Six of the eight school staff were having regular grade/subject/phase meetings in which teachers collaborated on issues related to their classroom work. All but one of these schools is a junior primary school, the sixth is a combined primary. The other two schools are both combined and only their foundation phase teachers meet regularly to collaborate on classroom related issues. This item and the individual level theme related to teaching and learning provides support for the Teaching and Learning Theme from the focus groups as well as the issue of collaboration which is also supported by the next item.

Staff involvement

Five of the school staff reported that staff involvement in activities at the school has improved. Two felt that although there had been improvements not all staff were involved. One school reported that although involvement had improved initially, problems within the school have led to the collapse of the change. This provides support for the improvement in collaboration reported in the focus groups.

Relationships Between Teachers

In support of the changes in relationships noted in the focus groups 4 of the school staff reported that relationships between teachers had improved. Three reported that although they had changed there were still some issues such as groupings and divisions that needed to be dealt with. Only one school felt very little had changed in terms of relationships.

Relationship with the Principal

Teachers at three of the schools felt that the relationship with the principal was good and had improved. Three reported that although the relationship had improved there were still some issues. In all of these cases the issues related to the principals attitude when communicating with the staff (“the small things” as discussed in the focus groups). Two of the schools reported that the relationship with the principal was poor. In both of these cases the

principal changed towards the end of the school development planning programme process. At one school the principal had been on long leave for 3 years and returned during the school's final year on the programme and at the other the principal was appointed during the school's last year on the programme. These reported changes provided evidence both for a change in this area and also for the importance of the quality of the relationship (the small things) which will be elaborated on stage.

School Management Team

Three of the schools reported having effective school management teams. Four felt that although the management had improved there were still issues. The main issues involved the follow up and monitoring offered by the school management team and the involvement of the staff in decision making by the school management team. Again this provided support for the reported changes in the results from the focus groups.

Planning, follow-up and evaluation

Six of the schools felt that the planning in general at the school had improved, one felt that although there have been improvements it was still not satisfactory. One of the schools felt planning had not improved. Only one school felt satisfied with the levels of follow up. Six of the schools report that although there have been improvements this was still an area of weakness. At one of the schools there was virtually no follow up. This confirmed the findings in terms of the changes in planning from the focus group results that indicated that evaluation and follow up were issues. This also confirms staff's report there were issues with regards to the lack of follow up from management.

Decision-making

Four schools reported that decision making had improved, with staff being more involved and decisions being taken in a participatory manner. Three felt that although decision making had become more inclusive an issue was that at times the decisions taken by the staff were later overturned by the principal. Only one school felt there had been no improvement. This confirms the

findings from the focus groups and gives some insight into the issue of the principal's role in overturning decisions which was highlighted in the focus groups and will be explored later. This change also links to the staff's reported improvement in collaboration and staff involvement as well as to the setting up of committee (discussed below).

Financial Management and Fund-raising

Seven of the schools reported that financial management and accountability had improved at their schools. At one school there was still an issue around management openness about the use of funds at the school. Seven of the schools reported that their ability to raise funds had improved. This is clearly evidenced in the number of resources the schools have acquired over the time. However there were issues at three of the schools about the use of the funds as the staff would be working towards a particular goal and then the principal would use the money for another issue (usually justifiably) but it was the manner in which it was done.

Although this provides support for both the findings of improvements in fund-raising and financial management from the focus groups it also adds to our understanding of the complexity of the relationship between teachers and principals. Teachers report that the principal's' unilateral decision-taking over use of funds, overturning of decisions and the manner in which they interact with their staff impacts on the relationship. It also provides evidence for the finding on the Profile of Organisational Characteristics that the organisational climate was one of Benevolent Authoritarianism.

Policy and procedures

Three of the schools had completed all of the policies required by the department of education. Four had made some progress in terms of developing some of the policies or having drawn up draft policies. However implementation of the policies was to be quite different. Government mandated policies such as admission polices were being implemented but policy related to professional behaviour, discipline, internal functioning of the school were only being implemented by a few of the schools. In terms of

grievance and conflict management procedures within the school none of the schools reported having clear procedures.

Committees

All eight schools had set up new committees. Only in one instance were these committees not functional. However an issue was that there were too many committees and thus several of them were not functional. The Department of Education had made the setting up of many committees mandatory for the schools however many of the schools were not clear on the function of these committees and had a limited number of teachers. This in addition to all of the other demands being placed on them, meant some of these committees did not function.

Administration and Communication

All of the schools reported that administration within the school had improved. Only one felt that although it had improved there were still several issues that needed to be ironed out. Three of the schools felt that communication had improved significantly at the school. Four felt that although it had improved there were still issues. In all of these cases the communication issues related to the manner in which the principal spoke to the staff.

These results provided confirmatory evidence for the changes reported by school staff in terms of the school's organisational development. What was interesting was that although school staff reported that schools were running more smoothly external verification indicated that the implementation of formal policies, structures and procedures was not happening successfully. For example there were no procedures for dealing with conflict within the schools however several successful schools in the focus groups spoke about improved conflict management. It seemed that the schools were making use of processes based on informal relationships as a way of dealing with these issues. This will be elaborated on later.

Involvement of other stakeholders (Parents, School Governing Body and Community)

Seven of the schools reported that parent involvement has improved. The two main areas of improvement were an increase in parent attendance at meetings and more involvement in activities or events at the schools. Teachers reported that parents were still not getting involved in the classroom or with their children's progress in a significant way. Only three of the schools had functional governing bodies. The other five bodies did not function although at one school the chair person of the governing body worked well with the school. Three schools feel that their relationship with the community has improved a lot and four a little. This involvement relates mainly to the school offering their facilities for the community to use and the community not dumping rubbish around the school. Seven of the eight schools tried to form some form of partnership with other schools in the area. Although these lasted from between 1 year to 3 years they all eventually failed.

These findings confirm the focus groups results in several ways. Firstly it confirms that parent involvement was an area of change however it was still seen as an area that needed much more work. Secondly it confirms the difficulties the schools had in engaging in collaborative activities with other schools and the community. Thirdly a shift in the involvement of the School Governing Bodies had occurred. The data from the evaluations (collected about 18 months before the focus group data) indicated that very few schools had functional School Governing Bodies however from the focus groups teachers report that this had improved and the interview data supported this conclusion.

The changes reported in the programme evaluations of the eight schools that had completed the programme provided additional evidence that the schools had changed at various levels during their engagement with the programme. The changes reported in the evaluations correspond with those reported in the focus groups and with the objectives schools had achieved. The data in the evaluation adds support to the self report of teachers by providing an additional data source that not only triangulated views of several stakeholders

but also made use of externally verified evidence of change in many of the areas. Thus by using multiple data sources as case can begin to be made that the programme had had an impact on staff, schools and the parent bodies they work with.

6.5.4. SUMMARY OF ARCHIVAL RESULTS

These results provided confirmatory evidence for the changes reported in the focus groups. The results from the archival analyses indicated that school development planning was being used as a process to empower schools i.e. they were taking control over their development and were achieving many of the objectives they had set for themselves. The results also indicated that the school development team in collaboration with the principal and School Governing Body play an important role in making school development planning effective. However the school development teams functioned more informally than was originally determined by the programme and the literature.

From the eight evaluations it was clear that many changes had occurred within the schools. What it also revealed were similar trends in terms of the areas of change, for example collaboration, decision-making, relationships, the principal. What it also confirmed is that many other variables are at play in terms of the change process, involving a range of organisational and community variables. Due to the nature of the school audits not much information about the individual level could be assessed. The data provides evidence of empowered outcomes for the schools (for example through the access to resources and infrastructure as well as the many other objectives achieved) and empowering processes (for example the setting up and functioning of the school development team and their collaborative work with the principals and the school governing bodies)

6.6. QUALITATIVE DATA AND ANALYSES: INTERVIEWS ON SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLAN IMPLEMENTATION

Interviews and other archival data analyses relating to the use of the school development plans were undertaken a year after the quantitative and focus group data were collected. This analysis pertained to three groups of schools:

those who had been in the programme for more than four years (Phase 1 schools), those who had had three years of intervention (Phase 2 schools), and those who were in their second year (Phase 3 schools). A comparison of these three groups was undertaken to see if there were qualitative differences between the schools that had more or less exposure to the programme on the following: the use of the school development plans; the functioning of their school development teams; and the role of the principal in implementing the plans. The analysis of the data provided the following results.

6.6.1. USE OF THE SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLAN

The programme's intervention with the schools was based upon the assumption that the school development team, with the rest of the staff, would on a regular basis, review the progress of the implementation of the plan. Adjustments and changes would be made to the plan as implementation proceeded. This was to accommodate the very rapid pace of change happening in the country and in education particularly. Another assumption was that on a yearly basis the staff guided by the school development team would review the plan and draw up a new plan for the following year. The time frame of a year was felt to be sufficiently long as the environment was too unpredictable for schools to really do any strategic planning.

From the 24 interviews only one school was not using the development plan at all. Thus the analysis only pertained to the 23 schools using their plans. Of these 23 schools, 16 were still using their original plan and 7 had drawn up new plans.

Phase 1 Schools:

These nine schools had completed the 4-year programme by the time the interviews were done. Five of the schools were still using their original plan but over a longer time frame than originally anticipated. Of these five schools two had drawn up individual plans that had been added to their original plans. For one of these schools the school development team undertook this and in the other it was done in consultation with the whole staff. For all of these schools review was done on an ad hoc basis (usually by the school

development team) and none of them had done a complete review with the whole staff. The four other schools had drawn up new school development plans in collaboration with the whole staff after an initial three-year period of working with the original plan. All of these plans were an outline of the priorities or objectives set by the school for the next time frame with no action plans attached to these objectives. Review was done on an ad hoc basis but had involved the whole staff.

Phase 2 Schools:

These six schools had been on the programme for 3 years. Only one school in this group had drawn up a new plan, in consultation with the whole staff, that included both objectives and action plans. They had drawn up this plan two years after drawing up their original plan, once it had been completed. They did regular reviews with the whole staff. Three schools were still using the original plan but had added new plans to it. These plans again consisted of objectives only and no action plans. In one of these schools the school development team reviewed their plans regularly; in the other two schools it was done on an ad hoc basis. The other two schools were still using the original plan and reviewed it on an ad hoc basis.

Phase 3 Schools:

This group was made up of eight schools that had been working with the programme for 2 years. Six of these schools were still using the original plan and reviewed it on an ad hoc basis. The other two had drawn up new plans, in consultation with the staff, after they had completed their previous one. In both cases the plan consisted of a list of objectives but no action plans. Both of these schools reviewed the plan on a regular basis.

6.6.2. SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT TEAM FUNCTIONING

The school development teams were classified in terms of their level of functioning according to one of the following categories: Active, Functional, Erratic, Previously Functional, Never Functioned. Table 26 describes these categories and the classification of the school development team's functioning across phases of involvement in the programme. Table 26 indicated that six

Table 26: Categorisation of School Development Team's Functioning

Category	Phase 1	Phase 2	Phase 3	Total
Active - *these teams were formally set up, clear roles, consistent in their functioning, actively involved in developing the school, showed initiative*	3	1	2	6
Functional - *as above; however they were not as active and did not show much initiative*	3	2	2	7
Erratic - *as above however they were not consistent in their functioning*	2	0	1	3
Previously functional - *these teams had been either functional or erratic but at this point were no longer functioning*	1	2	1	4
Never functioned - *these teams were set up but had never functioned in their role as a school development team*	0	1	1	2
TOTAL	9	6	7	22

One of the Phase 3 schools was too small (a staff of 5) to have a development team.

fell into the Active category; seven fell into the Functional category; three in the Erratic, four into the Previously Functional and two in the Never Functional category. The most common issues expressed as reasons for the poor functioning of the school development teams were:

No. of Schools	Issues Related to school development team Functioning
9	Demands being placed on them by the Department of Education
5	Conflicts between the staff and the principal
4	Redeployment of staff
3	Lack of support from management in their activities
3	Conflicts within the School Development Team

Most of these issues were either conflicts internal to the school or external pressures and changes brought about by the Department of Education. It seemed that some schools were unable to deal with these issues and this led to a breakdown in the functioning of the school development team.

During the data collection and analysis an interesting link between the school development team and the fund-raising committee or fund-raising activities at the school emerged. The data indicated a link between those schools that achieved many of their objectives and there being a positive relationship

between the school development team and the fund-raising committee. Twelve of the school development teams had links with the fund-raising committee. This relationship usually took the form of an individual being on both committees. This would make sense in terms of the emphasis on resources and upgrading the infrastructure in all of the plans.

6.6.3. THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL IN THE SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLAN

The principal's role in terms of the school development implementation was classified according to one of the following categories: Guiding, Active, Involved, Uninvolved and Interfering. Table 27 (see following page) presents these categories and the classification of the principal's role in the school development planning across phase of involvement in the programme.

Table 27: Categorisation of the Principal's Role in School Development Plan Implementation

Category	Phase 1	Phase 2	Phase 3	Total
Guiding - *principal not member of school development team, but aware of and supportive of their activities. Staff take lead but principal still had strong input into activities.*	3	1	2	6
Active - *principal an active member of the school development team, taking part in all of its activities and providing strong leadership*	2	1	0	3
Involved - *principal part of the team but did not provide strong leadership or support*	2	1	2	5
Uninvolved - *principal was not part of the team and did not play a role in the school development plan implementation*	1	2	1	4
Interfering - *principal took over decision making from the team when it suited him or her*	1	1	1	3
TOTAL	9	6	6	21

One school did not have a principal and the other was too small to have a development team.

Table 27 indicated that six of the principals provided guidance for the implementation of the schools development plan, three were actively involved, five were involved, four were uninvolved and three interfered with the implementation. The data indicates that the role of the principal as being

actively involved or guiding was the most effective. In both instances though, there were members of the school management team on the development team as well. In those schools where neither the principal nor management played a role, the school development teams found it difficult to function effectively. However, where the principal did not support the management team they were also not successful – it appears that if the school development team has School Management Team members and is guided or supported by the principal, the principal does not have to be a team member. However this would need further study before any conclusion about the interaction between the school management team and the principal role in the school development team can be made.

6.6.4. SUMMARY OF INTERVIEW RESULTS

The results from the interview data indicated that the schools were utilising the school development plans; 23 of the 24 schools were still using it. Sixteen of these had been using the plan over a much longer period than the programme and the literature had anticipated. The other seven of these schools had drawn up a new plan, however this was basically an outline of their objectives as opposed to a full plan containing action plans as was anticipated by the programme and the literature. The data indicated that the schools were utilising the plans in a different way, one which suited the context in which they found themselves.

Results also indicated that thirteen of the school development teams were active or functional in terms of working with the school development planning. This supports the idea that they play an important role in school development planning implementation. However the teams were not set up in the formal way as described by the programme or as suggested by the literature. These teams were more focused on activity and outcome as opposed to structure and procedure. The interview data indicated the importance of principal support and or involvement in successful implementation. Fifteen of the principals were engaged (either through guidance, active participation or being involved).

This data set confirms that the schools involved in the programme were using the school development plans to achieve the changes they wanted to make in their schools. It also confirmed the functioning of the schools development teams and the key role that the principal plays in taking school development planning forward. It again provided data that has been externally verified as well as triangulated with the perspectives of several stakeholders. Again this emphasises the importance of using multiple data sources in evaluating the impact of the programme.

6.7. QUALITATIVE ANALYSES: SUMMARY

From the qualitative data sets that schools were using their plans and that change had occurred at the individual, organisational and community level. The qualitative data also indicated that change had occurred not only in terms of the variables that had been measured in the quantitative data but had also occurred in many other areas. The focus of the change was at an organisational level; however the role of community level variables was stressed. The central role of the principal in development planning was emphasised throughout the qualitative data. The results of the archival data and the interviews indicated that schools were reinterpreting the use of the plans and the function of the school development teams to suit their contexts.

The qualitative data offered more interpretable data about the impact of the programme and evidence of empowerment at the various levels. The focus group data tapped teachers' perceptions more directly than through predetermined measures. These data yielded clearer information based on what teachers felt about their lives and the meaning of school development planning on a practical level. In this way evidence was gained that teachers had benefited from the process, felt they were doing their jobs better and were practically empowered in their lives and in the work that they did. It also gave insight into what they felt had changed at the school and community level. However this data was self-report and based on content analysis, both pose limitations to conclusions that can draw about impact and change at various levels. Following the approach of the multi-method design adopted other data sources were collected. The archival data, the school development plan

objective analysis and the interviews provided not only multiple stakeholder views on the changes at the school but also provided eternally verified evidence of change at both the organisational and community level. These additional data sets confirmed many of the changes described by teachers and also added to these reported and verified changes.

6.8. COMPARISON BETWEEN SCHOOLS THAT SCORED WELL ON THE SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING EVALUATION SCALE AND THOSE THAT DID NOT

The regrouped quantitative and focus group data from these two groups offered some insight into what, for these particular groups of schools, were the factors that were contributing to their success or lack of success.

6.8.1. QUANTITATIVE DIFFERENCES

As in the original quantitative study a MANOVA was performed for all of the variables to ascertain if there were any differences between those who scored well on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale and those who did not. The non-significant result Box's test (M = 53.637, p=.737) indicates that the covariance matrices are equal and therefore the assumption of homogeneity is met. Levene's tests of equality of variance for each of the dependent variables were non-significant and thus the assumption of equality of variance has been met.

Table 28 shows the main table of results. Roy's statistic indicates that there were significant group differences.

Table 28: MANOVA Results Roy's Largest Root – Comparing Schools That Scored Higher on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale with those that Scored Lower

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
SPDES Success	**Roy's Largest Root**	.570	5.305	10.000	93.000	.000

Table 29, containing the ANOVA summary table for the dependent variables, indicates that there were significant differences on the following scales:

- School Development Planning Evaluation Scale
- Collaboration Scale
- Peer Leadership Scale
- Profile of Organisational Characteristics
- Supervisory Leadership Scale

Table 29: ANOVA Results Tests of Between-Subjects Effects - Comparing Schools That Scored Higher on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale with those that Scored Lower

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
SDPES Success	School Dev Plan Eval	7739082797.437	1	7739082797.437	41.711	.000
	Psych Participation	7.354E-02	1	7.354E-02	.224	.637
	Participation Central	98387.858	1	98387.858	1.896	.172
	Collaboration Scale	1866044.771	1	1866044.771	12.638	.001
	Peer Leadership	6493877.233	1	6493877.233	17.369	.000
	Profile Org Character	536.536	1	536.536	6.407	.013
	Supervisor Lead	1282.733	1	1282.733	10.558	.002
	Gen Self Efficacy	19.823	1	19.823	.802	.373
	Locus of Control	38.179	1	38.179	.246	.621
	Teacher Efficacy	63.552	1	63.552	.874	.352

Looking at the descriptives for the measures (Appendix 14, Table 1) the more successful group's mean score indicated that schools in this group perceived the process as having brought about great change while the less successful group felt it had only brought about slight change. The more successful group also showed greater levels of collaboration, felt that their peers offered more support, orientated them more towards the goals of the organisation, encouraged them more to focus on the work at hand and that they worked more as a team. They also showed differences on the leadership scales. They scored higher on the Profile of Organisational Characteristics, indicating that they felt the leadership style within the school was more consultative than the less successful group. Their scores on the Supervisory Leadership Scale also indicate that they perceived the principal as orientating them towards the goals of the organisation; encouraging them to focus on the work at hand and encouraging them to work as team more than the less successful group.

The significant difference between the groups on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale validates the splitting procedure.

6.8.2. QUALITATIVE DIFFERENCES – FOCUS GROUP DATA

As in the previous focus group results, changes in the individual, organisational and community levels are reported on.

6.8.2.1. Individual Level:

As Table 30 indicates the individuals within the schools mentioned very similar changes they had experienced personally. These focused on planning skills, changes in attitudes to both work and colleagues, a willingness to engage in teamwork and self-confidence. The more successful group did emphasise changes in attitudes towards work, improvements in their teaching and learning and a willingness to engage in collaborative activities. Only the more successful group mentioned skills development.

Table 30: Comparison between the More Successful Group on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale and the Less Successful Group on Individual Level Change

CATEGORY	Cumulative Scores			Number Of Schools		
	More Successful	Less Successful	Total	More Successful	Less Successful	Total
Attitude towards school	37	19	**57**	4	4	**8**
Willing to Engage in Collaborative Activity	17	3	**20**	4	1	**5**
Teaching and Learning	11	4	**15**	4	4	**8**
Attitude towards colleagues	4	6	**10**	2	3	**5**
Planning	4	3	**7**	1	2	**3**
Self-confidence	5	2	**7**	2	2	**4**
Skills development	5	0	**5**	3	0	**3**

6.8.2.2. Organisational Level

As Table 31 indicates the schools offered many similar areas of change, with the more successful group mentioning these changes more frequently. Areas of marked difference were in the area of management, principal, fund-raising, a sense of achievement or results, skills development and improved conflict management. In all cases the less successful group did not mention these areas of change expect for management, where it was mentioned once and related to a better flow of information.

Table 31: Comparison between the More Successful Group on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale and the Less Successful Group on School Level Change

CATEGORY	Cumulative Scores			Number Of Schools		
	More Successful	Less Successful	Total	More Successful	Less Successful	Total
Collaboration	49	20	**69**	4	4	**8**
Infrastructure and Resources	12	8	**20**	4	4	**8**
Decision making	14	4	**18**	4	3	**7**
Organisational	37	15	**52**	4	3	**7**
Planning	35	6	**41**	3	3	**6**
Relationships	27	16	**43**	4	2	**6**
Atmosphere	10	3	**13**	3	2	**5**
Finances	11	4	**15**	3	2	**5**
School Management Team	25	1	**26**	3	1	**4**
Pride in Achieve and the School	12	1	**13**	3	1	**4**
Principal	24	0	**24**	3	0	**3**
Improved conflict management	3	0	**3**	3	0	**3**
Fund-raising	8	0	**8**	3	0	**3**

What is interesting is that all of these relate to either a change in issues of power or achievement and have been related to or linked with empowerment or what the school development literature refers to as second-order change (Fullan, 1991), which refers to deeper more fundamental changes.

6.8.2.3. Community Level

Table 32 indicated, that as with the individual level, the groups offered similar types of changes no matter what their level of success, however the more successful schools did emphasise changes in parent involvement and the role of the School Governing Body.

Table 32: Comparison of the More Successful Group on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale and the Less Successful Group on Community Level Change

CATEGORY	Cumulative Scores			Number Of Schools		
	More Successful	Less Successful	Total	More Successful	Less Successful	Total
Parent involvement	18	6	**24**	4	3	**7**
School Gov Body Involvement	14	5	**19**	3	2	**5**
Community Involvement	1	1	**2**	1	1	**2**
Collaborating with other schools	2	1	**3**	1	1	**2**

However the main differences between the groups were at an organisational level of change. This corresponds to the differences noted in the quantitative data analysis that there were no differences between the more and less successful groups on the measures of individual empowerment but there were on several of the organisational level measures.

6.8.3. SUMMARY

What these results indicated is that although all schools evidenced changes, schools that were more successfully implementing the school development plan evidenced some additional changes that were different from those schools that were less successful. Most of these differences were at the organisational level, variables that were present within the school. It may be that schools need to have certain organisational level variables in place to effectively implement the school development planning. This would be supported by Peterson and Zimmerman's (2004) nomological framework of organisational empowerment, which they see as being made up of various intraorganisational processes that lead to empowered outcomes.

Both groups of schools, whether they were more or less successful have evidenced changes within the school that they felt were due to the implementation of the school development plan. In order to make a reliable comment on what effect school development planning has had on empowerment in terms of the individuals, schools and communities they serve, the data sets from the various analyses were integrated.

6.9. IMPACT MATRICES

To integrate the findings from the quantitative and qualitative analyses four impact matrices were constructed relating to the impact and implementation of the school development plan (see Matrix 2), the impact of the programme at the individual level (see Matrix 3 on page 185), at the organisational level (see Matrix 4 on pages 186-7) and at the community level (see Matrix 5 on page 188).

The aim of the programme under investigation was that each school would draw up a school development plan. The development of a school development plan was seen as an empowering process for schools and through this process schools could become empowered. In order to do this the programme staff assumed that schools would need to have drawn up a school development plan, be implementing it and achieving the goals set for themselves. It was also assumed that in order to achieve this, the school development team would play a central role in facilitating the implementation of the school development plan.

It was a programme objective that the school development team be a formally structured committee within the school, where roles in the team were clearly defined, where the team met on a regular basis to assess the implementation of the plan, that they gave regular feedback to the staff, that they had links with the principal, School Management Team and the School Governing Body and that they assisted the school in revising the plan and drawing up a new set of actions plans for the plan on a yearly basis.

Matrix 1 indicates that all eighteen schools that were involved with the programme found it useful to some extent in that they rated the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale as having brought about at least some change. The audit analysis provides evidence that eight schools, which had been in the programme for more than 3 years, had achieved 65% of the objectives they had set for themselves. The interviews indicate that 23 of the 24 schools were using the plans to some extent.

However the way in which the plan was being utilised and the school development teams were functioning showed many differences from the programmes assumptions about how this would be effected. Firstly, for all of the schools staff the approach to the school development plan process and the functioning of the school development team was much less formal than originally assumed by the programme. Review happened on an ad hoc basis, there was little or no evaluation of progress and very few new plans that were drawn up consisted of action plans. Secondly, the schools staff were using the plans over a much longer period than they had originally drawn the plan up for. Thus the plans were used, with very little review, until all of the objectives were met. If new plans were included they were often developed separately from the original plan. What seemed more important for many of the school staff was not the actual plan but the skills of planning, as all school staff managed effect some level of change. Bennett et al. (2000) argue that the commonly used technicist-rational approach to development planning is not appropriate for primary schools

There was a definite focus on resources and infrastructure for the schools in terms of priorities and objectives achieved. This is understandable given the context in which they find themselves i.e. schools are poorly resources, infrastructure is poor and often in bad condition. This focus on issues other than teaching and learning however is not unique to South African schools. Research from western countries that suggest that often the focus in the school development plan is not on teaching and learning but on organisational issues (Bennett et al., 2000; Broadhead, et al., 1998; MacBeath, 1994; West, 2000).

In summary Matrix 2 indicated that schools were using the school development plan to effect change and achieve the objectives they had set as a school, particularly those relating to resources and infrastructure. However, the way in which the plans were used and the school development teams functioned were more informal and ad hoc than anticipated by the programme or as described by the literature. Although the school development team was

seen as important in the development planning process the role of the principal was emphasised.

Matrices 3 and 4 indicated that with regards to the quantitative data analysis there is no evidence of a difference between the schools. The only evidence was that of union membership which seemed to be interacting with the group variable and thus masking differences between the groups on School Development Planning Evaluation Scale and Participation and Decision Centralisation Scale (Involvement in decision-making).

However Matrices 3, 4 and 5 indicated that there was evidence of changes at the individual, organisational and community levels. At the individual level (see Matrix 3) themes related to teaching and learning, teachers' attitudes towards the school and self-confidence were reported as having changed for individuals in both groups. Attitudes towards others, skills development, a willingness to engage in collaborative activities and planning skills were emphasised by Group 1 schools. At this level teacher attitudes (whether towards the school or colleagues) and teaching practice were reported to have changed the most. Despite differences in emphasis there were not any striking differences between the groups at the individual level. The same is true when the analysis focused on schools that were more successful on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale with those who were less successful.

At the individual level of analysis several writers have defined empowerment as a process by which individuals gain mastery and control over their lives and a critical understanding of their environment (Rappaport, 1984, 1987; Swift & Levin, 1987; Zimmerman 1990a). It includes participatory behaviour, motivation to exert control and feelings of efficacy and control. At this level empowerment bears on both the material and the psychological, on acquiring access to resources as well as increasing control and value. The exemplars of empowerment described by Zimmerman (2000) include control, general and context specific efficacy. For the programme empowerment at the individual was operationalised as an increase in feelings of self-efficacy and

locus of control. It was felt that this was most likely to occur in situations where people feel there was increased access to resources. Matrix 3 indicates that there were changes at the individual level for teachers. Teachers reported feeling more confident and had made changes in their teaching. They also reported being more willing to engage in collaborative activities. As Matrix 4 indicates there was also much more access to resources through the use of the school development plan. It can therefore be concluded that in terms of the theoretical definitions and the programmes indicators there is evidence of empowerment at the individual level of analysis. What teachers stressed was the change in their attitudes both towards the school and their colleagues.

The Organisational Impact Matrix (see Matrix 4) indicated that this was the level where most change had occurred. This would make sense, as school development planning is an organisational level intervention. As with the individual level there were similarities between both groups on the types of change they have experienced: collaboration, planning, decision-making, relationships, fund-raising, organisational issues, management and the atmosphere. There were some differences; Group 1 emphasised several of these changes more and reported changes in finance and pride in their school and achievements.

At the organisational level of analysis empowerment was seen as a process aimed at changing the power structures as they are expressed within an organisation, such as a school, in order to establish new structures, values and forms of interaction. Organisational empowerment includes shared leadership, opportunities to develop skills, expansion and effective community influence (Maton & Rappaport, 1984; Maton & Salem, 1995). The exemplars of empowerment described by Zimmerman (2000) include participation in decision making, collaborative working, democratic leadership, supportive relationships.

Matrix 2: School Development Planning Process Implementation

	Quantitative Data Descriptives		MANOVA	3rd Variables MANOVA	Focus Groups		Audit and SDP Analysis	Interviews			SDPES Success		
											Quantitative Data Comparison	Focus Groups	
	Group 1	Group 2	Comparison Grp 1 and 2	Comparison Grp 1 and 2	Group 1	Group 2	8 Audits and SDPs	Phase 1 9 school	Phase 2 6 school	Phase 3 8 school		Success	Less Suc
SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING	● 6 Some change 4 Much change	● 3 Some change 5 Much change	●	● If Union Memb taken into account	●	●	● 65% objectives achieved	●4 (new), Outline, Ad hoc ●5 (2 added; 3 original) Outline, Ad hoc	●1 (new), Outline, Review ●5 (3 added; 3 original) Outline, Ad hoc	●4 (new), Outline, Ad hoc ●6 (2 added; 4 original) Outline, Ad hoc	●❋ More Success	●	●
School development team functioning and involvement in SDP							● 6 seen as helping Functioned in an ad hoc manner	●3, ●3, ●3	●1, ●2, ●2, ●1	●2, ●2, ●2, ●1			
Leader involvement in SDP								G – 3, A – 2, I – 2, U – 1, Int - 1	G – 1, A – 1, I - 1 U – 2, Int -1	G – 2, A – 0, I - 2 U – 1, Int -1			
MATERIAL CHANGES													
Infrastructure					●	●	●8					●↑	●
Resources					●	●	●6 ●2					●↑	●

● Strong Evidence of Change

● Some Evidence of Change

● No evidence of Change

● There had been evidence - erratic

↑ Higher Cumulative scores

❋ Significant statistical difference

Symbol	Category
G -	Guiding
A -	Active
I -	Involved
U -	Uninvolved
In -	Interfering

Matrix 3: Difference in Changes at an Individual Level Reported After Implementation of School Development Plan

	Quantitative Data Descriptives		MANOVA	3rd Variables MANOVA	Focus Groups		Programme Evaluations and School Dev Plan Analysis	SDPES Success Quantitative		SDPES Success Focus Groups	
	Group 1	Group 2	Comparison Grp 1 and 2	Comparison Grp 1 and 2	Group 1	Group 2		Success	Less Success	Success	Less Success
Locus of Control	●●	●●	●	●				●	●		
General Self Efficacy	●●	●●	●	●				●	●		
Teacher Efficacy	●●	●●	●	●				●	●		
Self Confidence					●	●				●	●
Teaching and learning					●	●	●7 ●1			●↑	●
Attitudes towards school					●	●				●	●
Attitudes towards other					●	●				●	●
Skills Development					●↑	●				●	●
Planning					●↑	●				●	●
Willing to engage in collaborative activity					●	●				●	●

● Strong Evidence

● Some Evidence of Change

● No evidence of Change

● There had been evidence - erratic

↑ Higher Cumulative scores

●●● Evidence of the variable but uncertain of evidence of change due to programme

Matrix 4: Difference in Changes Reported at an Organisational Level After Implementation of School Development Plan

	Quantitative Data Descriptives		MANOVA	3rd Variables MANOVA	Focus Groups		Programme Evaluations and School Dev Plan Analysis	SDPES Success Quantitative Measures	SDPES Success Focus Group	
	Group 1	Group 2	Comparison Grp 1 and 2	Comparison Grp 1 and 2	Group 1	Group 2			More success	Less Success
Leadership										
Profile of Organisational Characteristics	● 7 Ben Author 3 Consultative	● 7 Ben Author 1 Consultative	●	●				● ✱ More success	● ↑	●
Supervisory Leadership	●	●	●	●				● ✱ More success		
Principal – general					● ↑	●	●3, ●3, ●2		●	●
Participation										
Decision Making Involvement	●	●	●	● If Union Memb taken into account			●5, ●2, ●1			
Decision Making Influence	●	●	●	●						
Decision Making General					● ↑	● Peer	●4, ●3, ●1		● ↑	●
Collaboration	●	●	●	●	●	● Peer	●6 ●2	● ✱ More success		
Other Organisational Level Variables										
Peer Leadership	●	●	●	●				● ✱ More success		
Peer Working Relationships					● ↑	●	●4, ●3, ●1		● ↑	●
Relationships					● ↑	●			●	●
School Management Team					●	●	●3, ●4, ●1		●	●

● Strong Evidence

● Some Evidence of Change

● No evidence of Change

● There had been evidence - erratic

↑ Higher Cumulative scores

●●● Evidence of the variable but uncertain of evidence of change due to programme

Cont: Difference in Changes Reported at an Organisational Level After Implementation of School Development Plan

	Quantitative Data Descriptives		MANOVA	3rd Variables MANOVA	Focus Groups		Programme Evaluations and School Dev Plan Analysis	SDPES Success Quantitative Measures	SDPES Success Focus Group	
	Group 1	Group 2	Comparison Grp 1 and 2	Comparison Grp 1 and 2	Group 1	Group 2			More success	Less Success
Finances					●	●	●4, ●3, ●1		●	●
Fund-raising					●	●	●7, ●1		●	●
Planning					●↑	●	●6, ●1, ●1		●↑	●
Atmosphere					●↑	●			●	●
Pride in the school					●	●			●	●
Conflict Management					●	●			●	●
Follow up and evaluation							●1, ●6, ●1			
Policies							●3, ●4, ●1			
Committees							●7, ●1			
Conflict & Grievance Procedures							●8			
General Administration							●7, ●1			
Communication							●3, ●4, ●1			

● Strong Evidence

● Some Evidence of Change

● No evidence of Change

● There had been evidence - erratic

↑ Higher Cumulative scores

●●● Evidence of the variable but uncertain of evidence of change due to programme

Matrix 5: Difference in Changes Reported at the Community Level After Implementation of the School Development Plan

	Quantitative Data Descriptives		MANOVA	3rd Variables MANOVA	Focus Groups		Audit and SDP Analysis	SDPES Success Focus Groups	
	Group 1	Group 2	Comparison Grp 1 and 2	Comparison Grp 1 and 2	Group 1	Group 2	8 Audits and SDPs	More Success	Less Success
Parent Involvement					● ↑	●	● 7 ● 1	● ↑	●
School Governing Body					● ↑	●	● 3 ● 1 ● 4	●	●
Collaboration with other schools					●	●	● 7 ● 1	●	●
Community Involvement					●	●	● 3 ● 4 ● 1	●	●

● Strong Evidence

● Some Evidence of Change

● No evidence of Change

● There had been evidence - erratic

↑ Higher Cumulative scores

The programme defined an empowering organisation as one in which there is a participative work culture, collaborative work structures and shared decision making. This is likely to manifest in a school context as increased responsibility for school development among the whole staff. It defined an empowered organisation as a school that is in control of its own development and is able to acquire the resources it requires and is having an impact on the broader educational community. In a school development planning context, this is likely to be found in situations where the school has actively implemented the school development plan and has achieved the goals set for itself (or is in a process of achieving).

It was evident from the focus groups, interviews and the various archival analyses that in terms of the theoretical definitions and the programmes indicators there is evidence of empowerment at the organisational level of analysis. In terms of empowering processes there is evidence of collaboration, supportive relationships, shared decision-making and improvements in the relationships between teachers and the principal and management. There is also evidence that the schools were implementing the school development plans and that most school development teams were functional. These empowering processes appeared to be linked to the empowered outcomes that the schools were experiencing, however this was only based on the self-report of teachers and thus would require further exploration. From the analysis of the schools' planning documents it was evident that schools were achieving the goals they were setting for themselves and were able to acquire much needed resources and make infrastructure changes within their schools.

The Community Level Impact Matrix (see Matrix 5) indicated that again there was evidence of change in both groups in terms of parent and School Governing Body involvement in the schools. However it was only Group 1 schools that had engaged the wider community in the school and have been involved in collaborative activities with other schools. It may be that effective engagement with community level variables takes time and the schools may need to deal with issues internal to the school first. The fact that only Group 1

schools mentioned collaboration with other schools and the community lends support to the idea that these areas take time to develop. However this would need further exploration.

Theoretically community level empowerment was seen as being focused on collective action to improve the quality of life within the community through the active engagement of stakeholders. An empowered community is one that initiates efforts to improve the community, responds to threats and provides opportunities for citizens to participate (Zimmerman, 2000). The exemplars of empowerment described by Zimmerman (2000) include collective action, stakeholder involvement, improvements in the community. The programme saw the indicators of community empowerment in a school development context parents and members of the School Governing Body actively involved in school activities and in this way enabling the school to move towards its goals.

Both groups of schools reported that parent engagement and the School Governing Bodies had improved. Group 1 schools also evidenced changes in their engagement with the broader community and were involved in collaborative activities with other schools in the area. In terms of the theoretical definitions and the programmes indicators there is evidence of empowerment at the community level of analysis.

In summary the matrices indicated that there was evidence of change at the individual, school and community level and that empowerment had occurred at these levels of analysis. They also indicated that this impact had occurred in both groups and thus length of involvement in the programme did not seem to be a significant influence on empowerment in the context of school development; and that there were other variables that were more important (which will be discussed in more detail below).

The addition of the regrouped data, comparing those schools that were more successful on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale with the less successful, offered some interesting results with regard to potential

variables that were impacting on the school development process. The more successful group showed significant statistical differences from the less successful group with regards to variables relating to the principal in terms of leadership style and supervisory leadership, collaboration and peer leadership. These differences were also reflected in the qualitative analysis with School Development Planning Evaluation Scale success reporting more changes in the principal, management, finances, pride in the school and conflict management. These successful schools emphasised the changes in the principal not only in terms of how he or she managed the school but also in terms of their personal relationship with him or her. "The small things" relating to the staff's perception of the principals' valuing, respect and trust in them, often shown through small interpersonal interaction and attitudes, was stressed.

What also emerged as important in the qualitative analysis was the active engagement of the principal in the process of school development planning both in terms of collaboration and decision-making (in terms of being involved in decision making as well as being able to influence decisions). In the less successful schools peer collaboration and decision-making were being used rather than including the principal in the process.

The differences between School Development Planning Evaluation Scale success schools seemed to be related to change within the power structures in the school. This difference between these groups seems to reflect what Fullan (1991) and Clarke (1999) referred to as the distinction between first-order (or surface) change and second-order change. In the less successful schools change was evidenced; however it focused on the acquisition of resources and less on structural and cultural change. Although access to resources is seen as central to the empowerment process and the importance of small gains at the material level in aiding the empowerment process has been stressed by several writers (Kroeker, 1995; Perkins, 1995) it has been argued that for true empowerment to occur this needs to move on to a different level from the physical to issues of structure and process and to issues of power (Kroeker, 1995).

What seemed to have happened in successful schools is that second-order change or change that can support the school development planning implementation had occurred. These schools were then able to move beyond a focus on resources and make other changes in the way the school operates. In doing this it seems they were able to bring about more change. What seems to have occurred is what Gardner & Pierce (1998) refer to as a spiral of success for these schools and with it a pride in their achievements and in their school, which in turn initiated more activity. This also links to the fact that it was these same schools that felt their own personal skills had developed. Several writers (Hopkins, 2000; Hopkins, *et al*., 1997; Stoll, 1999) have argued that some schools may not have the internal capacity to effect these changes.

The data indicates that school development planning as a process can be empowering for schools if they have the internal capacity to make use of the process, i.e. certain variables need to be in place for school development planning to be truly empowering. The schools had responded differently to the programme based on internal capacity as opposed to length of time on the programme. Thus although the school development planning approach to school empowerment taken by the programme has brought about change in the schools at all levels, particularly in terms of the acquisition of resources, it may not be the most effective method of school empowerment for all schools.

The qualitative data and the externally verified data offered evidence that school development planning has empowered schools at various levels of analysis. In integrating these data a number of clear indications about what the programme had done and its meaning in teachers' lives emerged. School development planning was an empowering process for the schools and had led to a variety of empowered and empowering outcomes. The quantitative data was less easy to interpret. The complex and multidimensional nature of empowerment may make it particularly difficult to measure quantitatively. While the quantitative evidence had been difficult to interpret, triangulation with qualitative methods has been successful in providing evidence that empowerment is multidimensional and occurs in school development work. It

was however difficult to measure as it has so many aspects and dimensions. There was also evidence of the power of qualitative methods for exploring complex, multilevel, dynamic, contextual constructs as empowerment. The use of qualitative methods in conjunction with quantitative methods in multi-method research clearly has an important role.

6.10. CONCLUSIONS FOR RESEARCH QUESTIONS 1 AND 2

The quantitative measures of the different variables show quite clearly that there were no statistical differences between the two groups on the variables associated with empowerment. From the impact matrices, it can be seen that all of the schools found the experience of being involved in the programme and the school development plan useful in terms of bringing about some change at an individual, organisational and community level. There is also externally verified evidence from various data sets (the analysis of school development objective achieved, verifying interview data and archival data) that the schools were using the school development plans to bring about changes at their schools and that this change was occurring at the individual, organisational and community levels. There may be several reasons for the lack of significant differences between the two groups on the different measures in the quantitative section.

The first possible reason may be that both groups have been engaged with the programme for at least one year and that the programme has had a positive impact over this year. As described in Chapter 3, during the first year of the programme the schools engaged in many activities including: training for management, for the school development team, the school draws up a school development plan, financial management training, fund-raising training and training for administrators. There is also ongoing support at the school. Thus with this amount of input, the schools may go through a “honey moon” phase of rapid change within their schools, and as is often observed there is a lot of enthusiasm in the first year. Both groups’ mean scores, for all of the scales were positive (see Tables 1 – 10, Appendix 13).

The second possibility does not exclude the first but may also be a reason on its own. After the first year of intensive intervention and initial enthusiasm around change the schools now move into a stronger implementation phase. During this time schools become faced with many of the realities of change and often meet with many barriers and difficulties. Change literature also indicates that after a time of rapid change within an organisation there is often a period of moving back or a downward trend in the change process. As both school development (Hopkins, 1995; Schofield, 1995) and organisational development (refs) literature have shown there is often a dip in the implementation of change programmes after a period of initial rapid change.

A third possibility for the lack of difference may be that part of the process of school development and of empowering people is raising an awareness of, not only of how thing could be or what the possibilities are, but also on critical reflection of one's present situation (Deacon, 1990). This is the interactional component of psychological empowerment (Speer, 2000; Speer & Hughey, 1995; Zimmerman, 2000; 1995). This often leads to people becoming more critical of their situation even if it has improved. Thus teachers in Group 1 may be applying harsher standards or criteria when responding to the measurement questionnaires than when teachers from Group 2 do.

It has also been argued earlier that social and historical characteristics shape individual desire for, and experience of, empowerment (Zimmerman, 1995). These desires are also shaped by previous experiences with empowerment. Bartunek and colleagues (Bartunek, Foster-Fishman & Keys; Bartunek, Lacey & Wood, 1992) found that individuals who had no previous empowerment experiences within a specific context assigned different meanings that individuals who had more experience. For example, newcomers to a participatory decision-making process were more likely to define a directive leader as empowering while those more experienced in this process needed real influence over decisions to feel empowered (Bartunek et al., 1992). Thus the same scores on the scales between the groups may be reflecting very different realities for the schools.

The fourth possibility is that the programme has failed in its mission and that the schools have actually not changed. It is difficult to ascertain from the statistical analysis of the quantitative data which of these possibilities is more possible. However the matrices indicate that there have been changes in the schools. When a comparison is made between schools that have been in the programme for over three years and those who have only started the process the qualitative results show that both groups report having experienced changes. This may indicate that both groups had been impacted on by the programme.

Both groups were using the School Development Plan to some extent. Both were reporting similar sorts of changes within the schools at an individual, organisational and community level as well as improvements in infrastructure and acquiring. This indicates that Group 2 had experienced much change during their first year of implementation. Group 1, however did make more reference to all of these changes except for collaboration and planning and did mention more areas of change especially at the community level of analysis.

Any conclusion drawn from the data need to take into account the limitations of the design and sampling of the current study. The ex post facto design used is a descriptive design which provides useful information at an exploratory level. It was for these reasons that the ex post facto design was nested within a multi-method design. Thus in order to reach conclusions about the effectiveness of the school development programme other sources of data were collected. As has been demonstrated above the terms “effect” and “impact” are defined in a number of different ways in the evaluation literature. The focus of the evaluation in the current study is not about a systematic impact evaluation of a school development programme (which would require a measurement-based design based on control or contrast groups). The focus is rather on seeking evidence of empowerment outcomes in a school development setting, through a multi-method analysis. In a multi-method evaluation, the use of indicators of outcomes is in line with the ways

in which multi-method impact evaluations have been previously conducted in a number of arenas internationally and in particular in health and education.

Integrating the various data sources the impact matrices indicated that there was evidence of changes on the individuals, schools and the communities they served. It also indicated that school development planning was related to aspects of organisational empowerment. However the extent of involvement in the programme did not have a significant influence on the level of empowerment. More important was the internal capacity of the school, particularly the influence of school leadership, and contextual factors. The various data sources indicated that school development planning, linked with other empowering processes, does bring about change within schools; however this will vary according to what those other empowering variables may be. Based on this evidence it can be concluded that empowerment, at various levels of analysis was evident within the context of a school development setting.

CHAPTER SEVEN: RESULTS RELATING TO THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE VARIABLES

7.1. INTRODUCTION

In order to establish whether school development planning could usefully be conceptualised as a form of organisational empowerment its relationship with variables associated with empowerment was explored. Qualitative data exploring what participants in the programme felt were factors that helped or hindered the school development planning were collected. These were integrated in a relationship matrix to explore what participants saw as important in bringing about change and successful school development planning implementation. The relationships between the quantitative measures were explored statistically through multiple regression and through the construction and testing of a model of school development using structural equation modelling. The quantitative and qualitative data were integrated in a relationship matrix and diagrams to provide a broader understanding of the relationship between school development planning and the other variables.

Research Questions 3 and 4 were operationalised and assessed in the following way:

RESEARCH QUESTION 3

What factors help or hinder the school development planning process?

This was assessed through the following:

- Focus groups relating to what school felt had helped or hindered the school development planning process and what advice they would give to a school embarking on school development planning process.
- Regrouped focus group data, according to School Development Planning Evaluation Scale scores, relating to similarities and differences between what more and less successful schools felt had helped or hindered the school development planning process.
- Relationship Matrix and Diagrams integrating the above data sets.

RESEARCH QUESTION 4

What is the relationship between the process of school development planning and those variables associated with empowerment at the individual, organisational and community levels?

- Quantitative measures and analysis of the relationship between School Development Planning Evaluation Scale and those variables associated with empowerment at the individual (locus of control and general and context specific efficacy) and organisational (participation and leadership) levels of analysis. The community (stakeholder involvement) level of analysis could not be included, as the Stakeholder subscale of the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale was not seen as a separate factor.
- Relationship Matrix and Diagrams integrating the qualitative analysis from Research Question 3 with the quantitative analysis (the multiple regression and structural equation modelling) in Research Question 4

Thus an attempt will be made to:

1. Explore, from the school's perspective, the factors they see as playing a role in the organisational empowerment of their schools;
2. Explore the relationships between the measure of school development planning and the individual and organisational level variable measured in the study;
3. Integrate this into an understanding of what factors, individual, organisational and community, contribute to the empowerment of schools as organisations.

7.2. FOCUS GROUP RESULTS RELATING TO HELPING AND HINDERING FACTORS AND ADVICE

The focus groups were used to explore what factors schools felt had helped or hindered the implementation of the school development plans. In line with the values of community psychology, and with an understanding of the complex and multidimensional nature of empowerment, it was felt that schools should be given an opportunity to talk about their understanding of the change process in their schools. Criticisms of programme evaluation and much of

school development work focus on a lack of understanding of why programmes succeed or fail in their endeavours (Chen & Rossi, 1983). This data will therefore add to our understanding of the factors that played a role in the success or failure of the school development planning process and empowerment within the context of school development.

Results pertaining to factors at the individual, organisational and community levels will be presented. For each section a table reflecting the cumulative scores of how often that particular theme was mentioned by the schools making up that particular group, as well as how many schools reported that particular theme, will be presented. As in the previous chapter tables, containing the category label, the definition or description of the category and an illustrative quote from the focus groups will be offered for each theme to provide a richer understanding of the results presented.

7.2.1. FACTORS HELPING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLAN

The following results illustrate the factors that the participants felt had assisted them in the implementation of the school development plan.

7.2.1.1. Individual Level Factors

As Table 33 indicates, at the individual level schools only mentioned factors relating to their attitudes as having played a role in the implementation of the school development plan.

Table 33: Comparison of Groups 1 and 2 on Individual Level Factors that Helped to Implement the School Development Plan

CATEGORY	Cumulative Scores			Number Of Schools		
	Group 1	Group 2	Total	Group 1	Group 2	Total
Attitudes towards the school	6	7	**13**	3	3	**6**
Attitudes towards others	7	1	**8**	2	1	**3**

Both groups felt that the change in their attitudes towards the school had helped with the school development planning implementation.

Category - Attitudes towards the school

Definition - *staff feelings and beliefs (and as a consequence behaviours) towards the school that are positive and linked to wanting to better the school.*

Illustrative Example:

- *I remember there was a time when … we came together and said lets just prove these people wrong and when they came well they came from wherever even if they can make an unannounced visit they can find us working very well (2.4.1.)*

However Group 1 schools emphasised that it was not only a change in their attitude towards the school but also towards their colleagues that had played a role in their successful implementation of the school development plan.

Category - Attitudes towards others

Definition - *staff feelings and beliefs (and as a consequence behaviours) towards their colleagues that are positive and contribute to positive relationships and work atmosphere*

Illustrative Example:

- *It is because of this em development what ever you call it [1.3.2: Development plan] although I didn't attend the training but from the reports I used to get from those who went there I think that has really improved my attitude and made me a better person to be able to work with others we have a better understanding to some of the things (1.3.6.)*

7.2.1.2. Organisational Level Factors

In contrast to the individual level, there were many organisational level variables the schools felt had aided the school development plan implementation. As Table 34 indicates, both of the groups mentioned a wide

Table 34: Comparison of Group 1 and 2 on Organisational Level Factors that Helped to Implement the School Development Plan

CATEGORY	Cumulative Scores			Number Of Schools		
	Group 1	Group 2	Total	Group 1	Group 2	Total
Collaboration	10	11	**21**	3	3	**6**
School Development Team	3	5	**8**	3	2	**5**
Development of Positive Relationships	5	3	**8**	3	2	**5**
Atmosphere of achievement	4	3	**7**	2	2	**4**
The principal and management	9	3	**12**	2	1	**3**
School Development Plan	1	6	**7**	1	2	**3**
Decision making	3	2	**5**	2	1	**3**

variety of themes relating to the factors they felt had helped them implement their school development plans.

There were several factors that both groups felt had helped them in the implementation of their School Development Plans within the school. These included:

Category - Collaboration

Definition - *working together on issues related to school development and maintenance*

Illustrative Example:

- *the school development plan is there to to remind us if we are not prepared to change we won't do it now the answer to your question is the one you got from 1.2.1 that we we accepted ourselves and we agreed to work as a team that's it. (Participant 1.2.8.)*

Category - School Development Team

Definition – *Team set up as part of school development planning programme to co-ordinate, monitor and review the implementation of the SDP*

Illustrative Example:

- *the school development team was also able to make us more focused in that we were able to realise our weaknesses and where the strengths lie and make some educators aware of their capabilities in terms of what they like to do most and what they can do best and so they had been actually eh developing their talents for the benefit of the school (Participant 2.1.4.)*

Category – Development of Positive Relationships

Definition - *interactions with their colleagues, in terms of both the quality of their behaviour towards colleagues and colleagues, behaviour towards them*

Illustrative Example:

- *we are here eating together even sharing ideas and there are a lot of jokes here and we are always laughing (Participant 1.1.5.)*

Category - Atmosphere of Achievement

Definition – *a feeling in the school that relates specifically to having pride in the school and in the school's achievements.*

Illustrative Example:

- *the joy of having achieved … it really helped us and we saw what was needed and we took it upon ourselves that we were going to do this and we are going to have that (Participants 2.1.2.)*

There were however, some clear differences in the groups' perceptions about some of the factors that had helped them implement the plan. Group 1

schools emphasised changes in the principal and decision-making as helping factors.

Category – Changes in the Principal and Management

Definition – Changes in the way the principal and school management team manage the schools and engage with teachers
Illustrative Example: • *The attitude (lots of comments ja the attitude) the attitude of the management the attitude of the principal changes the mood of the school (Participant 1.2.8)*

Category – Decision-making

Definition – *staff's involvement and influence in the decision making processes within the school.*
Illustrative Example: • *Ja, ja the principal of the management team isn't the one to make decisions, everybody has a say in the decision that is taken (Participant 1.1.1.)*

Group 2 however, emphasised the school development plan as being a helping factor. This centred on providing a focus, enabling them to see strengths and weaknesses, identify needs and the need for regular follow up and review.

Category – School Development Plan

Definition – *Plan drawn up by the whole school reflecting action plans for dealing with key areas of need in the school*
Illustrative Example: • *we saw the need … We saw the need for those things without those things other things would not be accomplished like a Photostat machine we need we are now doing OBE and we need the handouts for pupils so without it and the circulars and notices to parents also … the fax because we used to use the fax of the neighbouring school and we said we needed our own (2.2.2.)*

7.2.1.3. Community Level Factors

At the community level there was a clear distinction between Group 1 and Group 2 schools. As Table 35 (see following page) indicates it was Group 1 schools that saw support coming from this level of analysis.

Table 35: Comparison of Group 1 and 2 on Community Level Factors that Helped to Implement the School Development Plan

CATEGORY	Cumulative Scores			Number Of Schools		
	Group 1	Group 2	Total	Group 1	Group 2	Total
Programme's Courses and Support	13	4	**17**	4	2	**6**
School Governing Body Support	11	0	**11**	3	0	**3**
Parent Support	3	0	**3**	3	0	**3**
Community Involvement	3	0	**3**	2	0	**2**

Although both groups mentioned the programme's courses and support as a helping factor it was Group 1 that emphasised this. What was interesting was that at the time it was Group 2 schools that were getting more training and support from the programme.

Category – Programme's courses and support

Definition – *Courses and support offered to schools as outlined in Chapter 3.4.*

Illustrative Example:

- *Your support. Outreach as a whole, you were here to see you didn't just help us to draw the plan but they were here to see that we are able to achieve what we have planned, sort of coming to see how far are we, are you able to do this, do you need help here (Participant 1.1.1.)*

It was only Group 1 schools that felt the School Governing Body, parental support and community involvement supported their school development plan implementation.

Category – School Governing Body Support

Definition – *School Governing Body's interest and support for the school, improved relationship between staff and School Governing Body.*

Illustrative Example:

- *And they (referring to the governing body) really represent the parents. When we have parents' meetings the principal let me say the management do not tell them … at times they chair the meetings and they give parents information and that shows the parents that we are not dictating … And they have been very supportive (Participant 1.1.2)*

Category – Parental Support

Definition – *Parental involvement in the school in terms of school activities, and the educational progress of their children.*
Illustrative Example: • *To show really some of the parents are concerned they even volunteered to paint the classes (Participant 1.3.2.)*

Category – Community Involvement

Definition - *the involvement of the community in school activities.*
Illustrative Example: • *We have not had a burglary for some time … the community is trying to watch over the school (Participant 1.3.1.)*

7.2.1.4. Summary

In terms of the variables seen to have helped the schools implement their school development plans, participants emphasised a wide range of variables at various levels of analysis. Some of these variables overlapped with those measured in the quantitative part of the study. Both groups emphasised the importance of collaboration and relationships and Group 1 mentioned the principal and decision-making.

Additional factors were mentioned, both internal and external to the school. Internal to the school both groups emphasised a change in attitudes towards the school, the role of the school development team and a change in the atmosphere within the school. Group 1 emphasised that a change in attitude towards their colleagues had also been helpful. Group 2 felt that the actual plan had been useful in implementing the school development plan. Group 1 also emphasised several factors external to the school. They felt parent involvement, the School Governing Body, community involvement and the programme's courses and support had all been instrumental in bring about change within the school.

7.2.2. FACTORS HINDERING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLAN

The following illustrate the factors that participants felt had hindered implementation of the school development plan.

7.2.2.1. Individual Level

As Table 36 indicates, at the individual level of analysis, schools again only mentioned issues related to attitude.

Table 36: Comparison of Group 1 And 2 on Individual Level Factors that Hindered Implementation of the School Development Plan

CATEGORY	Cumulative Scores			Number Of Schools		
	Group 1	Group 2	Total	Group 1	Group 2	Total
Negative attitudes towards the school	4	2	**6**	1	2	**3**

Category - Negative attitudes towards the school

Definition - *staff feelings and beliefs (and as a consequence behaviours) towards the school that lead to negative outcomes.*

Illustrative Example:

- *there are those teachers who do not want to involve themselves in whatever activities we have done in this school they are only here for teaching they will even tell you I am not prepared to do such and such I have been working for a long time and that is hurting (2.2.4)*

Attitudes of the staff, focusing on a lack of motivation, commitment and willingness to participate were stressed.

7.2.2.2. Organisational Level

As in the helping factors organisational level factors were emphasised as having hindered the implementation of the school development plan. As Table 37 (see following page) indicates there were several factors that both groups felt had hindered their implementation of the school development plan within the school.

Table 37: Comparison of Group 1 And 2 on Organisational Level Factors that Hindered Implementation of the School Development Plan

CATEGORY	Cumulative Scores			Number Of Schools		
	Group 1	Group 2	Total	Group 1	Group 2	Total
School Development Team Issues	8	10	**18**	3	3	**6**
School Development Planning Issues	9	7	**16**	3	3	**6**
Financial Issues	4	6	**10**	3	3	**6**
Lack of Collaboration	9	12	**21**	2	3	**5**
Difficulties With the Principal	8	13	**21**	2	3	**5**
Management Issues	6	11	**17**	2	3	**5**
Issues Related to Decision-making	6	6	**12**	2	3	**5**
Organisational Issues	8	13	**21**	1	3	**4**
Planning Issues	3	8	**11**	1	3	**4**
Time Constraints	1	3	**4**	1	3	**4**
Negative Atmosphere	4	1	**5**	2	1	**3**
Lack of Funds	1	1	**2**	1	1	**2**

Category – School Development Team Issues

Definition – *Problems Associated with the Functioning of the School Development Team and Their Role in terms of School Development Planning*.

Illustrative Example:

- *To be honest with you Alex we (the school development team) don't give them feedback after we have met to be honest and from my observation the plan is not functioning well (2.3.4)*

Issues with the School Development Team related to four main areas: a split between the School Development Team and the staff; the School Development Team not keeping the staff informed; a lack of clarity by some staff on the composition of the School Development Team; and the management team not supporting the School Development Team. These issues confirmed those mentioned in the interviews with the School Development Teams (see Chapter 6.6.2).

Category – School Development Planning Issues

Definition – *Problems Associated with the Implementation, Monitoring and Reviewing of the SDP*
Illustrative Example: • *we draw a plan, the problem is we lack … follow ups, we do have the plan and the time also do run short we don't do our things at the exact time. Maybe it is because we just draw the plan and nothing more, no follow ups so to say, so it is time and we don't have any follow ups … Meaning that we draw the plan and no one is saying now you are to do this and what are we from here where are we going also … Within that period of time (2.2.1)*

The school development plan issues related to unrealistic time frames set for actions, not focusing on the planned priorities, a lack of follow up and review and a lack of clarity by some staff on the purpose of the school development plan.

Category – Financial Issues

Definition – *Issues related to financial management at the school that impact on implementation of the School Development Plan*
Illustrative Example: • *According to our plan we did that Saturday, eh the budget was to come before the year plan itself, so budget has to do with money and anything that is related to money has not been done, so issues around money at the school, so really not having procedures at the school for administering finances hinders the implementation of the plan (Participant 2.4.3)*

Financial issues related to two main areas: the use of funds that were raised (an important issue for some schools was that funds that were raised were then used for something else, usually at the discretion of the principal) and the transparency and administration about finances.

Category – Lack of Collaboration

Definition – *Staff are not working together collaboratively on the implementation of the School Development Plan*
Illustrative Example: • *they are still sectoral … Meaning we are still sticking to groups other than working as a team, other than to work as a team that is team work doesn't prevail (Participant 1.4.4)* • *I think the school development is not successful because … there is a lack of teamwork and commitment (Participant 1.4.8)*

This theme not only focused on a lack of teamwork between staff but also focused on the fact that the principal was not part of the collaborative activity.

Peer collaboration and decision-making emerged as a theme as a way of dealing with a poor relationship with the principal. This supports the active or guiding role of the principal in school development plan implementation as evidenced in the interviews (see Chapter 6.6.3).

Category – Difficulties with the Principal

Definition – *Issues related to the working relationship between staff and principal*

Illustrative Example:

- *Maybe he doesn't consider himself part of us teachers he is [???: Above] a separate entity we have to discuss the things and bring it to him and rules on his own and then it comes back to us I think that is how he wants it to work and that is where he cannot get our appreciation's of whatever we are trying to do here at school he cannot get the atmosphere and the passion of whatever we are trying to do here because he is not here with us so it is a different issue when it gets to him the office (Participant 2.2.5)*

Difficulties with the principal related to the principal's behaviour and the relationship he or she had with his or her staff. The main issues reported by the staff included: principal's behaviour interfering with the running of the school e.g. not being at school during office hours; autocratic behaviour and what has been referred to in the previous chapter as "the small things" relating to the quality of the interpersonal relationship between teachers and principal.

Category – Management Issues

Definition – *Issues related broadly to the functioning of the School Management Team and specifically to their role in School Development Planning*

Illustrative Example:

- *at the end of the day even the management itself the office itself doesn't come up with a particular mechanism to alleviate such problems or to drive maybe whatever positive plan that they want to (Participant 1.4.4)*

Management team issues included the functioning of the management team; conflict between staff and management; management not giving the staff information; school management team's lack of involvement in the school development plan; and time constraints due to a heavy work load.

Category - Issues Related to Decision-making

Definition – *Issues related to staff involvement and influence in the decision-making processes within the school.*
Illustrative Example: *He (the principal) will always disagree with whatever we agree as a staff because the thing is he does not attend our meetings so we discuss things here then somebody must go and report then give the feedback it goes [???: It is a dialogue] (Participant 2.2.1)*

Decision-making consisted of two issues: a lack of involvement in decision-making and whether the involvement actually had any influence. At some schools the way of dealing with this was to make decisions as peers; however this was often not successful as the principal still had the final say.

Category - Atmosphere

Definition - *overriding feeling within the school is negative and works against the implementation of the School Development Plan*
Illustrative Example: • *teachers in this school mostly run away from their responsibilities and there is a lot of look that has been focusing to the management people run away from their responsibilities and focus on management one two three every talk around this school is on top of the management but they are not doing anything in their classrooms … I can give an example of an assembly in the morning it is higher primary assembly every day I am always with 1.4.5. yet we are not the only 2 teaching the higher primary pupils yet the lot of saying about the management is always going to be there so where is the responsibility of the teachers (Participant 1.4.1)*

Schools spoke about certain atmospheres that worked against implementation e.g. an atmosphere of fault finding and putting down, a culture of blame and not taking responsibility and a culture of groupings as opposed to collaboration. In the latter category, a culture of groupings, three main forms of grouping were identified based on gender, educational qualification and age or teaching experience. Thus older teachers, teachers with more experience or males kept themselves separate from the rest of the staff.

Only two schools (one from Group 1 and one from Group 2) felt that a lack of funds had interfered with the implementation of their plans. Both of these schools had been very successful in terms of fund-raising and getting their plans implemented. It is possible that they could see the potential they could achieve if they had the money.

There were certain hindering factors that were emphasised more by Group 2. Four schools (three from Group 2 and one from Group 1) mentioned issues relating to:

Category – Organisational Issues

Definition – *Issues related to broader organisational problems not specifically categorised*

Illustrative Example:

- *No what I can say is we formed committees … the committees do not function sad to say but we have those committees that is again the lack of follow ups because it is like so and so can do this [let it be her work] so everything is shifted to that person (Participant 2.2.1)*
- *We meet irregularly (Participant 2.3.3)*
- *Here we are not well organised (Participant 2.2.4.)*

Category – Planning Issues

Definition – *Issues related to general planning within the school*

Illustrative Example:

- *Apparently you don't indicate early enough … But you don't plan that you want this to be done within three months time or two months time you only indicate (Participant 2.2.2)*

Category – Time Constraints

Definition – *Issue related to not having enough time to implement the plan*

Illustrative Example:

- *It (having full teaching load and being and HOD) plays a role I mean you find that sometimes there are courses when do you get these teachers to give them feedback you wait a little bit you say maybe next week you will have some time there is something next week there is something else that next week you end up having I mean completing the whole quarter without giving feedback (Participant 2.3.5)*

Group 2 schools reported more hindering factors at the organisational level. This may link to why they felt less had changed in their schools.

7.2.2.3. Community Level

As Table 38 (see following page) indicates both groups mentioned several community level factors hindering their school development plan implementation.

Table 38: Comparison of Group 1 and 2 on Community Level Factors that Hindered Implementation of the School Development Plan

CATEGORY	Cumulative Scores			Number Of Schools		
	Group 1	Group 2	Total	Group 1	Group 2	Total
Parent Involvement	8	7	**15**	4	4	**8**
Department of Education	14	9	**23**	3	3	**6**
School Governing Body Involvement	1	2	**3**	1	2	**3**

Category – Parent Involvement

Definition – *Issues related to parental involvement in the school in terms of school activities, and the educational progress of their children.*

Illustrative Example:

- *I still I also feel whilst still on parent involvement, if these parents could involve themselves … some of them feel that is the duty of the teachers, they do not feel they are part of the education system … we have tried several times in meetings to make them aware (that they are stakeholders in their children's education) and when they are called to meetings some of them, most of them, do not come to meetings you find this, I mean, you call a meeting, you see the same faces yes and only a handful (Participant 2.3.?)*

Although all of the groups mentioned that parent involvement had improved it was only some Group 1 schools that felt that parent involvement had helped with the implementation. Most of the schools felt that parent involvement, although having improved still needed much improvement.

Category – Department of Education

Definition – *Issue related to the Department of Education's demands and relationship with the school*

Illustrative Example:

- *Sometimes even the demands of the GDE(education department) … you know what they do, sometimes they just write a letter such and such a day they want such and such a thing and we had our plans for that day, a meeting for that day, and automatically its off because we have to fulfil what they want (Participant 1.2.4)*

Issues with the Department of Education included: unrealistic demands being placed on the schools, a top-down approach, poor planning, a lack of openness, a lack of appreciation for what was being done, and the poor way in which issues being faced at the school were dealt with by the department.

Category – School Governing Body

Definition – Issues related to the *School Governing Body's interest and support for the school, and relationship with staff.*
Illustrative Example: • *They (referring to the school governing body) never frequented the school … Never made any follow ups but when we met with them we would take them out and show them the pitch I think we used to give them a report in the meetings (2.2.2)*

Three schools mentioned issues with the School Governing Body. One school had had no School Governing Body and this was an ongoing issue especially due to the misadministration of funds. Although Group 1 schools reported that parent and School Governing Body involvement had improved, and that these factors aided their school development plan implementation, they still saw them as needing to be developed.

7.2.2.4. Summary

In terms of the hindering factors a wider variety of themes were mentioned, particularly by Group 2 schools. These factors covered individual (attitudes), organisational (leadership and participation) and broader contextual issues of parent and community involvement as well as the role of the Department of Education. The distinction between being involved in decision-making and having real influence was again made, with lack of involvement and influence seen as hindering. Peer collaboration and decision-making emerged as a way of dealing with a poor relationship with the principal. As has already been stated schools that were successful in the implementation of their plans, whether they were in Group 1 or 2 were showing similar trends in the outcomes they were reporting and in the factors they felt were supporting them. This will be elaborated on below.

7.2.3. ADVICE TO OTHER SCHOOLS

The advice the schools would give to other schools that wanted to embark on school development planning gave more insights into what were seen as important factors in the successful implementation of this process. As Table 39 indicates there were some similarities between the two groups as well as some clear differences.

Table 39: Comparison of Groups 1 and 2 on the Advice They Would Offer to Other Schools That Wanted to Implement a School Development Plan

CATEGORY	Cumulative Scores			Number Of Schools		
	Group 1	Group 2	Total	Group 1	Group 2	Total
INDIVIDUAL						
Positive Attitudes Towards the School	12	4	**16**	4	3	**7**
ORGANISATIONAL						
Planning	9	9	**18**	3	3	**6**
Positive Engagement of Management	6	4	**10**	3	3	**6**
Collaboration	13	4	**17**	4	1	**5**
Vision/Direction	5	1	**6**	4	1	**5**
Positive Staff Relationships	6	7	**13**	2	2	**4**
Positive Atmosphere	2	3	**5**	2	2	**4**
School Development Team	0	7	**7**	0	2	**2**
COMMUNITY						
Make use of other organisations	2	5	**7**	2	1	**3**
Stakeholder involvement	2	0	**2**	2	0	**2**

Both groups felt that positive attitudes towards the school, planning, positive staff relationships and atmosphere, the role of management and making use of outside organisations were crucial to the successful implementation of your school development plan. Group 1 however emphasised attitudes. They also felt more strongly that the need for a vision and direction, collaboration and stakeholder involvement were crucial to successful implementation. Group 2 emphasised the importance of the School Development Team.

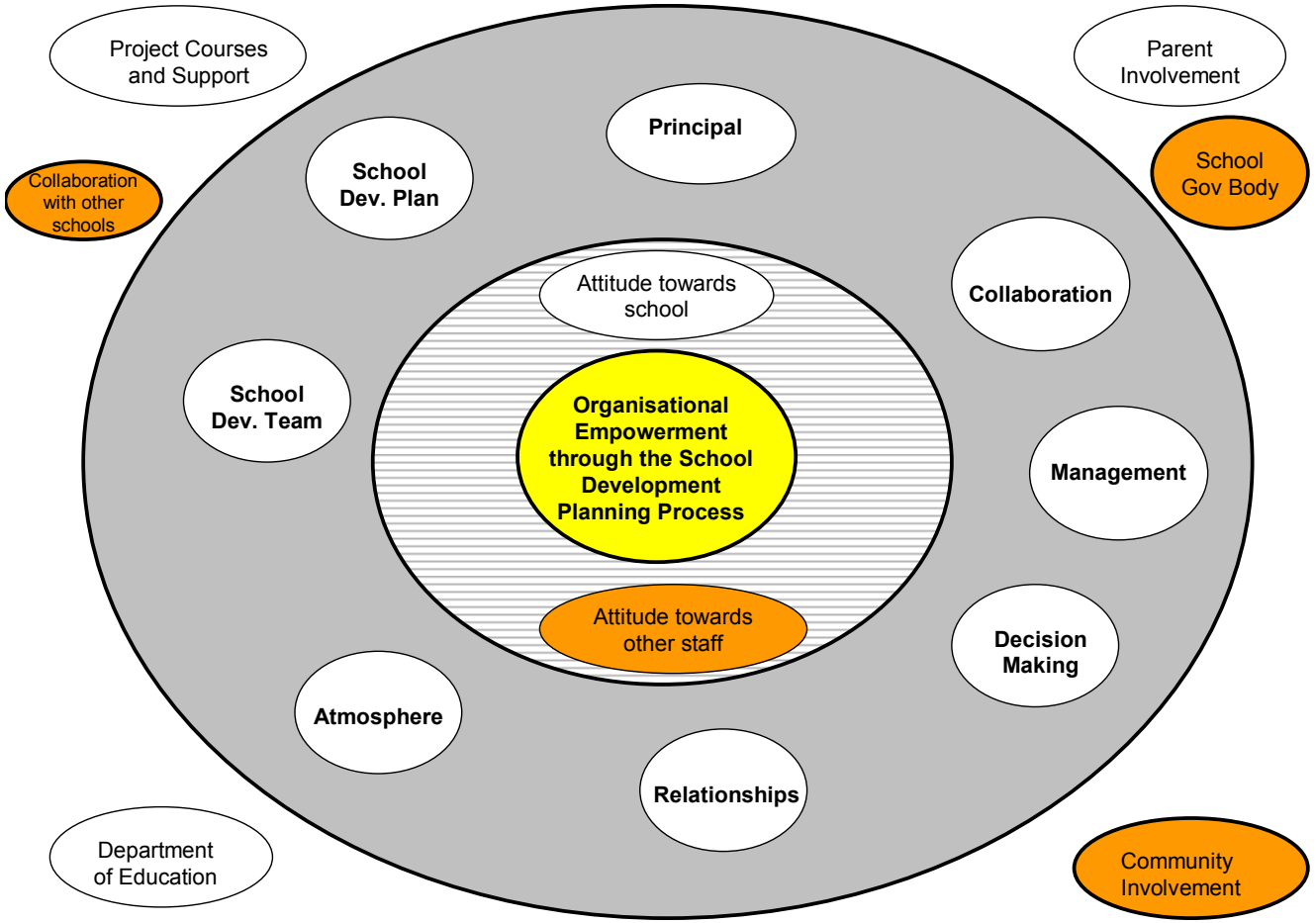
Here again we see some clear links with the other data. Collaboration and relationships feature as they did in both the quantitative and helping factors. Atmosphere, attitudes, stakeholder involvement, the School Development Team and planning, management and the use of outside organisations for assistance were also mentioned in the helping and hindering factors. The only additional feature was Group 1's emphasis on the importance of having a vision and a sense of direction.

7.3. INTEGRATING THE HELPING AND HINDERING FACTORS – RELATIONSHIP DIAGRAM 1

In integrating the data into the relationship diagram trends in terms of what variables were reported to have impacted on the implementation of the school development plan were evident. Group 1 had not only experienced more changes within their schools but they also reported more factors that assisted them and less hindering factors. The qualitative results also emphasised the importance of community level, as well as organisational level, variables for the successful implementation of the school development plan.

A Relationship Diagram mapping these variables to the level of analysis was drawn as described in the Methodology (Chapter 4.11). Schools saw a wide range of variables as being associated with the school development plan process and that these occurred at an individual (indicated by the area in grey lines), organisational (indicated by the grey shaded area) and community or contextual level (variables outside of the circles). Relationship Diagram 1 (see Figure 6) indicated that there were some clear similarities between the groups in terms of the factors they saw as playing a role in the school development plan implementation. There were some common elements that all schools saw as important for the development of their schools. These are all represented in white circles with black writing. What distinguished Group 1 schools from Group 2 schools was the change in attitude towards others and the additional community elements necessary for effective development (these are represented in orange).

Figure 6: Relationship Diagram 1: Group 1 And 2 Variables



Grey Lined Area:	Individual Level
Grey Shaded:	Organisational Level
Outside Area:	Community Level
White fill:	Variables that Group 1& 2 mentioned
Orange fill:	Variables that Group 1 emphasised

7.4. COMPARISON BETWEEN SCHOOLS THAT SCORED WELL ON THE SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING EVALUATION SCALE AND THOSE THAT DID NOT

Not only did those schools that scored higher on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale show differences in the areas they reported as changing in their schools they also reported different helping and hindering factors.

7.4.1. HELPING AND HINDERING FACTORS

Table 40 and 41 illustrates the types of factors that participants reported had assisted or hindered the implementation of the school development plan.

Table 40: Comparison of the More Successful Group on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale and the Less Successful Group on the Factors that Helped to Implement the School Development Plan

CATEGORY	Cumulative Scores			Number Of Schools		
	More Successful	Less Successful	Total	More Successful	Less Successful	Total
INDIVIDUAL						
Attitudes to work	8	5	**13**	4	2	**6**
Attitudes to other	1	7	**8**	1	2	**3**
ORGANISATIONAL						
School Development Team	7	1	**8**	4	1	**5**
School Development Plan	7	0	**7**	3	0	**3**
Collaboration	11	10	**21**	4	2	**6**
The principal	12	0	**12**	3	0	**3**
Decision making	5	0	**5**	3	0	**3**
Atmosphere of achievement	7	0	**7**	4	0	**4**
Relationship	6	2	**8**	3	2	**5**
Parent involvement	2	1	**3**	2	1	**3**
Planning in other areas	0	1	**1**	0	1	**1**
COMMUNITY						
Programme's Courses and Support	9	8	**17**	3	3	**6**
School Governing Body Support	9	2	**11**	2	1	**3**
Community Involvement	2	1	**3**	1	1	**2**

Although there were similarities it was only the successful schools that mentioned issues relating to the leadership, decision-making, the school development planning process and an atmosphere of achievement. They also emphasised the role of the School Development Team, collaboration and a change in attitude to work. These are the factors that less successful schools said were not evident or that were causing difficulties and thus hindering. The less successful schools also emphasised issues with management and broader organisational issues as well time constraints as hindering factors.

Table 41: Comparison of the More Successful Group on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale and the Less Successful Group on the Factors that Hindered the Implementation of the School Development Plan

CATEGORY	Cumulative Scores			Number Of Schools		
	More Successful	Less Successful	Total	More Successful	Less Successful	Total
INDIVIDUAL						
Negative Attitudes Towards the School	1	5	**6**	1	2	**3**
ORGANISATIONAL						
School Development Team Issues	6	12	**18**	2	4	**6**
School Development Planning Issues	6	10	**16**	2	4	**6**
Financial Issues	3	7	**10**	2	4	**6**
Issues Related to Decision making	3	9	**12**	1	4	**5**
Lack of Collaboration	7	14	**21**	1	4	**5**
Negative Atmosphere	1	4	**5**	1	2	**3**
Management issues	2	15	**17**	1	4	**5**
Difficulties with the Principal	6	15	**21**	1	4	**5**
Planning issues	4	7	**11**	1	3	**4**
Organisational Issues	2	19	**21**	1	3	**4**
Time constraints	1	3	**4**	1	3	**4**
Lack of funds	2	0	**2**	2	0	**2**
COMMUNITY						
Department of Education	12	11	**23**	3	3	**6**
School Governing Body involvement	1	2	**3**	1	2	**3**
Parent involvement	6	9	**15**	4	4	**8**

What was striking about these results was that the successful schools offered many more examples of helping factors and less successful schools offered many more hindrances.

7.4.2. DIFFERENCES IN QUALITY OF RESPONSES SUCCESSFUL SCHOOLS OFFERED

Not only did the more successful group show significant differences to the less successful group on the quantitative measures and differences in their focus group responses but in the analysis it became clear that there were also qualitative differences in the way successful schools spoke about the change process in their school. They offered a more in-depth understanding of the change process, were able to see the links between different areas of school development, were able to take a more holistic view of the change process within the school, and there was also a clear understanding of the connection between school development and the improvement of education for the pupils within the school – the schools seemed to evidence a greater level of individual empowerment amongst the staff as well as a greater level of organisational empowerment. The following illustrates these differences.

(a) Understanding the process of change

The more successful schools appeared to have an understanding of the process of change and were more able to make the necessary shifts to fully implement those changes. Firstly, these schools showed initiative and took responsibility for the change process within their schools. The following examples illustrate the differences between two schools that took very different approaches to the government's, often haphazard, implementation of the new curriculum within their schools. The following is a quote from a less successful school discussing when they plan to work collaboratively on teaching and learning:

- *You know what makes the foundation phase to work as a team is because they are all involved in Curriculum 2005 and em the the intermediate is only in fact Grade 7, its senior phase, but since they are at the primary school they are with us and it is only them who are busy with curriculum 2005 and as soon as it reaches the other grades I think we are going to come together because they have already experienced that and they will be helping us (Participant 2.3.5)*

There was a willingness on the part of the school to sit back and wait for the government's plans to roll out. This was in sharp contrast to a more successful school as can be seen by the following quote:

- *Alex we are over developed now (laughter) the reason I am saying that is because we have gone steps beyond the GDE (education department) in this why because we saw there was a need for the school to work in phases not in standards in doing policies we saw problems in as far as training for intermediate phase was concerned we had Gr. 4 teachers who had a problem of attending courses with the higher primary teachers there wouldn't be a good hand over from the foundation phase to the intermediate phase and therefore we did away with Gr. 4 we added Gr. 5 so we can work in Groups … we encountered problems in Gr. 4 and because we were overburdened we decided to introduce Gr. 5 so that we can easily work as a phase and yes the department is still against that um but I think we have made a good kick off we have made them aware that the planning goes along with change with development in the schools because I think that before they introduced OBE (outcomes based education) they should have changed the structures of the standards in the schools. (Participant 1.1.2)*

The more successful schools often spoke about developing the school in totality, the importance of completion and the need for continuity in development. They displayed an understanding of the process of development and a commitment to that process. For example:

- *Mamma 1.1.3. has just said something about discipline you know we are to receive free training from you as far as development is concerned, but because we don't discipline ourselves we don't attend yet at the end we expect to be developed so they must attend. That is what is happening in other schools they'll tell you they have problems but once we are to attend courses only one attends … one would come one day another another day and there wasn't a continuation yet other people will come here and ask us how we and why … 1.1.1: How do you achieve this … 1.1.3: If I attend a course half day and then on the next here comes another one then we are not getting full ideas and I am not going to build …1.1.1. There is no continuity (Participant 1.1.2)*

(b) Taking a Holistic View of the School Development Plan

The successful schools displayed a sense that the process of school development plan was not only about acquiring resources or raising funds but that it was linked to the educational purpose or vision of the school. The variety of plans and changes made in the school were seen as connected to that overarching vision or mission. For example:

- *I must say we are amongst a few schools in Atteridgeville that we do not have so many complaints um teaching in the near future will not be as difficult as it used to be because we now have a TV set we have a video and we are in a position to teach by showing the kids videos we have a photocopier … perhaps that will make us to solve many of the learning and teaching problems that we have … I think the resources that we have helped us to improve our results (Participant 1.1.2)*
- *I now look at the school as not just a building it is something that needs to we need to looks at the needs of the school besides the building itself and to encourage the learners to do the best of their ability and there are other means that a teacher can help not coming to school teaching in the classroom other thing environmental things that can help the child (Participant 2.2.2)*

These schools also seemed able to see the connection between implementation of the school development plan and a variety of other areas of organisational functioning. The plan was clearly linked to other activities e.g. setting priorities, fund-raising and decision-making, that were seen as essential to successful implementation. For example:

- *We never generated money and we never identified needs before and may I share something with you Alex eh when I started with Mufti, I wonder if some of you still remember, we would collect that money one Friday or two Fridays and then there would be an urgent need and then we would say lets use the mufti money and it was because (all laugh) because you know you taught us we must identify needs before and a make it a point that we, we achieve those needs then we would say is that need written in the development plan, then if the staff said no then we won't spend this money (Participant 1.1.2)*

The plan was not only linked to broader organisational issues but was also made meaningful for the individuals within the school. For example:

- *the school development team was also able to… make some educators aware of their capabilities in terms of what they like to do most and what they can do best and so they had been actually eh developing their talents for the benefit of the school (Participant 2.1.4)*

These schools were planning at a different level. They had a true grasp of the cycle of planning. They had a sense of vision, which allowed them to focus on the plans at hand. They spoke of having goals, priorities, targets and being single-minded. Their vision and planning were linked to a process of regular reporting, follow up and review. For example:

- *it also helped us not to do things half way we see to it that is we have a project we complete it and we get results … Not exactly half way but you find that sometimes things are uncompleted take time to come back and say by the way we discussed this but we never completed it but now of late if there is a project we step in and get the results (Participant 2.1.2)*

Finally, these schools also extended their planning to other areas including year planning, parents meetings, programmes of activities for after hours. There was also more mention of the planning being extended to their lives outside of the school in this group. For example:

- *A lot (referring to the benefits of planning) even with the parents meeting it helps that we we know what to in advance with the parents meeting and then we draw everything in advance and so a plan is very important it helps a lot (Participant 2.1.5)*

(c) Collaboration

The area of collaboration also showed some qualitative differences. In three of the successful schools collaboration was fully participative. There was an atmosphere of teamwork and working together that included all of the staff and the principal. In the less successful schools collaboration was between peers and in some cases not all of the staff. The principal was also excluded from this collaboration. Committees became a way, for those schools that did not work with the principal, of being more involved in decision-making, improving information flow and developing teamwork. However what seemed to occur in these schools was that the gap widened between the principal and the staff, thus second order change could not occur and a lot of energy was spent on the process of fighting the principal and not on school development.

These schools also had "qualified team spirit" in that some staff did not participate and this led to dissatisfaction.

- *We know that if you go to so and so he will help you if you go to so and so but others they don't but if we can push all of us the work will be more lesser than now (Participant 2.2.6)*
- *Like she said people have their likes and dislikes those who love music had to go and help her but those who don't have an ear for the music don't bother themselves to get there (Participant 2.2.4)*

This is in contrast to the successful schools where people were willing to participate in activities even if it was not their area of expertise or interest.

- *(referring to positive attitude) for example when we were doing AIDS awareness day we did all of us sharing work … [2.1.3: Sharing duties] so it was there was no one who said I won't be there I won't I am not willing to give no no (Participant 2.1.5)*
- *When the teachers were busy with the music practising for the music not only the choir masters were busy with the children even the other teachers that were not in the music they were helping the teachers and then they also accompanied them to the to the hall (Participant 1.2.7.)*

The successful schools also exhibited an understanding of the importance of collaboration for achieving their goals. It was not only something that made life in the school more pleasant, it was seen as essential to organisational success. For example:

- *the school development has brought the staff more closer together (agreement from around the table) we know that teamwork through teamwork there is nothing that we cannot achieve through the help of every member of the staff we will be able to achieve whatever we need, we are now a team ,a family that works together (Participant 1.1.1)*
- *The teamwork goes together with the decision-making, when we are together and we work together and if there is a problem we come together and we decide and come to a conclusion that we take a solution (Participant 1.1.6)*

Linked to collaboration were not only issues of atmosphere, offering support and being supported, but also the quality of the relationship described. People were relating differently to each other at both a personal and professional level and this was linked to issues of respect and accepting of criticism and being open to negative feedback.

In these schools not only was there a culture of collaboration but the schools had also made changes within the structures of the schools to accommodate collaboration. It was this link between change in culture and structure that was important for success, as less successful schools often made the shift in structure but these didn't function effectively as the culture of collaboration was not in place.

What was evident in the successful schools was a stronger sense of inclusive collaboration. This collaboration seemed to be based on a change in attitudes, improved staff relationships, improved relationship between staff and principal and management and thus a change in atmosphere. Thus this collaborative or participative atmosphere, which extended to management and principal, was in sharp contrast to the peer collaboration and decision-making or a spirit of individualism and groupings as noted in the less successful schools.

(d) Conflict Resolution

The change in relationships between staff and staff and management seemed to be connected to the better conflict resolution skills of successful schools as they were the only schools to mention that their ability to resolve conflict had changed. In most cases it was not through formal procedures of an organisational nature but rather through the use of teamwork, a change in attitude on the part of the staff and an acknowledgement of the importance of the relationships between them. For example:

- *we discuss as a staff and see what to do so that there are no squabbles and that maybe we alleviate the problem if we sit as a staff and decide … if there is something going behind the curtain we are going to end up in a conflict and when I look at this development plan and what you have done to us you have opened our eyes so it means we must work as a team and where there is a problem we should try and solve it in a good way you know Alex if people keeps on fighting it limits one persons life because*

today I am angry for the rest of the month or the week I am going to be angry and it won't help and I am going to look at 1.2.1 or 1.2.3 eh saying hey that person annoys me so I think if we should come together and sit together decide what to do and avoid squabbles, I think that's the way eh to solve problems (Participant 1.2.5)

Thus these schools were making use of interpersonal relationships or a personal bond as a way of dealing with conflict. Archival data (see Table 25) supported this with all of the eight schools that had completed the programme having no formal grievance or conflict management procedures in place.

(e) Atmosphere of Achievement

There were also differences in the atmosphere in the successful schools due exactly to that – their success. Their success in effectively bringing about change within the school seems to have led to a feeling of agency within the school, that they are able to take control of their environments. All the schools, whether successful or not, managed to secure some resources for their school; however those that were less successful seemed unable to move on from this point. They seemed unable to create a collective process for transforming their environments into a supportive empowering organisation that was able to more fully exert its control. It appeared therefore that successful schools were able to set up a spiral of success within the school.

(f) Changes in the principal and management

The successful schools described changes in the principal particularly in the area of "the small things" relating to the principal's attitude towards the staff, respect and trust which all of the less successful schools noted was missing. In three of the successful schools the principal actively involved teachers in the decision making process. In all 4 less successful schools teachers were either not involved or felt that their involvement had little or no influence. This theme also related to the way the school management team dealt with issues. Two clear examples are in the way the issue of decision-making was dealt with at the school and how issues/problems were dealt with. In this regard schools spoke about the fact that the school management team listened to the staff, they took their views into account in terms of decision-making or in dealing with an issue/problem, thus emphasising people's need to feel valued

and respected in the way they are treated not only by the principal but also by management.

(g) Change In Teachers Attitudes Towards Principal

It was not only a change in the principal that these schools spoke about, they also reported a change in the teachers' attitude towards the principal. For example:

- *if the principal is angry maybe she is shouting at us you know we don't even answer we are just keeping quiet (sits back and folds her arms) and let her cool down and then somebody who is next to her or for instance like 1.2.1 will go and say principal there you didn't do well you see we are not those type of people who are fighting with the principal (1.2.5)*

This new strategy for dealing with conflict situations provided them with a sense of other and more understanding. This ability to see one's self as an agent within social situations, as an agent of change, as responsible for one's own life and choices, is part of the process of empowerment, it is an acknowledgement of the dialectical process in which we find ourselves and that although change in others, structures, power bases etc. is important, so is change in oneself (Hassin & Young, 1999).

(h) School Development Teams

In the successful group all of the schools had active or functional school development teams that were clear on their roles and function within the school. Three of the schools' development teams functioned very well, with the principal playing an active or guiding role and members of the management team being part of the team. Even in the one school where there were issues with the principal and the team could not function maximally, they had still been functional. In the less successful group two schools that originally had functional school development teams did not manage to continue functioning once a change in school management had occurred. In the other two schools the school development teams had never been functional and there was no principal support.

(i) Stakeholder Involvement

Successful schools were able to get stakeholders involved within the schools e.g. School Governing Bodies and parents. In the successful group three of the schools had functional School Governing Bodies which were supportive of the development process and the school development team and were aware of the school development plan or had been part of the process in the schools. In the less successful group 2 of the schools had functional School Governing Bodies however they were not involved at the same level and often the staff used this body as a way of dealing with the principal. In the other two schools there were no School Governing Bodies.

In all 4 successful schools an effort had been made on the part of the school to involve parents. In three of the less successful schools there were no regular meetings with parents, little effort was made on the school's side to engage the parents. It seemed that in order for a school to successfully engage other stakeholders there needed to be a certain level of functioning within the school – or a level of empowerment for the school to effectively empower parents to co-operate in a constructive manner.

7.4.3. SUMMARY

Thus not only did those schools that scored higher on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale achieve more changes within their schools and report more helping factors and less hindering factors, they also offered a qualitatively different view on the change process within their schools. These staff in these schools seemed to have combined a variety of variables and had managed to change not only the structures but also the culture within the school and have managed to effect second-order changes. It seems they had an understanding of the complex interaction of the variables needed to bring about lasting change. These observations though would require additional exploration to further understand their role in the school development process.

7.5. RELATIONSHIP MATRIX

A Relationship Matrix (see Matrix 6 on the following page) integrating the various analyses relating to factors the schools felt were linked to school development planning was drawn up. The Matrix indicated that a wide range of variables were seen as being linked to the school development planning process and that these occurred at an individual, organisational and community level. These results were added to Relationship Diagram 1 (Figure 6) to develop a visual display of how the variables interrelated. Successful and less successful schools report the same elements as being important for school development planning what is different is the quality of the elements described. Relationship Diagram 2 (see Figure 7 on the following page) incorporated these into the diagram where they are reflected in the green circles and arrows used to highlight qualities of the variables. What this indicated is that in order for schools to be effective there need to be certain elements in place (the internal capacity to change). However for this change to be sustained there are also certain contextual and broader community supports that need to be in place.

What is clear from the Matrix 6 and Figure 7 is that many variables from various levels of analysis were seen by the schools to play a role in school development planning and that organisational level variables were being emphasised. At this level of analysis the principal, as school leader, was central. There were two key aspects to this: the involvement of the principal in activities, and the relationship the principal had with the staff. In terms of involvement there was an emphasis on the principal being involved in decision-making, collaboration, school development planning and the school development team. In terms of decision-making influence as well as involvement were seen as core to the process. The schools also felt that an atmosphere of achievement was important to successful organisational empowerment. Individual level variables were not stressed. Although several community level variables were seen as playing a part in successful school development planning it the data indicates that parent and School Governing Body involvement were key to the process.

Matrix 6: Relationship Between School Development Planning and Other Individual, Organisational and Community Level Variables

Predictor	Focus Groups Helping		Focus Groups Hindering		Advice		SDPES Success Helping		SDPES Success Hindering	
	Group 1	Group 2	Group 1	Group 2	Group 1	Group 2	Successful	Less Successful	Successful	Less Successful
INDIVIDUAL LEVEL VARIABLES										
Attitude towards the school	●	●	●↑	●	●↑	●	●	●		
Attitude towards others	●↑	●					●	●↑		
Teacher Efficacy										
ORGANISATIONAL LEVEL VARIABLES										
Collaboration	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
School Development Team	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Relationships	●	●			●	●	●	●		
Atmosphere	● (A)	● (A)	●↑	●	●	●	● (A)	● (A)	●	●
Principal	●↑	●	●	●			●	●	●	●
Management			●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Decision Making	●	●	●	●			●	●	●	●
School Development Plan	●	●↑	●	●			●	●	●	●
Funding/Finances			●	●↑					●	●
Organisational General			●	●					●	●
Planning General			●	●	●	●			●	●
Lack of Funds			●	●					●	●
Vision/Direction					●	●				
Time Constraints			●	●					●	●
COMMUNITY/CONTEXTUAL LEVEL VARIABLES										
Programme's Courses and Support	●	●					●	●		
Making use of other organisations					●	●↑				
Department of Education			●	●					●	●
School Governing Body Support	●	●	●	●			●	●	●	●
Parent Involvement	●	●	●	●			●	●	●	●
Community Involvement	●	●					●	●		
Stakeholder Involvement					●	●				

● Strong Evidence of Link (either due to helping or hindering or as recommended by the staff)

● Some Evidence of Link

● No evidence of Link

↑ Higher Cumulative scores

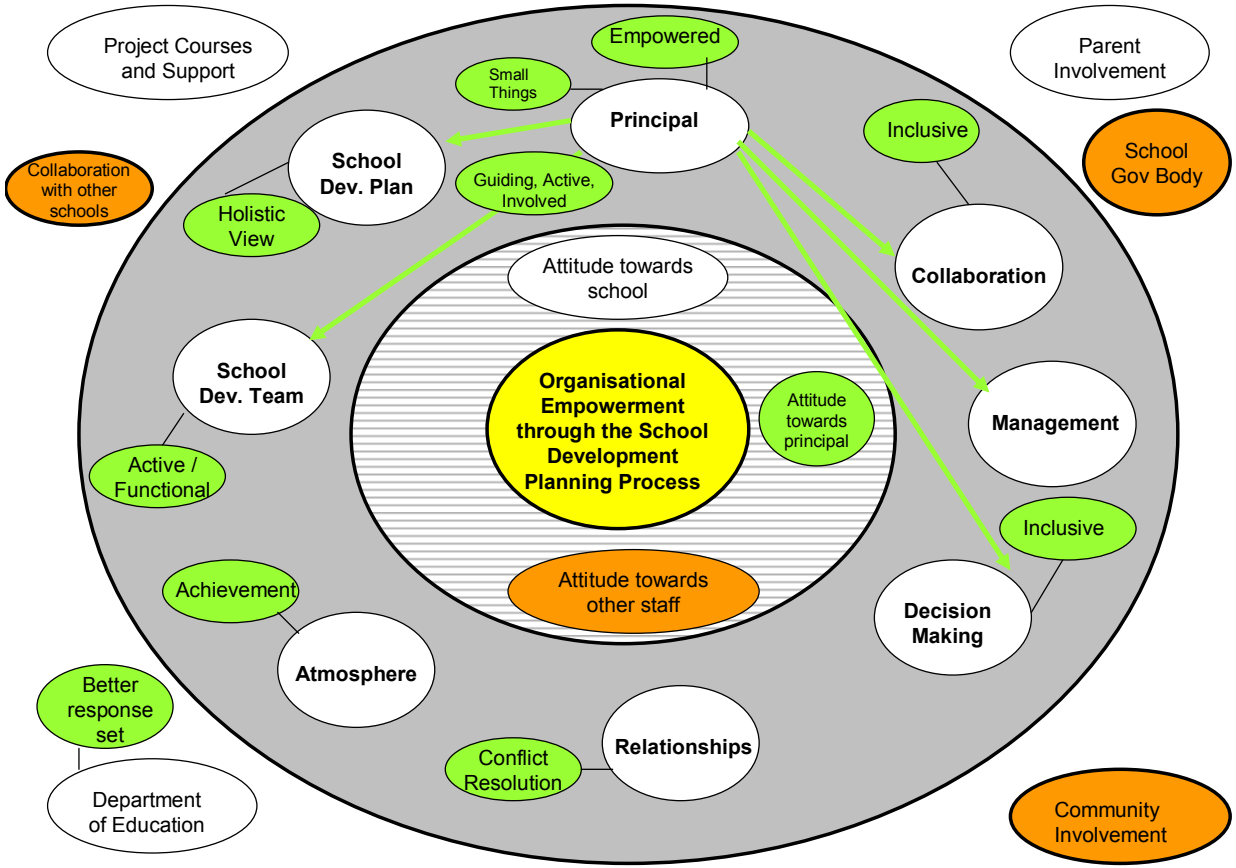
(A) Atmosphere specifically referred to one of pride in achievement rather than general

7.6. SUMMARY

The qualitative data indicated that schools that have certain variables in place, an internal capacity to change, were more likely to be able to use school development planning as a way of effecting organisational change and empowerment. The role of the principal in promoting school development and thus empowerment was stressed. Contextual supports were also seen as playing a role in supporting the school development process. This supported the findings from Research Question 1 and 2 where length of involvement on the programme was not a significant predictor of empowerment.

This has important implications for school development programmes that see school development planning as a process to empowering schools and successful implementation as an empowered outcome. It may be that if school development planning is to be successful other variables associated with an empowered organisation need to be in place. Thus we need to explore the relationship between school development planning and the other variables. The qualitative analysis has given us some ideas about what schools see as having helped them with the implementation of their plans. We now turn to the quantitative data to explore this issue further.

Figure 7: Relationship Diagram 2: Group 1 And 2 Variables Combined With School Development Planning Evaluation Scale Success



Grey Lined Area:	Individual Level	White fill:	Variables that Group 1& 2 mentioned
Grey Shaded:	Organisational Level	Orange fill:	Variables that Group 1 emphasised
Outside Area:	Community Level	Green fill:	Variables that SDPES Successful Group mentioned
		Green Arrows:	Role of the principal linked to variables

7.7. QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE RELATIONSHIPS

In order to quantitatively explore the relationship between school development planning and those variables associated with empowerment at the individual (locus of control and general and context specific efficacy) and organisational (participation and leadership) levels of analysis the data were subjected to various statistical analyses.

7.7.1. CORRELATION ANALYSES

The first step in looking at the relationships between the variables was to look at the correlations between the variables. The parametric assumptions of interval data and normality were met, as outlined earlier, and scatter plots revealed there to be no outliers or non-linear relationships between variables. Therefore Pearson's correlations were conducted. One-tailed tests were used as the direction of the relationship between School Development Planning and the predictor variables was predicted, based on previous research and theory.

Table 42 (see following page) shows the Pearson's *r* correlation coefficients between School Development Planning Evaluation Scale and the other variables associated with empowerment. All of the predictors correlated with the school development planning scale with approximately medium effect size except Locus of Control, which had a less strong relationship. Thus, school development planning was significantly associated with the following variables: Participation and Decision Centralisation Scale, Psychological Participation Scale, Collaboration Scale, the Profile of Organisational Leadership Scale, Supervisory Leadership Scale, General Self Efficacy, Teacher Efficacy, Locus of Control, and Peer Leadership. Looking at the predictors the highest correlation is between the Profile of Organisational Characteristics and School Development Planning Evaluation Scale which is significant at a 0.01 level (r = .554) and so it is likely that this variable will best predict school development planning implementation as measured by the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale.

Many of the individual and organisational level variables are themselves significantly correlated. The leadership variables correlated strongly with each other, as well as with the participation and collaboration scales and the peer leadership scales. The participation and collaboration scales correlated strongly with each other as well as with the Peer Leadership variable. At the individual level only General Self Efficacy correlated with all of the other variables. Teacher empowerment did not correlate with the Collaboration Scale. Locus of Control did not correlate with the Participation and Decision Centralisation Scale, Collaboration Scale, Profile of Organisational Characteristics, Supervisory Leadership and Peer Leadership. These correlations may suggest that their relationship with school development planning could in part be explained by their shared variance, a possibility that will be explored in the multiple regression.

Looking at these correlations gives us a rough idea not only of the relationship between the predictors and outcome but also allows us a preliminary look at multicollinearity. There is no multicollinearity in the data as there are no substantial correlations ($r > .90$) between predictors. Thus although School Development Planning Evaluation Scale correlates with all of the measures associated with empowerment at an organisational level it is distinct as none of the correlations is very high.

Table 42: Pearson's Correlation Co-Efficients

	SDPES	PPS	PCS	CS	GSES	LC	PROF	TE	SUPL	PEERL
School Development Planning Evaluation Scale (SDPES)	1	-.385(**)	.411(**)	.552(**)	.294(**)	.139(*)	.554(**)	.264(**)	.512(**)	.417(**)
		.000	.000	.000	.000	.014	.000	.000	.000	.000
	248	229	229	230	248	248	226	229	229	228
Psychological Participation Scale (PPS)	-.385(**)	1	-.604(**)	-.610(**)	-.258(**)	-.179(**)	-.628(**)	-.180(**)	-.576(**)	-.216(**)
	.000		.000	.000	.000	.003	.000	.003	.000	.001
	229	229	229	229	229	229	225	228	228	227
Participation and Decision Centralisation Scale (PCS)	.411(**)	-.604(**)	1	.501(**)	.234(**)	.097	.629(**)	.193(**)	.614(**)	.293(**)
	.000	.000		.000	.000	.073	.000	.002	.000	.000
	229	229	229	229	229	229	225	228	228	227
Collaboration Scale (CS)	.552(**)	-.610(**)	.501(**)	1	.264(**)	.102	.673(**)	.085	.568(**)	.489(**)
	.000	.000	.000		.000	.062	.000	.101	.000	.000
	230	229	229	230	230	230	226	229	229	228
General Self Efficacy Scale (GSES)	.294(**)	-.258(**)	.234(**)	.264(**)	1	.406(**)	.172(**)	.283(**)	.216(**)	.149(*)
	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.005	.000	.001	.012
	248	229	229	230	248	248	226	229	229	228
Locus of Control (LC)	.139(*)	-.179(**)	.097	.102	.406(**)	1	.122(*)	.235(**)	.072	.024
	.014	.003	.073	.062	.000		.033	.000	.140	.361
	248	229	229	230	248	248	226	229	229	228
Profile of Organisational Characteristics (PROF)	.554(**)	-.628(**)	.629(**)	.673(**)	.172(**)	.122(*)	1	.181(**)	.711(**)	.441(**)
	.000	.000	.000	.000	.005	.033		.003	.000	.000
	226	225	225	226	226	226	226	225	225	224
Teacher Efficacy (TE)	.264(**)	-.180(**)	.193(**)	.085	.283(**)	.235(**)	.181(**)	1	.200(**)	.173(**)
	.000	.003	.002	.101	.000	.000	.003		.001	.005
	229	228	228	229	229	229	225	229	228	227
Supervisory Leadership Scale (SUPL)	.512(**)	-.576(**)	.614(**)	.568(**)	.216(**)	.072	.711(**)	.200(**)	1	.421(**)
	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001	.140	.000	.001		.000
	229	228	228	229	229	229	225	228	229	228
Peer Leadership Scale (PEERL)	.417(**)	-.216(**)	.293(**)	.489(**)	.149(*)	.024	.441(**)	.173(**)	.421(**)	1
	.000	.001	.000	.000	.012	.361	.000	.005	.000	
	228	227	227	228	228	228	224	227	228	228

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

7.7.2. MULTIPLE REGRESSION

A multiple regression was conducted to further investigate the role of organisational level variables such as participation variables, leadership variables, and peer relationships as well as individual level variables such as locus of control and efficacy, both professional and personal, in predicting school development planning. Correlations can be very powerful research tools but they tell us nothing about the predictive power of variables. In regression analysis a predictive model is fitted to the data and that model is used to predict values of the outcome variable from one or more predictors. Simple regression seeks to predict an outcome from a single predictor

whereas multiple regression seeks to predict an outcome from several predictors. This is a useful tool because it allows us to go a step beyond the data we actually possess and allows us to fit a model that best describes the data collected.

School development planning was entered as the outcome variable and the nine organisational and individual level variables were entered as predictor variables. Although this was a large number of predictors there was theoretical as well as research evidence for their role in organisational level empowerment and school development planning. There were also sufficient numbers in the sample to deal with this number of variables. According to Field (2004) at least 15 participants per predictor are needed; thus for this analysis 135 were required and the present sample was 224.

All of the variables were entered using the forward entry method. This method conducts the analysis by first entering the variable most strongly associated with the outcome variable (i.e. school development planning). This variable is then controlled for and any of the remaining variables that significantly add to the model are then entered. This process is repeated until no remaining variables account for significant unique variance in the outcome variable (Field, 2004). Table 43 (over the page) presents the Model Summary (the overall model) and indicates which of the predictor variables successfully predict school development planning.

Table 43: Regression Model Summary

Model	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
				R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.302(a)	.299	11970.46180	.302	95.358	1	220	.000	
2	.357(b)	.351	11517.37808	.055	18.650	1	219	.000	
3	.389(c)	.381	11251.40839	.032	11.476	1	218	.001	
4	.400(d)	.389	11177.00966	.011	3.912	1	217	.049	1.593

a Predictors: (Constant), Profile of Organisational Characteristics
b Predictors: (Constant), Profile of Organisational Characteristics, Collaboration Scale
c Predictors: (Constant), Profile Of Organisational Characteristics, Collaboration Scale, Teacher Efficacy
d Predictors: (Constant), Profile Of Organisational Characteristics, Collaboration Scale, Teacher Efficacy, Supervisory Leadership

R Square indicates how much of the variability in the outcome is accounted for by the predictors. For the first model Profile of Organisational Characteristics accounts for 30.2% of the variation in school development planning. This increases to 35.7% when Collaboration is added, 38.9% when Teacher Empowerment is added and 40% when Supervisory Leadership is added. Adding the other three variables has accounted for about 10% of the variance. The Adjusted R square were quite similar to the R square, the difference being 0.011 (about 1.1%) in the final model, indicating that if the model was derived from the population rather than a sample it would account for approximately 1.1% less variance in the outcome. The Durbin-Watson statistic (1.593) indicated that the assumption of independent errors is tenable.

From these analyses the model had improved our ability to predict the outcome variable. The model parameter statistics indicated that all four predictors have positive β values indicating positive relationships between them and school development planning, (see Table 44 on page 231). This indicates that as the leadership style becomes less authoritarian and more consultative school development planning improves; as collaboration increases in the school, development planning improves; as teachers' efficacy improves and as their relationship with the principal improves so too does school development planning improve. Table 44 indicates that there is no collinearity within the data, for the current model the VIF values are all well under 10 and the tolerance statistics all well above 0.2 therefore we can safely conclude that that collinearity was not a problem (Field, 2004).

The variance portions in the Collinearity Diagnostics in Table 45 (on page 232) indicate that although leadership style and teacher empowerment load onto different dimensions (94% on dimension 4 and 90% on dimension 5) collaboration and supervisory leadership share their variance over several dimensions, and with each other, and with leadership style. It is therefore important to note this collinearity as this could lead to the model potentially becoming biased. It is therefore important to acknowledge that although

leadership style predicts school development planning, supervisory leadership and collaboration may contribute to leadership style being more consultative and thus the strongest predictor.

The casewise and residual statistics allowed for an examination of the influence of extreme cases on the model. These statistics gave no cause for concern (see Appendix 15, Tables 1 and 2 for an elaboration on these) and thus it appeared that the outliers did not have a large effect on the regression analysis. Therefore the sample appeared to conform to what would be expected for a fairly accurate model.

Table 44: Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	-1913.091	3928.489		-.487	.627	-9655.380	5829.197					
	Prof Org Char	852.498	87.300	.550	9.765	.000	680.447	1024.550	.550	.550	.550	1.000	1.000
2	(Constant)	887.446	3835.022		.231	.817	-6670.828	8445.721					
	Prof Org Char	522.667	113.528	.337	4.604	.000	298.921	746.414	.550	.297	.249	.547	1.827
	Collaboration	11.170	2.587	.316	4.319	.000	6.072	16.268	.543	.280	.234	.547	1.827
3	(Constant)	-19891.516	7187.402		-2.768	.006	-34057.207	-5725.825					
	Prof Org Char	458.008	112.537	.295	4.070	.000	236.209	679.807	.550	.266	.215	.532	1.881
	Collaboration	11.591	2.530	.328	4.582	.000	6.605	16.577	.543	.296	.242	.546	1.831
	Teach Efficacy	281.638	83.137	.183	3.388	.001	117.783	445.493	.266	.224	.179	.964	1.038
4	(Constant)	-20475.653	7145.982		-2.865	.005	-34560.071	-6391.235					
	Prof Org Char	319.160	132.007	.206	2.418	.016	58.980	579.340	.550	.162	.127	.381	2.623
	Collaboration	10.791	2.545	.305	4.239	.000	5.774	15.808	.543	.277	.223	.532	1.879
	Teach Efficacy	263.979	83.068	.171	3.178	.002	100.255	427.703	.266	.211	.167	.953	1.050
	Super Leader	192.992	97.577	.150	1.978	.049	.672	385.311	.501	.133	.104	.478	2.093

a Dependent Variable: School Development Planning Evaluation Scale

Table 45: Collinearity Diagnostics

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions				
				(Constant)	Prof of Organ Characteristic	Collaboration Scale	Teacher Efficacy Scale	Super Leader Scale
1	1	1.979	1.000	.01	.01			
	2	2.113E-02	9.676	.99	.99			
2	1	2.917	1.000	.00	.00	.01		
	2	6.827E-02	6.536	.23	.01	.61		
	3	1.482E-02	14.029	.76	.99	.38		
3	1	3.889	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	
	2	8.836E-02	6.634	.02	.00	.51	.03	
	3	1.666E-02	15.276	.03	.99	.48	.07	
	4	6.197E-03	25.050	.95	.01	.00	.91	
4	1	4.865	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	8.840E-02	7.419	.02	.00	.49	.03	.00
	3	2.827E-02	13.118	.04	.04	.36	.05	.52
	4	1.217E-02	19.994	.00	.94	.15	.03	.47
	5	6.174E-03	28.070	.94	.02	.00	.90	.01

In terms of the assumptions of the model, normality of distribution and collinearity within the data had been checked previously. Durbin-Watson indicated that the residuals in the model were independent. The scatterplot (Appendix 15, Figure 1) indicated that the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity had been met. The partial plots (Appendix 15, Figures 2 – 5) indicated that for collaboration, leadership style, teacher empowerment and supervisory leadership a strong positive relationship to school development planning was evident, there were no obvious outliers (except in teacher efficacy) and the assumption of homoscedasticity was met.

The model appeared in most senses to be accurate for the sample and generalisable to the population. School Development Planning was predicted by a consultative leadership style (as measured by the Profile of Organisational Characteristics), leaders' working relationship with staff (as measured by the Supervisory Leadership Scale), collaboration between staff and principal (as measured by the Collaboration Scale), and teacher efficacy. This indicated the importance of organisational level variables, particularly the role of the principal, in predicting school development planning. What was also interesting was that at the individual level of analysis it was the context specific professional measure of efficacy and not the two personal measures

that predicted school development planning. There is a concern though over the predictive power of the Profile of Organisational Characteristics, Collaboration and Supervisory Leadership. The assumptions seemed to have been met and thus it could probably be assumed that this model would generalise to other school development planning situations.

7.7.3. STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELLING

Based on the results of the multiple regression and the ideas generated from the qualitative data collection and the relationship matrix and diagrams about what supported school development, it seemed clear that the organisational level variables played an important role. What was even clearer was the crucial role played by the principal. Based on the results of these data sets a model, as represented in Figure 8 was constructed. The variables were chosen on the basis of the regression and the direction of prediction from the qualitative data. The model was then subjected to a structural equation modelling analysis which statistically tested the hypothesised model in a simultaneous analysis of the entire system of variables to determine the extent to which it was consistent with the data.

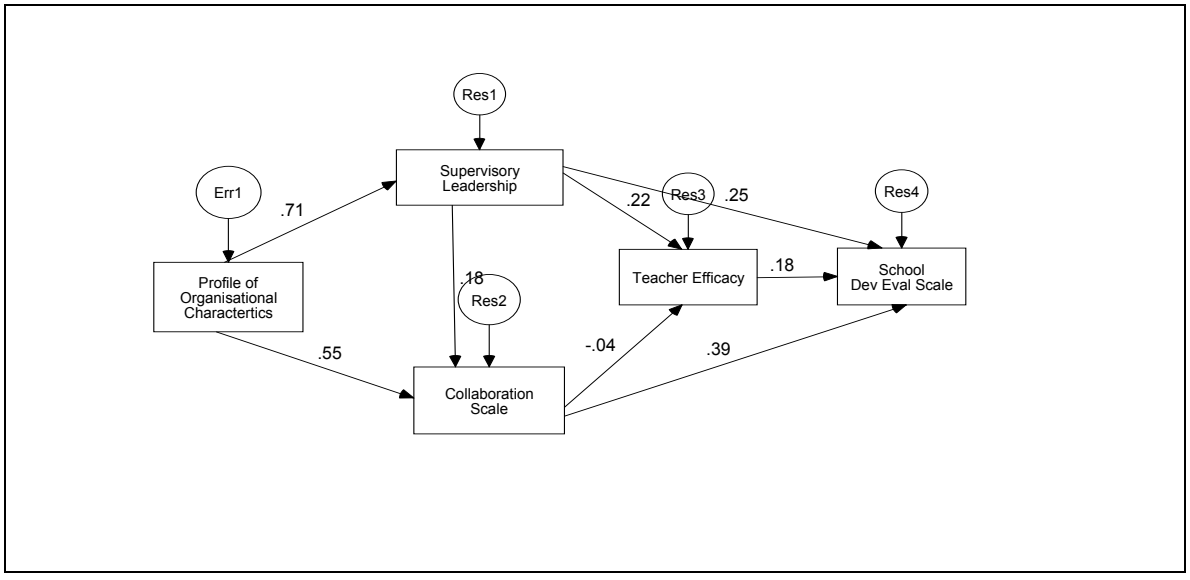


Figure 8: Model 1 - Diagrammatic Representation of the Predicative Relationships Between Leadership Variables, Collaboration, Teacher Efficacy and School Development Planning Evaluation Scale
(The above diagram represents the results of the multiple regression outlined earlier. The one-way arrows show the direction of prediction (from predictor variable to predicted variable) and are not intended to represent causation.)

Figure 8 shows the model with the associated R^2 values, which are also highlighted in Table 46.

Table 46: Standardized Regression Weights for Structural Equation Modelling Model 1:

			Estimate	C.R.	P
Supervisory Leadership	<---	Profile of Org Character	.710	15.203	***
Collaboration Scale	<---	Profile of Org Character	.549	8.000	***
Collaboration Scale	<---	Supervisory Leadership	.178	2.595	.009
Teacher Efficacy	<---	Collaboration Scale	-.042	-.532	.595
Teacher Efficacy	<---	Supervisory Leadership	.223	2.828	.005
School Dev Plan Eval	<---	Teacher Efficacy	.180	3.436	***
School Dev Plan Eval	<---	Supervisory Leadership	.253	3.981	***
School Dev Plan Eval	<---	Collaboration Scale	.394	6.325	***

Both Figure 8 and Table 46 indicated that all of the critical ratios were significant except for that between Teacher Efficacy and Collaboration. This was an interesting finding because in the focus groups participants spoke about how working together had empowered them as teachers in terms of their teaching. Both the school development and the empowerment literature talk about the link between working together and individual level empowerment. This may indicate that a different set of processes are at play here, for example, collective empowerment and not direct individual teacher empowerment may be at work. Byrne (2001) suggests that a non-significant parameter, with the exception of error variances, can be considered as unimportant to the model and that in the interest of parsimony should be deleted from the model. Thus the predictive value of collaboration on teacher efficacy was not being held up in this model.

In order for the results to be useful the goodness of fit between the model and the data needs to be assessed. Basically, the primary task of the model fitting process is to determine the goodness of fit between the hypothesised model and the sample data. In other words, does the model generated from the integration of the theory and the results of the regression fit with the sample data collected in this study? As Table 47 (over the page) indicates the minimum discrepancy (CMIN) = 7.958 (with 2 degrees of freedom and a probability of more than .01) and the comparative fit index is > .95 thereby

suggesting that the model represents an adequate fit to the data. However, the RMSEA index (error approximation in the population) is greater than .10 and suggests this may not be a good fit.

Table 47: Goodness of Fit Statistics Model Fit Summary for Model 1

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CFI	RMSEA	HOELTER .05	HOELTER .01
Default model	18	7.958	2	.019	.986	.110	186	286
Independence model	5	434.743	15	.000	.000	.337	15	18
Saturated model	20	.000	0		1.00			

The final fit statistic focused on the adequacy of the sample size rather than on model fit and its purpose was to estimate a sample size that would be sufficient to yield an adequate model fit for a $\chi 2$ test. Hoelter (1983) proposed that a value of over 200 is indicative of a model that adequately represents the sample data; however as shown in Table 47 only the .01 was > 200. Based on the issues raised by the goodness of fit statistics and the lack of significant predictive value of collaboration on teacher efficacy it was decided to respecify the model, as shown in Figure 9.

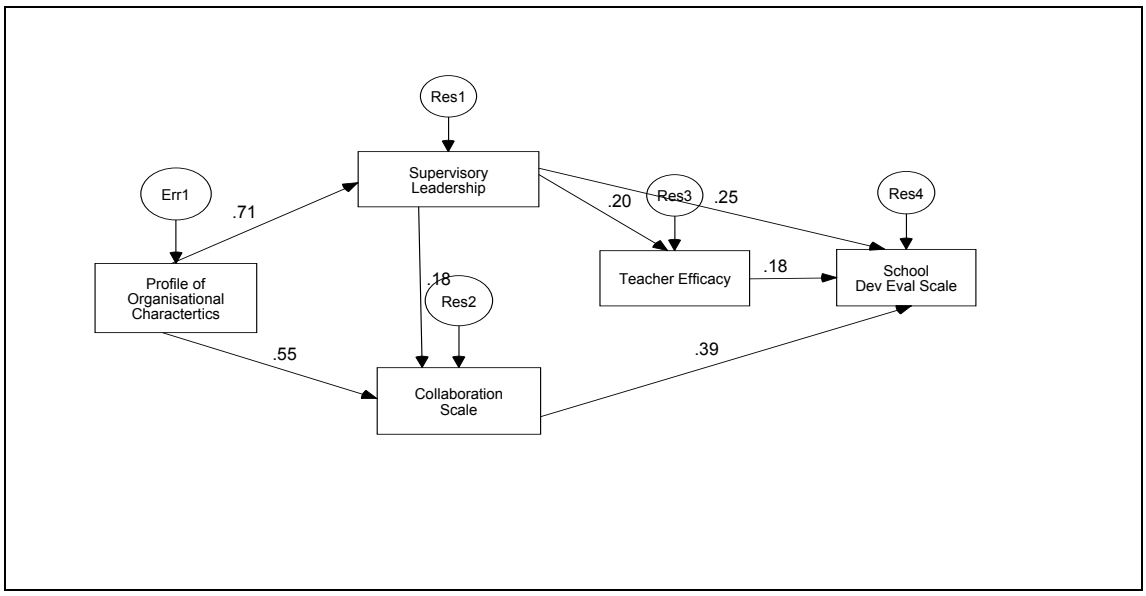


Figure 9: Model 2 - Diagrammatic Representation of the Predicative Relationships Between Leadership Variables, Collaboration, Teacher Efficacy and School Development Planning Evaluation Scale
(The above diagram represents the results of the multiple regression outlined earlier. The one-way arrows show the direction of prediction (from predictor variable to predicted variable) and are not intended to represent causation.)

It is important to state though that in making this decision the rest of the analysis was framed within an exploratory rather than a confirmatory mode. Now that the hypothesised model derived from the regression had been rejected this ended the confirmatory factor-analytic approach in its truest sense. Although confirmatory factor analytic procedures continued to be used these analyses were exploratory in the sense that they focused on the detection of misfitting parameters in the originally hypothesised model. In doing this one has to be cautious of trying to overfit the model (Wheaton, 1987). It was therefore decided that the only change to the model would be to move the predictive relationship between collaboration and teacher empowerment in the model to see if this provided a better model fit.

Table 48 reflects the critical ration (CR), which is > ±1.96 and thus the null hypothesis was rejected. As Table 48 and Figure 9, reflect all of critical ratios are significant.

Table 48: Standardized Regression Weights for Structural Equation Modelling Model 2:

			Estimate	C.R.	P
Supervisory Leadership	<----	Profile of Org Character	.710	15.201	***
Collaboration Scale	<----	Profile of Org Character	.549	7.999	***
Teacher Efficacy	<----	Supervisory Leadership	.199	3.071	.002
Collaboration Scale	<----	Supervisory Leadership	.178	2.595	.009
School Dev Plan Eval	<----	Teacher Efficacy	.180	3.438	***
School Dev Plan Eval	<----	Supervisory Leadership	.252	3.994	***
School Dev Plan Eval	<----	Collaboration Scale	.393	6.328	***

Table 49 (on the following page) indicated a minimum discrepancy of 8.241 with 3 degrees of freedom and a probability of .041 which suggested a better fit than the previous model. The comparative fit index and RMSEA all showed improvements in model fit although RMSEA was still only showing a reasonable to mediocre fit. Browne & Cudeck (1993) argue that values as high as .08 represent reasonable errors of approximation in the population. Hoelter's .05 and .01 CN values for our hypothesised school development model were >200 (235 and 342 respectively). This leads us to conclude that for this model the size of the sample (N = 224) in this study was satisfactory.

Table 49: Goodness of Fit Statistics Model Fit Summary for Model 2

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CFI	RMSEA	HOELTER .05	HOELTER .01
Default model	17	8.241	3	.041	.988	.084	235	341
Independence model	5	434.743	15	.000	.000	.337	15	18
Saturated model	20	.000	0		1.000			

The structural equation analysis confirmed that Model 2 in Figure 9 was a good representation of the data. The model showed that Supervisory Leadership and Collaboration were strongly predicted by the leadership style of the principal. It also showed that school development planning is highly predicted by the combination of collaboration (39%), supervisory leader (25%) and teacher efficacy (18%). Thus the structural equation analysis revealed a model that focused more on organisational level issues of leadership and collaboration than on individual level variables. Core to effective school development planning was that there was a consultative leadership style that impacts on both the relationship with the leader and levels of collaboration within the school. As would be expected the relationship with leader predicts teacher empowerment and that this in turn links to school development planning. What is interesting is that collaboration did not predict teacher empowerment.

From the regression data however it was clear that only 40% of variance relating to school development planning came from these variables. This pointed to something that became apparent in the qualitative data analysis, that there are many factors both inside and outside of the schools that were not measured in the present study The relationship of these organisational and community factors to school development planning will be discussed in more detail in the next section.

7.8. INTEGRATION OF RELATIONSHIP RESULTS

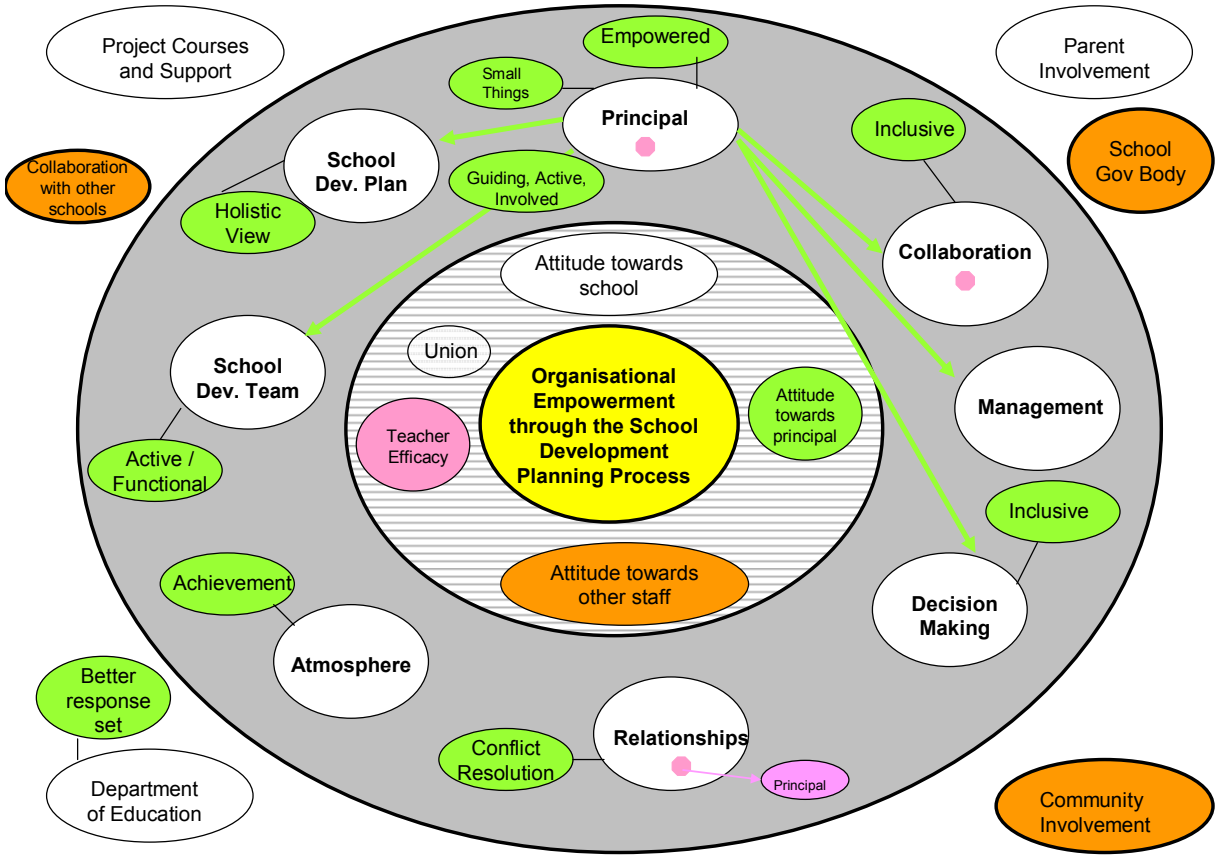
The results from the regression and the structural equation modelling offered strikingly similar results to those from the qualitative data. Again organisational level variables, as opposed to individual, were emphasised. At

the organisational level there was an emphasis on the role of the principal in terms of leadership style (with a more consultative style being linked to better outcomes) and relationships with staff. Collaboration, including the principal, was also seen as an important determinant of success. At the individual level it was only Teacher Efficacy that was seen to play a role in successful implementation. The exploration of third variables did reveal that one of the demographic variables, union membership, could also be influencing the perception of the school development planning process. Figure 10, Relationship Diagram 3, visually represents these factors combined with the variables that emerged from the Relationship Matrix 6 between school development planning and other variables. The pink dots and circles indicate these additions to the Relationship Diagram.

What was lacking from the quantitative data analysis was community level variables. As stated in the regression and Structural Equation Modelling the variables offered in the model only account for 40% of the variance. It is quite possible that community or contextual variables could account for some of that. The results from the various data sets are integrated in Relationship Diagram 3 (see Figure 10 over the page) to provide a visual display of the variables at their different levels.

Figure 10, Relationship Diagram 3 indicated that the principal played a central role in determining school development and thus organisational empowerment. This related to two aspects; the principal's relationship with the staff, and the principal's active involvement in school activities. The first issue related to the principal's leadership style which included being consultative, supportive of the staff and having a good relationship with them. The second related to the principal working with the staff on issues such as school development planning, engaging with the School Development Team and including staff in activities such as decision-making and collaboration.

Figure 10: Relationship Diagram 3: Combining All Results



Grey Lined Area:	Individual Level	Orange fill:	Variables that Group 1 emphasised
Grey Shaded:	Organisational Level	Green fill:	Variables that SDPES Successful Group mentioned
Outside Area:	Community Level	Green Arrows:	Role of the principal linked to variables
White fill:	Variables that Group 1& 2 mentioned	Pink fill:	Addition of variables from model tested

Decision-making was also seen as an important variable and was reported to be central to the relationship the principal had with the staff. Staff needed to feel they had influence as well as involvement in decision-making. Collaboration amongst the whole staff, including the principal and the issue of good relationships between the staff was also seen as key. This linked to the atmosphere of the school, one that is not only collegial but also proud of its achievements. A functional School Development Team was also seen as an important element.

At the individual level the attitudes of staff towards the school, colleagues and the principal were seen as important. The results from the structural equation model indicated that teacher efficacy was seen as an important individual level variable. The MANOVA results also indicated that the demographic variable of union membership may play a role in the change process within the school. Demographic variables make up the person and they affect their interest in and reaction to innovation and their motivation to seek improvement. However as Fullan & Hargreaves (1992) point out most school reform interventions ignore these differences and treat teachers as a homogeneous group, which can lead to resistance and failure in terms of programme implementation.

Figure 10, Relationship Diagram 3 indicated that there are not only organisational and individual level variables that play a role in determining the empowerment of the school as an organisation, there are variables external to the school. Contextual supports, through active engagement of parents, the School Governing Body and the broader community, through links with other schools and from the Department of Education and the programme, all played a role in assisting schools to implement their school development plans.

7.9. SUMMARY

Qualitative data were analysed to explore teachers' views on what variables they felt were responsible for successful school development planning. This provided some initial ideas about the relationship between school

development planning and variables at various levels of analysis. A model of school development planning, emphasising the role of the principal in developing organisational empowerment, was developed and tested. This model attempted to offer some insight into the complex, multilevel relationships that exist and impact on school development, and thus empowerment, at an organisational level.

The Structural Equation Modelling was unable to capture some of the community or contextual variables, as these were not measured. However through the relationship matrix and diagram some of the complexity was hopefully captured. What emerged from this integration of the various analyses was that in order for schools to effectively implement their school development plans there needed to be certain elements in place (internal capacity), particularly with regards to the principal. However for this change to be sustained there were also certain contextual and broader community supports that needed to be in place.

CHAPTER EIGHT: INTEGRATION OF FINDINGS

The present study explored whether empowerment, at various levels of analysis, was evident in a school development planning programme. Particular focus was on exploring school development planning as organisational empowerment. This aim was realised through an evaluation of an educational programme, by examining its empowerment effects on those working in the programme, and on their schools as organisations, and also on the broader community. Through the analyses of the quantitative and qualitative data relating to Research Question 1 and 2 evidence of empowerment at various levels within a school development setting were found. Analyses of data relating to Research Questions 3 and 4 indicated that a wide range of variables from various levels of analysis were implicated in successful school development planning. Based on these data, a model of school development planning emphasising the role of the principal in developing organisational empowerment was developed and tested.

At a design and methodological level a case is made in this thesis for the logic of assessing the impact or effects of a school development programme using a multi-method research design. This argument was focused on gathering evidence of empowerment in individuals working in schools at the individual level, as well as on their schools as organisations, and also on the wider community. The argument is made that it is possible to establish effects through the type of research design used, and the type of evidence gathered and analysed through a multi-method research design. This section offers an integration of these findings in order to expand the understanding of empowerment as evidenced in a school development context and the relationships between organisational empowerment and other variables associated with empowerment.

8.1. EVIDENCE OF EMPOWERMENT IN THE SCHOOLS: IMPACT OF THE PROGRAMME

The focus of this study was to conduct a multi-method evaluative analysis of the school development programme's work, and in the process of fulfilling this

aim, to focus on the programme's effects with respect to empowerment. The first step in focusing on the programme's effects with regards to empowerment of the individuals and their schools was focused on what the programme stated it wanted to achieve in terms of empowerment. Evidence concerning whether empowerment had actually taken place was then examined. To do this the study was operationalised by focusing on evidence of impact or effects on a number of levels and across a number of data sources. Following the type of impact evaluation model described in Chapter Four the study was designed as a multi-method study.

Using a multi-method design, evidence was first sought in each of the different data sources, separately, with the evidence from each data source being equally weighted in the analysis. An attempt was then made to integrate the findings from these different data sources. Convergences and differences were highlighted. This is in line with existing practice in multi-method research, which uses triangulation across different methods, data, investigators and time to link and interpret trends from different forms of analysis and different forms of data (Hayton, *et al.*, 2007; Lloyd, *et al.*, 2003; NHS Health Scotland, 2007; Ring, & Finnie, 2004; Philip, *et al.*, 2004).

The evaluation was based on seeking evidence of empowerment in a school development setting. Indicators of empowerment outcomes were defined theoretically based on Zimmerman's (2000) work and in terms of the programme's own stated aims. Based on these descriptions of empowerment indicators the results of the focus groups, archival data and the interviews summarised in the impact matrices indicate that there is evidence of these outcomes in the schools at the individual, organisational and community levels. At the individual level teachers reported feeling more confident, a willingness to engage in collaborative activities and access to resources all in line with the outcome indicators. At the organisational level teachers reported a more participatory form of leadership, shared decision-making, supportive relationships and collaboration amongst staff. This was supported by externally verified evidence in that committees had been set up at the schools,

the school development teams were functional, the principal was playing a role in development planning etc. At the community level teachers reported that parents were involved in school activities and the schools had set up School Governing Bodies that were also involved in development planning. Again these self-report were corroborated by various other externally verified data sources. All the schools also were able to acquire additional resources and make changes to infrastructure.

The impact matrices also provide evidence of many other changes reported by school staff and found through other data sources that were not described as the programme outcomes. At the individual level teachers emphasised a change in attitude. At the organisational level elements of the relationship between staff and the principal were emphasised, financial management and communication about funds was stressed and fund-raising as an activity had improved. At the community level collaborating with neighbouring school and involvement of the community within the schools were reported by staff of a some schools as having changed. School staff also emphasised what has been termed interpersonal empowerment – stressing the change in the relationships between school staff and the importance of those relationships for effective implementation of the school development plan. The data also suggested that consideration be given to formal levels of empowerment – that is the broader power base in society and refers to the institutional supports in the form of governmental legislation and policy.

School staff reported that they felt the school development planning process had led to positive outcomes for them, their schools and the communities in which those schools are located. There was also evidence that schools were using the school development plans to achieve changes in their schools. This was supported through various data sets. School development planning therefore was an empowering process for schools that had led to many changes and had led to schools becoming more empowered organisationally. This conclusion was not only supported by teacher self-reports but through analysis of the school development plan objectives that had been achieved,

archival data and the data from the interviews that were also externally verified.

In summary the results of Research Question 1 and 2 indicated that the schools had developed and were using the school development plans and that they had been successful in achieving many of the objectives they had set in the plans. There was also evidence of empowerment outcomes at the individual, organisational and community levels. Schools, whether they were in the programme for one or three years, had evidenced similar changes. Staff in schools that had been in the programme longer reported more changes, particularly those related to community level variables. Schools that had scored higher on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale showed more second-order changes in both the qualitative and quantitative data. Thus the school's internal capacity to change and community level support were better predictors of successful school development planning than length of time on the programme. However this would require further exploration. What was clear was that empowerment, at various levels of analysis, was evident in both groups of schools.

8.2 SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING AS ORGANISATIONAL EMPOWERMENT

Most studies at the organisational level of empowerment have focused on characteristics of organisations that lead to increased psychological empowerment, that is on the characteristics of organisations that make them empowering for their members (Bartle, *et al*., 2002; Gutierrez, GlenMaye, DeLois, 1995; Matthews, Diaz & Cole, 2003; Peterson & Hughey, 2002). Less studied and less conceptually developed are those characteristics of organisations that indicate their level of empowerment. In the present study school development planning was cast as a process for the empowerment of the school as an organisation, the outcome or successful implementation of the process leading to the school becoming empowered. The results supported the idea that school development planning was a useful process for the empowerment of schools with all of the schools able to use the plan, to

some extent, to achieve some goals.

The study provided evidence that the process of school development planning had the capacity to enable a school to create a participative work culture, collaborative work structures, shared decision making and increased responsibility for school development among the staff and provided an empowering environment through the development of empowering processes. It also had the capacity to enable the school to be in control of its own development and to achieve the goals set for itself (or be in a process of achieving them). Through school development planning several of the schools were able to influence their environments and thus become empowered. These conclusions are supported the focus group data, the analysis of the school development plan objectives achieved, archival data and the interviews. Thus providing both slef-report daya from several groups of school stakeholders as well as externally verified data. All of these observations are in line with previous research on empowered organisations (Beeker *et al*., 1998; Swift & Levin, 1987; Zimmerman, 1995, 2000) and supported Zimmerman's (2000) distinction between empowering and empowered organisations linked to empowerment processes and outcomes.

The results supported Peterson & Zimmerman's (2004) nomological network of organisational empowerment in that they suggested there are various components to organisational empowerment. Before describing how these were evidenced in school development planning as organisational empowerment it is necessary to make some distinctions. Peterson & Zimmerman's (2004) nomological network focuses on community based organisations and research on these organisations. Community based organisations are often non-governmental and thus independently funded and often have active community action or intervention as their goals. Schools, as part of a formal bureaucratic educational system, are quite different organisations. Most schools' goals are much more inward focused, around achievement and attainment of their pupils.

Only recently have schools in South Africa been encouraged to become more

outwardly focused and view themselves as community resources that can impact more broadly on the communities in which they are located (Schofield, 1999). However this is often still a secondary goal. In addition, this shift in focus is often dependent on a change in governmental policies and targets for schools and the need for funding to be made available and in this way more formal levels of power impact on schools' decisions about outcomes. This has implications for how the various components of organisational empowerment will exhibit themselves.

Peterson & Zimmerman (2004) suggested three components to organisational empowerment. Using the framework of empowering processes and outcomes, Table 50 (over the page) illustrates, from the results, what school development planning, as organisational empowerment, looked like in terms of these components.

(a) **Intraorganisational** – related to the internal structure and functioning of organisations that are the foundation for goal achievement. This component provided the infrastructure for members to engage in proactive behaviour necessary for goal achievement. As can be seen in Table 50 this component included empowering processes and outcomes related to leadership, collaboration, decision-making etc.

(b) **Interorganisational** – related to the connections and relations between organisations critical for them to marshal resources, provide and receive information and realise objectives. For schools this was about linking with groups (such as parents) as well as organisations (other schools, businesses) outside of the school.

Extraorganisational – related to the actions taken by organisations to affect the larger environment of which they are a part. Here the impact would be determined by a combination of inward, pupil focused activities, and outward community focused activities. Changes in teaching and learning, more holistic outcomes for the learners in the schools and being community-based schools all fitted here. This component was about schools being able to make changes in their own environments and achieve their outcomes.

Table 50: Processes and Outcomes of Intraorganisational, Interorganisational, and Extraorganisational Components of School Development Planning as Organisational Empowerment

Component	Process	Outcomes
Intraorganisational	• Leadership • Positive Supervisory Leadership • Inclusive Collaboration • Inclusive Decision-making • Joint planning • Positive relationships	• Consultative Leadership • Leader actively involved • Functioning and Effective School Development Team • Collaboration of subgroups • Resolved conflict • Resource identification • Functional Committees • Active and inclusive School Management Team • School Development Plan
Interorganisational	• School Development Planning – linking internal processes and outcomes of school development planning to broader aims • Developing linkages with stakeholders to support the implementation of School Development Plan	• Implementation and achievement of School Development Plan • Collaboration • Resource procurement • Parent Involvement • School Governing Body Involvement • Community Involvement • Collaboration with other schools
Extraorganisational	• Engagement of stakeholders as agents of change • Developing joint actions with other schools • Making use of outside agencies to achieve aims • Positive relationship with Department of Education	• Improved outcomes for children • Influence education across the area • Used as a community centre • Creation of alternative community programs and settings • Deployment of resources in the community

From the results it was clear that schools had varying success in terms of establishing processes and outcomes in terms of these various components. The focus group data, the analysis of the school development objectives achieved, the archival data and the interviews indicated that all of the schools were able to make some changes at the intraorganisational level and to secure some resources. From the focus groups Group 1 schools were able to make the links with the community and other schools. The qualitative analysis of the comparing schools on their School Development Planning Evaluation Scale scores indicated that it was only the schools that scored well on the

Scale that seemed to take these and link them to the broader aims of the school in terms of the educational purpose of schools. This nomological network enables researchers to identify areas that need potential development and in this way enable those developing community programmes or interventions around school development planning to think more holistically about what processes and outcomes need to be effected if organisational empowerment is to be the desired outcome.

The nomological network help to see school development planning as part of a network of elements and variables that enables schools to become empowered. When schools have all of the components school development planning is an empowering process and leads to empowered outcomes. However, if school development planning is taken out of context and the focus is only on the actual drawing up of the plan this can become a technical process which is neither empowering for the school nor the staff within it. What school development planning seems to offer schools is a set of processes that make the vital link between the internal structures and functioning, collaborative relationships with outside groups and agencies, the acquisition of resources and the broader educational and community action aims of the school.

8.2.1. A MEASUREMENT OF ORGANISATIONAL EMPOWERMENT

In order to measure this level of organisational empowerment the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale was constructed. It was established that this scale consistently measured a single underlying factor indicating the presence of a single construct related to school development. However it was difficult to interpret and name this factor and thus establish whether the underlying school development construct was an empowerment factor. In order to answer the research questions other quantitative data measuring variables associated with empowerment were collected, which not only allowed for evidence of empowerment to be collected but also allowed for further exploration of the validity of this scale.

To establish construct validity in this way the new measure should correlate with well validated measures of the same topic. At present there are no well-validated tests of empowerment as an organisational construct. However, there were several tests that measured aspects of organisational empowerment such as consultative leadership and participation. Table 42 indicated that the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale correlated with all of the measures in the study, both organisational and individual level. However the stronger correlations were with the organisational level scales and all at the .001 significance level:

- Psychological Participation scale r = - .385
- Participation and Decision Centralisation Scale r = .411
- Collaboration Scale r = .552
- Peer Leadership r = .417
- Profile or Organisational Characteristics r = .554
- Supervisory Leadership r = .512

Although these are strong correlations it appeared that the construct School Development Planning Evaluation Scale was measuring was distinct, as none of the correlations were very high (discriminant validity). The correlations with the variables associated with individual level empowerment were much lower and locus of control was only significant at the 0.05 level. This would indicate that the test was measuring something related to the organisational level measures as opposed to a psychological process. Obviously this would need to be further tested on other populations using similar or the same tests to further ascertain the construct validity of the test. Kline (1994) and Oppenheim (2001) do point out though that this is a common limitation for educational, psychological and other social science measurement development; there are seldom well-validated measures of the area of interest.

When the schools were ranked according to their scores on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale and a comparison undertaken between those who scored highest and those who scored lowest, there were

significant differences between them on several of the other measures associated with organisational empowerment (see Tables 28 and 29):

- Collaboration Scale
- Peer Leadership Scale
- Profile of Organisational Leadership scale
- Supervisory Leadership

The schools that scored higher on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale showed higher levels of collaboration, peer and supervisory leadership and a more consultative leadership style.

Thus the test appeared to consistently measure a single construct that seemed related to organisational empowerment. It also appeared to have predictive validity in that it was able to clearly distinguish between schools that had scored well on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale and those that had not, on the measures of several variables associated with organisational empowerment. However, it would need further exploration and development to conclusively say it is measuring school development planning as a form of organisational empowerment.

What was clear was that it was difficult to develop a measure that was sensitive enough to distinguish between the schools staffs' perceptions of different levels of analysis and between empowerment processes and outcomes. Both of these issues made it difficult to identify subscales within the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale. Empowerment as a complex, multidimensional and contextual construct is difficult to measure and further test construction, validation and research are needed in this area to fully understand this complex construct and its many forms.

8.3. LEVELS OF EMPOWERMENT

The results, both in terms of the changes resulting from school development planning and variables linked with it, supported Zimmerman's (2000) framework of empowerment at different levels of analysis, namely the individual, organisational and community. The impact matrices combine the

focus group data, the archival data and the interviews as well as the relationship matrix and diagrams combining data from the focus groups and the model developed and tested all indicate that change had occurred at various levels of analysis. This was supported by both self-report and externally verified evidence. The results added to this framework by exploring other levels such as the interpersonal and formal levels, which will be expanded on below.

8.3.1. INDIVIDUAL EMPOWERMENT

At a personal or individual level certain aspects of Zimmerman's (1995, 2000) components of psychological empowerment were reflected, however no attempt was made to measure all aspects of these components and thus this level was referred to as individual empowerment. Teachers did report several changes at the individual level including feeling more confident, a willingness to engage in collaborative activities, skills development and a change in attitude. They also reported a change in their teaching and learning. Based on the focus groups and the qualitative data analysis of made some school more successful the elements of psychological empowerment seemed to be evident. In line with Zimmerman (1995) it appeared that there was an intrapersonal aspect of feelings of personal competence, an interactional component of an understanding of what was hindering or causing a sense of powerlessness and what behaviours needed to be taken in order to deal with this powerlessness, and the behaviour component, that action to change it. However psychological empowerment in this context would need further exploration. The present study added to our understanding of this level of analysis in several ways.

8.3.1.1. Context Specific Efficacy

From the model developed it was the context specific measure of efficacy, rather than more general forms, that was seen to play an important key role in the development of the school. In the qualitative data teachers also emphasised teaching and learning as having changed within their schools due to the school development planning. It would therefore be interesting, when

looking at organisational empowerment in the context of schools, to explore whether a more context specific measure of teacher empowerment would be more appropriate or would add to our understanding of this level of empowerment. This aspect of individual level empowerment needs further exploration.

8.3.1.2. Attitudes

From the results of the focus groups it appeared that there may be an attitudinal component to the process of individual empowerment. Most research on empowerment at the individual level has focused on the cognitive aspects of empowerment (Deacon, 1990; Koberg, *et al*., 1999; Spreitzer, 1995; Zimmerman, 2000). Researchers such as Huberman (1988), Hopkins, (1990) and Fullan (1991) have emphasised the importance of teacher attitudes in bringing about change; however this has not been explored within the framework of empowerment.

What was evident from the qualitative data was that teachers reported and emphasised that there had been a change in teachers' attitudes. Firstly, they reported that there was an attitude change towards the change process itself and a willingness to engage fully with this process. However, the change in attitude was also towards peers and the principal, and this they felt had had an impact on their behaviour towards them and thus their relationships.

From the qualitative data (the focus group discussions) empowerment was evident in the teacher's realisation and ability to make choices and how he or she subsequently behaved. This ability to make choices meant that they could change their responses, could let things slide, could confront, and could change their inaction into action. They were able to see their own actions from a different perspective and were aware that the change in their attitude and behaviour had led to improved relationships. Thus they were able to take responsibility for their behaviour and responses. This change in attitude meant that teachers had developed a variety of repertoires and thus had a choice in terms of how they chose to respond to the process of change and to

their colleagues. Hassin & Young (1999) reported similar findings in their work with Native Americans.

8.3.2. INTERPERSONAL EMPOWERMENT

In the focus groups school staff reported that not only had relationships improved in their schools since implementing school development planning but they saw these relationships as having played a crucial role in the successful implementation of school development planning. This finding was supported by the archival data analysis. The interpersonal level of empowerment involved working together with colleagues and others to create mutually fulfilling connections that facilitated the change process. It was about building relationships and connections with ones peers. In previous research the terms "interpersonal" (Liden, *et al*., 2000), "relational" (Walsh *et al*., 1998) and "team" (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999) empowerment and "collective efficacy" (Jex & Bliese, 1999) have been used to describe what is seen as the level of empowerment expressed through one's relationships or collective action with others.

The data suggested that this level may consist of two elements, relating to different levels of analysis. The first was relational empowerment related to the individual and interpersonal level of analysis, the psychological outcomes of an interpersonal process. The second was collective empowerment related to the organisational level of analysis and had an action, or change component.

8.3.2.1. Relational Empowerment

At this level it was the relationships between people that were central. This aspect was related to the quality of the relationships between the people within the school. From the data it appeared that this level of empowerment consisted of two aspects. The first was the experience of interpersonal relationships as being empowering for one's self (at the individual level). The other is the transfer of empowerment to others – the process of transferring one's own sense of empowerment to others by sharing information directly or

by letting them take responsibility for their own experience (at the interpersonal level). Participants used and extended the self-empowerment process to others by sharing, modelling and enabling others to realise the consequences of their own experience.

The first element was evident in most of the schools. However, it seemed that it was only in the successful schools that people were able to transfer this empowerment to others. The increased time spent together interacting had implications for the classroom as teachers were now talking about school related activities. Teachers also emphasised the importance of support and advice with personal issues and also the importance of socialising with one another outside of the school. The results supported both the emphasis placed on the role of relationships in the school development literature (Fullan, 1991, 1998) and supported the ideas of Walsh *et al*. (1998) and Speer (2000) that emphasise this aspect of the empowerment process.

8.3.2.2. Collective Empowerment

Both the model developed and tested in the study and the qualitative data emphasised collaboration as central to successful school development planning. This was a group level or organisational level construct that related to collective action on the part of the staff of the school. The school development literature (Fullan, 1991; Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992) as well as some of the organisational development literature (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999) suggests that having good relationships between staff leads to collective empowerment or efficacy. Previous research suggests that as members' self-efficacy grows so does the collective efficacy of the group (Corsun & Enz, 1999). Saegert & Winkel (1996) and Kroeker (1995) however argue that collective empowerment leads to individual empowerment.

From the data in the present study it would appear that relationships could improve and exist without collective action. It also appeared that in some schools collective action may have led to the development of positive relationships and thus existed prior to the development of these positive

relationships. How sustainable positive relationships or collective action would be without the other would need to be explored in future studies. What was being suggested by the data however was that the relational level related to the quality of the transactions between people and the collective related to the action that the group as a whole could take. The two are not mutually exclusive and they are probably most effective together. This relates to what the leadership and group process literature describe as maintenance and task functions in teamwork (Andriessen & Drenth, 1998). What is clear is that this area needs more research.

What seemed to play a role in moving the development of positive relationships onto collective action was the inclusion of the principal within the collaborative action and organisational structures within the school that supported collaborative activity, for example committees and processes for collaborative decision-making. This was a feature of those schools that were successful in their implementation. For the other schools peer collaboration was utilised as a way of gaining relational support and some level of efficacy in the organisation; however it work against what were seen as unfair organisational practices (such as lack of involvement in decision-making and poor relationship with the principal). In this way it allowed individuals to work together even if the organisation itself was not empowering. However longer-term studies would need to be undertaken to assess the effectiveness of this strategy.

These results also supported Speer's (2000) contention that individual level empowerment and collective empowerment may not work against each other as was suggested by Riger (1996) and Lee (1999). Those individuals and schools who were able combine an understanding that power was accessed by working through the collective with an understanding that power required strong relationships with others were more successful. The successful schools seemed able to combine this critical awareness about how to bring about change in their environment (the interactional component of psychological empowerment) with strong relationships between staff and

collective action. This is in line with Zimmerman's (2000) assertion that critical awareness and knowledge of resources required to create community change are necessary elements of empowerment.

The interpersonal level of empowerment needs further study as the above discussion is based on the self-report of school staff and other stakeholders.

8.3.3. ORGANISATIONAL EMPOWERMENT

In this study school development planning, cast as organisational empowerment, was seen as an active, participatory process through which schools as organisations could gain greater control, efficacy, access to resources and impact on their community. The results of the focus groups, the school development planning objectives anlsysis, the archival data and the interviews all support the conclusion that staff and other school stakeholders indicated that the school development planning had brought about changes within the school. These results are based on both the self-report of numerous stakeholders and on externally verified evidence of change. All schools reported changes in infrastructure and having acquired additional resources as well as numerous other changes in other areas of the school.

However from the results of the interview data and the archival data it was clear that school development planning may not be the only or the most effective method of empowerment for all schools. This supported Foster-Fishman *et al*.'s (1998) argument that there are multiple pathways to empowerment and that individuals and organisations can use a variety of strategies and may use different ones at different time. Further research into organisational empowerment and school development planning will allow us to further clarify these different pathways.

The impact and relationship matrices indicated that issues of organisational internal capacity and contextual support were important influences in the implementation of school development planning. The importance of a schools

internal capacity for change has been stressed by several school development writers (Hopkins, 2000; Hopkins *et al*., 1997; Stoll, 1999) when applying the school development planning process. Only once the school's structure and culture can support the process of school development planning can it be useful. This fits clearly with the nomological network of organisational empowerment, which asserts that intraorganisational processes and outcomes need to be in place for organisations to be empowered.

The results also suggested that it is not only important to consider the school's internal capacity it is also vital to consider the contextual support e.g. from parents, the community, the Education Department and the socio-economic context. Again the interorganisational component of the nomological network of organisational empowerment clearly indicates the need for these kinds of links and supports (Peterson & Zimmerman, 2004).

From the focus groups, archival data and the externally verified data other levels of empowerment, such as community and formal levels, were evident. This is an important issue as the school as an organisation does not exist in a vacuum but is firmly embedded within a community and within formal structures of institutional power (Perkins, Crim, Silberman & Brown, 2004). As Haberman (1994) argues, what is generally missing from school development literature is clear connections between societal problems and the school change process.

8.3.4. COMMUNITY EMPOWERMENT:

Many variables related to community level empowerment were cited by school staff as having hindered their progress e.g. parents' involvement, school governing body involvement and community involvement. From the focus groups and the interviews teachers and principals reported that these factors often worked against the process of empowerment rather than supporting it. Very few school staff reported being able to have an impact on their community. Given the context in which these schools find themselves one

wonders how sustainable a school development programme is without concurrent changes in the community. Schofield (1999) argues that schools should be seen as the centre of community development and empowerment. Several school development writers emphasise the importance of parents and community in the school development process (Kelley, Fritterer, Kling, Timbrooks, Kirkwood, & Calvin, 1995; Walley, 1995).

Several of the schools attempted to work together collectively; however this was not particularly successful. This form of community empowerment referred to the schools, as a collective, working jointly on collective issues and having an impact. In this way the school community, rather than individual schools, could achieve collective action. Rich *et al*., (1995) argue that a community is composed of both its citizens and its formal institutions and community empowerment (the capacity to respond effectively to collective problems) will occur only when both individuals and institutions have been empowered to achieve satisfactory outcomes. Foster-Fishman, Salem, Allen & Fahrbach (2001) argue for the benefits of interorganisational alliances and collaboration to enhance organisational outcomes.

These results indicate that school development programmes need to take into account not only the internal capacity of the school for change but also need to look at ways in which the external environment negatively impacts on the school and ways in which this can be worked with in order to support rather than hinder the school (Nation, Wandersman & Perkins, 2002; Zippay, 1995).

8.3.5. FORMAL EMPOWERMENT

The results of the focus groups and the interviews indicated that the majority of the schools saw the Department of Education as working against their development rather than supporting them. As discussed above, the educational community consists of both the people who make up the schools and the formal institutions, and as such community empowerment can only occur when both individuals within the schools and the formal institutions have been empowered to achieve satisfactory outcomes.

Many school development writers stress the importance of the role of the local level education department (Bishop & Mulford, 1999; Cheng, 1999; Cooper, Slavin, & Madden, 1998; Godwin, 1999; Hopkins & Levin, 2000; Wideen, 1992; Wilkins, 2000). Rich *et al*. (1995) argue that formal empowerment is created when institutions provide a mechanism for the public to influence decisions that affect them. However, at present not only is this level of formal empowerment not available to schools, it appears they are experiencing the formal structures as disempowering. The role of formal empowerment in the school development process needs further exploration.

8.3.6. RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE LEVELS

The impact and relationship matrices as well as the relationship diagrams indicated that there was evidence of empowerment at several levels i.e. the individual, organisational and community levels. Examples of these changes at the various levels were externally verified in the analysis of the school development planning objectives achieved, the interviews data and the archival data analyses. The model tested through a structural equation modelling procedure also indicated that there are multi-level processes involved in the school development planning process. The relationship between the levels of empowerment would need further exploration and more sophisticated measures of the various levels need to be developed in order to do this.

The focus group results offered support for those writers who question whether change in one level will necessarily lead to change in others (Soet *et al*., 1999). Often there is an implicit expectation in organisational and school change initiatives aimed at empowerment that the introduction of an empowerment initiative will have a positive impact on the organisation as a whole as well as the individuals (Bartunek *et al*., 1999). At several schools individuals reported having changed, however they did not feel that their schools had changed. This supported the finding of Bartunek *et al*. (1999) who found that an organisational empowerment initiative had a positive effect

at the individual level but not at the organisational level.

The analysis of those schools that were more successful on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale suggest that school development programmes need to impact upon the actual power wielded by schools and their members and not only on the individual members of the organisation. This is important because "success for empowerment activities necessities change … in successful interventions members … will achieve greater control over their lives" (Swift & Levin, 1987, p. 90). This form of collective empowerment extends beyond the sense of accomplishment and mastery inherent in individual level empowerment activities and many teacher development programmes, and emphasises the need for schools to obtain increased mastery over their affairs by altering the distribution of power and decision making authority within the school and within the educational community (Speer, Ontkush, Schmitt & Raman, 2003).

Rich *et al*. (1995) argue that distinguishing between these forms of empowerment is important to assess the degree of empowerment or disempowerment present in a situation because it is possible to achieve some forms without achieving the others and because different forms have very different implications for actual power relations. Understanding the interaction between the forms is valuable to practitioners because some forms facilitate development of others. Those who want to empower individuals and communities should be aware of these relationships. The way in which the various levels of empowerment interact is an area for future study.

8.4. MATERIAL GAINS AS AN EMPOWERED OUTCOME

The School Development Planning Matrix indicated that in terms of school development planning outcomes, all the schools were able to access more material resources, this being the main area of success for them. In line with Kroeker (1995) and Saegert & Winkel (1995) the present study confirmed that actual changes in the material life of the participants (i.e. access to resources) were an important part of the empowerment process. This linked to issues of

material power as opposed to power at a purely psychological level (Riger, 1993; White & Potgieter, 1996) as people could have a tangible impact on the environmental conditions they found themselves within. In line with this, issues of acquisition of resources and infrastructure, finances and fund-raising became important features of the empowerment process for the schools. This became a concrete way of dealing with feelings of powerlessness. As Barth (1990) argues, money can be an antidote to powerlessness.

What was clear from the results though, and in line with Kroeker's (1995) study, was that to be empowered as an organisation the process could not remain at this level. The Relationship Matrix and Diagrmas as well as the model indcated that other individual, relational, and organisational levels needed to change and support this process. Thus the small wins (Perkins, 1995) may be an important aspect of the initiation or innovation phase of empowerment but the change process is more long term and complex than this (Cheung, 1999) and needs organisational and contextual support. These ideas are supported by the integration of the results in the Relationship Matrix and Diagrams which indicated the importance of both organisational (particularly the principal) and community (particularly parental support) in the process of school development planning.

Both Kroeker (1995) and Saegert & Winkel (1996) argue that the most effective means of transforming one's reality is through collective process. The analysis of those schools more successful on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale indicated that these schools had made the link between resource acquisition and a broader vision for the school and pupils. This links with the nomological network described above which sees resource procurement as part of the interorganisational component of organisational empowerment. Although gaining access to resources is an important part of the empowerment process, if this is not linked to broader outcomes, such as better performance of pupils or being a community resource, then the procurement of resources will not contribute to the empowerment of the school as an organisation.

8.5. VARIABLES SUPPORTING SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

The results of the model development and testing indicated that organisational level variables played more of a role than individual level variables. The role of the principal and inclusive collaboration were central to the model. What became clear when integrating these results with the qualitative data was that there was a range of variables relating to the community, organisation and individual that were not measured quantitatively that were seen by school staff to be playing a role in the school development planning process. Table 50, setting out the nomological network of school development planning as organisational empowerment, clearly presented these variables. What was clear though was that the principal was seen to play a central role in successful school development planning and thus empowerment.

This supported the school development (Barth, 1990; Bergman, 1992; Fullan, 1991) and organisational development literature (Skogstad & Einarsen, 1999; Wolverton, 1998) that sees the leader as playing a central role in empowerment and change initiatives. The qualitative data indicated that in schools that were successful the principal exhibited three aspects: firstly, he or she was actively involved or guided the school development planning process; secondly, he or she was supportive of a collaborative culture within the schools and at times provided structures to support this; and thirdly, there was a good relationship between the leader and teachers. The principal's role in school development planning was also supported by the archival data and verified through school records.

The focus group analysis of the schools that were more successful on the School Development Planning Evaluation Scale indicated that principals in these schools played a more inclusive role in terms of collaboration and decision-making with teachers. This was supported by the interview data which was verified externally. Many writers (Biott , Easen & Atkins, 1995; Newman & Pollard, 1995; Rosenholtz, 1989; Stoll, 1992) argue for the role of the principal in developing collaborative structures within the school. As the data from the focus groups indicated issues of relationships, trust and the

"small things" were important variables in the successful implementation of the school development plan. Although the interaction/relationship between leader and staff member has been explored in previous research (Deluga, 1994; Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999; Settoon *et al*., 1996; Wayne *et al*., 1997) the relationship is often seen or typified as the way in which managers can empower encourage, motivate etc. the staff. There has been very little written about the mutuality of the relationship and not much on the actual micro-skills needed for effective leadership. The teachers' perceptions from the focus groups give some insight into this mutuality and what these micro-skills might look like however this would require further exploration.

Wideen (1992) argues for the importance of supportive leadership in successful implementation of development programmes and talks about the importance of interaction and the principal becoming part of the learning group. However Wideen argues that it needs to be borne in mind that this is an interplay, the staff need to provide a conducive atmosphere for the principal to do this. This mutuality was confirmed in the study in terms of the change that teachers and other school stakeholders reported had occurred in teachers' attitudes towards the principal and management.

Many writers and researchers in both the fields of organisational and school development literature make a link between democratic or consultative leadership and the empowerment of staff members (Bond & Keys, 1993; Gruber & Trickett, 1987; Fuller, *et al*., 1999; Lightfoot, 1986; Spreitzer, 1995; Tjosvold & Law, 1998). The present study questioned the validity of this link for all settings, cultural groups and phases of an empowerment programme. The relationship between the individual level measures associated with empowerment and more democratic leadership, participation and collaboration were either weak or did not exist. However there were strong relationships between more democratic leadership and organisational level empowerment and participation and collaboration. This suggested that the link between empowerment and more democratic leadership may not be a simple one. Without acknowledging this complexity we may again provide

simple solutions to complex issues. However in order to make any definitive comment on the relationship between democratic leadership and the empowerment of teachers in this context would requires further exploration.

The data also offered some interesting findings related to participation and collaboration. There were weak relationships between the measures of participation and the variables associated with individual levels of empowerment, particularly Locus of Control and Teacher Efficacy. In the analysis of the model the link between collaboration and teacher efficacy was not evidenced. Perkins, *et al*. (1996) found that locus of control was also not linked to participation in their study. This goes against much previous research that saw a strong link between individual level empowerment and participation (Bartunek, *et al*., 1999; Fawcett *et al*., 1995; LeBosse *et al*., 1998/9; Perkins, 1995; Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995). It may be that for this group, in this context, participation may not impact on individual level empowerment and may contribute towards a more collective sense of empowerment. At the organisational level there is a clear link between school development planning and the measures of collaboration and decision-making. However this would require further investigation.

From the focus groups teachers reported that involvement in decision-making with no real influence disempowering and often made use of peer decision-making and collaboration as a way of dealing with this. Although this did not give teachers access to school wide decision making power it did allow them a sense of agency in their own area or domain. Although this proved functional for the teachers it widened the gap between the principal and teachers and meant that issues were not being dealt with.

It was also interesting to note how a positive change such as setting up of committees can then be used to undermine real change within the school. This issue links to the notion of first order and second order change. In this case structures within the school were changing, but the actual power relationships between teachers and principal were not and thus any real

sustainable change did not seem possible. Bartunek & Keys (1982) emphasise the importance of equalisation of power between principal and teachers. Often teachers were using these structures to subvert the principal.

This peer collaboration was an interesting finding in terms of the literature on collaboration in school development and in terms of empowerment literature. Most of this literature emphasises peer collaboration or self-managed teams as being empowering for staff members (Barth, 1990; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999). However in these schools, this form of collaboration did not lead to collective empowerment. It appeared that peer collaboration in the context of South African township schools had a different meaning from that attached in most western studies (for example, Nias, 1989; Nias, Southworth, & Yeomans, 1989). It would appear that although peer collaboration may provide a short-term solution to feelings of disempowerment by the teachers this was not a long-term solution and the principal needed to be part of the collaborative effort. This role of peer collaboration however would need further research to make any firm conclusions.

8.6. THE COMPLEX NATURE OF EMPOWERMENT

From these results it is clear that empowerment is a complex multi-dimensional, dynamic construct that is difficult to measure. The results supported and further explored the arguments put forward by Foster-Fishman & Keys (1997) in terms of empowerment, and Fullan (1991) in terms of school development, that the process of empowerment and development is a complex one. The results were also consistent with writers who have argued for school change to be cast within a complex social system (Cheung, 1999; Clarke, 1999; Oxley, 2000) and those who argue that we need to look at the interplay between school development planning and deeper contextual and social issues (Biott, *et al*., 1995; Reeves, 2000).

The present study provided support for the usefulness of a multi-method research design in exploring empowerment and for capturing some of its complexity. Quantitative measurement of organisational empowerment

proved difficult and again supported the idea that this construct is multidimensional and has many aspects. Qualitative methods seemed more able to access information about these variables, and their integration with quantitative analyses provided evidence of empowerment at various levels of analysis in school settings. Thus the triangulation of several sets of data, both quantitative and qualitative, provided evidence for the argument that empowerment does occur in the context of school development work.

Taking this complexity into account also has implications for school programme developers. Some researchers may argue that by being this inclusive, by taking into account all of these things, it becomes messy and things become obscured and it becomes a pointless exercise. This argument has relevance; however by not acknowledging this complexity an untrue picture may be developed, as offered by school effectiveness literature, which is clear, measurable and of no real use.

If we fail to view the empowerment and school change process as contextual and dynamic and exclude notions such as power we miss the complexity and provide simplistic solutions to complex social problems. Many writers in the fields of both organisational development and school development have raised the issue of the failure of empowerment programmes due to simplistic notions of empowerment and change (Cuban, 1990; Fullan, 1991; Riddel, 1999). They argue that these simplistic notions lead to a lack of success or first order change occurs in place of second-order change. As Foster-Fishman & Keys (1997) argue, if we ignore this person-environment interaction and the critical role that both individual and contextual characteristics play in the empowerment process, we risk implementing ill-fated empowerment initiatives, or worse, creating disempowering experiences for the participants.

8.7. COMMUNITY PSYCHOLOGY – A FRAMEWORK FOR SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT

The results of both the evaluation of the school development programme and the exploration of the relationships involved in school development planning indicated that community psychology and the theory of empowerment provide a useful way of adding to our understanding of school development and change. Using empowerment theory and concepts to frame the evaluation of the school development programme provided useful way of conceptualising the evaluation. Not only does it provide a unifying framework for ideas and models that already exist in the school development sphere but it also allows us to expand and develop those ideas in what seems a meaningful way. The application of the theory in a school development context has also added richness to our understanding of empowerment at its various levels.

In viewing school development planning as organisational empowerment, in exploring the various levels of change through an empowerment framework and doing this in the context of school development, empowerment was cast as an interactional process, both multilevel and context specific, linking the individual with the group, organisation or community. In this way empowerment refered to both the phenomenological development of a certain state of mind (e.g. feeling powerful, competent, worthy of esteem etc.) and to the modification of structural conditions in order to reallocate power (e.g. modifying the interactional and organisational opportunity structure) – in other words, empowerment refered to both the subjective experience and the objective reality and is thus both a process and an outcome (Swift & Levin, 1987). By using both self-report data and externally verified evidence of change as part of the evaluation both of these elements were able to be assessed.

Community psychology's contextualist view not only allowed the exploration of organisational and individual aspects of the school development process but also placed these processes within a broader community and social context, something school development literature has been critiqued for not doing.

This perspective allowed us to view the relationships between variables and to understand the way in which school development planning as an organisational process interacted with the school's and individual's internal capacity to change. In this way questions about whether a single process like school development planning can be usefully applied to schools without viewing the other community, organisational and individual level variables that need to be in place to support it were explored. By taking in the notions of culture and context it also questioned whether this process was applicable to the context schools in developing countries undergoing rapid change find themselves in. It also challenged the views on leadership and participation within these contexts.

By focusing merely on the internal processes of the schools as an organisation one loses sight of the various contextual constraints or supports on the change process. By assuming that schools can take organisationally focused change initiatives and implement them in a rational logical way assumes that schools are in charge of their own development and can determine what needs to be done. As the study clearly demonstrated this is not the case; the schools' internal capacity, both at an individual and organisational level, interact with a multitude of other environmental factors.

This study provided evidence for the importance of attending to the ecology, the contextual elements of empowerment initiatives. As Foster-Fishman & Keys (1997) argue it is not simply the presence of empowering contextual elements or the presence of motivated, capable people that foster the empowerment process. It is the dynamic interplay between person and environment that creates the infrastructure for empowerment. If we ignore this person-environment interaction and the critical role that both individual and contextual characteristics play in the empowerment process, we risk implementing ill-fated empowerment initiatives, or worse, creating disempowering experiences for the participants (Parker, Baldwin, Israel & Salinas, 2004; Rich, *et al*., 1995).

8.8. SUMMARY

In summary, the focus in this thesis was on an evaluation of an educational programme, by examining its empowerment effects on those working in the programme, and on their schools as organisations, and also on the broader community. At a design and methodological level a case was made for the logic of assessing the impact or effects of a school effectiveness programme using a multi-method research design. The argument was focused on gathering evidence of empowerment in individuals working in schools at the individual level, as well as on their schools as organisations, and also on the wider community. The argument was made in this thesis that it is possible to establish effects through the type of research design used, and the type of evidence gathered and analysed through a multi-method research design.

The results of this study confirmed the findings of several previous studies of empowerment and contributed new empirical findings that enlarge the theoretical understanding of empowerment, particularly in terms of its organisational dimensions. It also further explored other levels that have not been fully explored i.e. the interpersonal and formal. The results supported the idea that empowerment is a multilevel, dynamic, contextual phenomenon and provided some insight into the dynamic nature of the relationships between the levels and their links with other variables such as participation and leadership. It provides evidence of how empowerment is displayed and developed within a different context – that of a school development programme.

In no way is this an exhaustive or complete exploration of empowerment at its various levels, and forms within levels, or of the factors supporting or hindering its development. However it is hoped that what this does is make researchers, policy developers and programme implementers aware of the multiple and complex nature of empowerment and to see that our attempts at finding solutions in one level of analysis may be hindered by factors within another level. We need to be aware that there are no simple solutions to issues of empowerment and development and that it is a many-layered area.

It is hoped that by framing school development planning within this theoretical framework it extends the school development / improvement literature and makes for a richer, more complex understanding of the process of change and development within the school setting.

CHAPTER NINE: MAIN FINDINGS, LIMITATIONS OF THE ANALYSIS AND INDICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

9.1. MAIN FINDINGS

The primary aim of this study was to explore whether using a community psychology framework, particularly an empowerment one, helps to further understanding of school development. This aim was realised through an evaluation of a school development planning programme. A framework of variables based on empowerment theory was used as a way of focusing the analysis. In operationalising the study, the literature on empowerment was used to develop the framework, which posits three different levels of empowerment.

The focus in this thesis was on an evaluation of an educational programme, by examining its empowerment effects on those working in the programme, and on their schools as organisations, and also on the broader community. The focus thus lay on identifying whether evidence could be found that empowerment has occurred at these different levels, in the context of a school development programme. The study also identified possible variables that supported or hindered the school development process.

Based on the results of the focus groups, the archival data and the interviews, combining both self report of several school stakeholders and externally verified evidence it can be concluded that school development planning has impacted on the schools and has brought about changes at an individual, organisational and community level. However the results indicated that extent of involvement in the programme was not a significant influence on level of empowerment. More important was the influence of school leadership, and in particular the leadership style exercised by the principal.

Impact and relationship matrices, integrating the quantitative and qualitative analyses, indicated that the programme had effects on both individuals and schools, and that the process of school development planning was related to aspects of organisational empowerment. Issues of organisational internal

capacity and contextual support, however, influenced implementation of school development planning. This indicated that the school's internal capacity to change and community level support were better predictors of successful school development planning, and thus empowerment, than length of time on the programme.

The results from the focus groups, interviews and archival data indicated that empowerment, at various levels of analysis, was evident in both groups of schools. This finding supported Zimmerman's (2000) framework of empowerment at different levels of analysis, namely the individual, organisational and community. It added to this framework by exploring other levels, namely the interpersonal and formal levels.

In terms of the interpersonal level the present study confirmed the importance of the relational aspects of empowerment and added to this the concept of collective empowerment. It also suggested that formal levels of empowerment need to be included in an understanding of empowerment. At the individual level the study indicated that there was an attitudinal aspect to individual level empowerment, in addition to cognitive and behavioural aspects, and that context specific measures of efficacy may play an important role in understanding and assessing individual level empowerment. Teacher efficacy proved to be an important predictor of school development as opposed to a more general measure of efficacy.

While these additional analyses go a certain distance towards justifying conclusions as to empowerment having occurred beyond the individual level, there are still a number of limitations inherent in the type of analysis conducted. It needs to be acknowledged that it is a challenge to establish change at the organisational and community level. This will be further explored in the following section.

The study thus provides evidence that school development planning is a process which is contextually related, and confirms and refines the

nomological network of organisational empowerment as described by Peterson & Zimmerman (2004). The results supported the idea that school development planning was a useful process for the empowerment of schools, both by providing empowering processes and enabling schools to achieve empowered outcomes.

In this way school development planning was seen as an active, participatory process through which schools as organisations could gain greater control, efficacy, acquire additional resources and impact on their community. The present study placed a framework from the school development literature within the context of community psychology and, more specifically, empowerment literature, and in doing so provided a multilevel view of school development that sees school development planning as a form of organisational empowerment. This supported Zimmerman's (2000) distinction between empowering and empowered organisations and linked to this empowerment processes and outcomes.

The results supported Peterson & Zimmerman's (2004) nomological network of organisational empowerment with schools evidencing processes and outcomes related to the intra-, inter- and extraorganisational components of organisational empowerment. It extended this by applying it in a variety of school settings. From the results it was clear that schools had varying success in terms of establishing processes and outcomes in terms of these various components. This study examined the extent to which schools as organisations were empowered and in doing so contributed to the definition of the relevant processes, structures and outcomes for organisations to be empowered. This study contributed to the understanding of the basic features of organisational empowerment, its observable manifestations and the interrelationship between them. This research helps to clarify and develop the framework offered by Peterson & Zimmerman (2004) and thus contributes to the development of a clear and coherent nomological network of organisational empowerment, which differentiates it from psychological empowerment.

Applying an ecological perspective to the school development process allowed insight into the factors that supported or hindered the organisational empowerment process to be gained. The results from the impact and relationship matrices indicated that organisational level variables, particularly those relating to the principal, were seen as playing a crucial role. A model combining the leadership variables (leadership style and supervisory leadership), collaboration and teacher efficacy was tested. Although the model did fit the data, what was clear was there were other factors at play that had not been measured. By including the perspectives of the school staff it was possible to demonstrate the importance of the community and formal level and question the narrow focus on the school as an organisation, focusing specifically on the internal processes without relating this to the broader social context.

By exploring empowerment in the context of a school development programme in township schools in a developing country, the study added a cross-cultural dimension to the empowerment literature that has been severely lacking. From analysis of the use of the school development plans and the functioning of the school development team it was evident that schools, in this setting, may not operate under the same organisational principles as expressed in western literature. School development planning may not be the only, or the most effective, method of empowerment for all schools, supporting the argument for multiple pathways to empowerment (Foster-Fishman et al., 1998). Teachers in the focus groups stressed the importance of looking at the interconnectedness developed through interpersonal relationships and bonds. They also stressed that different forms of participation, collaboration and leadership may be appropriate in these settings. Thus the study offered a cross-cultural understanding of the use of these particular pathways to empowerment. These aspects of empowerment in relation to school development planning would require further exploration.

This study indicated that community psychology, and empowerment theory in particular, offers a useful framework for conceptualising and researching

school development issues at individual, organisational and community levels. Not only did it provide a unifying framework for ideas and models that already existed in the school development sphere but it also allowed the expansion and development of those ideas in a meaningful way. The application of the theory in a school development context has also added richness to the understanding of empowerment at its various levels. Through the use of multi-method evaluation it was possible to establish the effects of the programme on the schools involved in the school development planning. Empowerment theory provided a useful framework for conceptualising this evaluation.

Looking at school development through the lens of empowerment has meant a multi-level, contextualist view could be taken. It has also allowed different questions about school development to be asked and in doing so encouraged different methods of exploring these issues to be used. From these results it is clear that empowerment is a complex multilevel, dynamic and contextual phenomenon. In trying to measure it quantitatively it was clear was that it was difficult to develop a measure that was sensitive enough to distinguish between perceptions of the different levels of analysis and between empowerment processes and outcomes.

The present study provided support for the usefulness of a multi-method research design in exploring empowerment and for capturing some of its complexity. Thus community psychology not only provided useful theories and frameworks but also research methodologies. By nesting an ex post facto design within a multi-method design the study indicated that it is possible to establish effects related to empowerment in a school setting.

In conclusion the results from this study provide evidence that school development planning is a process which is contextually related, and confirms and refines the nomological network of organisational empowerment. The results indicate that a variety of individual, organisational and contextual factors impact on individual and organisational empowerment and that a multi-

level perspective is necessary for understanding the school development process. The study also provides evidence that community psychology, and empowerment theory in particular, offers useful frameworks for theorising and researching school development issues at individual, organisational and community levels.

9.2. LIMITATIONS

As discussed at length in the Methodology section the conceptualisation and operationalisation of the study has contributed to a number of challenges, tensions and limitation in the design. Having made the choice to evaluate the programme based on the stated aims (sought through analysis of programme documentation) and operationalising these aims more concretely in an empowerment framework the challenge was to find a suitable design and methodology which would enable one to establish effects, and thus form conclusions concerning whether the programme was effective. The design chosen in this study reflects the reality of working in education, community development or health psychology as fields. The tradition of many other evaluators has been followed in using the strongest design available. The dilemma faced in the context of this study was similar to those evaluators who developed the multi-method impact evaluation models on which this evaluation design has been based.

Finding an appropriate design for establishing effects, and effectiveness was thus a challenge in this study. In an ideal world or in a laboratory a researcher would use control, manipulation of an independent variable and randomisation in order to do this. In the real world of educational and social programmes this is not usually possible. In particular, it is normally impossible to randomly assign subjects to conditions in an experiment in programmes. Programme evaluators thus normally have to opt for weaker measurement designs, and nest these in multi-method designs. Effects are then established by analysis of different strands in these designs. This is essentially the design context in which the current programme was found, and the design decisions were based on these options. The literature reviewed earlier supports this logic.

It was for these reasons that the ex post facto design was nested within a multi-method design. Based on the results from a weak design like the ex post facto design it would not be possible to reach firm conclusions whether or not the results of the analysis were significant. Before reaching conclusions either that the school development programme was or was not effective or that it produces effects on participants or that it does not produce effects on participants, it was necessary to turn to other sources of data.

In this multi-method design there were many data source. Some were from focus groups, others from archival data. These additional analyses were thus considered after considering the results of the ex post facto analysis, before reaching conclusions about the effectiveness of the programme. In order to make any conclusive statement about the effectiveness of the programme it would have been necessary to look for additional evidence regardless of whether the results from the nested ex post facto design had been significant, or not.

This the final section offers a critique of the study in terms of identifying and elaborating on these limitations. In so doing ways in which future research studies in this area can be improved will be identified. These limitations can be classified into the following broad categories: research design; sample characteristics; measuring instruments and data analysis.

9.2.1. RESEARCH DESIGN

9.2.1.1. Ex Post Facto, Post-test Comparison Group Design

In order to explore the impact of the programme under investigation an ex post facto, post-test comparison group design was utilised. This study, like so many community and organisational change evaluations, was not able to include a true control group. Although an attempt was made to use schools that had been in the programme for a year as a means of comparison, staff within those schools felt that that the first year of the programme had had an impact on them and their schools.

Trying to paint a consistent and coherent picture of impact was difficult in this study, given the weaknesses of the ex post facto design and the use of a convenience sample with the comparisons group having been exposed to a year of the programme. It was also a new area in which to study empowerment and thus there were very few scales designed to measure the constructs in this context. Using a multi-method approach allowed triangulation of data from various sources and allowed various perspectives to be collected on the impact of the programme. Quantitative data was collected that yielded non-significant results. Self-report data collected in the focus groups was verified in several ways. Data was collected from other sources so that perspectives from other stakeholders in the schools and from the programme could be triangulated. Data that was externally verified was also collected thus confirming the reports of school staff.

However, despite these challenges, the conclusion was that there was evidence from a number of sources that school stakeholders felt the programme had impacted on their schools and that empowerment outcomes at various levels of analysis as defined theoretically and through operationalising programme aims were evident in the school context. There was also evidence that schools were using the school development plans in order to achieve empowerment outcomes for the school. There was variability in its use across schools in both groups and schools used the plan in a slightly different way to the programme aims.

As the purpose of the evaluation was the identification of empowerment at various levels of analysis, and several sets of qualitative data were analysed, it was thus possible to explore empowerment in the context of a school development programme. However it must be acknowledged that ex post facto and post-test comparison group designs are very weak. It was of this reason that a multi-method design was selected for this evaluation. The logic of a multi-method evaluation design relies on examination of more than one source of data. The reason for this is that it is not possible to conclude either that the programme is effective, or that is it ineffective, on the basis of an ex

post facto design. An ex post facto design is a descriptive design. In order to provide any comment on the effectiveness of the programme it was necessary to collect data from various sources. The results of the analyses of the quantitative data would thus at best be one element considered in building a case for the programme's effects or impact.

9.2.1.2. Qualitative and Quantitative Research Designs

Qualitative and quantitative methods have different strengths, weaknesses, and requirements. These are related both to theoretical and practical issues. Baker (2000) argues that quantitative and qualitative techniques provide a trade-off between breadth and depth and between generalizability and targeting to specific populations. In the current study an attempt was made to measure constructs in a wider sample and link this with more targeted populations for the focus groups and interviews. It was important in this study to gather qualitative data as a way of exploring participants understanding of the school development process. This fits with the contextulualist notion of empowerment employed in this study and is also consistent with the values of community psychology. The collection of the qualitative data was also important in trying to understand the process of empowerment in a school development context more fully. However this technique does limit the extent to which findings apply beyond the specific individuals included in the focus groups and interviews.

Data collected through quantitative methods are often believed to yield more objective and accurate information because they were collected using standardized methods, can be replicated, and, unlike qualitative data, can be analysed using sophisticated statistical techniques. According to these arguments some evaluators and researchers argued that qualitative methods are most suitable for formative evaluations, whereas summative evaluations require "hard" (quantitative) measures to judge the ultimate value of the project (Baker, 2000). However Baker (2000) cautions that this distinction is too simplistic as both approaches may or may not satisfy the standards of scientific rigor (Frechtling & Sharp 1997). Quantitative researchers are

becoming increasingly aware that some of their data may not be accurate and valid, due to respondents may not understand the meaning of questions to which they respond, and because people's recall of even recent events is often faulty. On the other hand, qualitative researchers have developed better techniques for classifying and analysing large bodies of descriptive data. It is also increasingly recognized that all data collection - quantitative and qualitative - operates within a cultural context and will be affected to some extent by the perceptions and beliefs of investigators and data collectors (Baker, 2000).

The debate between qualitative and quantitative data is also based on a philosophical distinction with some researchers differing about the respective merits of the two approaches largely because of different views about the nature of knowledge and how knowledge is best acquired. Many qualitative researchers, taking a constructivist view argue that there is no objective social reality, and that all knowledge is "constructed" by observers who are the product of traditions, beliefs, and the social and political environment within which they operate (Rosnow & Georgoudi, 1986). Many quantitative researchers adhere to the scientific model and seek to develop increasingly sophisticated techniques and statistical tools to improve the measurement of social phenomena. The qualitative approach emphasises the importance of understanding the context in which events and outcomes occur, whereas quantitative researchers seek to control the context by using random assignment and multivariate analyses. Similarly, qualitative researchers believe that the study of deviant cases provides important insights for the interpretation of findings; quantitative researchers tend to ignore the small number of deviant and extreme cases (Baker, 2000).

This distinction affects the nature of research designs. Community psychology has its roots in a contextulaist perspective and thus qualitative approaches suit this view. However evaluating a school development programme and its stated aims in terms of an empowerment framework required a multi-method approach to be taken. The debate over the merits of

qualitative versus quantitative methods is ongoing in the academic community, however when deciding on the approach for this study a pragmatic strategy was adopted and this kind of approach has been gaining increased support. As was discussed previously many respected practitioners have argued for integrating the two approaches building on their complementary strengths. Others have stressed the advantages of linking qualitative and quantitative methods when performing studies and evaluations, showing how the validity and usefulness of findings will benefit (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

9.2.1.3. Measurement of Complex, Multi-level and Context Specific Variables

There are issues associated with measuring complex, multilevel and context specific variables such as empowerment, participation and leadership. Firstly the definitions of empowerment used in the quantitative section of the present study limited the exploration of other forms of empowerment. In order to deal with this a multi-method approach was utilised with focus groups and interviews utilised to gain an understanding of the teachers' and principals' perceptions of empowerment. The results indicated that this has important implications for more positivist approaches to empowerment research in that when concepts are determined and defined a priori people's empowerment experiences may be misrepresented. By triangulating a constructivist method with a more traditional positivist approach to inquiry, steps were taken to address this limitation.

Secondly, due to the static nature of quantitative measures it is difficult to capture the dynamic and multilevel nature of the variables and the importance of context in determining the parameters of variation in measures (Saegert & Winkel, 1996). All of the dimensions of the model that were measured co-exist, change over time, and do not necessarily vary in a way that is reliably time lagged because they involve a flow-through of different participants and groups, processes that may tend towards certain general outcomes but vary among the individuals engaged in them. These limitations arise from the

ecological, historical and cultural nature of the phenomenon of interest. Using a variety of data sources collected over a period of time hopefully provided a broader picture. What is needed though is more long-term studies of the phenomena.

9.2.2. SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

9.2.2.1. Black Teachers in Townships

One of the unique features of the present study was the exploration of empowerment in a school development programme in township primary schools. The sample of black township school teachers and managers allowed for the investigation of the impact of the programme and exploration of these hindering or helping factors, something that has not previously been done in the South African setting. However while this may be one of the positive attributes of the present study it can also be viewed as an inherent weakness. This was due to the fact that the results of the present study may not be generalised to other populations of teachers. The results can be more confidently generalised to black teachers in township primary schools and less to those in high schools and from other race groups and from other contexts. Future studies on school development planning and the empowerment of schools utilising the same or similar methodology but on different samples of teachers and schools will determine the generalisability of the current study's findings.

9.2.2.2. Convenience Sample and Voluntary Nature of Participation

The samples in the study are samples of convenience, a form of non-probability sampling (Frechtling & Sharp, 1997). This type of sampling was adequate in the programme's terms, but introduced limitations concerning generalisability as there was no way of estimating the probability of selection for each unit of the population. Convenience or non-probability samples are less likely to be representative of the population and are therefore seen as weaker forms of sampling (Blacktop, 1996) and are clearly biased because the selection process is influenced by numerous uncontrolled, and often unknown, variables (Polit & Hungler, 1995). Despite the shortcomings of non-

probability samples, they are still useful, and at times the only option for exploratory studies such as the present study. For pragmatic reasons discussed in the Methodology this was the only option available for the current study. However caution must be exercised in applying findings from these samples to the wider group from which they are drawn.

A further limitation of the current study related to the voluntary nature of the subjects' participation. Problems related to the use of volunteer samples are well documented in the literature (Kerlinger, 1986; Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991). Kerlinger (1986) states that the self-selection of subjects allows for the potential influence of extraneous variables to occur on the research variables. Accordingly, there are specific reasons why some respondents will agree to participate, while others decline and it is these reasons that may have an impact on the research variables under investigation. In the present study this was more of an issue with the qualitative section than the quantitative. In the quantitative section 90.5% of the staff members participated. In the focus groups, due to the features of this method, the number of participants was restricted. It was difficult to ensure that a representative sample of the staff were present at the focus groups. Therefore the study's findings need to be seen in that light.

9.2.2.3. Sample Size

Limitations pertaining to the sample size in the present study also need to be noted. While the total sample size is adequate for the types of statistical analyses undertaken in the quantitative section of the study, the researcher could not ensure the two groups for comparison were of the same size. This was due to the difference in number of schools involved in the different stages of the programme and the differences in sizes of the schools.

9.2.2.4. Language

The language used in both the quantitative and qualitative data collection is a limitation of the present study. All of the respondents spoke English as a second or third language; however all of the measures were administered in

English. This practice increases the chances of subjects misunderstanding the questionnaires and responding inaccurately (Bulmer, 1983). Furthermore Legodi (1999) argues that given the political issues associated with language in South Africa, administering questionnaires in English may alienate certain people and therefore increase the chances of reporting bias. However, translation into all of the languages spoken in the sample was not feasible. Also several writers have reported that questionnaire translations can lead to distortions in meaning as exact translations from one language to another is virtually impossible (Bulmer, 1983; Werner & Campbell, 1970). Therefore the questionnaires completed in different languages may not be comparable (Legodi, 1999). The focus groups were also conducted in English and this may have limited people's expression of their understanding of the impact of the programme, empowerment and helping and hindering factors.

9.2.3. MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

One of the challenges in undertaking this study was the fact that relevant theory in the area is still in development. Even less progress has been made in the development and refinement of valid standardised instruments for the measurement of empowerment at the different levels evident in the school environment. Definitions of empowerment abound, as do the measures used to study them. These issues are also relevant for issues of participation and leadership. Thus for the present study measures from a variety of sources had to be used and this led to certain issues. Before exploring some of the issues related to specific areas the issue of using individual self-report measures to assess various levels of a construct needs to be explored.

As previously validated instruments were not available to measure all the constructs in this model, it was necessary to use both previously validated measures as well as self-developed instruments. It has therefore been necessary to use different data sources (various existing measures, a new measure, and the self-reports of teachers and principals), as this was necessary to provided indicators not only of empowerment, but also of school development planning outcomes

Quantitative measures of empowerment as defined by the theory and empirical research were identified. However, there was no previous research which had examined empowerment in the context of school development planning. There were also few previous studies which had explored empowerment in the context of school development, and many of the studies conducted had focused on teachers' perceptions

Most of the theoretical conceptualisations of empowerment, although taking cognisance of issues of level (i.e. the organisational and community), resort to individual level measures. A limitation of much of this research is that the only validated measures, amenable to the type of statistical procedures used in this study, are of the self-report, individual level type. Secondly, in order to access people's perceptions of empowerment qualitative self-report focus groups interviews normally have to be used.

The use of qualitative data within a this multi-method study was not an attempt at fishing, but represented an attempt to use different types of data and different types of analysis within a single design framework. This has been done in this study as there were indicators/variables in the empowerment outcomes framework which could not be tapped through the use of previously standardised measures. It was also necessary to gather evidence to both substantiate and thus confirm school staff self-reports (both quantitative and qualitative) or to challenge them. It was also necessary to gather externally verifiable data about changes at the organisational and community levels to deal with the weakness of the design in having to use standardised individual level measures and self-reports though focus groups.

While these additional analyses go a certain distance towards justifying conclusions as to empowerment having occurred beyond the individual level, there are still a number of limitations inherent in the type of analysis conducted. It needs to be acknowledged that it is a challenge to establish change at the organisational and community level. By using external sources of data that could verify teacher perceptions of change that had taken place, it

was possible to make claims beyond the individual level.

9.2.3.1. Measures of Individual Empowerment

Measures of self-efficacy and locus of control used by numerous researchers on individual level empowerment were utilised in the present study. However these are only components of intrapersonal empowerment, which Zimmerman (2000) defined as one of three components of psychological empowerment. Teacher efficacy as an expression of individual level empowerment had not been explored previously. Although these measures were validated in previous studies and utilised with a variety of populations they had not been used with black primary school teachers in South Africa. These measures although showing acceptable levels overall in reliability, were still low (Nunnally, 1978). Furthermore, the author identified a number of problems associated with the items in the Locus of Control scale as discussed in the chapter on Methodology and thus three items were removed from the scale for the analysis; thus the results pertaining to individual level of empowerment need to be seen in this light.

9.2.3.2. Measures of Participation and Collaboration

Distinctions between the different forms of participation and collaboration were made using different measures. Due to the issues faced at a theoretical and a measurement level the measures were selected on the basis of their face and content validity. Only the measure of influence in decision-making, the Psychological Participation scale, has shown good construct validity (Abdel-Halim & Rowland, 1976; Hamner & Tosi, 1974; Morris, *et al*., 1979).

The other measures, although correlating well with each other (see Table 40) did not do so very highly and thus seemed different enough from each other to assume they were each measuring something different. However it was only on the basis of content validity and confirmatory evidence from the other data sources that hypotheses about what they were measuring were made. In the present study these scales were found to have adequate internal reliability. However, the construct validity of these scales remains an area requiring

attention and may be an avenue for future research.

9.2.3.3. Measure of Organisational Empowerment

The scale developed to measure the organisational level of empowerment, although having been through a rigorous process of psychometric development and demonstrated some construct and predictive validity, still needs further validation and exploration. Another problem associated with the use of such a new instrument is the development of appropriate norms. The results pertaining to this scale were interpreted without reference to previously established norms. However the development of population specific norms will be a challenge for future research on the development of this instrument and thus the findings of the study should be seen within the context of these limitations.

9.2.3.4. Common Method Variance

It is acknowledged that field studies using self-report, cross-sectional data are subject to problems associated with common method variance (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). The impact of common method variance is to inflate observed relations among variables due to the influence of monomethod measures (Campbell & Martinko, 1998). Spector (1987) proposed that method variance might well be more of a problem with single items or poorly designed scales and less of a problem with multi-item and well designed and validated scales. Several other researchers have also argued that common method variance may not be as much of an artefact as is commonly assumed (Avolio, Yammarino & Bass, 1991; Spector & Brannnick, 1995). Common method variance has been a concern in past studies examining organisational and empowerment phenomena, so in order to alleviate the problem in this study focus groups and a variety of other qualitative data were utilised in order to hopefully attenuate some of these issues.

9.2.3.5. Self-Report or Personal Perceptions

The empowerment literature emphasises that because of the contextual nature of empowerment it is necessary to explore how empowerment is

defined within that context, by the people engaged in the context. This has influenced the design of this study, in that evidence of empowerment outcomes were sought in the self-reports of teachers, and not merely in previously standardised measures. Methods of content analysis focusing on indicators of outcomes in the self-reports of teachers concerning their practices in the school contexts in which they work were applied to assess this. Self-reports of teachers have been gathered through focus groups. Additional limitations apply to the use of methods of content analysis focusing on indicators of outcomes in the self-reports of teachers concerning their practices in the school contexts in which they work. Interviews with principals and school development teams also relied on self-reports.

Although his is a major limitation it is still important to assess in this context what people feel about empowerment and school development planning, and it is particularly important to do so as this is a new area of study. Attempts were made to counter the danger of solely using self-report data by using other data sources (analysis of objectives achieved from the School Development Plan, programme evaluations and interviews with external verification of self-report) that would act as external verification to these self-report. Programme evaluations had also triangulated the perceptions of multiple stakeholders and the interviews triangulated principals and school development teams' perceptions with the perceptions of the programme reports as well as through external verification.

Thus these self reported data are subject to biases and may not accurately describe the situations. Crampton & Wagner (1994), however, argue that self-report data may not be as limited as commonly thought and recent evidence also indicates that respondents often accurately perceive their social environments (Balzer & Sulsky, 1992; Harris & Schaubroek, 1988; Murphey, Jako & Anhalt, 1992). However, it is important to acknowledge that the measures and the focus group data were focused on personal perception. This in itself however may not be a limitation. Spreitzer (1995) argues that a critical theoretical issue is whether characteristics of the "objective"

environment or individual perceptions of the environment influence empowerment. Bandura (1989) suggested that, rather than being completely free from or determined by their environment, persons actively perceive the nature of their environment and are influenced by those perceptions.

Thomas & Velthouse (1990) offered a "soft constructionist" perspective to understanding empowerment in the workplace: individuals' judgements about observable organisational conditions are shaped by interpretations that go beyond verifiable reality. Thus, it is important to understand how the individual sees his or her environment because previous research has shown that individuals within the same environmental context are likely to view their work environment quite differently (e.g. Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967). The basic proposition is that when individuals view their work environment as providing opportunities for, rather than constraints on, individual behaviour, they feel empowered.

Therefore when looking at the results we need to bear in mind that these are people's perceptions of their behaviour, their interactions and their environments and not necessarily characteristics of the "objective" environment. Direct observation of individual's behaviour and the interaction between people could have provided additional information. However concrete observation of the school or organisation and reference back to archival data did provide useful information. Concrete changes were also assessed in terms of the objectives achieved from the school development plan.

9.2.3.6. Likert-Type Rating Scales

A further problem associated with the measurement instruments adopted in the quantitative phase of the study relates to the use of Likert-type rating scales in each of the instruments. These types of measuring instruments have the inherent limitations associated with different aspects of rating bias such as the central tendency (Oppenheim, 2001; Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991).

9.2.4. DATA ANALYSIS:

9.2.4.1. Quantitative Analysis

Although community psychology, and empowerment theory in particular, argues that a multi-level view of variables should be taken, it is difficult to statistically take these into account when performing one's analysis. None of the statistical techniques used in the present study took the issue of different levels of analysis into account. When looking at the relationship between the different level variables, a better solution to the levels of analysis problem would involve the use of multilevel modelling techniques (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992; Goldstein, 1995), which have only recently begun to be used in community psychology research (e.g. Brown, Perkins, Brown, 2003; Perkins & Long, 2002).

However, in the present study the available data would not have supported the use of these techniques as there were not enough schools in each group and in a number of schools too few individuals. There was also high levels of variance between individuals within the schools as well as between the schools making up the groups. The analysis of the data therefore needs to be seen within this limitation, as multilevel modelling techniques may have provided a different set of relationships between the variables. However, the present study's focus on relationships was exploratory and multilevel analyses are better suited for model testing (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Saegert & Winkel, 1996).

Future studies can begin to develop models of the interrelationship between the variables and test the effect of group level phenomenon on individual level variables and vice versa by making use of analytic strategies developed to study contextual effects (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; McMillan *et al*., 1995; Saegert & Winkel, 1996). What is needed is an attempt to look more rigorously at possible complex models of causal relationships between each of the variables now that some exploratory work and analysis has given more insight into this complex process.

9.2.4.2. Qualitative data analysis

In the qualitative phase of the present study thematic content analysis was used to analyse the data. Thematic content analysis has been criticised for being descriptive, subjective and impressionistic in nature (Sommer & Sommer, 1980). In order to counteract this limitation to some extent several methods of data authentication were conducted (see Methodology Chapter 4.8.1.5). However Fox (1969, p 656) suggests that the data which emerge from content analysis are extremely sensitive to the nature of the analysis attempted, to the unit of content selected, as well as the researcher's expectations as reflected in the categories he or she develops. He states that categories do not emerge, nor do responses fall into categories but rather they are pushed into categories, and cautions that researchers should never forget who did the pushing. The results therefore need to be seen within this limitation.

9.2.5. CONCLUSION

Despite the limitations the use of a multi-method design, combining quantitative and qualitative data; incorporating various data sources, the triangulation of various stakeholder perspectives and the triangulation of self-report and externally verified data, allows us to conclude that empowerment at various levels of analysis was evident in school development settings under investigation and that based on these analyses school development planning can usefully be conceptualised as an exemplar of organisational empowerment. Through school development planning the programme achieved the outcomes it envisaged at the individual, organisational and for some schools at the community level. The results of the study strengthen both the conceptual understanding of empowerment as a dynamic, multilevel, temporal process and the factors that are related to it. However, this will need to be further explored and the model suggested in this study tested in a more rigorous fashion.

9.3. FUTURE STUDIES

The present study's results offers several avenues for further research. Further test construction, validation and research, particularly around organisational level empowerment are needed in this area to fully understand this complex construct and its many forms. Linked to this is the further exploration of school development planning as an exemplar of organisational empowerment. Future studies could begin to further expand the understanding of this as an empowering process and its role in achieving empowered outcome in an organisation.

The role of context specific efficacy as an exemplar of individual level empowerment and its relationship to organisational level empowerment needs further exploration. Future studies could assess whether a more context specific measure of teacher empowerment would be more appropriate or would add to our understanding of this level of empowerment. The possible role that attitudes play as a component of individual level empowerment needs further study. Linked to this is the need for further exploration of psychological empowerment in the school development context.

Issues of organisational internal capacity and contextual support were noted as important influences in the implementation of school development planning in this study. The variables related to internal capacity and contextual support need further exploration. The relationship between the levels of empowerment would also need further exploration and more sophisticated measures of the various levels need to be developed in order to do this. The way in which the various levels of empowerment interact is an area for future study.

The study not only emphasised the role of the principal and his or her relationship with his or her staff but also the mutuality of the relationship and the micro-skills needed for effective leadership. The teachers' perceptions from the focus groups give some insight into this mutuality and what these micro-skills might look like however this would require further exploration.

The study also provided a cross-cultural perspective on empowerment. The data indicated that the relationship between the relationship between democratic leadership and the empowerment of teachers in these schools may be different to western studies. It also suggested that peer collaboration may be being used in a different way. However in order to make any definitive comment on these issues in this context would require further exploration.

More broadly further refinement of empowerment theory is needed to more clearly understand the natural settings in which individuals and organisation become empowered, describe how and why interventions designed to empower are effective or ineffective, study the mechanisms involved in the empowerment process and identify contextual characteristics that may inhibit or promote the development of psychological and organisational empowerment (Zimmerman *et al*., 1992).

The study of particular levels of empowerment is also needed. At the organisational level the issue of school development planning needs to be more fully explored as a pathway of empowerment. It is also essential to further explore the constraints on this pathway and other possible methods of empowerment at this level. Studies exploring the link between empowering organisations and empowered organisations will further clarify this level of empowerment. Researchers need to begin looking at more complex models of organisational empowerment that attempt to take into account the individual, organisational and community level variables and look at the interaction between these variables. Further elaboration on the model developed in this study may offer a place to start.

By further articulating the nomological network of organisational empowerment the development of new measures, measurement models and organisational empowerment-guided interventions is possible. Concrete operations of organisational empowerment like school development planning

can be further developed and their validity tested by empirically examining its relationship with goal achievement, which we have done in this study. Creating ways to assess and validate organisational empowerment is to describe its nomological network. Studies determining the construct validity of measures of empowerment and participation are required in order to enable accurate testing of models and hypotheses.

Longitudinal studies of empowerment interventions are essential to capture the dynamic nature of this complex variable. The present study provides a glimpse into one moment of empowerment in the history of the development of empowerment for this group of people. Long-term studies will allow one to look at the development and fluctuations in empowerment in the change process and allow the fuller exploration of the relationships between empowerment and other variables. These longitudinal studies will also provide information about the sustainability of the interventions and offer insight into the continuation phases of change processes.

ABBREVIATIONS:

ABBREVIATION/ ACRONYMS	
CSTOTAL……..	Collaboration Scale
CSTRANS……..	Collaboration Scale after transformation
GDE…….	Gauteng Department of Education (Local Education Authority)
GSES……	General Self-Efficacy Scale
LC……	Locus of Control Scale
LEA……..	Local Education Authority
PCS……	Participation and Decision Centralisation Scale
PCSTOTAL……	Participation and Decision Centralisation Scale Total
PCSTRANS……...	Participation and Decision Centralisation Scale after transformation
PEERTOTAL…….	Peer Leadership Scale
PEERTRANS…….	Peer Leadership Scale after transformation
POC…….	Profile of Organisational Characteristics
PPS……	Psychological Participation Scale
PPSTOTAL……	Psychological Participation Scale
PPSTRANS……	Psychological Participation Scale after transformation
SDPE TOTAL……	School Development Planning Evaluation Scale
SDPES Transformed……	School Development Planning Evaluation Scale after transformation
SDPES……	School Development Planning Evaluation Scale
SDPESUC……..	School Development Planning Evaluation Scale Success
SDT……	School Development Team
SGB……	School Governing Body
SMT……	School Management Team
SEM ……	Structural Equation Modelling
TE……	Teacher Efficacy Scale

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING EVALUATION SCALE: ORIGINAL VERSION FOR PILOT STUDY

Listed below are a series of statements about the School Development Plan please indicate your response to the statements using the following scale:

1 = strongly disagree
2 = disagree
3 = slightly disagree
4 = neither agree nor disagree
5 = slightly agree
6 = agree
7 = strongly agree

STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. My school has a clear School Development Plan.							
2. Teachers have been involved in the drawing up the School Development Plan.							
3. Parents at the school are aware of the School Development Plan.							
4. Our school has been successful in terms of achieving the objectives we have set out for ourselves in the School Development Plan.							
5. The School Management Team does not offer support for the implementation of the School Development Plan							
6. My school has a written up School Development Plan.							
7. Teachers' views are listened to and included in the ideas of the School Development Plan at our school.							
8. Parents at the school are involved in implementing the School Development Plan.							
9. Our school is more in control of its own development since we drew up the School Development Plan.							
10. The School Management Team thinks School Development Planning at our school is important							
11. The needs of the school have been clearly identified in our School Development Plan.							
12. I do not feel part of implementing the School Development Plan.							
13. Parents at the school think development planning at our school is important.							
14. Drawing up the School Development Plan has raised our expectations about what ought to be achieved at the school.							
15. The School Management Team make themselves available to help with the School Development Plan							
16. I am clear about the objectives for development at our school.							

STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. I have been involved in activities that have helped the school achieve the objectives set out in the School Development Plan.							
18. The School Governing Body thinks development planning at our school is important.							
19. The School Development Plan has improved the quality of the teaching in the classroom.							
20. The School Management Team is aware of what is happening in terms of development at the school							
21. Development is a planned activity at our school.							
22. Activities from the School Development Plan have been assigned to me.							
23. The School Governing Body were involved in drawing up the development plan.							
24. Our school has gained more resources since implementing the School Development Plan.							
25. The implementation of the School Development Plan is effectively managed by the School Management Team							
26. I am clear about the advantages of School Development Planning.							
27. The School's Development Plan is discussed regularly at our school.							
28. The School Governing Body are involved in evaluation of the School Development Plan.							
29. As a school we are aware of our strengths and weaknesses							
30. The implementation of the School Development Plan is effectively monitored by the School Management Team							
31. Time is made available for development planning at our school.							
32. As a staff we meet regularly to monitor the implementation of the School Development Plan.							
33. Stakeholders (parents and the School Governing Body) at the school are given regular reports on progress made in terms of the School Development Plan.							
34. Drawing up the School Development Plan has raised our expectations about what can be achieved at the school.							
35. The School Development Plan is used in allocating financial resources at our school							
36. The staff at our school think development planning is important.							

STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. Progress on the School Development Plan is reported to the staff regularly.							
38. Since the School Development Plan was drawn up there is a growing commitment to improving the school.							
39. The staff at the school are working well together to achieve the objectives of the School Development Plan.							
40. Drawing up the School Development Plan has improved the culture of teaching and learning at our school.							
41. Developing the School Development Plan has helped the school move towards its vision.							
42. The School Development Plan has been a waste of time at our school.							
43. As a staff we agree on what improvements are to be made at our school.							
44. Implementing the School Development Plan has given everyone involved a role to play in the school's continuing improvement.							
45. As a school we use our knowledge of our strengths and weaknesses to guide the development of the school.							
46. Workload, in terms of the School Development Plan, is fairly distributed amongst the staff.							
47. Teachers are more involved in decision-making at the school since we drew up our School Development Plan.							
48. We are clear about the how to measure the achievement of our objectives in the School Development Plan.							
49. The School Development Plan has increased the self-confidence of the staff.							
50. When we encounter problems in implementing our School Development Plan we are able to assess the problem and get back on track							
51. Parent involvement has improved at our school since the School Development Plan was drawn up.							
52. The development planning process is far too time consuming.							

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Thank you for taking time to complete this questionnaire

APPENDIX 2: ITEM CATEGORISATION FOR SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING EVALUATION SCALE (ORIGINAL VERSION)

1. Awareness of the School Development Plan and its Role in School Development (Individual Level of Analysis)

Questions:

- My school has a clear and written up School Development Plan
- My school has a written up School Development Plan
- The needs of the school have been clearly identified in our School Development Plan
- I am clear about the objectives for development at the school
- Development is a planned activity at our school
- I am clear about the advantages of School Development Planning
- As a school we are aware of our strengths and weaknesses
- Time is made available for development planning at our school
- The staff at our school think development planning is important
- The staff at the school are working together to achieve the objectives of the School Development Plan
- As a school we use our knowledge of our strengths and weaknesses as a school and use this to guide development of the school

2. Involvement in the Development of, Implementation of, and Evaluation and Monitoring the School Development Plan (Organisational Level of Analysis)

- Teachers have been involved in the drawing up the School Development Plan
- Teachers' views are listened to and included in the ideas of the School Development Plan at our school
- I do not feel part of implementing the School Development Plan
- I have been involved in activities that have helped the school achieve the objectives set out in the School Development Plan
- I have activities from the School Development Plan assigned to me
- The School's Development Plan is discussed regularly at our school

- As a staff we meet regularly to monitor the implementation of the School Development Plan
- Progress on the School Development Plan is reported to the staff regularly
- Teachers are too busy to implement the School Development Plan
- We agree on what improvements are to be made at our school
- Workload, in terms of the School Development Plan, is fairly distributed amongst the staff
- We are clear about the how to measure the achievement of our objectives in the School Development Plan
- When we encounter problems in implementing our School Development Plan we are able to assess the problem and get back on track

3. Management's Role in School Development Planning (Organisational Level of Analysis)

- The implementation of the School Development Plan is effectively managed by the School Management Team
- The School Management Team does not offer support for the implementation of the School Development Plan
- The School Management Team thinks School Development Planning at our school is important
- The School Management Team make themselves available to help with the School Development Plan
- The School Management Team is aware of what is happening in terms of development at the school
- The implementation of the School Development Plan is effectively monitored by the School Management Team
- The School Development Plan is used in allocating financial resources at our school

4. Assessment of the Effectiveness of the Plan in Bringing About School Change (Community Level of Analysis)

- Our school has been successful in terms of achieving the objectives we have set out for ourselves in the School Development Plan

- Our school is more in control of its own development since we drew up the School Development Plan.
- Drawing up the School Development Plan has raised our expectations about what ought to be achieved at the school has been raised
- The School Development Plan has improved the quality of the teaching in the classroom
- Our school has gained more resources since implementing the School Development Plan
- Drawing up the School Development Plan has raised our expectations about what can be achieved at the school
- Drawing up the School Development Plan has improved the culture of teaching and learning at our school
- Doing the School Development Plan has helped the school move towards its vision
- The School Development Plan has been a waste of time at our school
- Since the School Development Plan was drawn up there is a growing commitment to improving the school
- Implementing the School Development Plan has given everyone involved a role to play in the school's continuing improvement
- Teachers are more involved in decision-making at the school since we drew up our School Development Plan
- The School Development Plan has increased the confidence of the staff
- Parent involvement has improved at our school since the School Development Plan was drawn up

5. Involvement of Other Stakeholders (Community Level of Analysis)

- Parents at the school are aware of the School Development Plan
- Parents are involved in implementing the School Development Plan
- Parents at the school think development planning at our school is important
- The School Governing Body thinks development planning at our school is important
- The School Governing Body were involved in drawing up the development plan

- The School Governing Body are involved in evaluation of the School Development Plan
- Stakeholders (parents and the School Governing Body) at the school are given an annual report on progress made in terms of the School Development Plan

APPENDIX 3: SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING EVALUATION SCALE (FINAL VERSION)

Listed below are a series of statements about the School Development Plan please indicate your response to the statements using the following scale:

1 = strongly disagree
2 = disagree
3 = slightly disagree
4 = neither agree nor disagree
5 = slightly agree
6 = agree
7 = strongly agree

STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Parents at the school are aware of the School Development Plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Our school has been successful in terms of achieving the objectives we have set out for ourselves in the School Development Plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. The School Management Team offers support for the implementation of the School Development Plan	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Teachers' views are listened to and included in the ideas of the School Development Plan at our school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Parents at the school are involved in implementing the School Development Plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Our school is more in control of its own development since we drew up the School Development Plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. The School Management Team thinks School Development Planning at our school is important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I feel part of implementing the School Development Plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Parents at the school think development planning at our school is important.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. The School Management Team make themselves available to help with the School Development Plan	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I am clear about the objectives for development at our school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I have been involved in activities that have helped the school achieve the objectives set out in the School Development Plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. The School Development Plan has improved the quality of the teaching in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Activities from the School Development Plan have been assigned to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. The School Governing Body were involved in drawing up the development plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Our school has gained more resources since implementing the School Development Plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. The implementation of the School Development Plan is effectively managed by the School Management Team	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. The School's Development Plan is discussed regularly at our school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. The School Governing Body are involved in evaluation of the School Development Plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. As a school we are aware of our strengths and weaknesses	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. The implementation of the School Development Plan is effectively monitored by the School Management Team	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Time is made available for development planning at our school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. As a staff we meet regularly to monitor the implementation of the School Development Plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Stakeholders (parents and the School Governing Body) at the school are given regular reports on progress made in terms of the School Development Plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. The School Development Plan is used in allocating financial resources at our school	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Progress on the School Development Plan is reported to the staff regularly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. Since the School Development Plan was drawn up there is a growing commitment to improving the school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. The staff at the school are working well together to achieve the objectives of the School Development Plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. Drawing up the School Development Plan has improved the culture of teaching and learning at our school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. The School Development Plan has been a waste of time at our school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. Implementing the School Development Plan has given everyone involved a role to play in the school's continuing improvement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. Workload, in terms of the School Development Plan, is fairly distributed amongst the staff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. Teachers are more involved in decision-making at the school since we drew up our School Development Plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. We are clear about the how to measure the achievement of our objectives in the School Development Plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. The School Development Plan has increased the self-confidence of the staff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. When we encounter problems in implementing our School Development Plan we are able to assess the problem and get back on track	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. Parent involvement has improved at our school since the School Development Plan was drawn up.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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APPENDIX 4: MEASURES USED IN THE QUANTITATIVE STUDY

BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION:

1. HOW OLD ARE YOU?

20-29 years	30-39 years	40-49 years	50-59 years	60 years +

2. SEX:

MALE	FEMALE

3. WHAT IS YOUR HOME LANGUAGE: _____

4. EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS:

Highest school standard passed:

Std 8 □ Std 10 □

What teaching qualifications do you have?

CERTIFICATE	
DIPLOMA	
UNDERGRADUATE DEGREE	
HONOURS DEGREE	
MASTERS DEGREE	

5. TEACHING EXPERIENCE:

	1-5 yrs	6-10 yrs	11-15 yrs	16-20 yrs	21-25 yrs	26 yrs +
Years of teaching experience.						

	1-5 yrs	6-10 yrs	11-15 yrs	16-20 yrs	21-25 yrs	26 yrs +
How long have you been at this school?						

6. AT THIS SCHOOL ARE YOU A:

TEACHER	
HEAD OF DEPARTMENT	
DEPUTY PRINCIPAL	
PRINCIPAL	
OTHER	

7. WHICH TEACHER ORGANISATION DO YOU BELONG TO?

PEU (Formally TUATA)	
SADTU	
Neither	

8. Are you a member of the School Development Team?

Yes: □ No □

LOCUS OF CONTROL

Listed below are a series of statements please indicate your response to the statements using the following scale:

1. = strongly disagree
2. = disagree
3. = slightly disagree
4. = slightly agree
5. = agree
6. = strongly agree

STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Whether or not I get to be a leader depends mostly on my ability	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. To a great extent my life is controlled by accidental happenings	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I feel like what happens in my life is mostly determined by powerful people	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Whether or not I get into a car accident depends mostly on how good a driver I am	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. When I make plans, I am almost certain to make them work	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Often there is no chance of protecting my personal interest from bad luck happenings	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. When I get what I want, it's usually because I'm lucky	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Although I might have good ability, I will not be given leadership responsibility without appealing to those in positions of power	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. How many friends I have depends on how nice a person I am	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. My life is chiefly controlled by powerful others	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Whether or not I get into a car accident is mostly a matter of luck	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. People like myself have very little chance of protecting our personal interests when they conflict with those of strong pressure groups	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. It's not always wise for me to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Getting what I want requires pleasing those people above me	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. Whether or not I get to be a leader depends on whether I'm lucky enough to be in the right place at the right time	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. If important people were to decide they didn't like me, I probably wouldn't make many friends	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. I can pretty much determine what will happen in my life	1	2	3	4	5	6

STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. I am usually able to protect my personal interests	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. Whether or not I get into a car accident depends mostly on the other driver	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. When I get what I want it is usually because I worked hard for it	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. In order to have my plans work, I make sure that they fit in with the desires of people who have power over me	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. My life is determined by my own actions	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. It's chiefly a matter of fate whether or not I have a few friends or many friends	1	2	3	4	5	6

GENERAL SELF EFFICACY SCALE

Listed below are a series of statements please indicate your response to the statements as honestly as possible using the following scale:

1. = strongly disagree
2. = disagree
3. = neither agree nor disagree
4. = agree
5. = strongly agree

STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5
1. If something looks too complicated I will not even bother to try it	1	2	3	4	5
2. I avoid trying to learn new things when they look too difficult	1	2	3	4	5
3. When trying to learn something new, I soon give up if I am not initially successful	1	2	3	4	5
4. When I make plans, I am certain I can make them work	1	2	3	4	5
5. If I can't do a job the first time, I keep trying until I can	1	2	3	4	5
6. When I have something unpleasant to do, I stick to it until I finish	1	2	3	4	5
7. When I decide to do something, I go right to work on it	1	2	3	4	5
8. Failure just makes me try harder	1	2	3	4	5
9. When I set important goals for myself, I rarely achieve them	1	2	3	4	5
10. I do not seem capable of dealing with most problems that come up in my life	1	2	3	4	5
11. When unexpected problems occur, I don't handle them very well	1	2	3	4	5
12. I feel insecure about my ability to do things	1	2	3	4	5

TEACHER EFFICACY

Listed below are a series of statements please indicate your response to the statements using the following scale:

1. = strongly disagree
2. = disagree
3. = slightly disagree
4. = slightly agree
5. = agree
6. = strongly agree

STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. When a student does better than usual, many times it is because the teacher exerts a little extra effort.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. The time spent in my class has little influence on students compared to the influence of their home environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Student learning is primarily related to their family background.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. If students are not disciplined at home, they are not likely to accept discipline at school.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I have not been trained to deal with many of the problems my students have.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. When a student is having difficulty with an assignment, I often have trouble adjusting it to his/her level.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. When a student performs higher than usual, it is often because I found better ways to teach him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. When I try really hard I can get to most difficult student.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I am very limited in what I can achieve because a student's home environment is a large influence on his/her achievement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Teachers are not a very powerful influence on student achievement when all factors are considered.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. When the performance of a student improves, it is usually because their teacher found more effective teaching approaches.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. If a student masters a new skill or concept quickly, it might be because the teacher knows the necessary steps in teaching it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. If parents would do more for their children, teachers could do more.	1	2	3	4	5	6

STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. The influence of a student's home experience can be overcome by good teaching.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. If a student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I feel assured that I know some technique to redirect him/her quickly.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. Even a teacher with good teaching abilities may not reach many students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. If a student couldn't do a class assignment, most teachers would be able to accurately assess whether the assignment was at the correct level of difficulty.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. If I try really hard, I can get through to even the most difficult or unmotivated students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. When it comes right down to it, a teacher cannot really do much because most of a student's motivation and performance depends on his/her home environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. My teacher training programme and/or experience did not give me the necessary skills to be an effective teacher.	1	2	3	4	5	6

PARTICIPATION AND CENTRALISATION SCALE

Listed below are a series of statements please indicate your response to the statements using the following scale:

1 = strongly disagree
2 = disagree
3 = slightly disagree
4 = neither agree nor disagree
5 = slightly agree
6 = agree
7 = strongly agree

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
1. My principal encourages subordinates to participate in important decisions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. My principal encourages people to speak when they disagree with a decision	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. My principal makes most decisions without asking subordinates for their opinions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. My principal makes important decisions without involving subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PSYCHOLOGICAL PARTICIPATION SCALE

Please answer the following questions as honestly as possible:

1. In general, how much say or influence do you feel you have on what goes on in your school?

A very great deal of influence	A great deal of influence	Quite a bit of influence	Some influence	Little or no influence

2. Do you feel you can influence the decisions of your principal regarding things about which you are concerned?

I can influence him/her to a great extent	To a considerable extent	To some extent	To a very little extent	I cannot influence him/her at all

3. Does your principal ask your opinion when a problem comes up that involves your work?

He/she always asks my opinion	Often asks	Sometimes asks	Seldom asks	He/she never asks my opinion

4. If you have a suggestion for improving the job or changing the set up in some way, how easy is it for you to get your ideas across to your principal?

It is very difficult	Somewhat difficult	Not too easy	Fairly easy	It is very easy to get my ideas across

COLLABORATION SCALE:

Listed below are a series of statements please indicate your response to the statements using the following scale:

1 = strongly disagree
2 = disagree
3 = slightly disagree
4 = neither agree nor disagree
5 = slightly agree
6 = agree
7 = strongly agree

STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In this school the administrator(s) and teachers collaborate in making the school run effectively	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In this school teachers share the responsibility for making many of the important decisions that affect this school	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In this school experienced teachers help new teachers with problems that arise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In this school I feel that I can have input with administrators and other teachers regarding important decisions that affect me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In this school there is often opportunities to reflect on my teaching with experienced teachers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In this school there is good communication between staff members and the principal	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PEER LEADERSHIP INSTRUMENT:

Please answer the following questions as honestly as possible:

PEER LEADERSHIP INSTRUMENT					
	To a very little extent	To a little extent	To some extent	To a great extent	To a very great excellent
1. How friendly or easy to approach are the people in your school?	1	2	3	4	5
2. When you talk with people in your school to what extent do they pay attention to what you are saying?	1	2	3	4	5
3. To what extent are people in your school willing to listen to your problems?	1	2	3	4	5
4. How much do people in your school encourage each other to give their best effort?	1	2	3	4	5
5. To what extent do people in your school maintain high standards?	1	2	3	4	5
6. To what extent do people in your school help you find ways to do a better job?	1	2	3	4	5
7. To what extent do people in your school provide the help you need so that you can plan, organise and schedule work ahead of time?	1	2	3	4	5
8. To what extent do people in your school offer each other new ideas for solving job-related problems?	1	2	3	4	5
9. How much do people in your school encourage each other to work as a team?	1	2	3	4	5
10. How much do people in your school emphasise a team goal?	1	2	3	4	5
11. To what extent do people in your school exchange opinions and ideas?	1	2	3	4	5

PROFILE OF ORGANISATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS SCALE

Listed below are descriptive statements about organisations. For each statement I would like you to tell me the extent to which you perceive your school as somewhere on the dimension from System 1 to System 4.

	System 1	System 2	System 3	System 4
1. How free do you feel to talk to your principal about your job?	Not very free	Somewhat free	Quite free	Very free
2. How often are teachers' ideas sought and used constructively?	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Very frequently
3. Where is responsibility felt for achieving organisation's goals?	Mostly on top	Top and middle	Fairly general	At all levels
4. How much co-operative team work exists?	Very little	Relatively little	Moderate amount	Great deal
5. What is the usual direction of information flow?	Downward	Mostly downward	Down and up	Down, up and sideways
6. How well do management know problems faced by teachers?	Not very well?	Rather well	Quite well	Very well
7. At what level are decisions made?	Mostly at the top	Policy at top some delegation	Broad policy top, more delegation	Throughout but well integrated
8. Are teachers involved in decisions related to their work?	Almost never	Occasionally consulted	Generally consulted	Fully involved
9. How are organisational goals established?	Orders issued	Orders, some comments invited	After discussion by order	By group action (except in crisis)
10. How much covert resistance to goals is present?	Strong resistance	Moderate resistance	Some resistance at times	Little or none
11. How concentrated are review and control functions?	Very highly at the top	Quite highly at the top	Moderate delegation to lower levels	Widely shared
12. What decision making processes contribute to motivation?	Not very much	Relatively little	Some contribution	Substantial contribution
13. How accurate is upward communication?	Usually inaccurate	Often inaccurate	Often accurate	Almost always accurate
14. How is downward communication accepted?	With suspicion	Possibly with suspicion	With caution	With a receptive mind
15. Is predominant use made of (1) fear, (2) threats, (3) punishment (4) rewards, (5) involvement?	1,2,3 and occasionally 4	4 and some of 3	4, some of 3 and 5	5, 4 based on group
16. How much confidence and trust is shown in teachers?	Virtually none	Some	Substantial amount	A great deal

SUPERVISORY LEADERSHIP INSTRUMENT

Please answer the following questions as honestly as possible:

SUPERVISORY LEADERSHIP INSTRUMENT					
	To a very little extent	To a little extent	To some extent	To a great extent	To a very great excellent
1. How friendly and easy to approach is your principal?	1	2	3	4	5
2. When you talk with your principal, to what extent does he/she pay attention to what you are saying?	1	2	3	4	5
3. To what extent is your principal willing to listen to your problems?	1	2	3	4	5
4. How much does your principal encourage people to give their best effort?	1	2	3	4	5
5. To what extent does your principal maintain high standards of performance?	1	2	3	4	5
6. To what extent does your principal set an example by working hard him or her self?	1	2	3	4	5
7. To what extent does your principal encourage subordinates to take action without waiting for detailed review and approval from him or her?	1	2	3	4	5
8. To what extent does your principal show you how to improve your performance?	1	2	3	4	5
9. To what extent does your principal provide the help you need so that you can schedule work ahead of time?	1	2	3	4	5
10. To what extent does your principal offer new ideas for solving job-related problems?	1	2	3	4	5
11. To what extent does your principal encourage the people who work for him or her to work as a team?	1	2	3	4	5
12. To what extent does your principal encourage people who work for him or her to exchange opinions and ideas?	1	2	3	4	5
13. How often does your principal hold group meetings where the people who work for him or her can really discuss things together?	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX 5: INFORMATION GIVEN TO SCHOOLS AT THE PRELIMINARY MEETING TO DISCUSS THE PROPOSED STUDY

Dear Principal and Staff

As you are already aware Outreach has been working on a Whole School Development Project with the Atteridgeville Primary Schools since 1996. This year we have worked with all of the primary schools in the area. It is now becoming important for us to assess how successful we have been in the work we set out to do. This is important for us in terms of changes we need to make to our programme and plans we make for the future. It is also very important for us to be able to give our funders a clear picture of what results we have achieved using their money.

It is also important for us to explore what things in the programme helped or hindered the empowerment of the school and of the people who work in the school. This will help us to understand the way in which organisations, such as schools, change and the way in which the individuals in those organisations change. In this way we can ensure that we strengthen our programme and therefore the likelihood that it will bring about change in the schools we work with. The findings of this research will also be important for the department as it will help to guide them in their attempts to develop and change the schools in their district. It will also guide them as to whether the process of school development planning is a useful tool for schools.

In order to do this we will need the involvement of all of the schools we have worked with. Attached to the letter is a list of all the schools and what we will require from them. The reason some schools (Group B) will be involved less in terms of time is because we need to compare those schools who have been in the programme the longest (Group A) with those who have been in the shortest (Group C). Group B is the middle group who have been in the programme for 2 years. I'm sure you'll agree that the time required is very minimal. Outreach will also provide the schools with feedback from the study.

I have undertaken to do the evaluation as part of my Doctorate degree. It will therefore help me in furthering my studies. It will also provide me with an opportunity to critically reflect on the work I have been doing with the schools over the past 4 years. Something I don't often get the time to do when I am busy running around Atteridgeville from school to school.

Your schools are in the unique position that you have School Development Plans and have been implementing them. Most schools in South Africa have not implemented this new policy. Your schools involvement in this evaluation will therefore give light on a very new concept that all schools will eventually have to implement. I would therefore appreciate your assistance in this process. If you have any questions you would like to have addressed please feel free to contact me. If you would like me to explain the process to your staff I will also gladly do this.

Many thanks

Alex Hassett

GROUP 1: THREE YEAR OR MORE	GROUP A: PILOT GROUP	GROUP 2: ONE YEAR
1. (Name of school) 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10.	1. (Name of school) 2. 3. 4. 5. 6.	1. (Name of school) 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8.

REQUIREMENTS FROM GROUP A:

- Half an hour to fill in a questionnaire that is being designed to measure how effectively the school is implementing the school development plan.

REQUIREMENTS OF GROUPS 1 AND 2:

- One hour for staff to fill in questionnaires relating to leadership in the school (both management and staff leadership); staff involvement and participation at the school; individual empowerment and school development planning implementation

- One three hour session to discuss the results of the school development implementation questionnaire with a group of the staff.

APPENDIX 6: POINTS TO HIGHLIGHT TO THE SCHOOLS WHEN ADMINISTERING QUESTIONNAIRES FOR THE EVALUATION:

1. OUTREACH HAS NOW WORKED WITH ALL OF THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS AND IT IS IMPORTANT FOR US TO EVALUATE OUR PROJECT TO SEE IF WE HAVE BEEN SUCCESSFUL AND TO ASSESS IF WE NEED TO CHANGE OUR PROJECT

As you are already aware Outreach has been working on a Whole School Development Project with the Atteridgeville Primary Schools since 1996. This year we have worked with all of the primary schools in the area. It is now becoming important for us to assess how successful we have been in the work we set out to do. This is important for us in terms of changes we need to make to our programme and plans we make for the future.

2. IT IS IMPORTANT FOR US TO UNDERSTAND THE THINGS THAT HELP OR HINDER THE PROCESS OF SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT AND EMPOWERMENT OF THE PEOPLE WE WORK WITH:

It is also important for us to explore what things in the programme helped or hindered the empowerment of the school and of the people who work in the school. This will help us to understand the way in which organisations, such as schools, change and the way in which the individuals in those organisations change. In this way we can ensure that we strengthen our programme and therefore the likelihood that it will bring about change in the schools we work with. The findings of this research will also be important for the department as it will help to guide them in their attempts to develop and change the schools in their district. It will also guide them as to whether the process of school development planning is a useful tool for schools.

3. THE ATTERIDGEVILLE PRIMARY SCHOOLS ARE IN A UNIQUE POSITION IN THAT THEY HAVE BEEN IMPLEMENTING GOVERNMENT POLICY FOR OVER 4 YEARS WHEREAS MOST SCHOOLS IN GAUTENG ONLY STARTED IN 1999:

Your schools are in the unique position that you have School Development

Plans and have been implementing them. Most schools in South Africa have not implemented this new policy. Your school's involvement in this evaluation will therefore give light on a very new concept that all schools will eventually have to implement. I would therefore appreciate your assistance in this process.

4. THE EVALUATION IS BEING DONE AS PART OF ALEX'S DOCTORAL STUDIES

Alex has undertaken to do the evaluation as part of my Doctorate degree. He is presently working on his Doctorate in Community Psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand. This study is designed to evaluate the impact of the school development planning project on the level of empowerment of the school and at an individual level and to explore some of the factors that help or hinder this process.

5. IMPORTANCE OF ANSWERING ALL OF THE ITEMS ON EACH QUESTIONNAIRE:

If participants leave items out we cannot use the questionnaires.

6. IMPORTANCE OF ANSWERING THE QUESTIONNAIRES AS HONESTLY AND AS ACCURATELY AS POSSIBLE

In order to do this we will need the involvement of all of the schools and their staff. Outreach will also provide the schools with feedback from the study. The questionnaires should take about 60 minutes to complete. It is important that you answer each question as accurately as you can. It is also important that you give a response to each of the questions or statements. If you are unsure of your response please try and think which response is most like your thoughts, feelings, perceptions about the statement or question.

This questionnaire will not require you to identify yourself and your individual responses will remain confidential at all times. Once you have completed the form you can give it to me. Feedback on the overall findings will be made available to the schools once the study is complete.

APPENDIX 7: FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW SCHEDULE:

Introduction:

Your school has been involved with Outreach for some years and you have worked on a School Development Plan (SDP). We are here to exchange opinions and feelings about the SDP. Please share your point of view even if it different from what others have said. There are no right or wrong answers but rather differing points of view. I am just as interested in negative comments as positive comments, and at times the negative comments may be more helpful.

I am here to learn as much as possible about your experience of the School Development Plan. I need to know both those things you found useful and those you did not. All of this discussion will remain anonymous. I am tape recording because I don't want to miss any of your comments. If you do not feel comfortable with being tape recorded and would prefer not to do so you may as this is a voluntary exercise and I need people to feel comfortable in the group. (give time for people to decide). Please speak up and let's try to have just one person speak at a time. I will play traffic cop and try and assure that everyone gets a turn.

Please say exactly what you think, don't worry about what others or I may think.

Introductory exercise:

Before you start ask each participant to spend a few minutes thinking about the SDP and to jot down their ideas about the SDP.

To start off with I'd like you to spend a few minutes on your own thinking about the SDP and how you feel it has helped the school or hasn't helped the school. I'd like you to think about what things have helped you implement the plan and what things have hindered that implementation.

First question:

Let's talk about your experience of being involved in School Development Planning.

(1). “I am interested in finding out how you feel about the usefulness of the school development plan at the school. What can you tell me about that?”

Questions:

(2). Has the School Development Plan brought about any changes in your school? Can you tell me about these changes. Or

Do you feel the School Development Plan has empowered your school. If yes why if no why not?

(this question will be adapted if the group has already spoken about changes in previous question)

Probes:

- Are teachers more involved at the school since implementing the School Development Plan? Can you explain to me.
- Has decision making improved? Can you elaborate on this.
- Do you think the management at the school has changed since implementing the School Development plan.? How involved are the School Management Team in the implementation of the plan.
- How involved are parents since implementing the School Development Plan?
- How involved are the School Governing Body in implementing the plan?

(3). What factors have helped your school in terms of implementing the school development plan?

(4). What factors have hindered your school in terms of implementing the school development plan?

(5). Has the School Development Plan brought about any changes in you as an individual? Can you tell me about that? Or

Do you feel empowered as a teacher by the School Development Plan?

Ending off session:

At the end of the focus group I will encourage each participant to summarise his or her point of view on the critical topics of interest. “If you could offer one minute of advice to another school about the School Development Plan what would it be”.

APPENDIX 8: LETTER REQUESTING PARTICIPANTS FOR FOCUS GROUPS

Dear Sir/Madam

Thank you very much for taking the time last term to fill in the questionnaires designed to evaluate the work the St Mary's DSG Outreach Project has been doing with your school. I would now like to spend some time with a small group of teachers from the school to discuss your experiences of the School Development Plan implementation at your school. I would like between 6 to 8 teachers. I would like the group to be made up of half School Development Team members and half teachers who were not part of the School Development Team. So for example if the school selects 8 teachers I would like 4 to be from the School Development Team and 4 from the rest of the staff. The principal should not be part of this group. I will meet with the principals to discuss issues related to the study if necessary.

The discussion group will be happening on:

Date: _____

Time: _____

Venue: _____

Refreshments will be served.

If you would be willing to be part of this group please fill in the form attached and give it to the principal.

Thanks very much

Alex Hassett

CONSENT TO BE INVOLVED IN DISCUSSION GROUP AROUND THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLAN.

I, (name) _____ am willing to participate in the above mentioned discussion group. I am aware that the above group discussion is part of Alex Hassett's study of the St Mary's DSG Outreach Programme for his doctorate in Psychology. I am participating in this discussion group on a voluntary basis and am aware that the data collected can be used in writing up the evaluation.

Signature: _____

APPENDIX 9: PRINCIPAL AND SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT TEAM INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1. Does your school presently have a school development plan?

2. When was this plan developed?

3. Was the plan implementation reviewed by the school?

4. Is the plan being used by the school to guide their activities?

5. In what form is the plan recorded and where?

6. Has the school made any achievements in terms of implementation of the plan?

7. Is the school development team functioning (e.g. do they meet regularly, keep minutes, offer regular feedback to the staff, review and monitor the implementation of the plan)?

8. What role is the principal playing in the School Development Team/planning?

9. What role does the school management team play in School Development Team/Planning

10. In what way is the plan connected to fund-raising

APPENDIX 10: INFORMATION RELATING TO THE TEST ASSUMPTIONS[3]

[3] A Table of Abbreviations used in the Tables can be found on page 280

TABLE 1: GROUP 1 HISTOGRAMS COMPARING SCALES BEFORE AND AFTER TRANSFORMATION

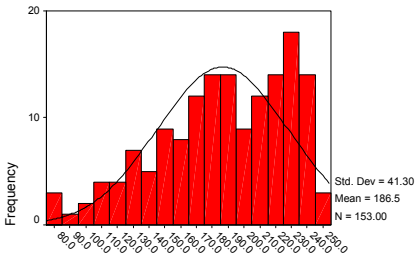
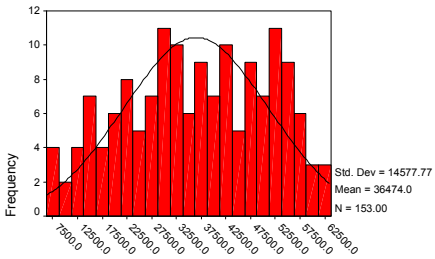
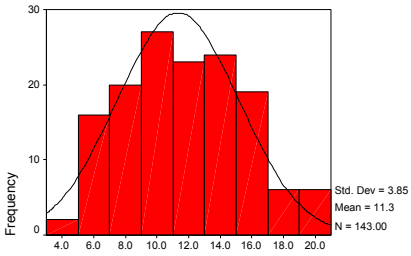
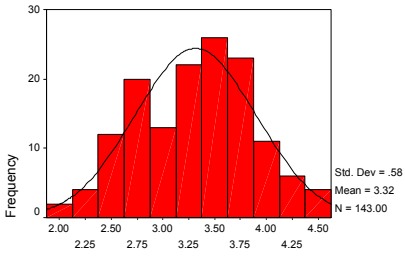
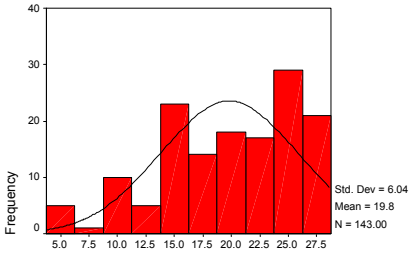
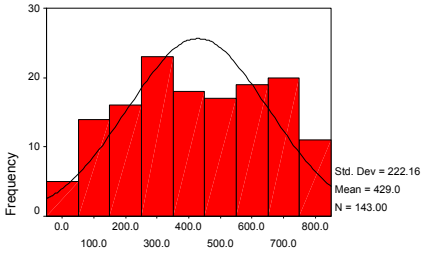
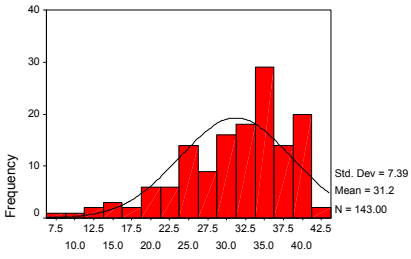
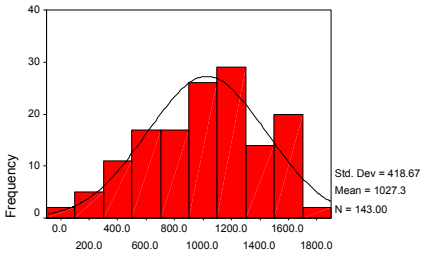
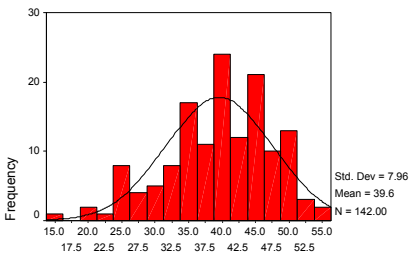
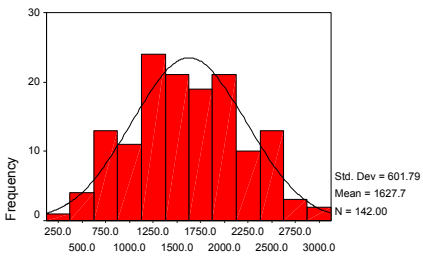
Histogram Group 1 (before)	Histogram Group 1 (after)
SDPE TOTAL GROUP: 1.00 3 yrs  SDPE TOTAL	SDPES Transformed GROUP: 1.00 3 yrs  SDPES Transformed
PPSTOTAL GROUP: 1.00 3 yrs  PPSTOTAL	PPSTRANS GROUP: 1.00 3 yrs  PPSTRANS
PCSTOTAL GROUP: 1.00 3 yrs  PCSTOTAL	PCSTRANS GROUP: 1.00 3 yrs  PCSTRANS
CSTOTAL GROUP: 1.00 3 yrs  CSTOTAL	CSTRANS GROUP: 1.00 3 yrs  CSTRANS
PEERLTOTAL GROUP: 1.00 3 yrs  PEERLTOTAL	PEERTRAN GROUP: 1.00 3 yrs  PEERTRAN

TABLE 2: GROUP 2 HISTOGRAMS COMPARING SCALES BEFORE AND AFTER TRANSFORMATION

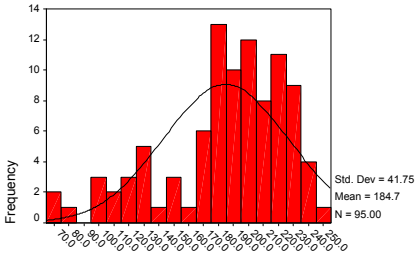
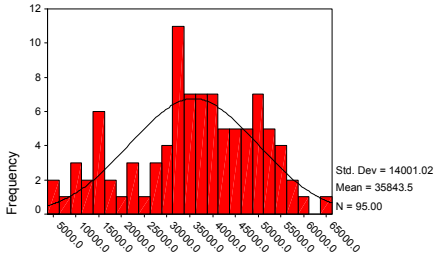
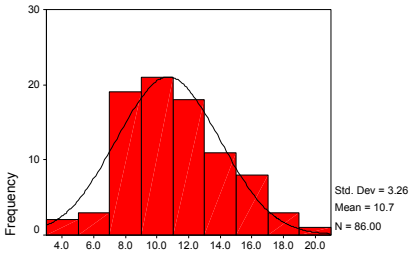
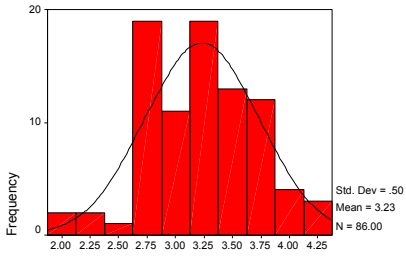
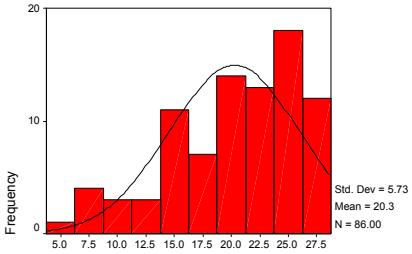
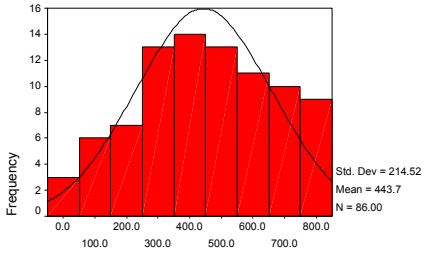
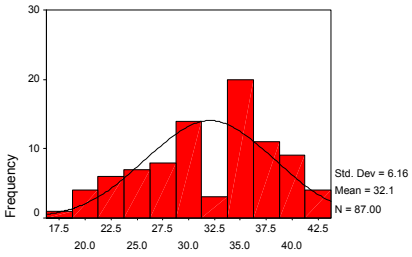
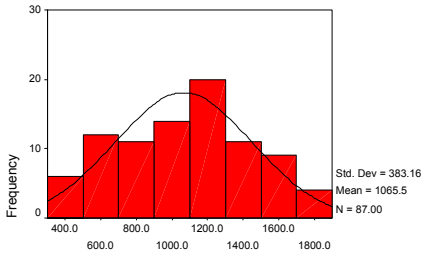
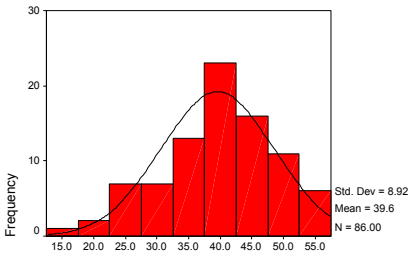
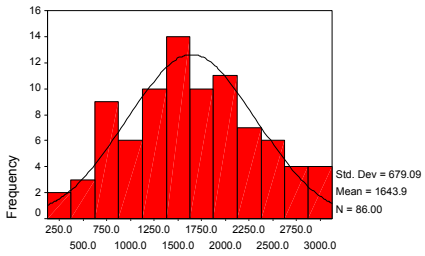
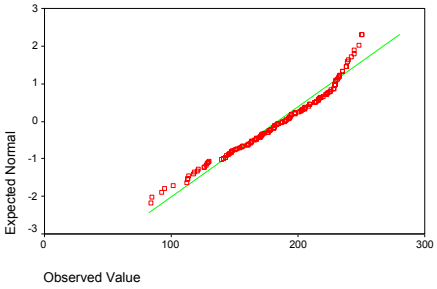
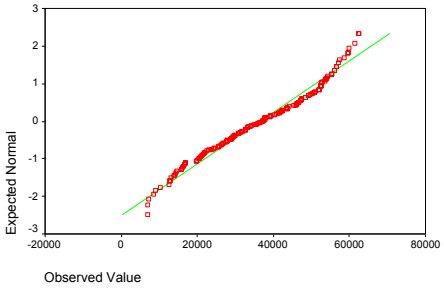
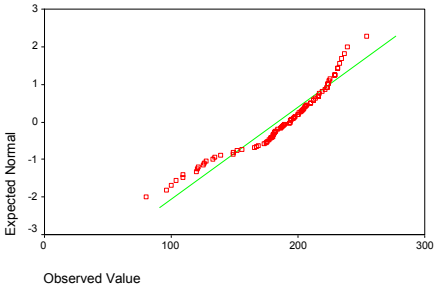
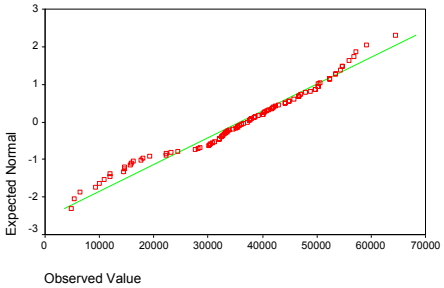
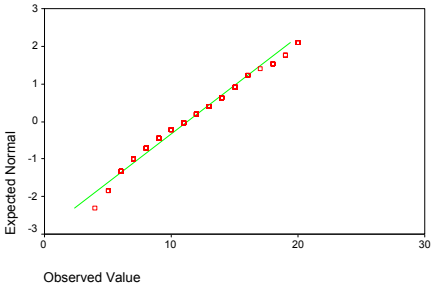
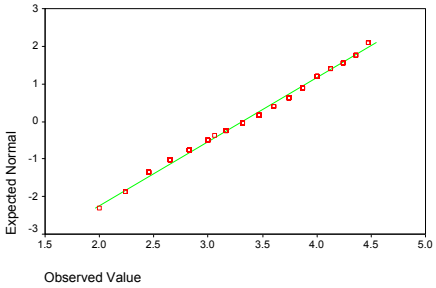
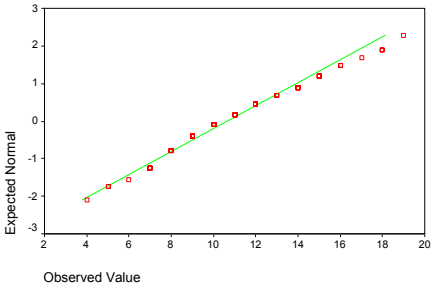
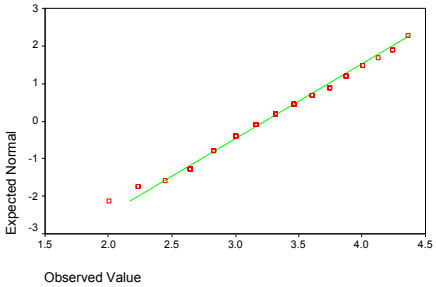
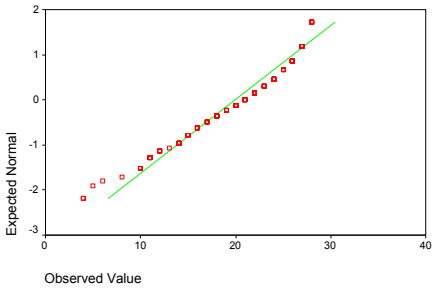
Histogram Group 2 (before)	Histogram Group 2 (after)
SDPE TOTAL GROUP: 2.00 1yr  SDPE TOTAL	SDPES Transformed GROUP: 2.00 1yr  SDPES Transformed
PPSTOTAL GROUP: 2.00 1yr  PPSTOTAL	PPSTRANS GROUP: 2.00 1yr  PPSTRANS
PCSTOTAL GROUP: 2.00 1yr  PCSTOTAL	PCSTRANS GROUP: 2.00 1yr  PCSTRANS
CSTOTAL GROUP: 2.00 1yr  CSTOTAL	CSTRANS GROUP: 2.00 1yr  CSTRANS
PEERLTOTAL GROUP: 2.00 1yr  PEERLTOTAL	PEERTRAN GROUP: 2.00 1yr  PEERTRAN

TABLE 3: GROUP 1 AND 2 Q-Q PLOTS COMPARING SCALES BEFORE AND AFTER TRANSFORMATION

Normal Q-Q Plots before transformation	Normal Q-Q Plots after transformation
Normal Q-Q Plot of SDPE TOTAL For GROUP= 3 yrs  	Normal Q-Q Plot of SDPES Transformed For GROUP= 3 yrs 
Normal Q-Q Plot of SDPE TOTAL For GROUP= 1yr  	Normal Q-Q Plot of SDPES Transformed For GROUP= 1yr 
Normal Q-Q Plot of PPSTOTAL For GROUP= 3 yrs  	Normal Q-Q Plot of PPSTRANS For GROUP= 3 yrs 
Normal Q-Q Plot of PPSTOTAL For GROUP= 1yr  	Normal Q-Q Plot of PPSTRANS For GROUP= 1yr 

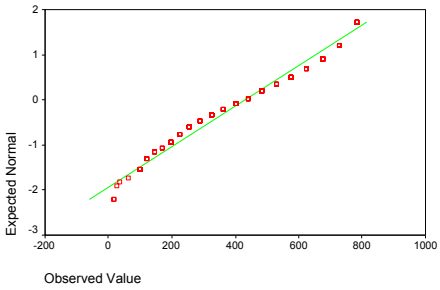
Normal Q-Q Plot of PCSTOTAL

For GROUP= 3 yrs



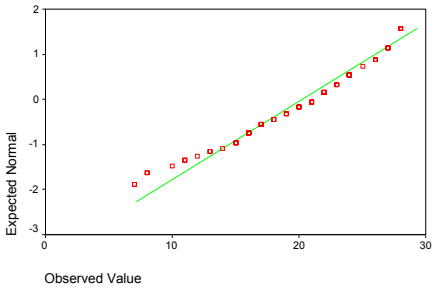
Normal Q-Q Plot of PCSTRANS

For GROUP= 3 yrs



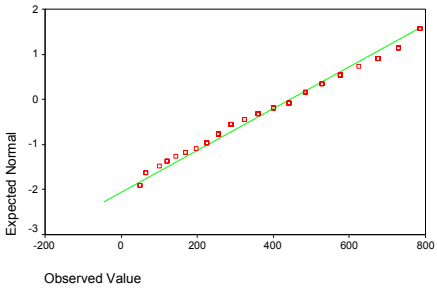
Normal Q-Q Plot of PCSTOTAL

For GROUP= 1yr



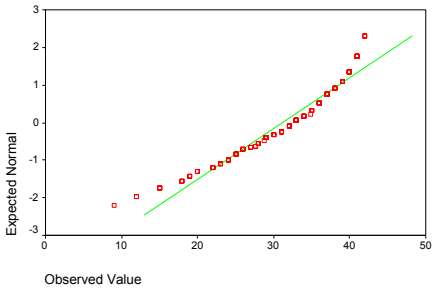
Normal Q-Q Plot of PCSTRANS

For GROUP= 1yr



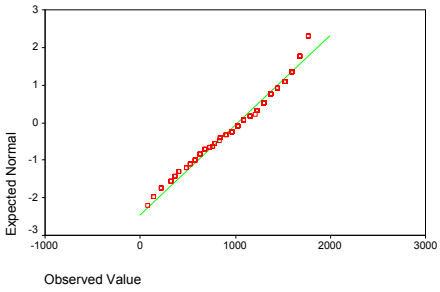
Normal Q-Q Plot of CSTOTAL

GROUP= 3 yrs



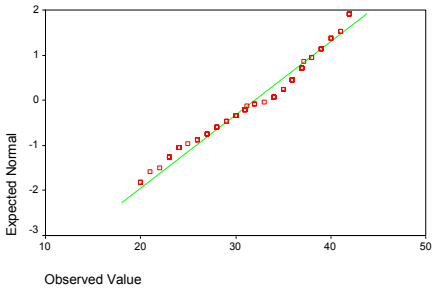
Normal Q-Q Plot of CSTRANS

For GROUP= 3 yrs



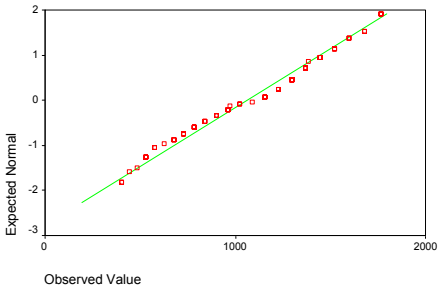
Normal Q-Q Plot of CSTOTAL

GROUP= 1yr



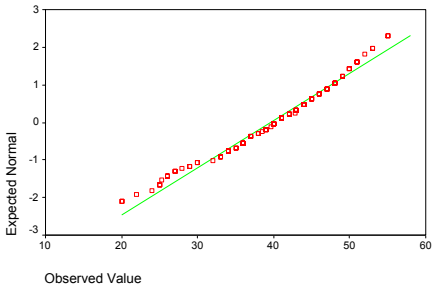
Normal Q-Q Plot of CSTRANS

For GROUP= 1yr



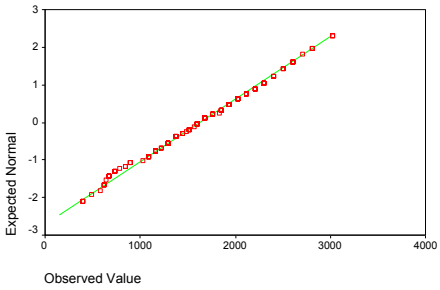
Normal Q-Q Plot of PEERLTOTAL

GROUP= 3 yrs



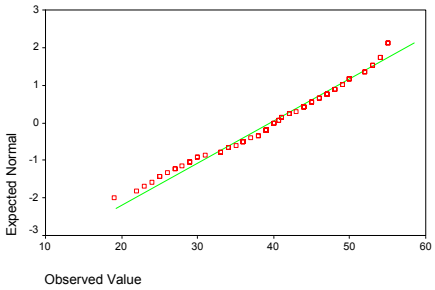
Normal Q-Q Plot of PEERTRAN

For GROUP= 3 yrs



Normal Q-Q Plot of PEERLTOTAL

GROUP= 1yr



Normal Q-Q Plot of PEERTRAN

For GROUP= 1yr

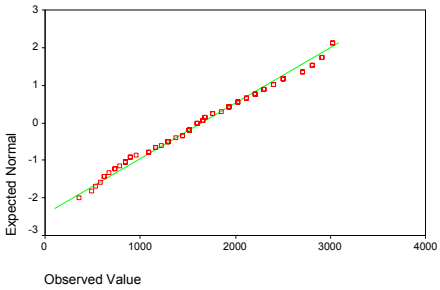


TABLE 4: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR GROUP 1 (3 years or more in the programme):

	School Dev Plan Eval	Locus of Control	Gen Self Efficacy	Teacher Efficacy	Participation Centralisation	Psychological Participation	Collaboration	Prof Org Characteristic	Supervisory Leadership	Peer Leadership
N Valid	153	153	153	142	143	143	143	139	143	142
Missing	0	0	0	11	10	10	10	14	10	11
Mean	186.4925	91.7715	39.7415	81.7144	19.8182	11.3310	31.1944	44.1751	46.5613	39.5576
Std. Error of Mean	3.33889	1.00018	.43094	.80296	.50523	.32221	.61795	.81292	.97430	.66767
Median	193.0000	91.3500	40.0000	81.0000	21.0000	11.0000	32.0000	44.0000	48.0000	40.0000
Mode	229.00	92.00	46.00	78.00	22.00	12.00	36.00	43.00	52.00	36.00
Std. Deviation	41.29975	12.37158	5.33048	9.56832	6.04168	3.85303	7.38956	9.58415	11.65097	7.95618
Variance	1705.66925	153.05606	28.41404	91.55276	36.50192	14.84585	54.60560	91.85600	135.74516	63.30087
Skewness	-.561	.077	-.172	.228	-.590	.233	-.893	-.205	-.719	-.534
Std. Error of Skewness	.196	.196	.196	.203	.203	.203	.203	.206	.203	.203
Skewness z-scores	2.862	.393	.877	1.123	2.906	1.147	4.399	.995	3.54	2.6
Kurtosis	-.485	-.414	-.489	.342	-.318	-.634	.454	-.611	.206	.023
Std. Error of Kurtosis	.390	.390	.390	.404	.403	.403	.403	.408	.403	.404
Kurtosis z-score	1.69	.63	.93	1.06	1.7	1.07	2.09	.99	1.88	1.6
Range	166.75	58.47	24.44	61.00	24.00	16.00	34.00	43.80	52.00	40.00
Minimum	83.25	62.00	25.56	51.00	4.00	4.00	8.00	19.20	13.00	15.00
Maximum	250.00	120.47	50.00	112.00	28.00	20.00	42.00	63.00	65.00	55.00

TABLE 5: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR GROUP 2 (1 year in the programme):

	School Dev Plan Eval	Locus of Control	Gen Self Efficacy	Teacher Efficacy	Participation Centralisation	Psychological Participation	Collaboration	Prof Org Characteristic	Supervisory Leadership	Peer Leadership
N Valid	95	95	95	87	86	86	87	87	86	86
Missing	0	0	0	8	9	9	8	8	9	9
Mean	184.7122	92.7413	40.4304	82.8254	20.2791	10.6977	32.0621	43.7963	46.0155	39.5628
Std. Error of Mean	4.28368	1.25658	.52877	.92920	.61794	.35130	.66032	.91781	1.10348	.96190
Median	193.0000	93.0000	40.0000	83.0000	21.5000	10.0000	34.0000	44.0000	47.0000	40.0000
Mode	179.00	85.00	39.00	83.00	22.00	8.00	36.00	45.00	44.00	39.00
Std. Deviation	41.75218	12.24766	5.15380	8.66704	5.73052	3.25782	6.15908	8.56072	10.23322	8.92026
Variance	1743.24419	150.00513	26.56166	75.11761	32.83885	10.61341	37.93424	73.28598	104.71871	79.57107
Skewness	-.922	-.428	-.485	.459	-.665	.365	-.371	-.128	-.287	-.435
Std. Error of Skewness	.247	.247	.247	.258	.260	.260	.258	.258	.260	.260
Skewness z-scores	3.732	1.733	1.96	1.77	2.55	1.403	1.4	.496	1.104	1.67
Kurtosis	.291	.143	.374	.337	-.135	-.225	-.796	-.343	-.388	-.227
Std. Error of Kurtosis	.490	.490	.490	.511	.514	.514	.511	.511	.514	.514
Kurtosis z-scores	1.93	1.3	1.4	1.33	1.60	1.18	1.18	0.7	1.05	1.29
Range	185.00	59.15	25.56	45.00	23.00	15.00	24.00	41.00	42.00	40.00
Minimum	69.00	59.85	24.44	66.00	5.00	4.00	18.00	23.00	22.00	15.00
Maximum	254.00	119.00	50.00	111.00	28.00	19.00	42.00	64.00	64.00	55.00

a Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

TABLE 6: SKEWNESS AND KURTOSIS STATISTICS FOR GROUP 1 AFTER THE TRANSFORMATION OF THE SCALES:

Group 1 (3 years on the programme)

	School Dev Plan Eval Scale	Psychological Participation Scale	Participation Centralisation Scale	Collaboration Scale	Peer Leadership Scale
N Valid	153	143	143	143	142
Missing	0	10	10	10	11
Skewness	-.165	-.107	-.015	-.314	-.017
Std. Error of Skewness	.196	.203	.203	.203	.203
Skewness z-scores	.84	.053	.0074	1.55	.049
Kurtosis	-.988	-.697	-1.132	-.712	-.486
Std. Error of Kurtosis	.390	.403	.403	.403	.404
Kurtosis z-score	0.91	.23	.086	1.24	.22

TABLE 7: SKEWNESS AND KURTOSIS STATISTICS FOR GROUP 2 AFTER THE TRANSFORMATION OF THE SCALES:

Group 2 (1 year on the programme)

	School Dev Plan Eval Scale	Psychological Participation Scale	Participation Centralisation Scale	Collaboration Scale	Peer Leadership Scale
N Valid	95	86	86	87	86
Missing	0	9	9	8	9
Skewness	-.412	-.040	-.074	-.060	.086
Std. Error of Skewness	.247	.260	.260	.258	.260
Skewness z-scores	1.66	.154	.285	.23	.33
Kurtosis	-.509	-.161	-.932	-.963	-.630
Kurtosis z-scores	1.289	.39	.53	.48	.57
Std. Error of Kurtosis	.490	.514	.514	.511	.514

APPENDIX 11: KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV STATISTIC COMPARING NORMALITY SCORES FOR BOTH GROUPS BEFORE AND AFTER TRANSFORMATIONS:

SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING EVALUATION SCALE (SDPES):
Before transformation:

		Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)		
	Group	Statistic	df	Sig.
SDPES	1	.083	153	.012
SDPES	2	.140	95	.000

a Lilliefors Significance Correction

After transformation:

		Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)		
	Group	Statistic	df	Sig.
SDPES Trans	1	.073	153	.044
SDPES Trans	2	.088	95	.69

a Lilliefors Significance Correction

PSYCHOLOGICAL PARTICIPATION SCALE (PPS):
Before transformation:

		Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)		
	Group	Statistic	df	Sig.
PPS	1	.090	143	.007
PPS	2	.108	86	.015

a Lilliefors Significance Correction

After transformation:

		Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)		
	Group	Statistic	df	Sig.
PPS	1	.090	143	.006
PPS	2	.085	86	.180

a Lilliefors Significance Correction

PARTICIPATION CENTRALISATION SCALE (PCS):
Before transformation:

		Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)		
	Group	Statistic	df	Sig.
PCS	1	.110	143	.000
PCS	2	.118	86	.005

a Lilliefors Significance Correction

After transformation:

	Group	Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)		
		Statistic	df	Sig.
PCS	1	.096	143	.003
PCS	2	.081	86	.200

a Lilliefors Significance Correction

COLLABORATION SCALE (CS):
Before transformation:

	Group	Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)		
		Statistic	df	Sig.
CS	1	.124	143	.000
CS	2	.129	87	.001

a Lilliefors Significance Correction

After transformation:

	Group	Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)		
		Statistic	df	Sig.
CS	1	.087	143	.010
CS	2	.099	87	.034

a Lilliefors Significance Correction

PEER LEADERSHIP SCALE (PEERLEAD):
Before transformation:

	Group	Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)		
		Statistic	df	Sig.
PEERLEAD	1	.074	142	.056
PEERLEAD	2	.103	86	.025

a Lilliefors Significance Correction

After transformation:

	Group	Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)		
		Statistic	df	Sig.
PEERLEAD	1	.041	142	.200
PEERLEAD	2	.060	86	.200

a Lilliefors Significance Correction

KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV STATISTIC FOR THOSE NOT TRANSFORMED

PROFILE OF ORGANISATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS (POC):

		Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)		
	Group	Statistic	df	Sig.
POC	1	.071	139	.082
POC	2	.062	87	.200

a Lilliefors Significance Correction

SUPERVISORY LEADERSHIP SCALE (SUPLEAD):

		Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)		
	Group	Statistic	df	Sig.
SUPERLEAD	1	.079	143	.028
SUPERLEAD	2	.066	86	.200

a Lilliefors Significance Correction

LOCUS OF CONTROL (LC):

		Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)		
	Group	Statistic	df	Sig.
LC	1	.055	153	.200
LC	2	.074	95	.200

a Lilliefors Significance Correction

GENERAL SELF-EFFICACY SCALE (GSES):

		Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)		
	Group	Statistic	df	Sig.
GSES	1	.075	153	.033
GSES	2	.082	95	.119

a Lilliefors Significance Correction

TEACHER EFFICACY SCALE (TE):

		Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)		
	Group	Statistic	df	Sig.
TE	1	.067	142	.200
TE	2	.067	87	.200

a Lilliefors Significance Correction

APPENDIX 12: INFORMATION RELATING TO THE RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY ANALYSES OF THE SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING EVALUATION SCALE

TABLE 1: SKEWNESS AND KURTOSIS FOR SDPES ITEMS

	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Item 1	-1.762	.285	3.323	.563
Item 2	-2.177	.285	7.611	.563
Item 3	-.964	.285	.041	.563
Item 4	-1.055	.285	.854	.563
Item 5	-.374	.285	-1.195	.563
Item 6	-1.459	.285	1.751	.563
Item 7	-1.246	.285	1.293	.563
Item 8	-.697	.285	-.416	.563
Item 9	-.994	.285	.521	.563
Item 10	-1.024	.285	.339	.563
Item 11	-1.716	.285	3.953	.563
Item 12	-1.090	.285	-.123	.563
Item 13	-.719	.285	-.088	.563
Item 14	-1.520	.285	2.089	.563
Item 15	-1.022	.285	.157	.563
Item 16	-1.145	.285	.675	.563
Item 17	-1.138	.285	.593	.563
Item 18	-1.664	.285	3.167	.563
Item 19	-.881	.285	.304	.563
Item 20	-1.871	.285	4.127	.563
Item 21	-1.305	.285	1.663	.563
Item 22	-.568	.285	-.913	.563
Item 23	-.794	.285	-.568	.563
Item 24	-1.094	.285	1.010	.563
Item 25	-.814	.285	.055	.563
Item 26	-1.401	.285	1.737	.563
Item 27	-.815	.285	-.449	.563
Item 28	-.549	.285	-.644	.563
Item 29	-1.189	.285	.692	.563
Item 30	-.835	.285	-.169	.563
Item 31	-.802	.285	-.040	.563
Item 32	-.566	.285	-.620	.563
Item 33	-.850	.285	-.338	.563
Item 34	-1.557	.285	3.090	.563
Item 35	-.794	.285	-.124	.563
Item 36	-1.347	.285	2.645	.563
Item 37	-.809	.285	-.251	.563
Item 38	-1.224	.285	.773	.563
Item 39	-1.283	.285	1.357	.563
Item 40	-1.205	.285	1.035	.563
Item 41	-1.346	.285	1.623	.563
Item 42	-1.204	.285	.282	.563
Item 43	-1.687	.285	2.676	.563
Item 44	-1.172	.285	1.227	.563
Item 45	-1.356	.285	1.667	.563
Item 46	-.771	.285	-.304	.563
Item 47	-1.044	.285	.177	.563
Item 48	-.802	.285	.266	.563
Item 49	-1.137	.285	1.039	.563
Item 50	-.872	.285	.032	.563
Item 51	-.658	.285	-.603	.563
Item 52	-.397	.285	-1.061	.563

TABLE 2: ITEM CORRELATIONS (Pearson's) WITH ITEM 52 INCLUDED AND EXCLUDED

	With Item 52 Included	With Item 52 removed
Item 3	.589**	.593**
Item 4	.786**	.789**
Item 5	.305**	.303*
Item 7	.566**	.570**
Item 8	.576**	.569**
Item 9	.642**	.644**
Item 10	.641**	.641**
Item 12	.361**	.361**
Item 13	.595**	.592**
Item 15	.769**	.764**
Item 16	.747**	.747**
Item 17	.624**	.628**
Item 19	.760**	.764**
Item 22	.571**	.573**
Item 23	.428**	.420**
Item 24	.672**	.670**
Item 25	.646**	.641**
Item 27	.724**	.735**
Item 28	.656**	.658**
Item 29	.749**	.751**
Item 30	.783**	.780**
Item 31	.784**	.795**
Item 32	.702**	.705**
Item 33	.650**	.655**
Item 35	.672**	.675**
Item 37	.745**	.748**
Item 38	.751**	.755**
Item 39	.771**	.773**
Item 40	.757**	.763**
Item 42	.451**	.433**
Item 44	.735**	.737**
Item 46	.631**	.631**
Item 47	.729**	.732**
Item 48	.628**	.635**
Item 49	.690**	.692**
Item 50	.712**	.715**
Item 51	.705**	.697**
Item 52	.230	
sdpis_t	1.000	1.000
N	77	

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

TABLE 3: INTER-ITEM CORRELATION MATRIX FOR SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING PILOT STUDY

Item	3	4	7	8	9	10	13	15	16	17	19	22	23	24	25	27	28
3	1																
4	.580	1															
7	.250	.495	1														
8	.507	.534	.445	1													
9	.470	.519	.538	.553	1												
10	.330	.405	.511	.530	.273	1											
13	.401	.354	.280	.421	.188	.611	1										
15	.464	.542	.436	.624	.539	.674	.477	1									
16	.352	.533	.520	.437	.496	.550	.568	.520	1								
17	.376	.554	.411	.300	.472	.344	.328	.372	.590	1							
19	.519	.635	.512	.378	.359	.601	.511	.546	.504	.415	1						
22	.285	.491	.441	.357	.381	.473	.275	.431	.441	.550	.397	1					
23	.162	.304	.258	.344	.122	.396	.432	.364	.246	.173	.382	.416	1				
24	.389	.676	.249	.358	.349	.246	.358	.348	.386	.567	.529	.423	.376	1			
25	.393	.425	.324	.438	.366	.454	.412	.625	.404	.401	.469	.406	.396	.558	1		
27	.451	.546	.343	.280	.426	.415	.418	.581	.523	.431	.494	.434	.130	.440	.442	1	
28	.460	.448	.241	.485	.381	.523	.466	.611	.375	.260	.381	.504	.408	.342	.392	.598	1
29	.342	.594	.484	.331	.550	.327	.359	.444	.702	.576	.450	.509	.143	.562	.444	.589	.394
30	.474	.537	.404	.479	.581	.482	.337	.752	.567	.464	.467	.558	.253	.504	.627	.591	.594
31	.544	.561	.458	.331	.514	.432	.482	.527	.564	.489	.673	.480	.252	.516	.417	.670	.511
32	.440	.546	.189	.364	.406	.305	.522	.516	.408	.297	.482	.164	.246	.516	.399	.699	.616
33	.506	.548	.198	.502	.396	.372	.342	.394	.406	.388	.437	.265	.094	.503	.283	.560	.616
35	.513	.524	.237	.423	.410	.366	.418	.467	.455	.407	.462	.201	.185	.571	.385	.519	.542
37	.399	.475	.299	.474	.557	.375	.456	.487	.542	.447	.501	.256	.161	.541	.418	.593	.550
38	.503	.506	.378	.300	.603	.346	.291	.508	.554	.554	.546	.351	.060	.508	.486	.664	.416
39	.337	.627	.377	.292	.489	.417	.329	.562	.543	.432	.578	.339	.290	.480	.489	.623	.425
40	.566	.547	.360	.255	.488	.447	.400	.484	.611	.476	.704	.461	.251	.461	.387	.562	.471
44	.329	.676	.425	.414	.445	.473	.410	.655	.526	.387	.579	.302	.322	.443	.437	.556	.367
46	.091	.350	.301	.084	.249	.421	.411	.451	.405	.288	.526	.307	.495	.387	.416	.403	.344
47	.389	.520	.235	.205	.448	.442	.316	.522	.475	.464	.551	.362	.251	.418	.411	.536	.515
48	.273	.525	.438	.153	.336	.401	.339	.380	.533	.477	.615	.363	.338	.310	.274	.420	.262
49	.232	.502	.237	.200	.371	.266	.252	.430	.480	.474	.537	.309	.094	.477	.369	.592	.350
50	.368	.604	.288	.237	.375	.271	.308	.468	.563	.386	.618	.305	.207	.542	.432	.556	.348
51	.418	.614	.399	.466	.461	.406	.483	.478	.372	.328	.556	.279	.402	.497	.433	.360	.425

TABLE 3: INTER-ITEM CORRELATION MATRIX FOR SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING PILOT STUDY (Continued)

Item	29	30	31	32	33	35	37	38	39	40	44	46	47	48	49	50	51
3																	
4																	
7																	
8																	
9																	
10																	
13																	
15																	
16																	
17																	
19																	
22																	
23																	
24																	
25																	
27																	
28																	
29	1																
30	.558	1															
31	.543	.707	1														
32	.432	.562	.652	1													
33	.517	.466	.564	.644	1												
35	.465	.549	.597	.658	.721	1											
37	.600	.600	.654	.721	.745	.722	1										
38	.686	.676	.685	.565	.568	.593	.737	1									
39	.606	.622	.609	.609	.433	.410	.550	.709	1								
40	.561	.634	.813	.538	.545	.591	.580	.632	.572	1							
44	.457	.474	.521	.542	.394	.364	.468	.396	.709	.478	1						
46	.434	.414	.533	.377	.301	.365	.411	.361	.551	.533	.605	1					
47	.524	.601	.549	.567	.499	.440	.613	.645	.707	.623	.499	.535	1				
48	.417	.379	.490	.306	.193	.253	.297	.429	.621	.549	.518	.563	.563	1			
49	.582	.522	.563	.448	.495	.399	.601	.614	.593	.522	.586	.606	.649	.590	1		
50	.568	.540	.573	.466	.363	.365	.481	.528	.593	.531	.579	.496	.591	.666	.772	1	
51	.375	.491	.490	.553	.388	.341	.537	.444	.591	.401	.578	.509	.579	.506	.507	.523	1

TABLE 4: ITEM-TOTAL CORRELATIONS:

	SDPES TOTAL
SDPE 1	.587(**)
SDPE 2	.623(**)
SDPE 3	.716(**)
SDPE 4	.724(**)
SDPE 5	.669(**)
SDPE 6	.770(**)
SDPE 7	.654(**)
SDPE 8	.598(**)
SDPE 9	.655(**)
SDPE 10	.708(**)
SDPE 11	.664(**)
SDPE 12	.644(**)
SDPE 13	.768(**)
SDPE 14	.644(**)
SDPE 15	.579(**)
SDPE 16	.700(**)
SDPE 17	.642(**)
SDPE 18	.720(**)
SDPE 19	.638(**)
SDPE 20	.537(**)
SDPE 21	.655(**)
SDPE 22	.756(**)
SDPE 23	.749(**)
SDPE 24	.748(**)
SDPE 25	.725(**)
SDPE 26	.744(**)
SDPE 27	.792(**)
SDPE 28	.722(**)
SDPE 29	.770(**)
SDPE 30	.567(**)
SDPE 31	.743(**)
SDPE 32	.590(**)
SDPE 33	.706(**)
SDPE 34	.684(**)
SDPE 35	.743(**)
SDPE 36	.763(**)
SDPE 37	.653(**)
SDPE TOTAL	1
N	248

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 5: Oblique Rotation – Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation (a)
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	18.171	49.112	49.112	17.788	48.075	48.075	14.568
2	1.677	4.532	53.644	1.337	3.612	51.687	10.835
3	1.632	4.412	58.056	1.231	3.326	55.013	10.468
4	1.273	3.442	61.498	.899	2.431	57.444	10.461
5	1.223	3.307	64.804	.810	2.190	59.634	5.161
6	.988	2.670	67.475				
7	.928	2.509	69.983				
8	.884	2.389	72.372				
9	.811	2.192	74.563				
10	.741	2.004	76.567				
11	.687	1.857	78.425				
12	.609	1.645	80.070				
13	.590	1.595	81.664				
14	.507	1.372	83.036				
15	.485	1.311	84.347				
16	.462	1.249	85.596				
17	.437	1.181	86.777				
18	.398	1.076	87.853				
19	.390	1.054	88.907				
20	.383	1.036	89.943				
21	.373	1.008	90.951				
22	.339	.917	91.868				
23	.327	.884	92.752				
24	.317	.857	93.609				
25	.284	.766	94.375				
26	.254	.686	95.061				
27	.248	.669	95.731				
28	.232	.626	96.357				
29	.214	.577	96.934				
30	.195	.526	97.460				
31	.182	.491	97.952				
32	.167	.451	98.403				
33	.153	.415	98.817				
34	.134	.362	99.180				
35	.115	.310	99.490				
36	.105	.285	99.774				
37	8.346E-02	.226	100.000				

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
a When factors are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.

TABLE 6: OBLIQUE ROTATION Structure Matrix

	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
SDPE 29	.894	.517	.556	.526	-.362
SDPE 27	.879	.523	.635	.507	-.327
SDPE 35	.843	.474	.564	.463	-.306
SDPE 28	.822	.498	.410	.438	-.292
SDPE 31	.801	.560	.430	.509	-.414
SDPE 36	.776	.551	.564	.558	-.510
SDPE 13	.734	.535	.657	.563	-.346
SDPE 6	.711	.653	.637	.613	-.217
SDPE 26	.701	.480	.647	.551	-.612
SDPE 37	.687	.640	.410	.426	-.498
SDPE 24	.675	.571	.507	.487	-.553
SDPE 16	.670	.570	.619	.451	-.296
SDPE 33	.668	.432	.484	.635	-.333
SDPE 23	.657	.599	.472	.571	-.598
SDPE 25	.643	.481	.477	.524	-.556
SDPE 22	.627	.515	.554	.557	-.547
SDPE 34	.599	.425	.476	.452	-.446
SDPE 32	.588	.369	.304	.424	-.296
SDPE 30	.583	.349	.487	.486	-.133
SDPE 20	.498	.307	.401	.421	-.243
SDPE 5	.482	.888	.405	.511	-.324
SDPE 9	.502	.812	.465	.417	-.338
SDPE 1	.456	.767	.354	.391	-.164
SDPE 2	.496	.605	.522	.554	.042
SDPE 19	.514	.596	.370	.499	-.582
SDPE 3	.582	.594	.549	.566	-.079
SDPE 15	.442	.521	.337	.380	-.436
SDPE 12	.545	.446	.837	.304	-.115
SDPE 11	.462	.370	.739	.458	-.173
SDPE 8	.425	.439	.685	.468	-.216
SDPE 18	.591	.502	.677	.631	-.444
SDPE 14	.544	.443	.598	.383	-.367
SDPE 7	.510	.458	.487	.776	-.108
SDPE 4	.560	.483	.609	.731	-.212
SDPE 17	.467	.482	.294	.710	-.408
SDPE 21	.530	.495	.383	.681	-.392
SDPE 10	.574	.590	.539	.665	-.328

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

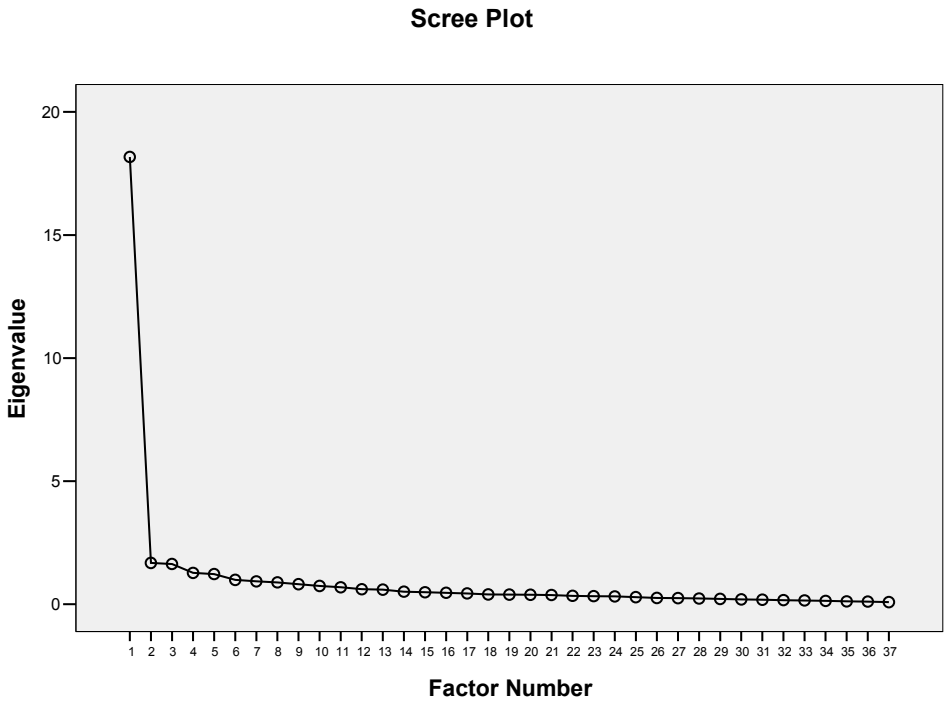


Figure 1: Scree Plot for Oblique Rotation

TABLE 7: INTER-ITEM CORRELATION MATRIX FOR SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING FINAL VERSION

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1	1																		
2	.507	1																	
3	.523	.604	1																
4	.340	.561	.566	1															
5	.665	.558	.516	.501	1														
6	.515	.609	.619	.565	.555	1													
7	.352	.488	.495	.572	.442	.570	1												
8	.291	.396	.410	.511	.414	.479	.467	1											
9	.630	.428	.445	.425	.744	.581	.387	.461	1										
10	.483	.436	.549	.569	.538	.512	.559	.515	.523	1									
11	.302	.413	.404	.532	.320	.487	.399	.521	.365	.471	1								
12	.370	.425	.432	.431	.346	.538	.393	.546	.469	.448	.675	1							
13	.395	.470	.553	.543	.458	.632	.477	.516	.470	.543	.526	.546	1						
14	.247	.345	.453	.410	.443	.479	.360	.509	.400	.358	.408	.525	.570	1					
15	.363	.289	.272	.353	.492	.371	.304	.290	.429	.473	.258	.301	.448	.413	1				
16	.434	.500	.480	.435	.472	.646	.436	.430	.468	.469	.437	.574	.596	.506	.465	1			
17	.327	.422	.360	.434	.428	.460	.567	.285	.428	.486	.302	.219	.487	.323	.347	.389	1		
18	.379	.464	.515	.584	.424	.614	.497	.530	.473	.579	.539	.502	.622	.479	.367	.576	.497	1	
19	.368	.333	.408	.446	.537	.444	.383	.333	.500	.454	.323	.298	.502	.468	.626	.507	.516	.516	1
20	.166	.404	.285	.406	.315	.454	.390	.281	.269	.351	.316	.317	.365	.276	.295	.391	.273	.366	.250
21	.361	.358	.416	.498	.463	.535	.515	.350	.432	.566	.424	.310	.494	.338	.337	.449	.708	.471	.480
22	.398	.346	.469	.514	.480	.611	.416	.479	.471	.562	.470	.400	.535	.470	.373	.489	.433	.596	.486
23	.498	.350	.479	.471	.591	.568	.441	.408	.523	.558	.413	.332	.576	.496	.434	.483	.482	.643	.566
24	.450	.421	.428	.433	.517	.573	.405	.402	.466	.451	.352	.451	.544	.483	.404	.599	.495	.568	.568
25	.377	.319	.403	.487	.489	.504	.418	.378	.439	.475	.385	.394	.504	.426	.401	.441	.458	.537	.490
26	.381	.393	.467	.531	.429	.577	.418	.462	.476	.544	.467	.522	.595	.545	.393	.564	.479	.699	.488
27	.386	.478	.532	.502	.445	.709	.478	.441	.500	.564	.468	.562	.680	.526	.397	.674	.399	.564	.458
28	.361	.441	.472	.416	.427	.560	.380	.327	.453	.465	.367	.398	.563	.432	.307	.507	.393	.426	.432
29	.421	.428	.543	.510	.427	.605	.480	.446	.438	.543	.433	.526	.749	.514	.422	.629	.459	.529	.497
30	.302	.368	.420	.455	.346	.471	.515	.336	.291	.379	.356	.432	.493	.360	.258	.489	.337	.440	.269
31	.407	.401	.479	.455	.472	.617	.443	.356	.512	.500	.349	.429	.575	.448	.447	.528	.457	.534	.530
32	.334	.269	.331	.395	.311	.430	.365	.263	.337	.401	.223	.254	.419	.364	.292	.375	.286	.400	.331
33	.390	.347	.431	.647	.416	.515	.547	.410	.374	.561	.414	.374	.574	.455	.434	.430	.410	.498	.433
34	.312	.348	.397	.511	.411	.455	.289	.329	.385	.433	.420	.406	.543	.419	.359	.408	.363	.474	.454
35	.398	.432	.541	.515	.395	.593	.400	.362	.427	.507	.487	.538	.648	.456	.391	.555	.359	.497	.398
36	.401	.397	.492	.525	.481	.606	.473	.470	.518	.584	.441	.481	.605	.504	.440	.611	.486	.637	.544
37	.497	.347	.386	.413	.577	.526	.355	.364	.598	.502	.349	.400	.588	.399	.424	.514	.451	.461	.528

TABLE 7: INTER-ITEM CORRELATION MATRIX FOR SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING FINAL VERSION (Continued)

Item	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	28	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37
1																		
2																		
3																		
4																		
5																		
6																		
7																		
8																		
9																		
10																		
11																		
12																		
13																		
14																		
15																		
16																		
17																		
18																		
19																		
20	1																	
21	.298	1																
22	.430	.519	1															
23	.363	.484	.664	1														
24	.427	.487	.602	.558	1													
25	.377	.463	.584	.634	.630	1												
26	.474	.527	.674	.705	.723	.696	1											
27	.490	.487	.576	.563	.620	.604	.720	1										
28	.419	.489	.482	.565	.515	.476	.534	.748	1									
29	.396	.537	.558	.603	.597	.579	.627	.773	.779	1								
30	.333	.310	.370	.396	.432	.468	.444	.582	.400	.530	1							
31	.379	.493	.579	.603	.575	.538	.537	.677	.715	.728	.457	1						
32	.294	.310	.428	.478	.413	.395	.392	.455	.486	.473	.354	.492	1					
33	.413	.432	.467	.535	.461	.510	.533	.579	.452	.578	.490	.550	.588	1				
34	.409	.425	.547	.548	.480	.480	.560	.489	.464	.523	.311	.494	.399	.523	1			
35	.348	.435	.529	.548	.551	.575	.608	.738	.670	.765	.479	.660	.527	.619	.597	1		
36	.482	.480	.634	.616	.628	.620	.654	.683	.630	.731	.471	.683	.466	.573	.519	.626	1	
37	.399	.462	.522	.539	.647	.531	.543	.600	.553	.621	.360	.592	.446	.500	512	.584	.659	1

APPENDIX 13: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR SCHOOLS IN GROUP 1 AND GROUP 2

Table 1: Descriptive statistics for Group 1 and Group 2 on the SDPES

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	*SD*
Group 1					
1	14	144	244	222.19	25.69
2	13	118	237	180.56	43.19
3	15	92	250	210.31	40.29
4	10	102	237	175.51	42.70
5	22	95	238	195.70	39.37
6	22	83	229	154.33	43.42
7	19	113	250	178.17	35.38
8	9	143	239	195.95	33.87
9	16	113	232	184.66	31.87
10	13	126	248	181.68	35.02
Total	153	83	250	186.49	41.30
Group 2					
11	13	100	238	163.92	41.36
12	16	109	234	189.01	34.00
13	20	109	254	201.17	31.02
14	12	73	243	195.86	49.89
15	10	69	233	154.13	64.94
16	10	125	224	183.13	33.13
17	10	139	231	189.40	32.82
18	4	179	200	188.06	10.73
Total	95	69	254	184.71	41.75

Table 2: Descriptive statistics for Group 1 and Group 2 on the Locus of Control

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	*SD*
Group 1					
1	14	64	115	89.14	14.26
2	13	71	121	95.95	14.56
3	15	67	107	89.72	10.99
4	10	62	111	92.96	14.83
5	22	70	117	91.68	12.45
6	22	74	113	93.35	11.59
7	19	69	120	89.46	13.81
8	9	72	105	87.67	10.63
9	16	76	109	92.33	10.78
10	13	77	112	94.89	10.86
Total	153	62	121	91.77	12.37
Group 2					
11	13	85	109	94.19	6.53
12	16	74	116	94.66	11.24
13	20	79	117	93.17	11.50
14	12	76	106	95.89	10.37
15	10	60	111	90.12	17.39
16	10	62	119	89.92	18.61
17	10	64	107	87.31	12.00
18	4	85	102	95.96	7.58
Total	95	60	119	92.74	12.24

Table 3 Descriptive statistics for Group 1 and Group 2 on the General Self-Efficacy:

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	*SD*
Group 1					
1	14	30	46	40.00	5.07
2	13	30	49	40.49	6.21
3	15	32	49	40.03	4.75
4	10	30	50	39.79	6.46
5	22	29	46	39.31	4.37
6	22	26	48	38.16	5.12
7	19	26	49	40.13	6.50
8	9	29	47	37.77	6.08
9	16	35	50	40.43	4.32
10	13	34	50	41.69	5.62
Total	153	26	50	39.74	5.33
Group 2					
11	13	30	48	39.68	4.76
12	16	24	47	39.28	6.57
13	20	27	50	40.90	5.21
14	12	34	49	41.40	5.10
15	10	32	50	41.12	6.32
16	10	30	47	39.88	4.71
17	10	34	46	40.30	3.27
18	4	39	48	42.22	4.30
Total	95	24	50	40.43	5.15

Table 4 Descriptive statistics for Group 1 and Group 2 on the Teacher-Efficacy:

SCHOOL	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	*SD*
Group 1					
1.00	13	71.00	92.00	81.85	6.18
2.00	12	73.00	104.00	84.75	10.05
3.00	14	73.00	101.00	84.04	9.96
4.00	9	66.00	92.63	79.25	8.85
5.00	21	51.00	112.00	82.27	12.60
6.00	20	65.00	96.00	79.49	8.14
7.00	18	67.00	102.00	81.67	9.89
8.00	8	67.00	97.00	80.34	9.23
9.00	15	65.00	99.00	81.29	10.04
10.00	12	67.00	96.00	81.90	9.34
Total	142	51.00	112.00	81.71	9.57
Group 2					
11.00	12	69.00	94.00	84.21	6.92
12.00	15	69.00	100.00	84.06	9.13
13.00	19	69.00	111.00	83.53	11.81
14.00	11	74.00	91.00	83.64	6.03
15.00	9	75.00	96.00	83.33	6.34
16.00	9	66.00	83.33	74.82	5.84
17.00	9	70.00	92.00	82.23	7.38
18.00	3	78.95	95.00	87.98	8.21
Total	87	66.00	111.00	82.83	8.67

Table 5. Descriptive statistics for Group 1 and Group 2 on the Participation and Decision Centralisation scale:

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	*SD*
Group 1					
1	13	15	28	24.15	4.12
2	12	11	28	20.67	6.97
3	14	5	28	19.00	7.42
4	9	6	21	14.89	4.83
5	21	4	27	19.14	6.72
6	21	4	28	16.3	5.60
7	18	8	28	20.00	5.50
8	8	15	25	21.75	4.23
9	15	16	28	22.53	3.64
10	12	14	28	21.67	4.50
Total	143	4	28	19.82	6.04
Group 2					
11	12	10	28	20.75	4.71
12	15	7	28	22.33	5.89
13	19	5	27	16.05	5.76
14	11	12	28	22.00	4.77
15	8	19	28	24.00	3.59
16	9	11	28	19.44	6.15
17	9	8	26	19.44	5.25
18	3	21	28	23.67	3.79
Total	86	5	28	20.27	5.73

Table 6: Descriptive statistics for Group 1 and Group 2 on the Psychological Participation Scale:

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	*SD*
Group 1					
1	13	6	15	9.77	3.32
2	12	4	17	9.75	4.35
3	14	6	19	11.86	3.97
4	9	8	20	14.00	4.44
5	21	5	20	11.14	3.90
6	21	6	20	12.81	3.78
7	18	5	20	11.63	3.98
8	8	5	15	10.87	3.60
9	15	6	14	9.80	2.42
10	12	5	16	11.50	3.60
Total	143	4	20	11.33	3.85
Group 2					
11	12	5	15	9.92	2.50
12	15	8	15	10.87	2.67
13	19	7	19	13.16	3.61
14	11	4	16	9.55	3.67
15	8	6	11	9.00	1.90
16	9	4	14	9.78	3.07
17	9	5	15	10.11	3.30
18	3	9	12	10.67	1.50
Total	86	4	19	10.7	3.26

Table 7. Descriptive statistics for Group 1 and Group 2 on the Collaboration Scale:

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	*SD*
Group 1					
1	13	26	42	35.31	4.25
2	12	15	40	28.42	9.29
3	14	30	41	35.21	4.06
4	9	15	35	27.40	6.88
5	21	8	40	30.29	8.37
6	21	9	40	27.27	7.88
7	18	12	42	29.83	8.10
8	8	22	39	32.88	5.36
9	15	26	41	36.20	4.51
10	12	25	40	30.80	5.28
Total	143	8	42	31.19	7.39
Group 2					
11	12	21	39	31.42	6.20
12	15	20	39	29.95	6.25
13	19	20	42	32.68	6.57
14	11	18	42	32.11	6.80
15	9	22	42	31.78	6.53
16	9	26	42	34.00	4.61
17	9	27	41	34.22	5.80
18	3	23	35	29.67	6.11
Total	87	18	42	32.06	6.16

Table 8. Descriptive statistics for Group 1 and Group 2 on the Peer Leadership Scale: Total

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	*SD*
Group 1					
1	13	33	51	44.28	5.67
2	12	20	48	33.75	8.50
3	14	36	53	45.00	4.80
4	9	25	46	35.67	6.89
5	21	20	51	39.06	7.64
6	21	22	46	34.67	6.80
7	18	15	55	40.68	9.64
8	8	36	50	43.00	5.54
9	15	25	55	42.13	8.27
10	12	27	45	39.33	5.14
Total	143	15	55	39.56	7.96
Group 2					
11	12	29	50	40.27	7.47
12	15	35	53	42.31	5.66
13	19	19	54	40.00	9.76
14	11	27	55	39.91	10.14
15	9	15	46	31.67	10.83
16	9	30	55	39.86	8.22
17	9	25	50	41.11	8.24
18	3	25	48	37.33	11.59
Total	86	15	55	39.56	8.92

Table 9. Descriptive statistics for Group 1 and Group 2 on the Profile of Organisational Characteristics:

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	*SD*
Group 1					
1	13	37	60	51.87	7.25
2	11	27	61	45.10	11.02
3	14	24	57	43.32	9.72
4	9	19	54	39.29	10.50
5	21	28	60	43.17	10.14
6	20	23	51	37.19	6.86
7	16	23	63	42.74	10.58
8	8	34	52	44.62	5.39
9	15	38	59	49.24	5.87
10	12	32	60	48.33	8.41
Total	139	19	63	44.18	9.58
Group 2					
11	12	34	61	45.38	6.64
12	15	26	59	43.81	9.60
13	19	23	58	41.69	10.35
14	11	31	57	44.68	8.80
15	9	32	51	41.98	6.98
16	9	36	64	46.25	7.79
17	9	30	55	42.98	8.33
18	3	42	57	48.00	7.94
Total	87	23	64	43.80	8.56

Table 10. Descriptive statistics for Group 1 and Group 2 on the Supervisory Leadership Scale: Total

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	*SD*
Group 1					
1	13	37	65	53.01	8.90
2	12	32	65	51.19	12.54
3	14	23	62	48.05	11.03
4	9	17	63	43.19	14.95
5	21	13	62	44.10	13.61
6	21	17	48	35.81	8.78
7	18	16	56	45.76	9.52
8	8	30	52	41.94	7.41
9	15	46	62	54.60	5.60
10	12	44	62	53.08	6.54
Total	143	13	65	46.56	11.65
Group 2					
11	11	25	60	41.27	10.12
12	15	31	64	48.22	9.83
13	19	22	59	42.52	10.85
14	11	36	64	49.82	10.77
15	9	28	57	46.89	8.68
16	9	40	62	49.78	7.50
17	9	23	61	44.56	12.40
18	3	49	55	51.00	3.46
Total	86	22	64	46.02	10.23

APPENDIX 14: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING EVALUATION (SDPES) SUCCESSFUL GROUP AND NOT SUCCESSFUL GROUP:

Tables 1 highlights the descriptive statistics on all of the measures for the groups that made up of the schools that scored well on the SDPES and the schools that scored the lowest on the SDPES.

TABLE 1: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE GROUP MORE SUCCESSFUL ON THE SDPES AND THE LESS SUCCESSFUL GROUP:

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	*SD*
GROUP MORE SUCCESSFUL ON SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING EVALUATION SCALE					
School Dev. Planning Evaluation Scale	61	73	254	207.2	37.14
Locus of Control	61	64	117	91.93	11.85
General Self Efficacy	61	27	50	40.58	4.95
Teacher Efficacy	57	69	111	83.29	9.12
Participation Centralisation Scale	57	5	28	19.77	6.44
Psychological Participation Scale	57	4	19	11.37	3.88
Collaboration Scale	57	18	42	33.79	5.6
Peer Leadership Scale: Total	57	19	55	42.19	8.18
Profile of Organisational Characteristics	57	23	60	44.99	9.84
Supervisory Leadership Scale: Total	57	22	65	47.68	10.97
GROUP LESS SUCCESSFUL ON SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING EVALUATION SCALE					
School Dev. Planning Evaluation Scale	55	69	238	160.41	46.77
Locus of Control	55	60	113	92.89	12.27
General Self Efficacy	55	26	50	39.35	5.48
Teacher Efficacy	50	65	96	81.27	7.8
Participation Centralisation Scale	50	4	28	18.26	5.87
Psychological Participation Scale	50	5	20	11.72	3.80
Collaboration Scale	51	9	42	29	7.23
Peer Leadership Scale: Total	50	15	50	35.54	8.08
Profile of Organisational Characteristics	50	19	61	40.4	8.07
Supervisory Leadership Scale: Total	50	17	63	40.37	10.93

APPENDIX 15: CASEWISE. RESIDUAL AND ASSUMPTION STATISTICS FOR THE MULTIPLE REGRESSION:

Casewise diagnostics:

The summary table of the residual statistics (Table 1) shows any cases that have a standardised residual less than -2 or greater than 2 (Field. 2004). As we have a sample of 224 it would be reasonable to expect about 11 cases (5%) to have residuals outside of these limits.

Table 1: Casewise Diagnostics

Case Number	Std. Residual	School Development Planning Eval Scale	Predicted Value	Residual
29	-2.023	8464.00	31071.3064	-22607.3064
73	2.641	52441.00	22925.4834	29515.5166
79	-2.071	14641.00	37788.0172	-23147.0172
134	-2.345	15876.00	42082.8249	-26206.8249
140	-2.754	12769.00	43546.1919	-30777.1919
159	-2.420	14523.69	41567.8052	-27044.1121
199	2.085	41831.61	18527.4005	23304.2114
207	-2.423	5329.00	32408.2101	-27079.2101
212	3.138	55879.71	20808.3778	35071.3290
215	-2.464	9216.00	36758.9072	-27542.9072
217	-2.386	6426.69	33095.9334	-26669.2390
224	-2.226	15876.00	40750.7522	-24874.7522

a Dependent Variable: School Development Planning Evaluation Scale

Table 1 indicates that there are 12 cases (4.9%) that are outside of the limits therefore the sample is within what we would expect. In addition. 99% of cases should lie within $\pm$ 3 and so we could expect only 1% of cases to lie outside of these limits. Three (1.3%) cases are over $\pm$ 2.5. one of which is over 3. The Residual Statistics Table 45 indicates that there is little difference between the predicted value and adjusted predicted value. Cook's distance considers the effect of a single case on the model as a whole. Cook's distance is a measure of the overall influence of a case on the model and Cook & Weisberg (1982) have suggested that values great than 1 may be cause for concern. Table 2 indicates Cook's distance is 0. Both the Centred Leverage Value and the Mahalanobis distance (both measuring influence) indicate there is no need for concern. It would appear that the outliers do not have a large effect on the regression analysis. Therefore the sample appears

to conform to what would be expected for a fairly accurate model. These diagnostics give no real cause for concern.

Table 2: Residuals Statistics

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	10631.4053	55316.2422	35584.5310	9052.09738	224
Std. Predicted Value	-2.765	2.176	-.006	1.001	224
Standard Error of Predicted Value	865.34882	3617.75586	1612.18399	457.63784	224
Adjusted Predicted Value	10643.9971	55273.6992	35575.0752	9076.60929	224
Residual	-30777.1914	35071.3281	-56.3575	11088.49879	224
Std. Residual	-2.754	3.138	-.005	.992	224
Stud. Residual	-2.782	3.173	-.005	1.005	224
Deleted Residual	-31422.5527	35873.4375	-46.9017	11374.13812	224
Stud. Deleted Residual	-2.827	3.242	-.005	1.010	224
Mahal. Distance	.329	22.158	3.971	3.110	224
Cook's Distance	.000	.182	.005	.014	224
Centered Leverage Value	.001	.100	.018	.014	224

a Dependent Variable: School Development Planning Evaluation Scale

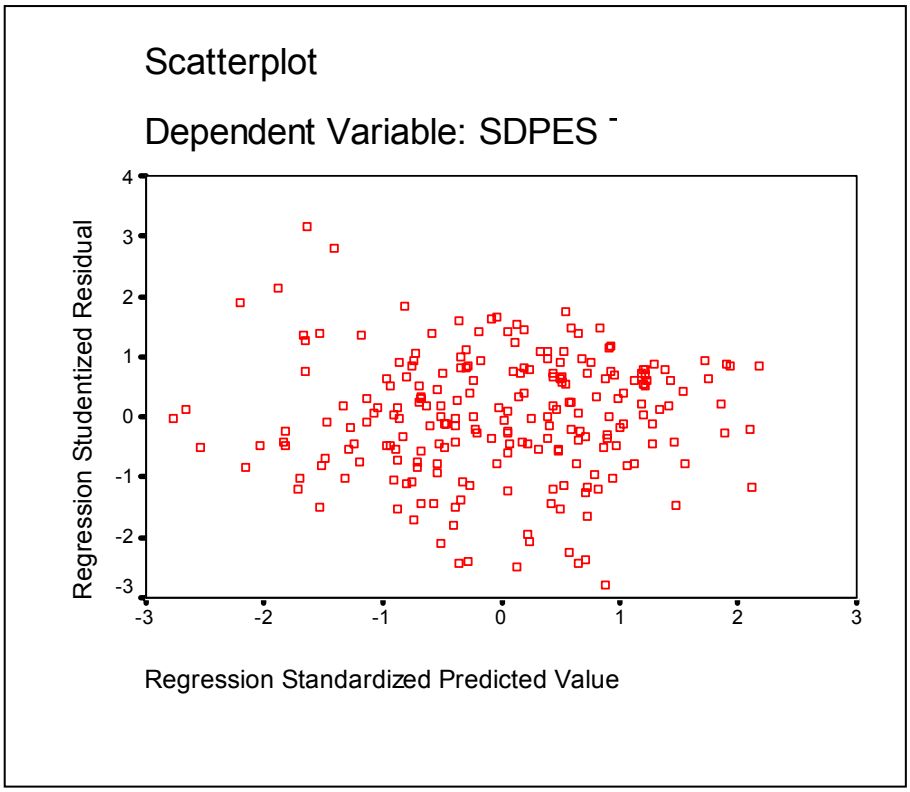
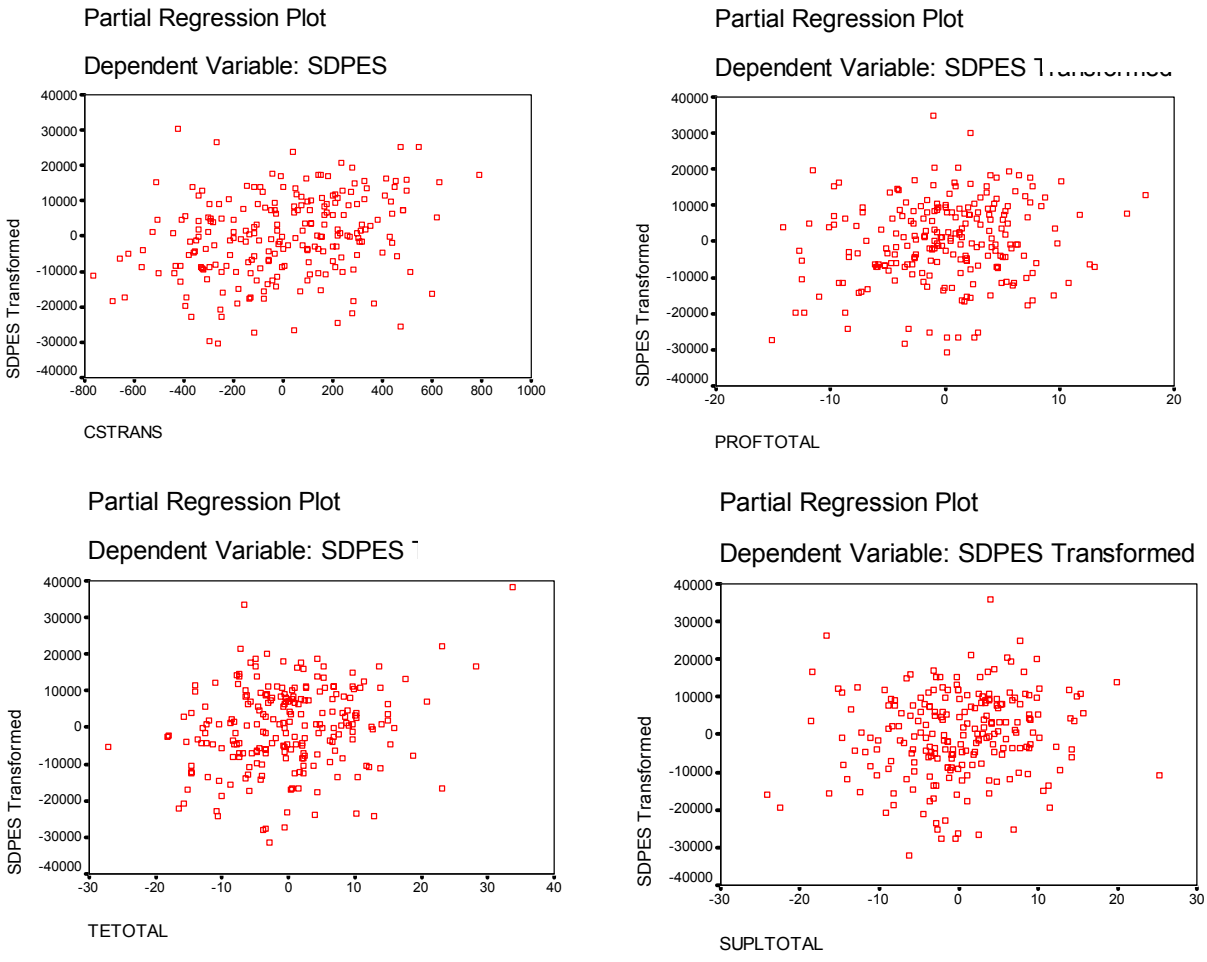


Figure 1: Scatter Plot



Figures 2 – 5 Partial Regression Plots