Review

Education leadership in a globalized economy: A Kenyan perspective

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The 21st century has ushered in a new revolution in education leadership structures which have become the occasion of less hierarchical - more flattened, more fluid organizations. Today's management and leadership are driven by relationships that make the most of people's knowledge and enabled by networks with improved connectivity. Changing management structures, flatter organizations and new partnering arrangements implies more roles for 21st Century leader, multiple stakeholders and an increasingly fragmented job where they continually face trade-offs in time, energy and focus. Their challenges include matching their leadership style to a fast-moving, complex, technology enabled education sector; holding multiple points of view without being overloaded; working with others in virtual teams, globally; articulating a compelling future vision; guiding distinct groups of people to deliver education goals. A leader in the 21st Century must of necessity embrace persuasion and negotiation in order to obtain support from those under their supervision. Such leaders must be able to motivate, empower, articulate and innovate. This paper examines and highlights some of the skills. It argues out the necessity of developing and employing these skills in the Kenyan education sector for quality outcomes.

Key words: Education, leadership, globalized economy, innovation, partnering arrangements, persuasion, negotiation.

INTRODUCTION

Globalization has occasioned phenomenal transformation in structures and process of production and distribution of goods and services within and across national borders (Leithwood et al., 1999). The transformation has brought about unprecedented wave of change in political, social and economic systems on a global scale. The upshot of the changes observed is a global reorientation where standardized and mass production of goods is no longer the norm, instead a techno-economic shift is emerging and the role of education, knowledge and training has taken on a critical role in ensuring survival in the global platform (Brake, 1997). Arguably knowledge and information in this context supersede labor, capital and other assets in value. Education, being a tool of progression in society inevitably operates within this context of globalization and must respond appropriately to the shifts in social, political and economic systems through reform in education structures, aims, curricula and management (Caldwell and Hayward, 1998). It is against such a backdrop that education administration and management has experienced a certain level of displacement giving rise to reassessment of traditional approaches, concepts and practices in education management and leadership.

The traditional management paradigm maintains an inward focus with the aim of cutting costs, upholding rules and division of labor. This paradigm is basically hierarchical in nature, with emphasis on control, enforced standards, authoritarian with a disciplinarian approach to leadership. The consequence of this leadership paradigm is mechanical orientation to structural design, high level specialization and rigid departmentalization (Kreitner, 2002). The traditional management approach aims at improvement of productivity and resource utilization in a static and stable technological environment (Khalil, 2000). Although, this management approach worked well
when markets, products and technologies remained relatively stable, its weaknesses have been exposed with the ever changing globalization and technological evolution.

**LEADERSHIP IN A GLOBALIZED ENVIRONMENT**

Globalization has exerted significant influence on knowledge formation by initiating a synthesis of different types of knowledge and thereby creating a need for efficiency in knowledge application at all levels in management. Globalization thrives on information and innovation and the socio-economic environment has necessitated the need for knowledgeable education managers. This new socio-economic environment presents new challenges as well as opportunities for education structuring and management. The traditional rigid hierarchical systems do not have the dynamism to pick up the momentum created by the new trends and the complexity arising from this technological evolution. This calls for an advanced level of knowledge and multi-disciplinary involvement, new attitudes towards work, willingness to take initiative and responsibility (Boyett and Boyett, 2000). Consumers on the other hand are demanding accountability and more value of their expenditure; products and services demand flexibility, customization and innovativeness (Khalil, 2000). International standards such as ISO 9000, ISO 14000 are intended to create an optimum quality practice in production and allows every organization that meets set standards to be able to participate in the market on an elevated platform. The net effect of these initiatives has together created a need for a fundamental re-orientation of management within education to ensure survival and progress in the 21st century.

The human resource competence has therefore taken on an important role as the capital asset of any enterprise thus requiring nurturing, capacity building, teamwork, commitment trust and involvement (Carnall, 2003). Within the expected framework of education as a production entity, management will out of necessity revolve around teamwork, communication, collaboration and learning, the thrust being on value creation, quality, responsiveness, innovation and integration. The 21st century education manager is not only expected to manage the organization or institution, but to provide leadership. The managers will be expected to be team players, mentors, facilitators, visionaries and entrepreneurs (Longenecker and Ariss, 2002). They must stimulate creativity, innovation and promote learning.

This new leadership paradigm increases the risks and reduces control of managers through introduction of flat structures as opposed to hierarchical orders (Chapman, 2001). The failure of managers to provide the expected leadership and effective management will inhibit the organization’s ability to progress and may even thwart its chances for survival (Blackmore, 1999). Managers will therefore excel by demonstrating a high degree of flexibility and adaptability in dealing with people and technology and ensuring meaningful networks in the ever-changing environment. The major leadership challenges will be shaped by market demands, human issues and leadership competencies.

At the macro economic level, market forces will exert pressure on leaders in demand for quality products and services. Market forces will present themselves as cumulative effects and behaviors of customers who are enlightened and empowered. In the education sector parents and other stakeholders are demanding more accountability in terms of educational outcomes and performance to justify investments made. Those organizations that will strive for success will leverage their diversity in cultivating expertise and applying innovative ideas to their production processes so as to better their chances in the market.

The advent of 21st century has led to the transformation of human resource issues into a critical axis in organizational management that requires attention in an organization. With the increase in complexity, leaders are urged to demonstrate a balance between employees’ needs and customer demands. In such a rapidly changing world, investment in developing human capital is obviously the key to success. Consequently institutions have to think of strategies for motivating, empowering, utilizing and retaining the human resource (Brake, 1997).

In the leadership portfolio, a paradigm shift has emerged creating the need for strategic focusing and visioning with a sense of adaptability and flexibility. A manager in 21st century will inevitably need to be a leader who can keep the high-level goal in sight while at the same time able to track day today business activities (Marshall, 1995). Such a leader will need to appreciate the needs of the publics and empathize with the stakeholders.

This style of leadership will call for disregard for the top-down hard-nosed direction in preference to flexibility and empathy. It is expected of the new trend leaders to demonstrate qualities that inspire creativity and teamwork. The 21st century individual leaders therefore be viewed as focused, technologically savvy, entrepreneurial, articulate and socially intelligent (Marshall, 1995).

**LEADERSHIP IN THE EDUCATION SECTOR**

Reform minded organizations are engaged in internal structuring and technological reform. In order to support such changes, the education sector has the task of shaping skills, knowledge and attitudes. Education also has the task of nurturing the entrepreneurial spirit, creative and analytical thinking skills (Jack and Anderson, 1999). Therefore management of education must focus on development and implementation of relevant and
viable curricula. An investigation of literature reveals several orientations in research studies on leadership. Halpin (1990) has used the instrumental (scientific) orientation to identify models of effective systems and cultures of site-based performance management. This approach seeks to define instrumental and scientific models of leadership for educational institutions. The scientific approach draws on the need to measure the causal effect of education managers and management practices on behavior, functions, emotions and student outcomes (Halpin, 1990). Under this approach, attributes, behavior and skills of managers are evaluated for effectiveness and instrumentalism. Caldwell and Spinks (1998) argue that this approach provides data which can be utilized to establish transformational leadership where emphasis is on visionary leaders who can build follower commitment, such a leadership model should emphasize knowledge production and use for action and understanding, consequently leading to models of leadership that are known to work.

The positivist ontology and epistemology have given rise to behaviourist and functional models of leadership. However, with constant changes in the need for leadership attributes, the basic theories of leadership are also shifting, with critical theorists arguing that leadership must be socially critical and inherent in the relationship between individuals, and oriented towards social vision, not just organizational goals (Foster, 1989). Foster (1989) argues that the impact of leadership in education must transcend the immediate institutional society, and rightly so, since education is an asset and instrument of society. The demand for more accountability in the education system strengthens the view that society needs to set pace and targets for education. In the context of the 21st century society, education management must strive for results based management by means of performance contracting, target setting, open appraisal strategies, development planning and action research. It is desirable that education should adopt transformational leadership as a way of enabling managers to respond to demands for reform and attain desired learning outcomes (Leithwood et al., 1999:223). Although, transformational leadership originates from non-educational settings, this model is applicable to education in the 21st century education since it has taken on a corporate approach to orientation. Transformational leadership requires the leader to:

1. Provide inspiration and motivate the workers under them though charisma
2. Focus on individual needs of the workers
3. Provide intellectual stimulation and influence thinking and imagination of the human resource
4. Lead by example through open communication and demonstration of emotional commitment to the vision.

It is evident that the realization of education success within the context of global changes hinges around defining leadership as a vital ingredient of management. The obvious question raised by such a view is the kind of attributes necessary to address the need effective for leadership. There are numerous scholarly perceptions as to whether or not leadership affects performance, nevertheless to attain educational excellence, ‘leadership and not just management plays a critical role’ (Marshall, 1995). This statement prompts the need to differentiate between management and leadership, where management implies provision and maintenance of order and establishing procedures necessary in running an organization (Chapman, 2001). Leadership focuses on coping with change and charting the way forward. Leadership can be seen as part of management, although, leadership requires more than the usual discharge of administrative duties.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Emotional intelligence is defined by Goleman (1998) as: "the capacity for recognizing our own feelings, and those of others, for motivating ourselves and for managing emotions well in our relationships" (p. 316). Meyer et al. (2004) defined Emotional Intelligence as: "the capacity to reason about emotions, and of emotions to enhance thinking. It includes the abilities to accurately perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth" (p. 197).

The constant changes witnessed in leadership place demands on leaders to develop attributes to motivate and inspire and create a sense of importance among the people they lead. Goleman (1998) states that interpersonal skills are an integral part of effective leadership. Emotional intelligence as an attribute of effective leadership has lately gained popularity. Haygroup (2000) argues that emotional intelligence accounts for more than 85% of performance in top leaders. According to Goleman (1998), a leader’s ability to deal effectively with emotions contributes to how they deal with needs of others, motivates and make them feel appreciated.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND LEADERSHIP

Emotional intelligence plays an important role in positive leadership within an organization. Goleman (1998) described leaders best suited to effect change within an organization as having an ability to recognize the need for change, and who are able to remove barriers. These leaders will challenge the norms of behavior and enlist the help of others to facilitate the change process. Finally, these leaders will be effective at modeling change behaviors for others to follow. Of course, emotion plays a large part in how a leader will demonstrate these competencies. There are four major aspects of emotional intelligence which most influence positive leadership outcomes and
will lead to positive organizational outcomes.

First among these is the leader's ability to appraise and express emotions within his organizational environment. Secondly, a leader must utilize understandings of emotional dynamics to enhance cognition and facilitate the decision making process. Next, a leader must have intricate knowledge of the emotional processes of himself and the members of his organization. Finally, leader will need to manage emotion effectively (George, 2000). This is not to say that EI should be considered a “leadership style.” EI serves to facilitate the modification of existing leadership styles and has been demonstrated to be useful in the modification of leadership styles to address the individual needs of the organizational members (Moss et al., 2006). Emotional intelligence should also not be confused with cognitive intelligence as an enhancer of effective leadership within organizations. Judge et al. (2004) explored the relationship of cognitive intelligence on leadership effectiveness. This study determined that there is a considerably lower correlation between intelligence and leadership effectiveness than was previously expected. Conversely, Groves (2006) conducted a study in which 108 senior organizational leaders were asked to complete a measure of emotional expressivity and which also gathered organizational change data as well 325 of their subordinates were asked to complete evaluations which rated their leader’s level of visionary leadership, leadership effectiveness, and ability to bring about organizational change. It was determined that there were high levels of relationship between a leader’s emotional expressivity and visionary leadership. It was further demonstrated that those leaders who were most capable of emotional expressivity and leading with vision were also responsible for the highest levels of organizational change (Groves, 2006).

KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT

Knowledge has become one of the critical driving forces for business success. Organizations are becoming more knowledge intensive, they are hiring “minds” more than “hands”, and the needs for leveraging the value of knowledge are increasing. As a result, knowledge has been treated systematically much like other tangible resources and many organizations are exploring the field of knowledge management (KM) in order to improve and sustain their competitiveness. The need for a more systematic and deliberate study on the Critical Success Factors (CSFs) for implementing KM is crucial. Organizations need to be cognizant and aware of the factors that will influence the success of a KM initiative. Ignorance and oversight of the necessary important factors will likely hinder an organization’s effort to realize its full benefit. Initially, KM appeared to be adopted only in large, multinational and international companies and hence, research work on CSFs has been largely centred on them. However, as it has now become a widely spread business discipline, it is no longer the concern of just large organizations. As asserted by Frey (2001), although, major corporations have led the way in introducing and implementing KM, it is increasingly important for all businesses to manage their collective intellect. Okunoye and Karsten (2002) stated that KM has indeed become the underlying sources for successful organizations regardless of their size and geographical locations. Therefore, a better understanding of the CSFs for implementing it in organizations is needed in order to ensure the success of their efforts.

CSFs can be defined as “areas in which results, if they are satisfactory, will ensure successful competitive performance for the organization” (Rockart, 1979). Saraph et al. (1989) viewed them as those critical areas of managerial planning and action that must be practiced in order to achieve effectiveness. In terms of KM, they can be viewed as those activities and practices that should be addressed in order to ensure its successful implementation. These practices would either need to be nurtured if they already existed or be developed if they were still not in place. Based on the above definition, CSFs in this study are treated as those internal factors which are controllable by an organization. External factors such as environmental influences are not taken into account since organizations have little control over them when implementing KM.

MANAGEMENT LEADERSHIP AND SUPPORT

Management leadership plays a key role in influencing the success of KM (Horak, 2001; Pan and Scarbrough, 1998; Holsapple and Joshi, 2000; Ribiere and Sitar, 2003). Leaders are important in acting as role models to exemplify the desired behaviour for KM. They should for example, exhibit a willingness to share and offer their knowledge freely with others in the organization, to continuously learn, and to search for new knowledge and ideas. It is vital that they model their behaviours and actions through deeds, not just words. By doing so, they can further influence other employees to imitate them and increase the propensity of employees to participate in KM. Other leadership competencies that would be important include steering the change effort, conveying the importance of KM to employees, maintaining their morale, and creating a culture that promotes knowledge sharing and creation. In essence, leaders establish the necessary conditions for effective KM (Holsapple and Joshi, 2000). As with all change and improvement programmes, support and commitment from senior management is critical to a KM initiative (Martensson, 2000; Manasco, 1996; Truch, 2001; Jarrar, 2002; Sharp, 2003; Davenport et al., 1998). Storey and Barnett (2000) added that support from top management should be ongoing and be delivered in a practical manner. Such support could then be transformed into concerted efforts that

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would contribute to the success of KM.

SCHOOLS AS LEARNING ORGANIZATIONS

In the Predictable Failure of Educational Reform (1991), Seymour Sarason wrote that there was little likelihood that the current efforts at educational reform would have any lasting effect until there was a recognition that the kinds of conditions that we seek for students must also become a reality for the adults who work in schools. Sarason's comments about educational reform were echoing what Peter Senge described in the Fifth Discipline (1990) when he wrote that the businesses that will be most successful in the future will be those who can become "learning organizations"—places in which everyone is a learner.

The unfortunate reality is that at present very few schools are "learning organizations". However, if educators are serious about the business of educating children we must transform schools into learning organizations in which everyone is a learner. This is no minor task in a heavily bureaucratized environment and some have compared it to trying to build an airplane while it is rolling down the runway. By their very nature schools are bureaucratic, hierarchically organized institutions that have a vested interest in maintaining the status quo. The following section briefly describes some of the kinds of changes that must be addressed if educators are serious about transforming schools into places that value learning for everyone.

KNOWLEDGE OF CURRENT REALITY

Increased knowledge about research related to pedagogy and curriculum is vital to making decisions about new strategies or innovations. However, as important as this knowledge is, educators also need a clear understanding about why change is needed in the first place. Perhaps the simplest way of characterizing the need for a clear understanding of "current reality" is that until educators understand where they are there is little reason for them to be concerned with trying to figure out which way they ought to go. It is only when those who work in schools possess such clarity that they are able to develop a shared commitment to change. Deming (1988) refers to this kind of knowledge as "profound knowledge" and explains that it is only as the individuals who work in organizations acquire profound knowledge that continuous improvement will be possible. One of the things that has been learned from the research on the implementation of change is that, when innovations are imposed from the outside, they do not last (Fullan, 1982). It is also clear that when educators are provided with information about what they are doing in a non-threatening, non-coercive environment they are much more likely to make changes that are beneficial to students.

In other words providing teachers with information about the school's level of performance increases the likelihood that they will be willing to use that information to make the changes that are needed. One cautionary note is that any effort to provide information about "current reality" must be perceived as an effort to empower those who work in the schools to understand how well the school is doing and to produce a shared understanding of what is and is not working. If the information that is collected is used to point fingers or place blame the effort will be doomed to failure.

DEVELOPMENT OF ETHICS AND ETHICAL STANDARDS IN LEADERSHIP

The morality of transformational leadership has been sharply questioned, particularly by libertarians, "grass roots" theorists, and organizational development consultants. Indeed to be truly transformational, leadership must be grounded in moral foundations. The four components of authentic transformational leadership (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) are contrasted with their counterfeits in dissembling pseudo-transformational leadership on the basis of (1) the moral character of the leaders and their concerns for self and others; (2) the ethical values embedded in the leaders' vision, articulation, and program, which followers can embrace or reject; and (3) the morality of the processes of social ethical choices and action in which the leaders and followers engage and collectively pursue. The literature on transformational leadership is linked to the long-standing literature on virtue and moral character, as exemplified by Socratic and Confucian typologies. It is related as well to the major themes of the modern Western ethical agenda: liberty, utility, and distributive justice. Deception, sophistry, and pretense are examined alongside issues of transcendence, agency, trust, striving for congruence in values, cooperative action, power, persuasion, and corporate governance to establish the strategic and moral foundations of authentic transformational leadership.

GLOBAL LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES

In education as in any other field, the global leadership skills necessary to propel behavior and attitudes towards the desired direction at the workplace include self awareness, personal transformation and inquisitiveness.

Self awareness

A number of researches have identified self awareness as critical competency in leadership. Goleman (1998) argues that social awareness and self regulation are built on self awareness. Brake (1997) goes further to state that
self awareness is an indicator of maturity while Harris and Moran (1987) say that it is ones image and self role. Gupta and Govindarajan (2002) state that a greater self consciousness facilitates flexibility and learning. Taylor (2003) maintains that though individuals can be influenced by rational, technical and instrumental reasoning, self awareness empowers an individual to act intuitively. According to Taylor (2003), introspection and self reflection enhance personal awareness and authenticity required for a more responsible way of life. A leader needs to develop skills to interpret the depths of their inner self. According to Bandura (1986) these skills require a conscious effort to develop because they do not come naturally to people. For one to develop self awareness they need self knowledge that commits to introspection, self inquiry and reflective self evaluation. The litmus test for self awareness involves how one takes criticism. Those who possess self awareness know that candid feedback is essential to understand how others perceive them. The modern leader must inevitably possess high degree of self-awareness enough to want to detect their own mistakes, self correct them and learn from them. The need for self awareness as a competence begins with making self awareness an explicit organizational value (Albrecht, 2006). It must be reflected in the organization’s culture in order to unlock leadership opportunities and skills development.

**Personal transformation**

Leaders have opportunities and the responsibility to help their organizations attain greater heights of success (Kreitner, 2002). The popular cliche that an organization is as good as its leader holds. As the need for organizational transformation is identified, the leader needs to be able to preside over such transformations and they can only do that if they engage in personal transformation. Fisher and Torbert (1995) see engagement in personal transformation as a prerequisite for institutional transformation. The idea of transformation is viewed as a journey that marks a significant shift from formerly held perspectives.

Mumford et al. (2000) accentuates the need to direct one’s motives and desire to improve one’s achievement and performance as indicators of engagement in personal transformation. A positive self concept is necessary for an individual to engage in personal improvement since it provides opportunities for confirming and disconfirming deeply held beliefs. This also brings out the gaps and enables the individual to seek purpose driven progress and thereby transformation. The necessity for personal transformation is occasioned by the desire to be up to date with global trends in order to lead effectively. The individual will need to be aware of the changes taking place and use it as a fulcrum to motivate change for the organization (Gupta and Govindrajan, 2000). Quintessentially the leader who engages in personal transformation takes a ‘leap of faith’ by letting go of the familiar and seeking new skills, knowledge and attitudes which will spur measured risk taking propelled by an entrepreneurial spirit.

**Inquisitiveness**

Inquisitiveness is the cradle of meaningful learning. According to Mumford et al. (2000); Gupta and Govindrajan (2002) inquisitiveness is explained as curiosity. Brake (1997) maintains that in a global environment leaders must seek knowledge and adroitness from the global expanse. Curiosity generates knowledge and ideas that a leader can utilize to better their organization. If success is to be realized in the education sector as the engine of intellectual sustenance in society and driving force behind technology and innovation, then the leaders in education must begin to consider the place of curiosity within leadership circles and naturally in the other aspects of the sector. The practice of education in Kenya for instance calls for an innovative and creative ideas for curriculum reform, so as to ensure that curriculum informs and excites minds on what might be the best approach to arising issues. Obviously such a process can only be engineered by leaders who are conscious of and are willing to interrogate global knowledge systems under the prevailing globalization environment and lead their organizations appropriately.

Inquisitiveness invigorates the mind and contributes to growth of new ideas and perspectives. The symbiotic relationship between engagement in personal transformation and inquisitiveness is evidenced by the fact that inquisitiveness makes bare the gaps in knowledge skills and attitudes thus providing motivation for self improvement.

**MENTAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE 21ST CENTURY LEADER**

As has been discussed earlier, the leader in the 21st century needs to be more of an influencer than a supervisor. The leaders should be able to see many different perspectives, even contradictory ones and extract what is important from a complex mass of data. Such a leader interprets an event by drawing conclusions from a broad behavior repertoire (Gupta and Govindrajan, 2002). This broad way of thinking is what is referred to here as a global mindset. A global mindset combines an openness to and awareness of diversity across cultures and markets with a propensity and ability to synthesize across this diversity. According to Peterson (1997), global leaders must develop a sophisticated mindset whose elements must be integrated with experience and developed over time. These elements include:
1. Optimism
2. Self regulation
3. Social judgment skills
4. Empathy
5. International awareness
6. Cognitive skills

Optimism

Optimism is the belief that through the utilization of knowledge and reason, people can influence the existing conditions for good. Optimism assumes people will try to do good when given opportunities. It precipitates some form of altruism if exercised alongside critical thinking (Losada and Heaphy, 2004). Optimistic leaders will exhibit this characteristic through managerial pragmatism.

Goleman (1995) states that self efficacy -the belief that one has mastery over events- enables one to meet challenges as they come because they have developed hope and optimism. Self efficacy then according to this statement is a product of hope and optimism and acts as a motivator. Brake (1997) agrees with Goleman (1995) that optimism is a motivator. He adds that it enables an individual perpetuate a proactive demeanor and a positive attitude under complex circumstances. Optimistic leaders influence their staff positively and seek to appreciate positive aspects of difficult situations. The global leader must therefore develop skills to support an optimistic culture that emphasizes possibilities rather than problems.

Self regulation

The old adage goes, ‘He is strong who conquers others; he who conquers himself is mighty’. According to Goleman (1998), self regulation is the ability to ‘control or redirect disruptive impulses and moods’. Mumford et al. (2000) define it as behavioral flexibility and capacity to tolerate ambiguity. Brake (1997) states that self regulation is the skill to decide when to act and when to study a situation. Self awareness inclines an individual to self regulation. Self regulation implies the ability to master emotions and entails the ability to stay calm in the face of annoying situations (Goleman, 1998).

Social judgment skills

Global leaders are obligated to broadly understand cultural, political and socio economic conditions and find a place for their organizations. Concisely, they should be able to ‘see the end from the beginning’, apply intuition, common sense and posses learning agility. Such a leader can tell whether a situation is typical or atypical and act accordingly (Brake, 1997). Social judgment skills according to Mumford et al. (2000) are social sensitivity and perceptiveness, judgment and appreciation of diversity of cultures. It involves attributes that provide insight into the needs, goals demands and challenges at different organizational constituencies. These attributes are self awareness, self monitoring and social self confidence. Wisdom is an aspect of social judgment skills and is demonstrated through self reflection, systems perception and commitment (Goleman, 1998) Individuals who demonstrate such skills are able to provide more assistance to others and learn from experience, reward others’ strengths and accomplishments and share information and resources.

Empathy

Goleman (1998) defines empathy as a social competence where one is aware of another’s feelings, needs and concerns. He further explains that emotional intelligence determines "our potential for learning." Harris and Moran (1987) posit that empathy is a precursor and outcome of open approach to others. Mumford et al. (2000) see empathy as social commitment and ability to feel what others feel. The old leadership role of "It's my way or the highway" might have worked when everyone shared the same values, the same ethnic origins and the same belief systems. However, people in the 21st century are quite different thanks to changes in environment (Albrecht, 2006). All of these changes create additional stress and pushes them to seek other opportunities to realize their dreams. Effective leaders must be able to relate to these changes if they want to achieve the predetermined results (Albrecht, 2006). Empathic leaders recognize this and provide the kind of support that increases motivation. This could involve broadening a job assignment, varying the task components, or assigning leadership responsibilities. It also includes the delivery of one-to-one recognition in ways that increase a person’s sense of importance and self-worth. In this case the performance targets and appraisal process is open and fair (Albrecht, 2006).

Social skills

Social skills represent a broader range of abilities that is most closely linked to the construct of social intelligence. Social intelligence, the ability to think and act wisely in social situations, has been popularized by Goleman (2006) as the key components of social intelligence include the ability to express oneself in social interactions, the ability to perceive and understand different social situations, knowledge of social roles, norms, and scripts, interpersonal problem-solving skills, and social role-playing skills. Interestingly, Social intelligence is connected to effective social functioning in general and to effective leadership specifically although there has been no agreed-upon framework outlining the
Specific dimensions of social intelligence or ways to measure it. Goleman (1998) and Mumford et al. (2000) explain effectiveness as ability to take charge and inspire vision, build teams and networks, adeptness in communication, persuasion, negotiation and conflict management. It also includes knowledge of social norms, roles and scripts (Covey, 2004). Social sensitivity is the ability to read and interpret social situations, as opposed to the emotional sensitivity’s focus on reading others’ feelings. Social sensitivity allows managers to truly know and understand what individual workers and the work groups are feeling and experiencing. This helps the leader navigate during interactions with followers and work teams (Goleman, 2006).

Cognitive skills
Cognition may be defined as that which becomes to be known through the creation of knowledge as the result of awareness, learning, reflection, perception, reasoning, intuition, judgment, and wisdom (Albrecht, 2006). Global leaders must broadly understand cultural, political, socioeconomic conditions, history and inter-relations; and the breadth of this knowledge outstrip what domestic leaders need (Kreitner, 2002). Cognitive styles have gained prominence in the education and management literature over the last decades. In order to be a leader in the global environment an individual will need knowledge and attitude to be able to cope with complex uncertain situations. The leader will need to draw from experience and think up workable solutions for the organization (Allinson et al., 2001).

Networking skills
Networking is a term now widely used to describe two or contemporary organizational empowerment trends, which are superficially the same but, in fact, fundamentally are divergent. Good networks foster good partnerships. These partnerships are based on mutual support for both parties, even when they may have different goals. Operational networking involves establishing links building with people who can contribute to the task in question (Foster, 1989). These contacts are primarily internal and oriented toward current demands and are determined primarily by the task or project at hand and the organizational structure required completing the initiative. Personal networking is building relationships outside the organization through professional associations and personal interest communities. These contacts tend to be mostly external and oriented toward current interests and potential future interests. Such contacts can contribute to product knowledge and best practices. Strategic networking involves building internal and external relationships that are oriented toward future priorities.

These contacts tend to be both internal and external and the immediate relevance may not be clear. These types of contacts can contribute to future opportunities, career advancement, and strategic partnerships.

Acceptance of complexity and its contradictions
High IQ naturally expected of leaders has to be tempered with a high degree of cognitive complexity; global leaders can simultaneously hold and apply several valid but competing and complementary interpretations of a domain or situation. Tolerance for ambiguity is critical (Brake, 1997) in balancing contradiction, ambiguities, and trade-offs, and managing paradoxes that result in a global working environment. A global leader will never have all the data or enough data to make thorough, sound decisions so they must relish the opportunity that ambiguity provides to make progress when others are paralyzed (Brake, 1997). From their perspective, a lack of clarity means that more possibilities exist, that more avenues are open to success. On one hand, diversity of cultures, customers, competitors and regulations creates complexity; on the other, competitive pressures cause expanding organizations to extract more synergies across sectors and establishments. In such a climate, a new way of thinking, acting and organizing is needed beyond the familiar control mindset.

IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATION MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP IN KENYA
Globally there are calls for changes and even revolution in Education. Jones (2006) calls this desired change a ‘comprehensive policy framework linking elements in society, economy, environment and physical resources dependent on the generation’s use and exchange of knowledge’. This means that all aspects of social pillars need to be linked and utilized at an optimal level for the good of the entire society. Education policy should therefore provide room for linkages and collaborations with other sector in a way that will benefit the education sector and the collaborating entities. As the global changes seep through the Kenyan society, leaders in education need to provide the vision for the sector and to an extent the entire economy considering the role of education (GOK, 2007).

A sense of change has been heightened owing to the need to impart relevant skills to enable individuals to compete in the 21st century economies. Leaders and managers in the education sector therefore are expected to take a strong position on what they envision as the necessary directions for systematic, significant and sustained change that secures success for all stakeholders. Special attention must be paid to leadership that will preside over the desired changes at
all levels of education. Educational reform around the world is focusing on curriculum to cater for a knowledge society. The Vision 2030 aims at transforming the Kenyan society into a knowledge-based economy by 2030. The practice and outcome of education in Kenya should therefore reflect a direction towards that vision (GOK, 2007). This means the system at all levels needs to be strongly aligned to the unique mix of needs attitudes, aptitudes and aspirations of learners and stakeholders. Securing the fortitude for alignment to the vision requires good governance and leadership. The leaders and managers have the responsibility to mobilize intellectual capital by drawing on knowledge and skill of the experts in education at school, college or even policy making level. The leaders will also need the support of the social systems achieved through establishing formal and informal partnerships and networks involving their institutions, parents, business community and industry and agencies that have potential to support the institutions and where appropriate be supported by the institution. (Harris and Moran, 1997) Spiritual capital is also necessary in strong leadership. This refers to the strength of the moral purpose and the degree of coherence among values beliefs and attitudes about life and living. Spiritual foundation may be set on religion or ethics and values shared by the institution or community.

The Education Sector in Kenya should take on the responsibility to provide effective leadership and good governance and set the pace for other sectors. That means there has to be openness and accountability in decision making processes to uphold the trust of all participants and investors in the sector. The leaders are therefore challenged to rethink the basis of their leadership strength in order to move from the traditional default setting. What must underlie successful leadership in education in the 21st century is a bedrock belief that change is possible and that people can radically transform their behavior and skills in the face of the right impetus. This bedrock belief is the challenge in Kenya. The belief needs to be translated and reflected in all levels of education leadership through negotiation, persuasion and cooperation. To be able to lead the sector towards Vision 2030, education leaders have to acquire the global leadership competencies.

What will it take?

The need for leadership and education reforms should greatly concern everyone who is interested in establishing an effective and efficient management in the education sector. Some of the rhetoric we have heard surrounding this concept suggests that with so much new knowledge being created, content no longer matters; that ways of knowing information are now much more important than information itself. This contradicts what we have known about teaching and learning and raises concerns about training of the management in the sector. The issue therefore is how to meet the challenges of delivering content and skills in a rich way that genuinely improves outcomes for education. What will it take to ensure that equipping individuals with 21st century leadership skills is successful? That effort requires three primary components. First, educators and policymakers must ensure that the instructional program is complete and that content is not shortchanged for an ephemeral pursuit of skills. Second, there is need to revamp the thinking about human capital in education—in particular how teachers are trained. Finally, we need new assessments that can accurately measure richer learning and more complex tasks. These three elements must be implemented in concert; otherwise, the reform will be superficial and counter-productive.

Responsive curriculum

Skills and knowledge are intertwined and in some cases, knowledge helps us recognize the underlying structure of a problem. For example, even young children understand the logical implications of a rule like "If you finish your vegetables, you will get a candy." They can draw the logical conclusion that a child who is denied a candy must not have finished her vegetables. Without this familiar context, however, the same child will probably find it difficult to understand the logical form modus tollens, of which the candy rule is an example (If x, then z. z is false. Therefore, x is false). Thus, it's inaccurate to conceive of logical thinking as a separate skill that can be applied across a variety of situations. Sometimes we fail to recognize that we have a particular thinking skill (such as applying modus tollens) unless it comes in the form of known content. There is need to develop the concept of skill and knowledge as two sides of a coin. If skills and knowledge are separated, there is likelihood to draw incorrect conclusions. First, because content is readily available in many locations but thinking skills reside in the student’s brain, it would seem clear that if we must choose between them, skills are essential, whereas content is merely desirable. Second, if skills are independent of content, we could reasonably conclude that we can develop these skills through the use of any content.

Another curricular challenge is the necessity to teach self-direction, collaboration, creativity, and innovation the way we know how to teach more familiar concepts.

Training of managers should give students more experiences that will presumably develop these skills-for example, having them work in groups. But experience is not the same thing as practice. Experience means only that you use a skill; practice means that you try to improve by noticing what you are doing wrong and formulating strategies to do better. Practice also requires feedback, usually from someone more skilled than you.
are. Because of these challenges, devising a 21st century skills curriculum requires more than paying lip service to content knowledge. Outlining the skills in detail and merely urging that content be taught, too, is a recipe for failure. We must plan to teach skills in the context of particular content knowledge and to treat both as equally important.

In addition, education management training must be realistic about which skills are teachable. If we deem that such skills as collaboration and self-direction are essential, we should launch a concerted effort to study how they can be taught effectively rather than blithely assume that mandating their teaching will result in students learning them. In line with this, the delivery of content must be done using teaching and evaluation methods that are effective. This should probably include engage the best teachers available in an iterative process of planning, execution, feedback, and continued planning. This process, along with additional management training, will require significant time. And of course none of this will be successful without broader reforms in how leaders are recruited, selected, and deselected in an effort to address the whole picture of education’s human capital challenge.

**IMPLICATIONS FOR HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT (HRD) AND LEADERSHIP CHALLENGES IN KENYA**

The implications of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and transformational leadership for human resource development research and practice have been dealt with in this study as well as aspects of effect of HRD and EI on individual and organizational productivity, emotional intelligence and leadership development, as well as the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance. The need for organizations such as schools to invest in people through HRD programs, EI activities and promotion of the development of Social Capital (SC) in order to remain competitive and succeed in the current knowledge based economy characterized by uncertainty and inevitable change is critical. The current literature specifically linking HRD, EI, SC and organizational productivity is limited at best (Brooks and Nafukho, 2006). Although, a universally accepted definition of HRD is non-existent, several scholars have attempted to identify its essential elements. Swanson and Holton (2001, p. 4) define HRD as “a process for developing and unleashing human expertise through organization development and personnel training and development for the purpose of improving performance”. This definition is more inclined towards individuals, organizations and work groups or teams.

Social capital theory has emerged from sociology as a potential influence on performance at the individual, process and organizational levels. Social capital can be expressed as “the resources embedded in social networks accessed and used by actors and can also be envisioned as investment by individuals in interpersonal relationships useful in the markets” (Lin, 2001, p. 25). Coleman (1990) explains that in social capital, the social relationships are relations with predictive capacity and can be utilized to create something of value. Unlike human capital and traditional organizational assets, social capital is unique in that it is developed by and as a result of meaningful social relationships that individuals invest in creating together over time (Storberg-Walker, 2002). In her excellent review of the evolution of social capital theory, Storberg-Walker (2002) indicates that, like human capital theory and HRD, conflicting definitions and rationale for its measurement can be found in the management, sociology, and HRD literature. However, Lin (2001, 11-13) suggested that while definitions may differ, most scholars agree that social capital “benefits both the collective and individuals of the collective”.

Over the past 15 years, new technology has allowed breakthroughs in brain research that has increased our understanding about the mutual interaction between feelings (affect) and cognition (thought). Defining the nature and significance of this interplay between thought and emotion is at the heart of the emerging research on emotional intelligence. HRD professionals continually grapple with the issues associated with organizing, motivating, enhancing, and evaluating human activity; emotional intelligence research can inform HRD practices to this end within organizations. Fineman (2000, 1-24) noted: “. . . feelings shape and lubricate social transactions hence, emotional intelligence as an organizational development tool is widely accepted among managers, consultants, and practitioners as a means for solving problems and enhancing social capital.” Hopefully the change issues addressed in this paper will help tackle corruption and other challenges facing leadership in Kenya today.

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