

AN EXPLORATORY ANALYSIS OF YOUTH LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA: THEORETICAL AND PROGRAMMATIC PERSPECTIVES

by
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Declaration

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ABSTRACT

A major societal challenge in post-1994 South Africa is that of questionable public leadership and the scarcity of ethical and effective leadership. Coupled with this are high expectations from the public directed at government institutions, which need to respond to the basic needs of citizens, and private business institutions, which need to create and sustain economic activity in an often uncertain environment. These transitional challenges call for outstanding leadership in public and private institutions.

However, one can make a justified and evidence-based argument that the state of leadership in South Africa, particularly in the public sector, is not living up to these expectations. Added to this challenge of poor leadership is a youthful population that faces numerous challenges. However, from the youth of today the leaders of tomorrow are to emerge.

South Africa and Africa as a whole are experiencing a youth population boom; a phenomenon that has been classified as having the potential to either be a demographic dividend or a ticking time bomb. In order to promote the development of youths, the South African government has attempted to respond to the multiplicity of challenges facing the youth by instituting the National Youth Act; a National Youth policy; the National Youth Service and a National Youth Development Agency (NYDA). This research submits evidence that the effectiveness of these interventions has not been satisfactory and that they do not include the intentional development of emerging South African leaders.

The question, therefore, arises as to whether intentional development of future emerging leaders should not be taking place on a greater scale and in such a manner so as to ensure an improved leadership landscape in the future. This question necessitates exploratory inquiry into the phenomenon of youth leadership development in South Africa and represents the central theme of this research.

Non-governmental organizations and university-based institutions have created leadership development programmes that target an emerging leaders' cadre in South Africa. These programmes are structured in different ways, but all have a leadership curriculum with theoretical and practical elements in common. **The goal of this research will be to conduct an exploratory analysis of this emerging South African youth leadership development practice and to provide a theoretical and programmatic perspective on it based on an analysis of two case studies.**

The research is divided into four sequential phases. The first phase consists of a theoretical review of the concepts of leadership and youth leadership development. The second phase analyzes the context and challenges of South Africa's youth and youth leadership development. The third and fourth phases transpose the theoretical and contextual analysis with youth leadership development practice in South Africa. This is done by means of the analysis of two case studies and the responses gathered from a semi-structured questionnaire answered by a sample population of emerging South African leaders. The cases analyzed are the South Africa Washington International Programme, a non-governmental organization specialising in developing emerging South African leaders, and the Frederik van Zyl Slabbert Institute for Student Leadership Development of Stellenbosch University.

The research showed that the concept of youth leadership development is theoretically underdeveloped, and limited information could be derived from the American literature on college student development.

The research also indicated that the scale of youth leadership development in South Africa is relatively small. However, programmes developed and implemented by non-government organizations and tertiary-based institutions suggest an emerging practice of youth leadership development in the country. This emerging practice is not well researched in the South African context. In response, this study succeeds in highlighting a number of knowledge gaps that could address this lack.

The research concludes with evidence that suggests that an investment in the professionalization of youth leadership development programmes will result in a future generation of ethical and effective South African leaders that will bring about positive transformational change in the Republic.

OPSOMMING

Twyfelagtige openbare leierskap en die skaarsheid van etiese en effektiewe leierskap is 'n wesenlike maatskaplike uitdaging in post-1994 Suid-Afrika. Tesame met hierdie het die publiek hoë verwagtinge vanaf die regering, wat nodig het om te reageer op basiese behoeftes van landsburgers, en vanaf 'n sakektor, wat ekonomiese aktiwiteite moet bewerkstellig in soms volatiele omstandighede. Hierdie oorgangsuitdagings vra vir uitstaande leierskap in openbare en private instellings.

'n Regverdige en bewys-gebaseerde argument kan gemaak word dat die toestand van leierskap in Suid-Afrika, veral in die openbare sektor, nie aan verwagtinge vir goeie leierskap voldoen nie. Bykomend tot hierdie uitdaging van swak leierskap is 'n jong bevolking wat talle uitdagings in die gesig staar. Die jeug van vandag is egter die groepering waaruit toekomstige leiers te voorskyn kom.

Suid-Afrika en Afrika in geheel beleef 'n oplewing van jeug populasie en hierdie verskynsel word deur sommige geklassifiseer as 'n moontlike demografiese dividend of 'n tydbom met negatiewe implikasies vir sosio-ekonomiese stabiliteit. Ten einde die jeug te bevorder wend die Suid-Afrikaanse regering pogings aan om te reageer op die verskeidenheid van jeug uitdagings deur die instelling van die Nasionale Jeug Wet, Nasionale Jeug beleid, die Nasionale Jeugdiens en 'n Nasionale Jeugontwikkelingsagentskap. Hierdie navorsing lê bewyse dat die doeltreffendheid van hierdie intervensies nie bevredigend is nie en fokus nie op doelgerigte ontwikkeling van opkomende Suid-Afrikaanse leiers nie.

Die vraag ontstaan dus of doelgerigte ontwikkeling van toekomstige opkomende leiers nie op 'n groter skaal en op so 'n wyse moet plaasvind om 'n beter leierskapslandskap in die toekoms te verseker nie? Hierdie vraag skep 'n geleentheid vir 'n verkennende ondersoek na die verskynsel van jeugleierskapsontwikkeling in Suid-Afrika en verteenwoordig die sentrale tema van hierdie navorsing.

'n Beperkte aantal nie-regeringsorganisasies en universiteit-gebaseerde organisasies is geskep om jeugleierskapsontwikkeling programme te bestuur wat gemik is op die ontwikkeling van 'n opkomende leierskader in Suid-Afrika. Hierdie programme is gestruktureer in verskillende maniere, maar het elk 'n leierskapskurrikulum met teoretiese en praktiese elemente in gemeen. **Die doel van hierdie navorsing is om 'n verkennende analise te doen oor hierdie opkomende Suid-Afrikaanse jeugleierskapsontwikkeling praktyk en om 'n teoretiese en programmatiese perspektief hiervoor te verskaf, gebaseer op 'n ontleding van twee gevallestudies.**

Die navorsing is verdeel in vier opeenvolgende fases. Die eerste fase bestaan uit 'n teoretiese oorsig van die konsep van leierskap en jeugleierskapsontwikkeling. Die tweede fase ontleed die konteks en uitdagings van Suid-Afrika se jeug en jeugleierskapsontwikkeling. Die derde en vierde fases integreer die teoretiese en kontekstuele analise met jeugleierskapsontwikkeling praktyk in Suid-Afrika. Dit word gedoen deur middel van ontleding van twee gevallestudies en ontleding van terugvoer verkry deur 'n semi-gestruktureerde vraelys wat beantwoord is deur 'n steekproef bevolking van opkomende Suid-Afrikaanse leiers. Die gevalle ontleed is die Suid-Afrikaanse Washington Internasionale Program (SAWIP), 'n nie-regeringsorganisasie wat spesialiseer in die ontwikkeling van opkomende Suid-Afrikaanse leiers, en die Frederik van Zyl Slabbert Instituut vir Studente Leierskapsontwikkeling van die Universiteit Stellenbosch.

Die navorsing het getoon dat die konsep van jeugleierskapsontwikkeling teoreties onderontwikkeld is met beperkte studies wat in die Amerikaanse literatuur oor studente-ontwikkeling gevind is.

Die navorsing het ook aangedui dat die skaal van jeugleierskapsontwikkeling in Suid-Afrika relatief klein is, hoewel programme wat ontwikkel en geïmplementeer word deur nie-regeringsorganisasies en tersiër-gebaseerde instellings dui op 'n opkomende praktyk van die jeugleierskapsontwikkeling in die land. Hierdie opkomende praktyk is nie goed bestudeer in die Suid-

Afrikaanse konteks nie. In reaksie slaag die studie daarin om 'n aantal kennisgapings in hierdie verband te beklemtoon.

Die navorsing sluit af met bewyse wat daarop dui dat 'n belegging in die professionalisering en formalisering van jeugleierskapsontwikkeling as 'n praktyk sal lei tot 'n toekomstige generasie van etiese en effektiewe Suid-Afrikaanse leiers wat positiewe transformasie in die Republiek teweeg sal bring.

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LIST OF ADDENDA

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|--------|--|
| AGM | Annual General Meeting |
| AU | African Union |
| EIL | emotionally intelligent leadership |
| FRL | Full Range of Leadership |
| FVZS | Frederik van Zyl Slabbert |
| GTOL | A General Theory of Leadership Project |
| HSRC | Human Sciences Research Council |
| IJR | Institute for Justice and Reconciliation |
| ILA | International Leadership Association |
| LID | leadership identity development model |
| LMX | Leader-member exchange |
| MoU | Memorandum of Understanding |
| NDP | National Development Plan |
| NEET | not in employment, education or training |
| NEPAD | New Partnership for Africa's Development |
| NGO | Non-governmental organization |
| NPC | National Planning Commission |
| NPO | Non-profit organization |
| NYDA | National Youth Development Agency |
| NYP | National Youth Policy |
| NYS | National Youth Service scheme |
| SAWIP | South Africa Washington International Programme |
| SCM | social change model |
| SSA | Statistics South Africa |
| SU | Stellenbosch University |
| UNESCO | United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization |
| UNICEF | United Nations Children's Fund |
| UNPAN | United Nations Public Administration Network |
| UYF | Umsobomvu Youth Fund |

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

In the past, discourse on leadership and development in Africa and South Africa has included the statement “African solutions to African problems need to be found”. This statement links to aspects of Africanist philosophy and African liberation sentiments that stress the freeing of Africans from alien rule and control (Dowden, 2008:63). Yet, like the rest of the world, Africa is affected by the forces of globalization and an increasingly multi-cultural society. Africa’s challenges are many and complex, requiring adaptive solutions and their effective implementation. This requires good leadership, and as stated by the African Union’s Youth Charter, African youth should play a pivotal role in this process (African Union, 2006:2).

In the local context, South Africa, as a post-conflict society, is faced with a myriad of socio-economic and political challenges, requiring extraordinary leaders in all spheres of society. This research is based on the rationale that youths can play a vital role in the process of positive socio-economic and political change and an investment in the practice of youth leadership development would contribute to this. The practice of youth leadership development is, however, not well understood or documented in the South African context.

A range of youth leadership programmes exist in South Africa, from the structured programmes of political parties to grass-roots-level activity based learning initiatives. These programmes employ a diverse range of approaches and techniques to teach some form of leadership to young adults. However, some programmes are seen as being elitist (Jobson, 2011:16), whereas others function under the banner of “leadership development” but in fact focus little on the development of leadership competencies. In addition, few of these programmes have a strong theoretical grounding.

In South Africa, partly because of high levels of youth unemployment, the youth are seen as a problem rather than an opportunity (Jobson, 2011:4). The notion of youth as competent and value-adding citizens, and the nature of leadership amongst youth that can encourage this, will be explored in this study.

At a stakeholder summit on higher education transformation convened in April 2010 on the initiative of the Minister for Higher Education and Training of South Africa, a key recommendation was the development of a national framework for student leadership development to enable the development of leadership capacity in higher education (FVZS, 2012:6). This lends substance to an argument that the development of emerging South

African leaders, through institutions of learning, should be prioritized. This raises the question of what is understood by youth leadership development, from a theoretical, institutional and programmatic perspective.

Few studies have critically assessed the practice of youth leadership development in the South African context. Even more limited are studies that attempt to investigate the nexus between leadership theory and youth leadership development practice, and the value that may arise from focusing on this relationship. MacNeil (2006:29) observes a noticeable absence of the youth in the literature focused on leadership theory, leadership development, and leadership practice. Against this backdrop, this research argues that youth leadership development represents a strategic response to South Africa's challenges and apparent deficit of good leadership.

1.2 RESEARCH GOAL STATEMENT

The goal of this research is to explore the practice of youth leadership development in South Africa from both a theoretical and programmatic perspective, based on two selected examples of youth leadership development. The research is exploratory in nature and therefore specific research questions cannot be developed at the inception of this report. However, the findings and recommendations at the end of the report could inform research problems and questions related to the topic of youth leadership development in South Africa to be tested in future research.

The findings of this study will contribute to contextually grounded youth leadership development practice in South Africa. In addition, the findings and recommendations could inform the design, development and facilitation of programmes for leadership development in youths at graduate level who are interested in influencing social, economic, political and developmental agendas through the embodiment of balanced, value-driven leadership in their respective fields of interest. The necessary skills, actions, competencies and knowledge needed for youth leadership development at graduate level; and the creation of an environment conducive to learning and practising these, will become evident in this study. In order to achieve this overarching goal of the exploratory study, the researcher has set the following objectives.

The objectives of this research are to:

- Execute a theoretical analysis of leadership theory and literature on the concept of youth leadership development.
- Execute a contextual analysis of the context and strategic challenges of South African youth in the defined emerging leader context, youths aged 15-24 years.

- Explore the context and practice of youth leadership development in South Africa.
- Investigate and analyze the youth leadership development programmes of two institutions through a case-based analysis.
- Produce theoretical and programmatic findings and recommendations related to the practice of youth leadership development in South Africa.

1.3 MOTIVATION

The background rationale of this study is grounded in the researcher's interest in the process of youth leadership development, and an equally keen interest in leadership scholarship. The researcher is an alumnus and past board member of one of the case studies analyzed in this research. Scharmer (2009) states that, "leadership development is not about filling a gap, but about igniting a field of inspired connection and action". Building on this statement, it is the researcher's aim that the research product of this study will provide a better understanding of personal and collective leadership development among South African youths. In addition, the research will represent a unique contribution to the limited amount of academic inquiry into the development of youth leadership in South Africa.

1.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In executing an exploratory inquiry into youth leadership development in the South African context a qualitative research framework is used. This included data collection of both a secondary and primary nature. The classification of the research is that of a mixed-method approach which includes elements of an exploratory, grounded-theory and case study analysis approach (Mouton, 2001:53).

Initial inquiry into the topic of youth leadership development in South Africa by the researcher showed that little is known about the processes and programmatic context of this phenomenon which confirms the choice of a grounded theory methodology. In this methodology the research process aims to observe and systematically describe the phenomenon being studied and attempt to indentify patterns and relationships in order to eventually, with in-depth empirical evidence, formulate a theory (Welman, Kruger and Mitchell, 2005: 34). The latter is not the end goal of this research; however, the research that follows could represent a part of such a more in-depth theory building exercise on the topic of youth leadership development in the South African context.

The intent of grounded theory is to generate and discover a theory or abstract analytical schema of a phenomenon that relates to a particular situation grounded in the experience and perceptions of the participants (Brown, Stevens, Troiano & Schneider, 2002). This

methodology is appropriate given the nature of the research aims and the limited amount of empirically based literature on the development of leadership competencies in youths.

A case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries or relationship between a phenomenon and a particular context are not clearly evident. Thus, case studies rely on and produce a variety of sources of evidence that may help to answer certain research questions (Yin, 2009:18). Case studies provide for context-dependant knowledge, and in the case of this research, two case studies provide a sample of analysis of youth leadership development practice. Tacit material was used to analyze a sample of the programmatic context of youth leadership development in the form of well-documented curricula and documents relating to programme management and governance. This was followed by the reflections of participants in response to questions asked in a semi-structured questionnaire. The primary and secondary data utilized include:

Secondary data

The researcher consulted a variety of academic articles, governmental research publications, books, dissertations, programmatic content of case studies, written media articles and internet sources.

Primary data

The primary data consists of answers received from a semi-structured questionnaire sent out to over 150 youth leaders who have participated in the South Africa Washington International Programme (SAWIP) or programmes implemented by the Frederik van Zyl Slabbert Institute for Student Leadership Development of Stellenbosch University. The questionnaire aimed to explore the understanding of these emerging South African leaders, all of whom have participated in a range of youth leadership development initiatives, of relevant leadership theory and practice. This section represents some elements of grounded theory as it provides feedback that creates a base for making theoretical deductions about youth leadership development practice. In addition, this will aid the overall study in identifying emerging trends and needs for youth leadership development in South Africa. The detailed methodology of the semi-structured questionnaire is described in Chapter 5.

1.5 LITERATURE REVIEW

The researcher conducted a comprehensive review of the literature on the following topics for purposes of this research:

- leadership

- leadership development
- youth development
- youth leadership development.

The contextual review that follows the theoretical analysis also includes the study of numerous documents found in academic journals, government policies and other organizational documentation.

1.6 LAYOUT OF THE RESEARCH REPORT

Chapter 1 of the research report provides an introduction and overview to the study. This is done by introducing the central research problem and research question, linked to the research goal statement and related objectives. The introductory chapter further includes an overview of the research methodology used in executing this research and reference is made to the concepts which the literature review part of the study focuses on.

Chapter 2 provides a comprehensive theoretical review of leadership and youth leadership development. The nexus between conventional leadership theory, six guiding precepts for good leadership and youth leadership development is discussed. The context and strategic challenges of youth and youth leadership development, as a form of youth development, are analyzed and investigated in **Chapter 3**. Specific focus is given to the South African context and, based on the contextual analysis, the chapter concludes with a discussion on various components of a proposed framework for youth leadership development.

Chapter 4 provides a factual case-based analysis of two institutions that promote youth leadership development through structured leadership development interventions targeting university students in South Africa. Some analytical comparisons are also made between the components of each case.

In **Chapter 5**, feedback from a semi-structured qualitative questionnaire that was sent to participants in the programmes of the two cases discussed in chapter 4 is presented. An analytical discussion of the most important findings and the implications for youth leadership development practice in the context of this thesis is presented.

The theoretical review, contextual analysis and empirical findings are synthesized in **Chapter 6**, which provides a summary of the research, coupled with final conclusions and recommendations.

In order to provide for credible and theoretically grounded conclusions and recommendations in the final chapter, the relevant concepts of leadership, leadership development and youth leadership need to be understood. This will be dealt with in the theoretical analysis in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 2: LEADERSHIP AND YOUTH LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT: A THEORETICAL ANALYSIS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the goal is to focus on theoretical and conceptual approaches that form the basis for the understanding of leadership and youth leadership development. Leadership is a human phenomenon that has been studied for centuries and in order to explain and contextualize its meaning, a thorough review of existing literature on leadership is necessary. In order to achieve this goal the objectives of this chapter includes a comprehensive two-fold literature review.

The first objective of this chapter is to review definitions relating to leadership. This is expanded through the identification of six guiding conceptual precepts of leadership which are equally applicable as prerequisites for good youth leadership and its development. These precepts are: servant leadership, thought leadership, ethical leadership, effective leadership, resonant leadership and emotionally intelligent leadership. Linked to these precepts is the notion of bad leadership and its characteristics. The first part of the literature review further provides an overview of the evolution in approach to leadership and concludes with a section on the academic quest to construct a general or integrated theory of leadership.

The second objective of this theoretical review is to explore the literature that refers to definitions, concepts, theories and, finally, models regarding the notion of youth leadership development. Literature on behavioural change and the transfer of leadership competencies in young people to enable leadership development is analyzed and discussed. In this section reference is made to a leadership identity development model, the Heifetz model of adaptive leadership and a social change model for leadership development in post-school youths. The section is concluded with a discussion on curriculum and competencies for youth leadership development.

The chapter concludes with observations from the theoretical analysis and its relevance for the complementary objectives of this study.

2.2 LEADERSHIP: DEFINITIONS

A comprehensive body of literature on leadership theory and practice exists. A plethora of leadership styles, conceptualizations and models is found in the literature and it would be too exhaustive to discuss all of these here. This section starts with a review of academic inquiry

into: firstly, broad definitions of leadership; secondly, guiding conceptual precepts related to leadership and leadership development practice; thirdly, leadership theories that have evolved and been developed in the literature; and, finally, models of leadership development.

Boonzaier (2008:1) notes that all organizations operate with a purpose, and the desire to effectively achieve that purpose creates the need for leadership. Leadership and its effectiveness are widely considered as two of the key factors that determine institutional success or failure (Kotzé & Venter, 2010:414). Leadership is often understood as the relationship between a leader and those being led; and is said to not be something one does to people, but rather something that is done in relation with others (DuBrin, 2010:4).

According to DuBrin, “creating the future is a more forceful approach than anticipating the future. The leader or manager, assisted by widespread participation of team members, creates conditions that do not already exist” (DuBrin, 2010:417). One can posit then that the intentional purposes of leadership are related to the changed future state of affairs.

Klau (2006:82) conducted a grounded-theory exploration on leadership education theory and practice and synthesized theoretical conceptions of leadership as illustrated in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Klau’s definitions of leadership

| CONCEPTION | DEFINITION |
|--------------------------------|--|
| Civic Leadership | Interest in and engagement with issues of broad public interest |
| Charismatic leadership | Ability to influence peers through enthusiasm, extroversion, or creativity |
| Leadership as formal authority | Attainment of a position of formal authority in an organization |
| Relational leadership group | Ability to manage interpersonal dynamics for the good of the group |
| Service leadership | Commitment to engaging in activities dedicated to helping underserved or needy populations |
| “Great Individual” leadership | Recognition of one or two individuals as “the best” |
| Intellectual leadership | Ability to reason clearly and persuasively in a manner that influences others |
| Moral and spiritual leadership | Commitment to the cause of promoting social justice |

(Derived from Klau, 2006:82)

In each of the above definitions leadership is the constant and is simply made context specific by adding words that relate to a specific situation or institutional environment to signify to what kind of leadership is being referred. One can thus argue that leadership is a multi-faceted concept with a diversity of applications and meanings.

Leadership as an overarching concept is, however, not only considered at an organizational level, but also at an individual level. This is confirmed by Schwella (2013:70) who defines democratic and effective public leadership as:

“action taken through a dynamic and transparent process involving the leader with relevant others in the inclusive setting and effective realization of legitimate, legal and socially valuable goals and objectives. The process requires continuous democratic and organizational learning to progressively enhance effective and proper policy making and service delivery aimed at improving the quality of lives of citizens”.

The literature on leadership exceeds definitions of the concepts of leadership by explaining various guiding precepts that prescribe good leadership practice. The following section provides a brief overview of a selection of leadership precepts which are relevant for this study.

2.3 SIX GUIDING CONCEPTUAL PRECEPTS OF GOOD LEADERSHIP

In the context of this thesis there are a number of guiding leadership precepts that can be identified in the literature and applied to the context of youth leadership development. These conceptual precepts are: servant leadership; thought leadership; ethical leadership; effective leadership; resonant leadership; and emotionally intelligent leadership. Linked to all of these is the notion of good versus bad, or ineffective, leadership. One can argue that these notions of leadership are important for studying the process of leadership and youth leadership development. The following sub-sections elaborate on the precepts and their relevance to the context of this study.

2.3.1 SERVANT LEADERSHIP

The notion of service is often referred to in discussions on leadership. A person who embodies servant leadership may be defined as “a leader whose primary purpose for leading is his or her commitment to serve others by investing in their development for the benefit of accomplishing tasks and goals for the common good” (Page & Wong, 2000:70). This selfless service is carried out in relation to the leader’s organization at a task level as well as to his or her colleagues at an interpersonal level.

Sendjaya, Sarros & Santora (2008:406) identify the following six characteristics of a servant leader:

- **voluntary subordination** to principles of service or a good cause that improves the lives of fellow human beings;

- **authentic self** – referring to leaders being true to a set of values and beliefs;
- **responsible morality** in a person's actions – are they good or bad?;
- **covenantal relationship** with a higher power or being which influences work ethic and a person's relationship with followers;
- **transcendental spirituality**, referring to a focus on values, organizational goals and a connectedness to others; and
- **transforming influence**, which refers to the influential impact that the leader's actions have on followers.

These authors argue that servant leaders see their peers and subordinates as equal role players in institutional actions, rather than focus on status and positional authority to exert influence. Servant leaders are said to be capable of leading with authenticity by fostering mutual trust, focusing on shared values, and being committed to the welfare of others (Sendjaya et al., 2008:406).

Liden, Wayne, Zhao and Henderson (2008:162) observe that the literature on servant leadership offers multiple existing taxonomies of the construct. These scholars have identified and validated the following nine dimensions of servant leadership; these show some similarities, but also make important additions to the characteristics of Sendjaya *et al.* The nine dimensions include:

- **emotional healing**, referring to the act of showing sensitivity to the personal concerns of other people;
- **creating value for the community** is said to constitute a conscious, genuine concern for helping the community;
- **conceptual skills**, referring to the possession of knowledge of the organization and tasks at hand so as to be in a position to effectively support and assist others, in particular immediate followers;
- **empowering**, which includes encouraging and facilitating others in identifying and solving work-related problems;
- **helping subordinates grow and succeed**, by providing support and mentoring for the career growth and development of followers;
- **putting subordinates first** by using actions and words to make it clear to others that satisfying their work needs is a priority;
- **behaving ethically** by interacting fairly, transparently and honestly with others;
- focusing on **relationships** by making a genuine effort to know, understand, and support others in the organization, especially immediate followers; and

- embodying **servanthood**, referring to a desire to be characterized by others as someone who serves others first, even when self-sacrifice is required.

Servant leadership clearly focuses on individual values and actions that inform a certain leadership behaviour characterized by the dimensions discussed above. However, one can also argue that leaders need to lead in thinking and guide the thoughts of followers. The following section briefly explains this notion of thought leadership.

2.3.2 THOUGHT LEADERSHIP

According to McCrimmon (2005:1065-1066), thought leadership is based on the power of ideas to transform the way one thinks. Thought leaders champion new ideas laterally to peers or upward to superiors. It is said that because new knowledge often has a life of its own, thought leadership is not dependent on influencing skills, the power of personality or the authority of position (McCrimmon, 2005:1066).

Thought leadership may then lead to the development of a network of new ideas that do not belong to a specific leader; ideas that have evolved through a range of innovative thinkers. This example illustrates the multi-faceted nature of leadership and its complementary theoretical constructs.

2.3.3 ETHICAL LEADERSHIP

Locke (DuBrin, 2006:142) argues that ethics are central to leadership as the role of a rational leader is to synthesize the interests of all parties so that maximum benefits are gained from individual and institutional decisions. Morality, ethical behaviour and integrity are values that most followers expect of their leaders.

According to DuBrin (2006:142) “Integrity refers to loyalty to rational principles; it means practicing what one preaches regardless of emotional or social pressure.” The ethical standards and levels of integrity of leaders differ, and it is said that a number of factors explain the possible reasons for this. These are:

- The **level of greed, gluttony, and avarice**, referring to leaders who seek to maximize their personal returns, even if at the negative expense of others (followers);
- The **level of moral development** of leaders, which is said to pass through a pre-conventional, conventional and post-conventional level. The latter level is where a leader seeks to do the most good for the majority of people through an internalized set of beliefs and a value system that does not seek personal recognition;

- A **sense of entitlement** which is an acquired behavioural trait that certain leaders develop that makes them think they are entitled to whatever they desire;
- **Situational factors** such as an organizational culture that either tolerates unethical behaviour or does not tolerate it;
- **Personal character**, referring to the quality of an individual's character; and
- **Motivated blindness**, referring to leaders who only see what they want to see and choose to ignore contradictory information that may, for example, lead to a conflict of interest in organizational actions (DuBrin, 2010:147).

The ethical mind of leaders – according to educational psychologists, a leader needs to develop an ethical mind in order to stay ethical. Developing an ethical mind is said to begin with a belief that an ethical compass is essential to the health of institutions. To nurture the development of an ethical mind the leader must do rigorous self-tests on his or her own beliefs and reflect on the ethical nature of the decisions that he or she makes. Leaders should act promptly if they are aware of any unethical behaviour in the organizations in which they are working (DuBrin, 2010:149).

- Is it right?
- Is it fair?
- Who gets hurt?
- Would you be comfortable if the details of your decision or actions were made public in the media or through e-mail?
- What would you tell your child, sibling, or young relative to do?
- How does it smell?

(DuBrin 2010:149-150).

It is said that at a post-conventional level a leader has an internalized set of ethics (DuBrin, 2010:173). This, according to Trevino & Nelson (2011:80-81), results in leadership actions that strive towards collective good, whilst placing personal reward as a secondary objective. This notion of leading for the “greater good” is termed as the consequential theory of ethics by Slabbert and Mnyongani (2009:66), emanating from the works of the philosopher Jeremy Bentham.

While considering basic concepts and questions relating to ethical leadership, it may be constructive to incorporate what scholars have noted on its antithesis – unethical or bad leadership. This also applies to concepts of leadership effects and effectiveness which the following section will show.

2.3.4 EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP

Leadership action is not neutral in its performance or consequences. This is according to Kellerman who argues that one needs to make the distinction between good leadership and bad or “toxic” leadership (Kellerman, 2004:37). This distinction can be clarified by considering the effects of leadership and leadership effectiveness. Leadership effectiveness is referred to as the extent to which the process of leadership brings about institutional or group success (Bass, 1995:469).

Kotzé & Venter (2010:415) state that leadership constitutes a process while leadership effectiveness identifies a result. History is full of with examples of leaders who were certainly effective in what they achieved, but the effects or result of their leadership had devastating consequences. Adolf Hitler, for example, may be perceived as an excellent leader in that he had many followers, yet he was responsible for the deaths of millions of Jews (Kellerman, 2004:30). According to DuBrin (2013: 515) effective leadership may be defined as “attaining desirable outcomes such as productivity, quality, and satisfaction in a given situation”.

Linked to effective and ineffective leadership are the concepts of resonance and dissonance in a leadership context.

2.3.5 RESONANT AND DISSONANT LEADERSHIP

Resonant leadership is strongly linked to the emotional aspects of leaders and the people they are leading. According to Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee (2002:5), resonance is created when leaders drive emotions positively. In contrast to creating resonance, when leaders drive emotions negatively dissonance is created, which destabilizes the emotional foundations “that let people shine”.

In a presentation by the United Nations Public Administration Network (UNPAN), based on the work by Daniel Goleman, resonant leaders are said to exert the following action and leadership competencies (UNPAN, 2002):

- Tune into their own values, priorities, sense of meaning, and goals – this creates harmony in a team context and assists people to connect to each other;
- Lead authentically;
- Tune into other people’s sense of values, priority, meaning, and goals – this enables greater buy-in and a sense of meaning from team members;
- When they tune into others, it helps followers tune into the aspirations and desired change leaders envision;

- Create a climate where you one articulate a mission that moves people.

The latter point addresses the objective of achieving team motivation, or in this instance, team resonance. The grand thesis of resonant leadership theory is that performance of teams will increase and people will be more “happy” in executing tasks in both the individual and collaborative or institutional sense. UNPAN (2002) further describes the characteristics of a resonant team as:

- Releasing energy in people that puts them in a state where they can work at their best;
- The members “vibrate” together with positive emotional energy that adds value to creativity and efficiency in work;
- When a team resonates, or shows team emotional intelligence, it enhances performance (UNPAN, 2002).

Boyatzis and McKee (2005:8-9) identify three elements that are central to sustaining resonant leadership. These are: mindfulness, hope and compassion. Cultivating the capacity for these elements is said to involve a process of intentional change of the individual. This dynamic process involves, “deliberate, focused identification of our personal vision and our current reality, and conscious creation of and engagement in a learning agenda” (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005:9).

From this discussion one can deduce that leadership not only has something to do with thoughts and actions, but also with the emotions, or “heart” that inform leadership thought and action. This “heart function” of leadership links to the role of emotional intelligence in leadership development.

2.3.6 EMOTIONALLY INTELLIGENT LEADERSHIP

Emotionally intelligent leadership, as a contemporary conceptual framework for analyzing leadership, integrates scholarship on leadership and emotional intelligence. The three facets of emotionally intelligent leadership (EIL), according to Allen, Facca, Shankman & Haber (2012:246), include a person’s:

- levels of consciousness of self;
- consciousness of others; and
- consciousness of context.

The EIL framework asserts that awareness and regulation of emotions in the self and others is critical to developing and sustaining good leadership (Allen *et al.*, 2012:247). Emotionally intelligent leaders are said to be better at navigating leadership complexities by maintaining an intentional focus on self, context and others.

Consciousness of context simply means that the leader is aware of the larger environment in which leadership action takes place and is a combination of the setting and the situation, and the variables impacting on the dynamics within these.

Consciousness of self focuses on the personal development of the leader, including intrapersonal dynamics and recognizing one's own strengths, limitations, goals and ambitions. In order to nurture effective leadership, the importance of reflection and increasing one's self-knowledge is emphasized here (Allen *et al.*, 2012:249).

Finally, consciousness of others stresses the importance of acknowledging the critical role that team members play in the leadership process. Leaders need to "read" group dynamics carefully so as to judge when to delegate more and when to apply more control.

2.3.7 LEARNING FROM BAD LEADERSHIP

The negative extremes of the six guiding precepts for good leadership elaborated on above may result in its antithesis, which would be bad leadership. The characteristics of bad leadership are useful to study in order to better understand what constitutes leadership development that results in positive rather than negative future states.

Kellerman's studies of bad leadership are based on the premise that the majority of literature on leadership engages the subject from a positivist perspective, which in actual fact may seem quite ironic, as there are far more cases of bad leadership than good leadership in practice. Kellerman (2004:38) classifies bad leadership into seven groups:

- incompetent
- rigid
- intemperate
- callous
- corrupt
- insular and
- evil.

In search of what “good” leadership and its development consist of, it will be of value to use Kellerman’s negative approach to studying leadership.

This section explained six guiding leadership precepts relevant to the context of this study. The following section provides an analytical overview of the evolution of various approaches to leadership and leadership development found in the literature.

2.4 EVOLUTION IN LEADERSHIP THEORY

In the evolution of leadership studies it is possible to identify the following approaches to leadership to assist in understanding leadership at a theoretical level: the trait approach; the behavioural approach; the situational or contingency approach; the transformational and new charismatic approach; and the social learning approach. A brief explanation of each approach is discussed below.

2.4.1 THE TRAIT APPROACH

Early research on leadership focused on the traits and qualities of individual leaders. In the early 1900s so-called “great-man theories” were most popular and attempted to qualify leadership in terms of the innate characteristics and qualities of individuals (DuBrin, 2010:33). These qualities included personality traits such as intelligence and appearance, as well as the social position of the individual. Trait theories thus differentiated leaders from “other” individuals on the basis of observational studies of the individual’s unique characteristics (Bass in MacNeil, 2006:27).

The shift in focus of leadership theory from the individual to the group or organization took place in the mid-twentieth century (MacNeil, 2006:28). This focus on context and external circumstances gave rise to the development of the behavioural theories of leadership, which drew from psychology to examine ways that positive or negative behaviour could be used by leaders to motivate followers and influence behaviour (Bass in MacNeil, 2006:27).

2.4.2 THE BEHAVIOURAL APPROACH

Behavioural approaches to leadership make a distinction between relationship-related behaviour and task-related behaviour; the former referring to leaders acting in ways that ensure that team roles and relationships among team members ensure productivity, whereas the latter refers to leadership success achieved by paying attention to the technical work that needs to be done (DuBrin, 2010:145).

A constructionist perspective analyzed by Ospina & Sorenson (2006:193) views leadership as a unique type of meaning-making process as opposed to the general cognitive processes

that are part of ordinary human life. The role of leadership is thus to facilitate the connection of wills and to transform these wills into action in a given community. According to these researchers, leadership potential exists when a collective need for purposive action that involves change arises.

2.4.3 THE SITUATIONAL OR CONTINGENCY APPROACH

In contrast to specific leadership styles, the situational leadership theory and model developed by Hersey and Blanchard does not focus on a specific style, but suggests that successful leaders adjust their style based on the level of maturity of their followers (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). Building on the behavioural theories of leadership, the situational or contingency approach to leadership argues that situational variables such as the nature of relational ties between leaders and followers, or the task at hand, will prescribe the most effective actions the leader should take (DuBrin, 2010:142). The extent to which the leader can influence his or her followers or the nature of the task will determine where the main focus of the leader's actions will lie.

This ability to influence others informed the conceptualization of transformational and neo-charismatic leadership theories that explore the notion of leaders leading their organizations and followers by creating and communicating a powerful vision (DuBrin, 2010:83-91).

2.4.4 THE NEW CHARISMATIC AND TRANSFORMATIONAL APPROACH

House (1977) argues that charismatic leaders could be distinguished from others by their tendency to dominate, a strong conviction in their own beliefs and ideals, a need to influence others, and high self-confidence. Weber (1978) defined charisma as "a certain quality of an individual personality by virtue of which he is considered extraordinary and treated as endowed with supernatural, superhuman, or at least specifically exceptional powers or qualities" (DuBrin, 2010: 83-91).

Charismatic leadership theory has experienced a strong academic research drive and been established as equal in prominence with that of transformational leadership. Conger & Kanungo (1998:106) hypothesized that the charismatic leadership behaviours of a manager will increase subordinates' sense of reverence for the manager, trust in the manager, satisfaction with the manager, sense of work-group cohesion, sense of task efficacy and feeling of personal empowerment in work contexts.

Charisma – a tactical quality of many political elites, however, has a dark side. It is said that the cultivation of a strong emotional linkage to followers does not constitute anything

inherently genuine or moral (Harvey, 2006:83). Charisma is a source of power, and skilful leaders often exploit this emotional power for their own purposes.

Charismatic leadership stands in positive correlation with transformational leadership. There are a range of commonalities between transformational leadership and charismatic leadership, and in the literature the two terms are often used interchangeably. However, Bass & Riggio (2006) see charisma as only a part of transformational leadership, found in its subcomponent of idealized influence and inspirational motivation.

Modern theories on transformational leadership derive their roots from leadership studies done by political scientist-historian James MacGregor Burns (1978). Burns was the first to distinguish between two sorts of leadership: transactional and transforming. Transforming leadership aims to do more than satisfy immediate needs through routine, impersonal exchanges. According to Burns (1978:4), “the transforming leader looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower”.

According to Burns’ (1978) conceptualization, transactional leadership involves the exchange of incentives by leaders for support from followers. The object of such leadership would be agreement on a course of action that satisfies the immediate and separate purposes of both leaders and followers (Keely, 2004:149). Transactional leadership, with its emphasis on the transactional exchanges between leaders and followers, is thus more technocratic and does not focus on the articulation of vision or shared goals in order to foster followers’ commitment.

Leadership scholars have argued that transactional leadership is the antithesis of transformational leadership. However, Bass & Riggio (2006:4) describe transformational leadership as an expansion of, and not necessarily separated from, transactional leadership. They argue with empirical justifications that it may often be necessary for transformational leaders to practise transactional leadership in order to bring about certain transformational changes.

The notion of addressing “higher needs” can be associated with Maslow’s hierarchy of needs; specifically the need for self-actualisation and self-efficacy (Sirgy, 1986:329). For Burns, transforming leadership is motivating, uplifting, and ultimately moral, in that it raises the ethical aspiration of both the leader and the led (Burns, 1978:20). Furthermore, Burns goes on to develop the normative theme of the concept of transforming leadership, arguing that it is generally superior to transactional leadership and that the latter can hardly be viewed as leadership at all. This can particularly be observed in Burns’ strong

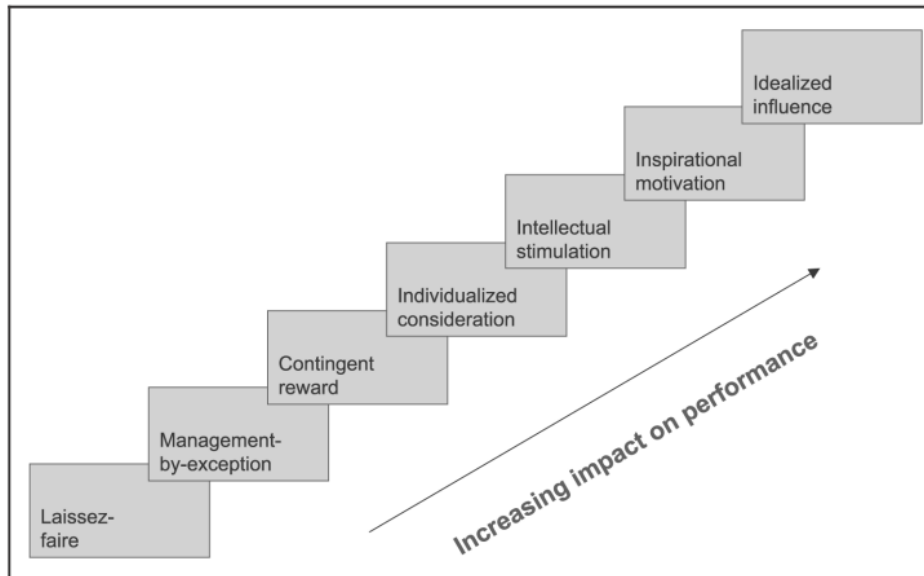
epistemological propositions for ethical behaviour that characterize the transforming leader (Van Aswegen & Engelbrecht, 2009:221).

Transformational leaders inspire and stimulate followers to both achieve extraordinary outcomes and to develop their own leadership capacity in the process (Bass & Riggio, 2006:3). They are able to motivate followers to go beyond their own immediate self-interest, and it is from their capacity to exemplify this kind of leadership that referent power is bestowed upon followers (Grint, 1997:152).

Bass, and later his colleague Avolio, built on Burns' notion of transformational leadership, establishing it as a distinct model or approach to leadership with identifiable behavioural subcomponents (Conger & Kanungo, 1998:13). Today, transformational leadership is embodied in leaders who challenge followers to be innovative problem solvers and leaders who develop the personal leadership capacity of followers through coaching and mentoring, for example. Whereas traditional transactional conceptualizations of leadership were more directive and task-oriented, it is argued that transformational leadership is a more participative, and thus people-oriented, approach to leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006:4).

This approach to leadership is said to have five theorized subcomponents which include: a) idealized influence, b) inspirational motivation, c) intellectual stimulation, d) individualized consideration and e) building trust; and it also acts with integrity (Bass & Riggio, 2006:7).

Bass & Avolio (2000) argue that transformational leadership competencies increase the performance of followers; this is illustrated by the Full Range of Leadership (FRL) model, see Figure 2.1, that includes laissez-faire leadership (the avoidance or absence of leadership), management-by-exception (active and passive) and contingent reward – the latter three being components of transactional leadership.

Figure 2.1: Full Range of Leadership (FRL) model

(Kirkbride, 2006:24).

2.4.5 THE SOCIAL LEARNING APPROACH TO LEADERSHIP

The social learning approach to leadership prescribes that leaders should be facilitators who create space for experimentation and learning, rather than being directive and authoritarian (DuBrin, 2010:45). In response to challenging and complex problems, leaders are urged towards group and systems learning in order to find solutions to complex challenges (DuBrin, 2010:434).

This approach to leadership also links to the idea of the “learning organization” which refers to people within an organization setting continuous organizational learning as a strategic imperative (DuBrin, 2010:434). Furthermore, it also links to the notion of seeking adaptive solutions to adaptive problems (Heifetz & Laurie, 1997:125) and the leadership that facilitates this process is not directive, but rather facilitative. In the approaches to leadership discussed in the sections above a common element is that of leaders providing direction to people who can be described as followers. This leader-follower relationship has drawn some attention in leadership studies and is briefly explained in the following section.

2.4.6 LEADER-FOLLOWER EXCHANGE

The leader-follower relationship is often referred to in the theoretical and conceptual analysis of leadership (DuBrin, 2010:26). It is, in some contexts, used as a tool to measure the perception of leadership effectiveness. Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory analyzes this relationship in depth by focusing on the quality of relationships between leaders and their subordinates (Schriesheim, Wu & Cooper, 2011:881).

The question that leadership scholars often raise is whether a person can be perceived as a leader if he or she has few or no followers? In the twenty-first century, the question of whether the artist Vincent van Gogh was a leader in his field is unequivocally answered in the positive. However, during the artist's lifetime his artistic genius was hardly recognized and he had no "followers" at the time.

The theories mentioned thus far could be classified as being more traditional, in contrast with contemporary theories that depart from the concept of leadership residing in the individual, or understanding leadership in the context of leader-follower exchanges. Modern trends in leadership theory introduce the concept of leadership residing in the relationship between and among individuals (MacNeil, 2006:28). This notion has led to the emergence of theories of collaborative leadership, relational leadership, distributive leadership and community leadership (Chrislip & Larson, 1994; Rost, 1991; Kirk & Shutte, 2004:234).

Klau (2006: 60-82) argues that some of the major movements in leadership theory (such as the trait approach, the situational approach, contingency theory, and the transactional approach) pose conceptual problems in terms of value judgements. These traditional leadership theories attempt to define leadership objectively, but only show their value biases once defined in terms of influence and authority, for example (Klau, 2006:60). The following section discusses academic inquiry that attempts to provide a synthesized or integrated theory of leadership.

2.5 TOWARDS A GENERAL THEORY OF LEADERSHIP

Having discussed a range of classical and contemporary leadership approaches, concepts and theories, one can now consider contemporary academic endeavours to construct an integrated theory of leadership. In 2011, leadership scholar James MacGregor Burns convened a large group of interdisciplinary leadership scholars to initiate a project whose aim was to construct a general theory of leadership (Wren, 2006:1-2).

Burns intended to "provide people studying or practicing leadership with a general guide or orientation – a set of principles that are universal which can be adapted to different situations" (Wren, 2006:4). This project was aimed at creating a sort of generic "leadership DNA" and became known as "A General Theory of Leadership Project" (GTOL). It was subject to a host of academic criticism, ranging from the vague nature of integrated theory to the lack of value of a study that is not context specific.

Burns, at some stage during the planning of this coordinated research effort, lamented the fact that the academic study of leadership had become trivialized and incoherent, and this gave rise to his urge to initiate the GTOL in an attempt to bring some sort of order to the field (Wren, 2006:4). Following his participation in a conference of the International Leadership Association (ILA) in 2002 in Seattle, Burns gave his own integrated definition of leadership as (Wren in Goethals & Sorenson, 2006:28):

leadership as an influence process, both visible and invisible, in a society inherited, constructed, and perceived as the interactions of persons in ... conditions of inequality – an interaction measured by ethical and moral values and by the degrees of realization of intended, comprehensive and durable change.

A synthesis of the myriad of leadership definitions, styles and approaches conceptualized over past decades may be a less productive exercise than perhaps focusing on whether leadership actions are constructive or destructive in a given context. What are the traits or competencies that lead to constructive or destructive leadership at both an individual and institutional level? How is leadership developed that is both ethical and effective? One can argue that these questions relate to contemporary theories of resonant and dissonant leadership. However, there exists a set of thinking that argues for a systems theory perspective on leadership development. An understanding of a systems perspective on leadership development is relevant to this study as emerging leaders have to develop leadership competencies that are able to respond to complex challenges created by individuals and institutions.

2.5.1 A SYSTEMS THEORY PERSPECTIVE ON LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Shifting towards a more transformational and innovative perspective, but also in relation to a systems perspective, Scharmer (2009:14) argues that although elements of self-development are crucial in leadership development, traditional leadership development programmes have focused mostly on internal self-development, life skills and technical skills. This leads to neglect of the process nature of what it takes to lead in a transformative way. A systems-thinking approach to leadership is advocated whereby leaders are trained to perceive and innovate whole systems interventions. Scharmer thus adds institutional dynamics to those of individual dynamics in defining leadership.

Table 2.2 shows Scharmer's matrix of leadership interventions, which, in his view, illustrate the various aspects of real leadership development needed to deal with the complexities of the twenty-first century. Based on this model for leadership development, and its clear

collaborative knowledge-driven nature, leadership becomes “the capacity of a community to co-sense and co-create its emerging future” (Sharmer, 2009:15). Table 2.2 depicts both the individual and institutional dynamics of a process of leadership learning.

Table 2.2: Otto Sharmer’s leadership development matrix

| Intervention Points | Types of Knowledge | | |
|--------------------------------|---|--|---|
| | Technical knowledge (technical skills) | Relational (stakeholder coalition building) | Transformational Self-knowledge (Identity, Will) |
| Whole system (multiple issues) | System-wide technical skill building/training | System-wide relational capacity building/training (multi-stakeholder dialogue) | System-wide transformational capacity building (multi-stakeholder innovation) |
| Institution (single issue) | Institutional technical skill building/training | Institutional relational skill building/training (multi-stakeholder dialogue) | Institutional transformational capacity building (multi-stakeholder innovation) |
| Individual | Individual technical skill building/training | Individual relational capacity building/training (multi-stakeholder dialogue) | Individual transformational capacity building (multi-stakeholder innovation) |

This section discussed and reviewed conventional definitions, theories and models of leadership and the development thereof. Given the research question under investigation, the following section addresses the second objective of this chapter, which aims to provide a theoretical review of the concept and constructs related to youth leadership development.

2.6 YOUTH LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT: THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

This section provides a theoretical overview of the literature on youth leadership and the development thereof. Definitions, theoretical frameworks and models for youth leadership development found in the literature are explored. Curricula and the transference of leadership competencies to young people are also discussed as an important component of any conceptualization of youth leadership development interventions.

Considering the key research question, it is important to examine where the youth feature in discussions on leadership, if at all. Where are the youth mentioned in leadership literature and where is leadership considered in youth development literature? What are the contributions to understanding of youth leadership from the classical and contemporary

scholarship on leadership? Are these theories applicable to youths and leadership development in youths? Is there a need for developing a theoretical framework for youth leadership development in the context of the twenty-first century, and in particular for the African and South African context?

MacNeil (2006:29) observes a noticeable absence of mention of the youth in the literature focused on leadership theory, leadership development, and leadership practice. This gap in the research is confirmed by a comprehensive review conducted by Bass of more than five thousand leadership studies, which found no mention made of youths as leaders or about leadership development for youths (Bass, 1981).

Before one can consider the concept of youth leadership, the qualification of “youths” needs to be clarified. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) define youths as persons between the ages of 15 and 24 (UNESCO, 2012). In the South African context, the National Youth Development Agency (NYDA) Act defines “youths” as persons between the ages of 14 and 35 (Republic of South Africa, 2008). This particular study focuses on a specific target age group within the broader definition of the youth. The following subsections explore relevant introductory literary references to youth leadership development.

2.6.1 THEORETICAL DEFINITIONS OF YOUTH LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

It is said that leadership development, especially as it pertains to the youth, is a complex field to define and that programmes that define themselves as promoting leadership development often do little to distinguish between life skills and leadership training (Jobson, 2011:14). One can even pose the question whether the state of maturity of youth leadership activities permits one to explain it as a “field” or practice.

According to Klau (2006:60), the multitude of activities classified as youth leadership development often lead to a lack of conceptual clarity. Youth leadership development is said to include almost anything, and its content is often a projection of the practitioners’ own beliefs about what youths need.

MacNeil (2006:28) proposes a working definition of leadership that draws from contemporary leadership theories, the literature on leadership development and studies of applied leadership. Arguing that it encapsulates its contextual nature MacNeil (2006:29) defines leadership as “a relational process combining ability (knowledge, skills, and talents) with authority (voice, influence, and decision-making power) to positively influence and impact diverse individuals, organizations, and communities”. This definition raises a range of

questions when the somewhat under-researched area of comparative studies between so-called “adult” versus youth leadership is considered. MacNeil (2006:29) argues that his definition acknowledges the applied nature of leadership – defined by him as the act of leading through authority and not simply ability.

The preceding discussion draws attention to the consideration of non-positional leadership, and the dynamics of authority that non-positional leaders exercise. Youth leadership and youth leadership development often do not link the development of youths with potential for leadership with decision-making opportunities. This further links to the extent and nature of opportunities made for young people to have leadership influence in organizations. Leadership and youth leadership development is often overlooked and perceived as a process that happens naturally through the involvement of individuals as officers in positions of authority, or as active members in an organization. In contrast, the need for and effectiveness of more formal methods of leadership development serve as an alternative to leadership development through the experience of positional authority and the execution of “leadership” duties.

Research on youth leadership development is viewed from a variety of theoretical and conceptual frameworks. This may include, for example, a leadership life skills framework, a workplace competencies framework, or a social capital and community engagement framework (Barret *et al.*, 2011:20). In the context of youth leadership development “civic leadership” is described as developing young leaders through community engagement (Barret *et al.*, 2011:19).

Conceptual formulations to better understand what is meant by social capital and civic engagement, as well as the relationship between these two constructs, can be identified as related concepts in a study of the literature on youth leadership development. The following two sections investigate these phenomena in greater depth.

2.6.2 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SOCIAL CAPITAL AND CIVIC ENGAGEMENT

The value of social networks is similar to that of physical and human capital; social contacts are said to affect the productivity of groups and individuals (Putnam, 1993:38). Woolcock (2000:11) defines the concept of social capital as “norms and networks that facilitate collective action”. According to Malik and Walge (2003:143), social capital is related to the idea of civic virtue as expressed through a dense network of reciprocal social relations.

The concept of social capital was first used by Lyda J. Hanifan to highlight the importance of community involvement in the success of public schools (Malik & Walge, 2003:144). Thus,

social capital is related or derived from the concept of civic engagement. Civic engagement may be understood as “a process that organizes citizens or their entrusted representatives to influence, share, and control public affairs” (Malik & Wage, 2003:145). In the context of this definition, civic engagement is part of a process of creating social capital through the interactions of processes and people for positive public outcomes.

Putnam (1993:3) argues that when networks that facilitate civic engagement are dense, reciprocity and trust between stakeholders within these networks are fostered. This relationship between social capital and civic engagement also links to new theories of “network governance” and the governance of networks as a new form of initiating change in society (Kenis & Provan, 2007:229). Linked to social movements, the question of leadership and its dynamics in emerging forms of social organization for change is of key importance, also in the context of youth leadership development. The following sections take a closer look at a social capital framework for youth leadership development.

2.6.3 A SOCIAL CAPITAL FRAMEWORK FOR YOUTH LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Development of social capital in individuals and communities is described as central to the process of leadership development, also in youths (Jobson, 2011:15). The concept of social capital may be defined as “the feature of social organizations, such as networks, norms and trust that facilitate action and cooperation for mutual benefit” (Jarrett, Sullivan & Watkins, 2005). Jobson (2011:16) suggests that in placing social capital development alongside personal development, innovative leadership programmes can create opportunities for young leaders to cultivate what Granovetter (1973) calls “the strength of weak ties”. This means that individuals are not solely tied to one particular network, but can move between groups and organizations to become bearers of new ideas, information, and innovation.

Contemporary youth social capital scholars maintain that youths are active generators of their own social capital (Barret *et al.*, 2011:20). Holland, Reynolds and Weller (2007:100) examined the significance of social capital in young people’s life transitions and report that social resources and networks are utilized by youths to aid them in becoming independent social actors in further education and employment opportunities. According to Jobson (2011:16) building young people’s social capital is an intricate and complex process, and is often excluded from leadership development interventions which focus solely on individual self-development skills.

Checkoway, Richards-Schuster, Abdullah, Aragon, Facio, Figueroa, Reddy, Welsh & White (2003:298) state that young people are competent citizens who can effect community change. This statement and view of youths stands in contrast to negative notions of youths,

in both African and Western contexts, where the media often emphasize troubled youths and the services that need to be afforded them to help them out of troubled states. This view is the starting point of most policy documents on youth development. In contrast, Checkoway *et al.* (2003:298) assess youth participation from the viewpoint of young people as competent citizens who, if they do not already do so, can be encouraged to view themselves as such and participate in organizations, communities, and decision making, or social action within these.

Using one conceptual framework, such as social capital, to assess or conceptualize youth leadership development may lead to the neglect of useful elements in others. Barret *et al.* (2011:20) argue that community engagement has a significant influence on the process of building social capital. Holland *et al.* (2007:113) reported that the amount of social capital acquired by youths through their community networks and engagements determined their extent of success in finding valuable opportunities in times of transition. Community engagement should thus be viewed as a key element in building social capital.

2.7 MODELS FOR YOUTH LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Exploring the theory and practice of youth leadership development is a key objective of this study. It is thus mandatory to consider existing models in the literature that have been developed for similar purposes.

2.7.1 A CONCEPTUAL MODEL FOR DEVELOPING LEADERSHIP IN YOUTHS

Ricketts & Rudd (2002:13) conducted a meta-analysis of the youth leadership development literature and constructed a conceptual model for teaching, training, and developing leadership in youths. These authors cite the need for leadership education, and identify the lack of information regarding leadership development for young people in career and technical education in a given context.

The model developed by these researchers is proposed as a curriculum framework for teaching leadership to youths in formal career and technical education programmes. This specific model consists of five dimensions and three stages of development. The five dimensions of the conceptual model are: (1) leadership knowledge and information, (2) leadership attitude, will, and desire, (3) decision making, reasoning, and critical thinking, (4) oral and written communication skills, and (5) intra- and interpersonal relations. According to the researchers these dimensions are explained as follows:

Leadership knowledge and information refers to what emerging leaders need to know about leadership before they can develop and apply leadership skills. This dimension

translates what may, at first seem, complicated and abstract leadership tasks into attainable aspirations through behavioural change.

Leadership attitude, will, and desire emphasize the importance of self-realization and motivation in young leaders whilst developing their leadership capacity. It also argues that mental and physical health are interconnected with the development of leadership attitudes.

Decision making, reasoning, and critical thinking are identified as crucial in developing a model for facilitating the teaching and learning of leadership for young people. This component is based on evidence that a well-developed young person who is intellectually reflective develops new solutions to existing challenges.

Oral and written communication skills are described as an “all-purpose instrument of leadership” as they are the media used to influence and lead other people. The development of these skills in emerging leaders is thus instrumental in the leadership learning process.

Intra- and interpersonal relations, in the context of the curricular model discussed here, include conflict resolution, stress management, knowledge of a diversity of cultures, teamwork, and ethics in dealing with other people.

The curricular model developed by Ricketts & Rudd (2002:12) includes three stages in each of the five dimensions discussed above. Participants proceed through these whilst receiving formal leadership training. These stages are: a) awareness, b) interaction, and c) integration. The awareness stage serves as the orientation to the curriculum. The interaction stage involves student exploration of leadership, whereas the integration stage involves student practice and mastery of leadership development activities and concepts. These stages seek to build on the experience and perception of the students in order to enhance their cognition and behaviour in leadership development.

The final recommendation of this study was to allow the model to serve as the first step in developing a curriculum designed to teach leadership to youths in a formal setting (Ricketts & Rudd, 2002:13-15).

2.7.2 LEADERSHIP IDENTITY DEVELOPMENT (LID) MODEL

Komives, Mainella, Longerbeam, Osteen & Owen (2006:401) describe a stage-based model called the leadership identity development model (LID) resulting from a grounded-theory study on developing a leadership identity. In the context of student leadership development, and similar to the observation of MacNeil (2006:29), Komives *et al* (2006:401) identify a gap

in research focusing on the application of leadership development perspectives in student development.

Two families of developmental theory inform the development of a leadership identity: cognitive and psycho-social (Komives *et al.*, 2006:401). Cognitive development theory focuses on how thought processes are involved in identity development; whereas, according to Chickering's psychosocial theory, the development of mature interpersonal relationships, purpose, and personal integrity are central to establishing a leadership identity (Chickering & Reisser in Komives *et al.*, 2006:403).

Komives *et al* also discuss the concept of "self-authorship" in student leadership development, referring to a situation in which students take responsibility for constructing their own reality in the world (Baxter-Magolda in Komives *et al.*, 2006:402). Self-authorship is characterized by realizing one's autonomy and recognizing one's interdependence with others in a pluralistic world – the broad context within which leadership is practised. This raises the need for changing leadership styles and approaches for changing circumstances and the question of how "adaptive leadership" can be developed in youths.

2.7.3 HEIFETZ'S ADAPTIVE LEADERSHIP AND ITS APPLICATION IN YOUTH LEADERSHIP

In addition to these models, Klau (2006:60) argues that Ronald Heifetz's model of adaptive leadership holds particular value for practitioners and academics interested in youth leadership development. In this model, Heifetz makes a distinction between technical and adaptive challenges (Heifetz & Laurie, 1997:128). The latter challenges have less predictable solutions than the former, and often require adaptations in the values and behaviours of groups and those leading them. Klau (2006:61-62) also notes that the Heifetz framework for leadership development provides a range of pedagogical tools in teaching leadership theory and practice, which is directly applicable when working with youths. These include:

- **"case-in-point learning"** which involves students discussing the real-time dynamics of the class itself, where students have a chance to observe who is being given informal authority, who is being marginalized, and how important dynamics such as cultural difference or gender affect the group;
- **"below-the-neck learning"** which recognizes that practising or exercising leadership is far more intense an experience than talking or theorizing about it. Practising leadership involves, for example, courage, self-confidence and emotional intelligence and endurance. By simulating the challenges of leadership

practice, such as emotional discomfort, one can demonstrate that leadership is about emotions and intellect;

- “**reflective practice**” which involves students being provided with opportunities to reflect on why they made particular choices or responded in particular ways when given a specific problem to solve. “The result is a uniquely personal and deep educational experience” (Klau, 2006:62).

These three pedagogical techniques utilized by Heifetz in leadership education and training can be incorporated with techniques observed in other leadership development models and serve as input into curricular design processes for youth leadership development programmes as they do not discriminate in terms of the age of those engaging in the leadership learning process. Further to the adaptive leadership model the literature provides insight into youth leadership development in post-school youths from a social change perspective.

2.7.4 THE SOCIAL CHANGE MODEL OF LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT IN COLLEGE STUDENTS

Dugan & Komives (2007:9) adapted a social change model (SCM) for leadership development for the college student environment. This model views leadership as “a purposeful, collaborative, values-based process that results in positive social change”. Applied in the emerging leader context, the critical values or themes of this model are divided into individual, group and community values which include:

- Consciousness of self;
- Congruence/consistency in expression of own values;
- Commitment to the development of ideas and/or people;
- Collaboration with others;
- Common purpose;
- Controversy with civility;
- Citizenship – being socially responsible and connected to one’s context;
- Collaborative change.

A range of data-gathering scales were developed to test the dynamics of each of the above leadership outcomes. Over 63 000 tertiary students completed the surveys and a range of findings was produced (Dugan & Komives 2007:11). Some of the key findings include: (1) openness to change is greater for marginalized groups of students, (2) discussions about socio-cultural issues matter a great deal, (3) mentoring of students matters, (4) campus

involvement matters, (5) community service matters, (6) positional leadership roles develop leaders, and (7) formal leadership programmes matter (Dugan & Komives 2007:14-16).

Models that serve as basis for designing programme content for formal youth leadership development, such as the ones discussed in this section, are paramount for informing the key objectives of this study. The ways in which social capital is formed in the leadership development of youths, how they generate social capital themselves, and the dynamics of community engagement in this process, remain key questions to be explored in this study.

The theoretical framework and models discussed above all seek to bring about some sort of behavioural change in young emerging leaders through the acquisition of competencies through a structured learning process, or leadership curriculum. This latter notion forms the basis of any programmatic or institutional intervention to develop leadership in young people.

2.8 CURRICULA AND COMPETENCIES: THE TRANSFER OF LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES TO EMERGING LEADERS

One of the central tenets of modern leadership theory and practice is that leadership can be learned (Goethals & Sorenson, 2006:55). The development and transfer of a set of leadership learning outcomes, or competencies, thus becomes a major objective of leadership development and equally relevant in the context of developing emerging (youth) leaders. According to Jobson (2011:108), practical and measurable steps are required to achieve ambitious leadership learning outcomes in this context.

This is essentially linked to a set of questions regarding the curricula used at a programmatic level to develop leadership competencies in emerging leaders. Given the vast literature on leadership and the development thereof, one can ask which themes and learning outcomes are incorporated into leadership curricula in the emerging (youth) leader context. One can further ask or investigate whether a clear synchronicity between theoretical learning outcomes and the practical context of participants exists? How are these learning outcomes achieved and/or measured at a practical level? Finally, should effective monitoring and evaluation take place at a programmatic level and how are these findings built back into the learning system?

The questions highlighted above represent the links between the theoretical aspects of youth leadership development and its programmatic or institutional practice. The chapter that follows will analyze and contextualize some of these questions.

2.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter provided an overview of classical and contemporary scholarship on the concepts of leadership, the development or learning process of leadership, and youth leadership development.

The first section of the literature review included definitions on leadership in general, followed by a discussion of six guiding conceptual precepts related to leadership and equally applicable as a prerequisite for good youth leadership and its development. These precepts discussed were: servant leadership, thought leadership, ethical leadership, effective leadership, resonant leadership and emotionally intelligent leadership.

The evolution of leadership theory and its related approaches were analysed with reference made to the trait approach, the behavioural approach, the situational or contingency approach, the new charismatic and transformational approach and the social learning approach to leadership. Coupled to this analysis was a brief overview of the leader-follower exchange relationship. This section concluded with a discussion of a systems theory perspective on leadership development.

The second part of the literature review provided theoretical definitions of the concept of youth leadership development. In addition, the relationship between social capital and civic engagement was discussed, which concluded with a section on a social capital framework for youth leadership development.

Finally, various models found in the literature on youth leadership development were reviewed. These included a conceptual model for youth leadership development, a leadership identity development model, an adaptive leadership model and the social change model for leadership development in post-school youths. The section on youth leadership development concluded with a discussion on the concepts of leadership curricula and the transfer of competencies in the youth leadership development process.

From the review of the literature it is evident that the concept of youth leadership development is one that has drawn limited attention in academic literature. Few researchers have attempted to construct a meaningful synthesis between leadership and youth leadership development. However, a limited number of studies attempt to address the shortcomings between so-called “adult” leadership theory and concepts of youth leadership and provide useful insight for the purposes of this study. Light is shed on the fact that there is

a gap in the literature that focuses on the developmental processes of transferring leadership competencies to post-school youths.

The models discussed suggest that grounded-theory construction of youth leadership development is possible and provides for professional monitoring and evaluation of the leadership learning process as it pertains to youths. The six guiding precepts for good leadership, the approaches to leadership and the leadership competencies identified in the models for youth leadership development provide an adequate foundation for establishing the extent to which leadership theory and practice link.

Notwithstanding the theoretical and conceptual shortcomings of youth leadership development in the literature, the review provides a basis for the theoretical contextualization of the exploratory analysis that follows in the remaining chapters of this research.

CHAPTER 3: YOUTH AND YOUTH LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA: CONTEXT AND STRATEGIC CHALLENGES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The goal of this chapter is to investigate the context of youth leadership and youth leadership development in South Africa. The strategic challenges that the youth are faced with are highlighted and youth leadership development is proposed as a strategic response to developing the South African youth.

The objectives related to achieving the chapter goal are to: firstly, investigate the challenges with which youths in Africa and South Africa are faced. This is done by means of an analysis of the economic, social, political, educational and technological dynamics of South African youths. These contexts shape the overarching context in which South African youths find themselves and that would have to be considered in conceptualizing the content of any leadership development intervention. The target population age group of this study is youths between the ages of 15 and 24 years, and the contextual analysis, where data permits, focuses mainly on the context of this age group.

Secondly, based on the context of youth in South Africa the related challenges are discussed. Thirdly, youth development and its challenges will be discussed as youth leadership development in a broad sense includes developing youth. A clear distinction is made between youth development in general and the development of the emerging South African leaders, or youth leadership development. This is followed by an overview of the youth leadership development environment and its related challenges from a programmatic perspective.

Finally, the various programmatic components of youth leadership development in South Africa is discussed with reference to leadership learning outcomes, competency development, teaching and learning methodologies and the monitoring and evaluation of learning outcomes. This section concludes with a synthesis of the programmatic components of youth leadership development in a proposed framework that can be tested and validated in future. This final section provides insight into the dynamics in programmatic implementation of youth leadership development interventions, as a strategic response to both the capacity and quality of leadership in South Africa, is investigated.

3.2 YOUTH IN SOUTH AFRICA: THE CONTEXT

The following section defines the target population of this research – South African youths between the ages of 15 and 24 years, and analyzes the context that this population find themselves in as well as the related challenges. Based on a study of the context itself, a range of self-evident challenges emerge which are highlighted at the end of this section.

South Africa and its people, including its youths, are part of the African continent. Before focusing on the South African context one has to study certain continental patterns as there may be a relationship between the national and continental socio-economic dynamics with which youths are faced.

3.2.1 AFRICA'S YOUTH IN CONTEXT

In 2010 youths aged 15 to 24 years constituted 20,2 per cent (209 million) of the total African population and it is expected that this figure will grow for at least another decade (African Union, 2011:vii). Futures research estimates that the sub-Saharan African population of youths aged 15-24 years will reach a peak in 2025 and only start declining around 2035 (African Union, 2011:5).

Africa is thus experiencing a youth bulge – the result of an “extraordinarily large youth cohort relative to the adult population” (Urdal, 2004:1). This can either represent an opportunity to build the continent’s human, social and economic capital; or it can pose a threat of greater socio-economic and political instability. The latter scenario could realize should African countries neglect the implementation of strategic interventions aimed at the development of human capital, in particular among its youth (State of the African Youth Report, 2011:6).

A synthesis of the *State of the African Youth Report 2011* (African Union, 2011:11, 22-23) reveals the following contextual realities faced by youths in Africa:

- Poor health status and underdeveloped human capital and financial resources;
- Migration of young people from rural to urban areas in search of educational and job opportunities;
- Low labour productivity and labour absorption rate, particularly among young people, and weak alignment between educational systems and the needs of labour markets;
- Enrolment in tertiary education has grown dramatically since the 1970s and is higher than the global annual enrolment rate; however only six per cent of the

tertiary age cohort was enrolled in tertiary education in 2007, compared to a global average of 26 per cent;

- Skilled young professionals leave Africa to work abroad, this “capital flight” has seen an estimated 20 000 skilled professionals leaving Africa annually since the 1990s.
- Inadequate participation in decision-making processes and social dialogue at local, national and regional levels.

In contrast to these realities that seem mostly negative, there exists a positive thesis that a youthful population could represent a window of opportunity for economic growth and human capital development. This can be achieved by viewing the youth from a positive opportunity bearing perspective. The latter perspective, which represents a lens through which youth development interventions are planned, recognizes that young people’s “energy, flexibility, and adaptability to interface with the scope of change in the globalizing world constitute a recipe for steady, sustained growth and development” (World Bank, 2006; African Union, 2011:1).

This brief overview of some of the contextual realities and challenges facing African youths show many similarities with the domestic context of youths in South Africa. The following section takes a closer look at the latter context.

What follows is a contextual analysis of South African youths, with specific reference to the target population group of the current research – youth aged 15-24 years.

3.2.2 HISTORICAL DYNAMICS OF SOUTH AFRICA’S YOUTH: PAST TO PRESENT

Historically, from the 1970s onwards, large numbers of the South African youth across the cultural spectrum were acknowledged as critical players in bringing about social transformation and the end of apartheid in South Africa (Jobson, 2011:8). Yet, according to Jobson (2011:8), in the post-apartheid era the notion of young-people’s agency to contribute meaningfully to building the nation is almost non-existent in dealings with them. This statement implies that government and non-government institutions tend to perceive youth as a risk and problem rather than a creative asset. This observation does, however, have its limitations as it alludes to the notion of “us” and “them” in exchanges between older persons and youths. Young people, school leavers or young graduates in particular, could have the opportunity to be agents of social change and generators of their own social capital, but it would be unwise to overlook the current societal and economic realities that constrain such a process.

In recent years many questions have been raised about youth participation in civic and political life by government departments and independent institutions within civil society. Many of these have attempted various interventions to advance active citizenship among South African youths (Lefko-Everett, 2012:21). The 2012 South Africa Reconciliation Barometer of the Institute for Justice and Reconciliation (IJR) had a particular focus on noteworthy youth dynamics and reconciliation in South Africa. This report tested, among other things, the opinions of youths on the following topics:

- Confidence in public institutions most notably government organisations and their ability to deliver services ethically and effectively;
- Trust in political and administrative leadership;
- Perceptions of corruption in the country;
- Upholding of the rule of law, which implies respect for laws that govern society;
- Approval of and participation in protest actions, and
- Confidence in political parties to bring about meaningful change in people's lives.

The above-mentioned report found that many young people in South Africa lack trust in the integrity of national leaders and live with perceptions that corruption is taking place in their communities (Lefko-Everett, 2012:49). In addition to these observations, one in five young South Africans under 35 stated that they have been involved in violent protests in the past year (2012). A lack of trust in political parties and a willingness to bend the law among some youths whose views were captured in the Reconciliation Barometer allude to the serious governance, leadership and public order challenges the country faces (Lefko-Everett, 2012:49). Notwithstanding a range of negative perceptions, the majority of youths in this study expressed a positive outlook for South Africa's future in terms of social stability and access to economic opportunity (Lefko-Everett, 2012:49). The results of this study represent the expectations of the current generation of the South African youth and should be noted by public and private sector institutions when considering the country's long-term growth and sustainability.

After nearly two decades of constitutional democracy, 20 million South Africans have not lived through the experience of apartheid or the struggle to end it. This generation of South Africans has been named the "born-frees" (Lefko-Everett, 2012:37). It is from this generation of South Africans that future leaders are to be developed. What follows is a description and contextual analysis of a specific age group of youths within the "born-free" generation.

3.2.3 RESEARCH FOCUS GROUP: DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE AND CONTEXTUAL ASSUMPTIONS OF EMERGING YOUTH LEADERS

This section focuses on defining the target youth population group linked to the overall purpose and objectives of this research – South African youths aged between 15 and 24 years. Various international and national differences influence legal definitions of what constitutes “the youth”. The result is that no universal consensus on a definition of the age category of the youth is available and it is improbable that a consensus will ever be reached (African Union, 2011).

The African Union defines the youth as people aged 15-35 years, whereas a range of international organizations define and publish statistics on the youth as people aged 15-24 years (African Union, 2011). The South African National Youth Commission Act, (No 19 of 1996) defines the youth as people aged between 14 and 35 years, however Statistics South Africa (SSA) publishes statistics in age groups spanning four years each, which makes national statistical analysis of the 15-24 year cohort possible. For ease of national and international statistical comparison, and with relevance to the objectives of this study, the current research defines youths as those aged 15-24 years.

According to the latest South African population estimates 10 075 823 million South Africans fall in the 15-24-year-old category if one merges the 15-19 year old and 20-24 year old categories (StatsSA, 2011). This constitutes 19,92 per cent of the total South African population. Stated differently, youths between the ages of 15 and 24 make up nearly one fifth of the total South African population (StatsSA, 2011). South Africa can be described as having a young population and this could be a cause for concern or window of opportunity. The large cohort of youths in South Africa has been pre-empted to be either a demographic dividend or ticking time bomb (Lefko-Everett, 2012:49).

The researcher has divided this cohort into two age categories. Based on a study of the literature and in the context of this research the following assumptions about the social dynamics within these groupings can be justified:

15-19 year olds are in the process of completing senior secondary education and are in a transition phase while looking for further education and training opportunities. For those within this cohort that are not in senior secondary educations one can assume are either employed or unemployed.

20-24 year olds are looking for or engaged in further education at colleges, private higher educational institutions or universities. Access to these institutions is limited, which means that many young people in this cohort are either jobless, seeking employment or have jobs in

the formal or informal sector already. In addition, others may have temporarily joined the diaspora and have chosen to spend time working abroad. These are the major assumptions which are partially justified by statistics and a review of the literature.

There is a reciprocal relationship between these two age groupings within the 15-24 years population cohort. From a social dynamic perspective one could argue that individuals between 18 and 24 years engaged in tertiary education serve as role models for those between the ages of 15 and 18 completing their secondary schooling. Students in tertiary institutions, specifically those involved in community interaction programmes, often serve as mentors to learners in secondary education.

The following sections attempt to further analyse youths aged 15-24 years along the following six contextual categories: economic, social, political, educational and technological.

3.2.4 ECONOMIC CONTEXT

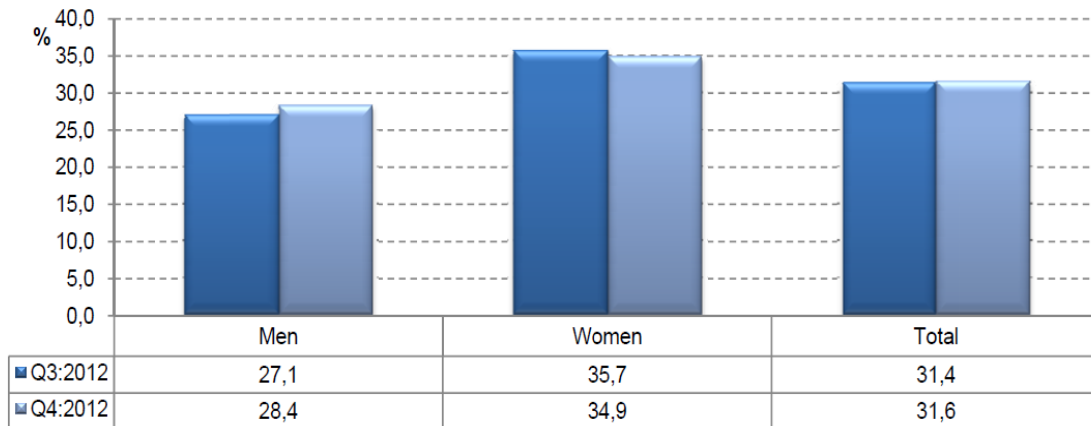
No study related to the youth can be considered without covering the challenge of youth unemployment in South Africa and the economic challenges related to it. Youth unemployment is officially recognized as one of South Africa's major socio-economic challenges (National Treasury, 2011:45). High youth unemployment is a consequence of young people not acquiring the experience and skills necessary for formal employment and productive economic activity (National Treasury, 2011:45).

According to Statistics South Africa's 2010 Quarterly Labour Force Survey (StatsSA, 2010), using a broad definition of unemployment, 42 per cent of young people under the age of 30 are unemployed, in contrast with 17 per cent of adults over 30. Furthermore, employment of 18 to 24 year olds has fallen by more than 20 per cent (320 000) between 2008 and 2010 (StatsSA, 2010). By 2011 youth unemployment for those within the 15-24 year cohort nearly reached a rate of 50 per cent (Graham, 2012:88-89). Socio-economic development is hampered by the reality of youth unemployment and institutional interventions, such as the proposed youth wage subsidy scheme, have been limited in their implementation and impact (National Treasury, 2012:31).

Statistical releases have recently started to focus on the dynamics of youths who are not in employment, education or training (NEET). The latest statistics (2012) show that one third of youths between the ages of 15 and 24 years were neither in employment, education nor training and thus considered to be disengaged from work and education (StatsSA, 2012:xvii). These statistics indicate the vulnerability of this cohort of youths. Given that 3,1 million

youths were classified as NEET in 2012, one can argue that this poses a serious societal risk and multiple challenges.

Figure 3.1: Youth aged 15-24 years neither in employment, education nor training (NEET)

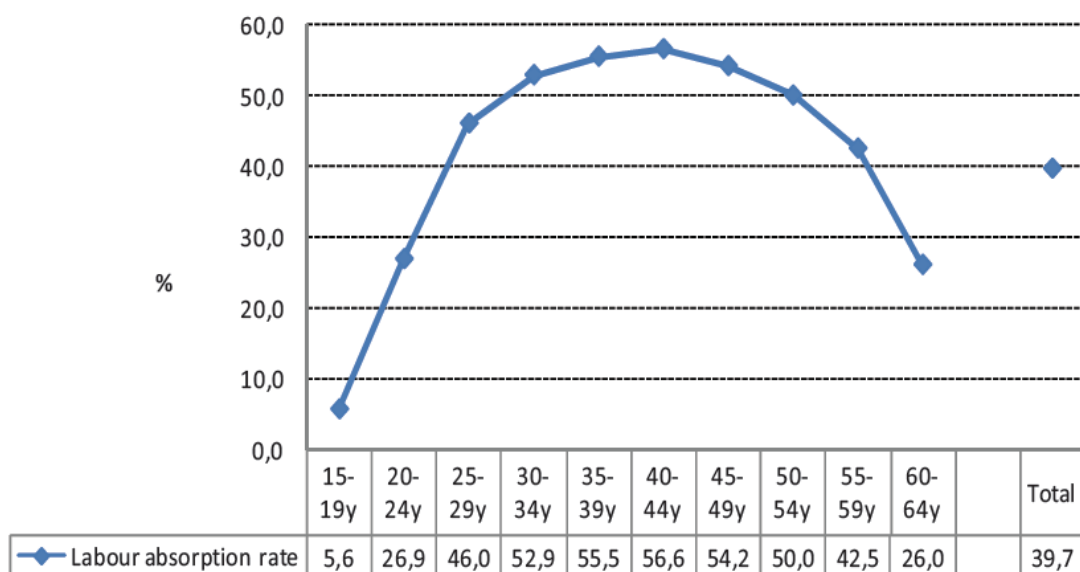


(Statistics South Africa, Quarterly Labour Force Survey, Quarter 4, 2012:xvii)

Furthermore, the graph below (Figure 3.2) illustrates the labour market absorption rate by age group which further confirms the low absorption capacity among youths between 15 and 24 years. The figure shows that labour absorption was lowest among 15-19 year olds (5,6 per cent) and slightly higher among young people aged 20-24 years (26,9 per cent).

Given these economic realities and the perception that unemployed youths have a greater propensity to participate in delinquent or socially deviant behaviour (UN, 2005:a), the risk of youth discontentment as a consequence of a lack of opportunity holds serious implications for governance and social cohesion in the country.

Figure 3.2: Labour absorption rate by age group, Census 2011



(Statistics South Africa. Census 2011 Data, 2012:47. Statistical release P0301.4)

The economic context of youths aged 15-24 years, and South Africa's youths in general, provides a myriad of challenges that need to be addressed. This is clear from the high levels of unemployment, high number of youths classified as NEET, and low labour absorption capacity. Linked to these economic realities are the related social dynamics which are briefly discussed in the section that follows.

3.2.5 SOCIAL CONTEXT

Having considered the major economic challenges of South African youths, this section recognizes the interlinking relationship between economic and social realities.

The fact that South Africa is a post-conflict society raises questions on the current state and importance of social cohesion amongst the country's people, including its youths. Social cohesion is categorized as: inclusion in society, participation in civic and political activities, the development of individual identity and fulfilment of potential, and a shared identity grounded in the values of the constitution (National Youth Commission, 2011:26). It has been stated that various ethnic groupings in South Africa's complex heterogeneous society still live in pockets of isolation (Lefko-Everett, Nyoka, & Tiscornia, 2011:41-42), and context-specific studies show that South Africa's youth is not a homogenous group with a common identity (Bhana, Swartz, Taylor, Scott, Dlamini, & Vawda, 2011:233).

As a consequence of South Africa's past, socio-economic dynamics are almost always explained from a structural inequality perspective (Boyce, 2010:97). According to Lefko-Everett (2012:45) youths are more likely to socialize and make contact across racial lines than adults. The Reconciliation Barometer survey has also found a linear (positive) relationship between contact, socialization and living standards every year. South Africans who live in more affluent households are more likely to interact across racial lines than those living in less affluent households (Lefko-Everett, 2012:43), and inequality has consistently been found to be the main source of social division in the country; followed by HIV/Aids and other diseases, and political party affiliation – the third most dividing factor (Lefko-Everett, 2012:45).

As a result of HIV/Aids the phenomenon of youth-headed households is identified as a particularly vulnerable social grouping in South African society (Bhana *et al.*, 2011:230). In 2006 it was recorded that 7,1 per cent of youths aged 15-24 years were heading households. The national aggregate figure for this phenomenon dropped to 5,9 per cent in 2009, but in

some provinces, for example the Northern Cape and Western Cape, the percentage of youth-headed households has increased (Bhana *et al.*, 2011:230).

These and a myriad of other social challenges underpin the reality of the youth in South Africa. The indication is that youth homogeneity is determined by the status of living standards and cultural identity. The next section briefly elaborates on the political activity of youths.

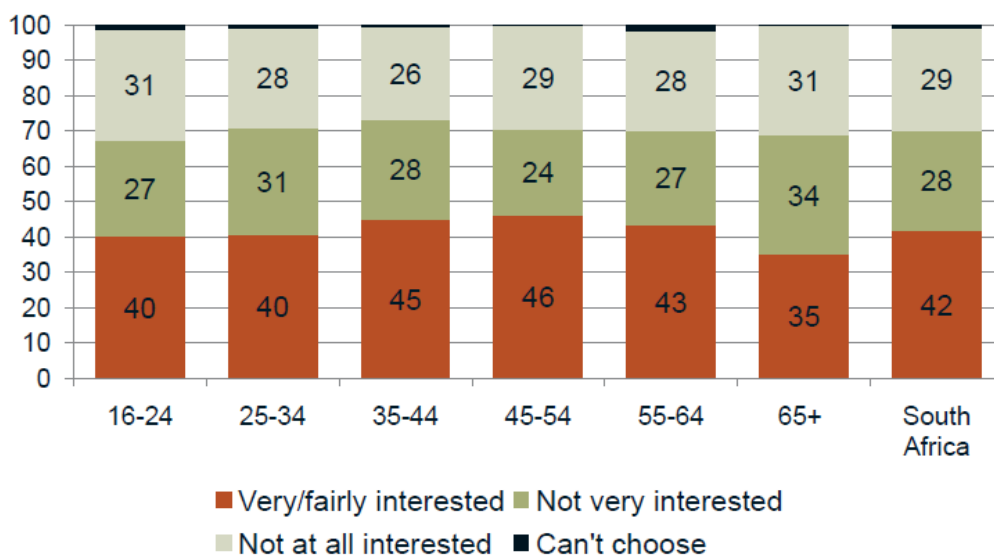
3.2.6 POLITICAL CONTEXT

This section considers the political context of youths in South Africa through reference to political interest and confidence in political parties.

According to the IJR's Reconciliation Barometer, 44,3 per cent of black youths, 68,9 per cent of coloured youths, 78,1 per cent of Indian and Asian and 77,2 per cent of white youths under 35 years have little or no confidence in political parties (Lefko-Everett, 2012:26). These relatively high numbers are further confirmed by the relatively low numbers of youths interested in voting or practising their electoral rights.

A survey on voter participation conducted by the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) indicates that the majority of persons in the age category applicable to this research (15-24 years) are either not very, or not at all, interested in voting for a political party in local or national elections (HSRC, 2011:19).

Figure 3.3: Political interest by age group based on voter participation (2010).



(Human Sciences Research Council. 2011. *2011 Survey on voter participation*. HSRC, 2011:19)

Linked to a lack of confidence in political institutions and the low levels of youths interested in voting is an underlying apathy for civic participation among South Africa's youths. This is one portrayal of the political context of youths in South Africa and if accurate, one can argue that a need exists for more initiatives that motivate young people to become active citizens through civic engagement. The latter scenario can, however, not take place without considering the educational context and challenges that youths are facing.

3.2.7 EDUCATIONAL CONTEXT

Education and access to educational development is a key driver of economic growth and the development of democracy (Swartz, 2006:551). The quality of education as well as access to educational opportunities that will result in successful entry into productive economic activity are key priority areas for South Africa's national development. Given that a central theme of this research is leadership education, it is paramount to consider the educational challenges faced by, and the opportunities available to, the youth of South Africa.

South Africa has experienced a phenomenon where a skills mismatch between labour demand and supply exists. It is said that low levels of educational attainment, the poor quality of basic, vocational and technical, and tertiary education are the primary causes of this phenomenon (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2012). Studies indicate that a major determining factor for employment is the completion of senior secondary education (matric). Persons who obtain matric have a far better chance of accessing further education and training opportunities and formal or informal employment (Hofmeyer, 2012:XIV). It is, however, disconcerting to note that according to the 2012 School Realities data published by the Department of Education, the number of school learners in senior grades is disproportionately smaller than those in the foundation phases, as this is indicative of high drop-out rates in higher grades (Penfold, 2012:40).

A widening gap between secondary school and tertiary education also exists in South Africa. The result is that many post-school youths are vulnerable as they struggle to access tertiary education or the labour market. This has created the need for more intensive interventions to increase educational opportunities for post-school youths. To this end the Green Paper for Post-School Education and Training serves to create a policy framework for the development and implementation of policies and strategies for "the development of a post-school education system which is able to meet the needs of the labour market and address the availability and access of vulnerable young people to post-school education" (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2012).

According to research conducted by Bhana *et al* (2011:98-152) on education and skills development in South Africa, the following have been observed in the educational context of South Africa's youth:

- an increase in participation amongst historically disadvantaged groups of youth at all levels of education (Bhana *et al*, 2011:143);
- enrolment in higher education remains low, despite an increase in recent years, due to the poor quality of secondary education and a lack of financial support;
- many youths who have left the school system carry skills deficits; there will be a crucial role for "second-chance" opportunities due to these deficits;
- technical and vocational forms of training, adult literacy programmes and other post-school educational opportunities will need to be created to address educational skills deficits (Bhana *et al*, 2011:144).

It is clear that the education of youths is one of South Africa's greatest challenges. The elements discussed in this section indicate that the quality of education is wavering despite the fact that enrolment in tertiary educational institutions is on the increase. Before concluding this contextual analysis of youths aged 15-24 years, it is worthwhile to consider an aspect of the technological context of South African youths.

3.2.8 TECHNOLOGICAL CONTEXT

According to a United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) report exploring the use of mobile technologies in South Africa, the youth are the leaders in adopting mobile technology, with 72 per cent of 15 to 24 year olds owning a cell phone (Beger & Sinha, 2012:3). This research also found that even though South Africa is the African leader in terms of its use of mobile technology, access to the internet and computer ownership lags behind other African countries, especially in rural areas.

The significance of these findings in relation to the current contextual analysis is that digital technologies have the potential to amplify the expression of rights such as the right of access to information or the right to freedom of expression (Beger & Sinha, 2012:6). One can thus argue that digital technologies play an important role in reinforcing notions of, and actions related to, the development of citizenship and democracy among the youth.

Digital technologies can also play an important role in widening access to the benefits of globalization, educational and job opportunities for the youth (Boyce, 2010:99). This includes access to information on application procedures and requirements for further education and training or opportunities in the labour market. Furthermore, engagement on a range of social

media platforms such as Facebook, LinkedIn and Twitter has become an all-powerful tool through which young people market themselves and build their social capital (Bhana *et al*, 2011:211, 246).

The contextual realities discussed and analyzed in this section provided a brief overview of the circumstances in which South African youth aged 15-24 years find themselves. It also provides the basis for considering the development of this segment of the population. The following section explores the context of institutional interventions focused on youth development.

3.3 YOUTH IN SOUTH AFRICA: THE CHALLENGES

In search of a contextual meaning for youth leadership development in South Africa, one inevitably has to analyze the broad context of the youth that are earmarked as having potential for leadership development. Synthesizing the findings of authors referenced in the section above one can justifiably argue that the following challenges exist in the South African youth context:

- High unemployment and low labour absorption rate which imply that a substantial amount of youth do not have the necessary skills to be economically productive or utilised in the economy;
- Serious issues with health related to HIV/Aids and other diseases which hampers the ability of youth to be productive economic assets;
- A lack of political participation in the conventional way of voting for particular political parties, signifying apathy to participate political activities;
- A lack of social cohesion due to apartheid's structural inequality legacies persist among the youth which perpetuates a divided rather than a united society;
- Poor quality of primary and secondary education resulting in a widening educational gap between the former and tertiary education;
- Low levels of patriotism or commitment to the motherland as deduced from the flight of young skilled professionals.

Other challenges for South Africa's youth exist, but for the purposes of this research a broad analysis will suffice as the focus is not to solve any of these challenges in particular, but to highlight the existence of these factors and to take account of them when considering youth development, and more specifically, youth leadership development.

3.4 YOUTH DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

The following section provides an overview of the definition, context, policy and legislative framework for youth development interventions in Africa and South Africa. The section concludes with a discussion of the implications of South Africa's National Development Plan (NDP), or Vision 2013, for youth development and how this links to the need for youth leadership development in South Africa.

3.4.1 DEFINING YOUTH DEVELOPMENT

The National Youth Policy (NYP) 2009-2014 of South Africa defines youth development as an “an intentional comprehensive approach that provides space, opportunities and support for young people to maximize their individual and collective creative energies for personal development as well as development of the broader society of which they are an integral part” (NYP, 2009:10).

3.4.2 YOUTH DEVELOPMENT IN AFRICA: AFRICAN YOUTH CHARTER

Before focusing further on South Africa, one should recognize and note the continental context within which youth and youth leadership development takes place. At an institutional level, the African Youth Charter, promulgated in July 2006 by the African Union (AU), provides an important framework for youth development in Africa (African Union, 2006:1). The charter recognizes Africa's greatest resource as its youthful population and that through their active participation and investment in the youth, Africans can find and implement solutions to large and complex challenges. The charter also uses a broad and inclusive definition of “youth” by referring to persons between 15 and 35 years (African Union, 2006:3).

The charter also links to other Pan-African initiatives such as the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) Strategic Framework for Youth Programme of 2004 – an initiative working towards youth development and empowerment (African Union, 2006:3). The charter acknowledges the enthusiasm of youth to participate at local, regional, national and international levels to determine their own development and the betterment of society (African Union, 2006:3). The latter statement can be integrated conceptually with the notion of the youth being generators of their own social capital, youth as competent citizens, and self-authorship, as discussed earlier.

In terms of leadership, subsection 3 (d) of Article 10 of the Charter requires all state parties to, “provide access to information and education and training for young people to learn their rights and responsibilities, to be schooled in democratic processes, citizenship, decision-making, governance and leadership such that they develop the technical skills and confidence to participate in these processes” (African Union, 2006:6). Bearing in mind that

the AU Youth Charter requires all member states to develop comprehensive and coherent national youth policies, these elements need to be considered whilst exploring capacity building for youth leadership development in the local South African context.

3.4.3 NATIONAL INTERVENTIONS: YOUTH DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

According to Jobson (2011:8) in a paper by the DG Murray Trust titled “Interrogating Youth Leadership Development in South Africa”, one way in which government has attempted to deal with the 40 per cent of young people neither in educational institutions or employment, and to explicitly develop young people’s civic engagement, is through the National Youth Service scheme (NYS). The NYS partners with key government projects, such as the Expanded Public Works Programme, or NGOs (such as City Year SA) to provide structured work opportunities for young unemployed people to increase their skills and employability. Over 13 000 young people were being reached through the NYS each year by 2007. The NYS uses what it describes as an “integrated” model – combining community service with structured learning and “exit opportunities” (Jobson, 2011:8).

3.4.4 LEGISLATIVE & POLICY FRAMEWORK

Since 1996 South Africa has had a series of legislative frameworks that culminated in the 2009-2014 National Youth Policy which have broadly identified key areas for interventions and support (South Africa, 2009). The attendant delivery of services and opportunities has, however, been incredibly problematic due to bad planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. The NYS reports to parliament each year, yet there have been no impact assessments or effective monitoring of the programme on the life outcomes for NYS alumni. International reports suggest that young people who engage in youth service projects tend to have increased life skills, self-confidence, social capital and employability (Holland *et al.*, 2007:113), but without effective monitoring and evaluation of institutional interventions such as the NYS, the success of these outcomes remain hidden.

The Umsobomvu Youth Fund (UYF) and National Youth Commission, which were initially established to represent and support youth development, were amalgamated and then scrapped in 2009 and replaced by the National Youth Development Agency (NYDA). This was largely due to claims of mismanagement and poor performance of allocated funds and poor performance of projects initiated or planned (Jobson, 2011:10). The vision of the NYDA is to be “a world-class developmental agency that empowers all South Africa’s youth socially and economically for a better life” with the purpose “to mainstream and integrate youth development for sustainable livelihoods” (South Africa, 2008). The extent to which the NYDA adds value is difficult to determine and its focus on youth leadership development is not particularly clear.

NYDA can be criticized for having too vast a mandate, and that no mention is made of promoting young people as valuable contributors to society, potential drivers of public innovation, or leaders at community and national level (Jobson, 2011:10). Furthermore, the NYDA has lost some public credibility after spending over R100 million on the World Youth Festival at the end of 2010, in what proved to be a poorly organized event with massive resource wastages. The budget allocations for the NYDA in the 2012/2013 fiscal period have been considerably reduced and this is further indication of a lack of legitimacy for this particular government institution responsible for dealing with youth development (Sapa, 2012).

3.4.5 IMPLICATIONS FOR YOUTH DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA: THE CHALLENGES

It is clear that from a governmental perspective the National Development Plan (NDP) has been adopted as the road map for South Africa's medium- and long-term development (National Planning Commission, 2012). The National Planning Commission (NPC) published the National Development Plan that sets out a national vision for 2030 (National Planning Commission, 2011). Themes ranging from public health to corruption and state capacity, to active citizenship and unity in diversity are discussed in this plan (NPC, 2011:428).

Some argue that the NDP is by its very nature a youth-oriented document and offers a well-considered assessment of the country's challenges and integrated approaches to overcome them (Hofmeyer, 2012:XII). The NDP perceives the youth as having the potential to greatly expand South Africa and the continent's productive workforce if adequate investment is made in education, skills development, job creation and entrepreneurial development (National Planning Commission, 2012:62). The NDP has great expectations from the current generation of South African youth, but, it can be criticized in that it does not make mention of the need for leadership development amongst the youth.

Good governance and leadership are prerequisites for the successful implementation of the NDP's strategic vision, and the current generation of youth aged 15-24 years will be those driving the implementation of the last stages of the NDP or Vision 2013. The researcher is of the opinion that this inevitably requires leadership development among the present generation of youths. However, the NDP and National Youth Policy fail to make mention of this need in its consideration of youth development.

The NDP can be perceived as a visionary document, but to what extent is it being used to inform the youth and youth leadership development? At a practical level, what sort of

leadership theory and practice amongst youths would be most suitable in response to the national challenges as set out in the NDP? These questions are posed here as an exploratory challenge to the current research.

It is clear from the above discussion that youth development should be a policy imperative and national priority given the vast challenges this segment of the population, and the country as a whole, need to deal with. Having defined youth development and investigated the policy and institutional interventions enabling the development of youth, a need for youth leadership development is advocated for in the next section. The related context of youth leadership development will be explored in the section that follows.

3.5 YOUTH LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

The following section explores why the question of youth leadership development in South Africa is important and then discusses the context of youth leadership development in South Africa. This discussion includes clarification of definitions and concepts related to leadership competence and competency, curriculum and curricular activities, as well as the monitoring and evaluation of learning outcomes – all of which form part of a programmatic framework for youth leadership development. The section concludes with a brief discussion on teaching and learning methodologies used for leadership development in youths.

3.5.1 A CASE FOR INVESTING IN YOUTH LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

In a popular TED Talk Patrick Awuah (Awuah, 2007) states that, “every generation should be intentional about how it trains its leaders” Post-apartheid South Africa is experiencing a myriad of systemic transitional challenges related to socio-economic development, political formation and societal growth. Leadership lies at the heart of many of these issues. Public, para-statal and private sector institutions in South Africa are faced with a range of capacity and governance challenges.

Poor leadership underpins an emerging crisis in South Africa. Various industrial, agricultural and service delivery protests in recent times clearly indicate the need for transitional and transformational change in South Africa’s economic and political landscape. This process inevitably requires ethical and effective leadership at both an individual and institutional level (Schwella, 2013: 65).

Sadly, South Africa has manifold cases of poor, ineffective and unethical leadership. Cases of widespread, some would say systemic, corruption is increasingly doing damage to South Africa’s constitutional democracy (Schwella, 2013: 87). The principles and values set out in

the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa envisage a nation united in diversity — living and leading this dream is proving to be more challenging than writing it on paper.

In response to an emerging South African leadership culture that sees leaders in various areas neglecting their responsibilities, acting in ways that are perceived to be unethical or corrupt, with a general sense of entitlement and careless, rather than caring, leadership, it is vital that more emphasis be placed on the intentional development of the future leaders of South Africa (Schwella, 2013: 87). Taking these contextual realities into account, and as an objective of this study, the researcher attempts to define an “emerging leader” context to which programmatic youth leadership development interventions are connected. The following section takes a brief look at the context of South Africa’s youth leadership development.

3.5.2 YOUTH LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT CONTEXT IN SOUTH AFRICA

This section provides an overview of the context of youth leadership development in South Africa and mostly draws from the work of Janet Jobson. Jobson (2011:18-27), states that young South Africans have the potential to be “powerful agents of social innovation” and provides a systematic analysis of the context in which youth leadership development in South Africa ought to take place. She sketches an ideal process which includes:

- Securing the environment for young people to lead (research and policy development);
- Supporting and developing youth leadership pipelines (programmatic interventions);
- Creating and emphasizing programmes that connect young people to opportunity and influence.

According to Jobson (2011:108) youth leadership development interventions in South Africa should constitute more than simply a set of skills and experiences. She states that, “Leadership is about values, collectives, movements and action. To have leadership skills in the vacuum of purpose and action is pointless. And to have leadership skills in an isolated individual also defeats the purpose – it must be transferable, connecting and catalytic with real impact.”

A practical case of a programmatic intervention process in South Africa’s youth leadership development context is well documented in a study by Joubert (2007). He describes a youth leadership development process used in a school-based leadership education programme that has five competency sets and three different developmental stages for each competency

set. The first stage is awareness, the second is interaction, and the final stage is mastery. The competency sets include (Joubert, 2007:96):

- Theoretical leadership knowledge (concepts, constructs, etc.);
- Leadership attitude;
- Communication skills;
- Decision-making capabilities; and
- Stress management capabilities.

Throughout this developmental process the programme is monitored and evaluated to measure the achievement of learning outcomes and to detect opportunities for continuous improvement (Joubert, 2007:245).

In essence, youth leadership development interventions should have strong strategic and conceptual foundations which are underpinned by a thorough understanding of the youth context. A programmatic framework which represents this environment, is conducive for leadership development, and acts as an enabler for effective youth leadership development, should thus be utilized.

Given the limited literature and reports on the specific subject of youth leadership development in South Africa it is a challenging context to study (Bhana *et al*, 2011:223). Apart from the policy and institutional context of youth development discussed in earlier sections, little research exists on the programmatic aspects of youth leadership development initiatives in South Africa. This explains the exploratory nature of the current research and the purpose of the section that follows.

3.5.3 INSTITUTIONAL INTERVENTIONS FOR YOUTH LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

After considering the environment of youth leadership development in the preceding sections and documentation produced by the institutions referenced thus far, the author of this study made a synthesis of the institutional context of youth leadership development in South Africa. Table 3.1 indicates all the conceivable categories of institutions that either manage leadership development-related programmes for South African youth or have the potential to design and implement programmes aimed at youth leadership development.

Table 3.1: Institutional and programmatic classification of youth leadership development interventions in South Africa

| CATEGORY | TYPE | TARGET PARTICIPANTS | EXAMPLES |
|------------|----------------------------------|--|--|
| A | Secondary school level. | Youth aged 15-19 years | Governing bodies implementing leadership programmes as part of extra-curricular activities for more senior pupils. |
| B.1 | Civil Society organizations/NGOs | Youth aged 18-25 years | 1. South Africa Washington International Programme (SAWIP). 2. City Year South Africa |
| B.2 | Foundations & trusts | Secondary school learners and university students. | 1. The DG Murray Trust 2. Alan Gray Orbis Foundation |
| C | Government institutions | All youths | National Youth Development Agency |
| D | Political parties | Emerging leaders aged 18-35 | 1. DA Young Leader Programme. 2. ANC School of Leadership. |
| E | Higher education institutions | Youth aged 18 and older. | Frederik van Zyl Slabbert Institute for Student Leadership Development |

The scope of operation and business models for each of these categories differ. However, they share an interest in youth development and some are specifically interested in youth leadership development. These institutions reach their strategic objectives through the implementation of programmatic interventions. The following section investigates some of the components that the majority of the programmes mentioned in the matrix above employ.

3.6 YOUTH LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA: THE STRATEGIC CHALLENGES AND RESPONSE

The aspirational assumptions of the current research study are 1) that youth leadership development in South Africa represents a strategic response to the challenges of the quality of leadership in general, and 2) to foster behavioural change that brings about good leadership among an emerging leaders corps in South Africa. The core exploratory question applicable here is *how* youth leadership development is institutionalized and practised.

In other words, what are the programmatic components and elements that provide the substance of a youth leadership development intervention that responds to South Africa's

national challenges, and simultaneously takes the challenges facing youths into consideration? The final section of this chapter investigates this question by defining a selection of components of the youth leadership development process in South Africa. These include reference to:

- leadership curricula, learning outcomes and objectives;
- the link between programmatic themes and competency development;
- teaching and learning methodologies; and
- monitoring and evaluation as part of the institutional learning cycle.

The section concludes with a synthesis of the process components into a proposed framework for youth leadership development that can be tested in practice.

3.6.1 LEADERSHIP CURRICULA, LEARNING OUCTOMES AND OBJECTIVES

Processing ideas and information on leadership and how one can develop as a young leader involve a particular learning process. Bourner and Flowers (1997:80) state that, “the capacity to use ideas and information involves moving beyond comprehension of a principle in the abstract, to an appreciation of its range of applicability: where, when and how it is appropriate to use it”. This statement describes the broad aims of leadership curricula and the related learning outcomes and objectives, which represent the foundation of any youth leadership development programme.

A curriculum is a course of study in one subject at a school or college or a “list of all the courses of study offered by a school” or college or “any programme or plan of activities” (Sinclair, 2001:359). It is thus the overall composition and content of a particular learning intervention. Related to the curriculum are learning outcomes and learning objectives that are set for the purposes of stating what it is one wants to develop.

Otter (1992: i) provides a definition of learning outcomes as, “what a learner knows or can do as a result of learning”. According to Eisner (1979:73), learning outcomes are broad overarching consequences of learning which do not meet the stringent criteria which necessarily apply to behavioural objectives. Behavioural objectives are specific statements of expected behaviour, whereas learning outcomes are less specific statements of intent. Learning outcomes further enable learners to know at the commencement of a course what it is they are expected to achieve in relation to subject content, personal transferable skills and academic outcomes. Learning outcomes are “what a learner knows, or can do as a result of learning” (Otter, 1992:i). Finally, it can be said that learning outcomes help facilitators or

lecturers articulate the relationship between what they teach and what the learner should have mastered by the conclusion of the course.

Similarly, but in contrast to learning outcomes, learning objectives are described as the kinds of behavioural changes that an educational institution seeks to bring about in its students (Tyler in Otter, 1992). An objective states what a learner will be able to do after the learning experience that he could not do before.

The output of teaching is learning and the output of research is a contribution to knowledge (Bourner & Flowers, 1997:79). Both cases analyzed in the following chapter operate within a higher education framework and it is thus relevant to mention the global aims of higher education and its related learning interventions. Bourner and Flowers describe six learning aims of higher education (1997:80). These are:

1. The dissemination of knowledge;
2. Developing the capability to use ideas and information;
3. Developing the student's ability to test ideas and evidence;
4. Developing the student's ability to develop ideas and evidence;
5. Facilitating the personal development of students; and
6. Developing the capacity of students to plan and manage their own learning.

These learning aims and outcomes are achieved through specific objectives achieved through particular curricular activities. This, in turn, links to the concept of competence and competency and the development thereof. For learning to take place and to be transferred into skills relevant for application, it has to be linked to the development of a specified range of competencies.

3.6.2 LINKING PROGRAMMATIC THEMES TO COMPETENCY DEVELOPMENT

Youth leadership programmes include curricula and learning outcomes and objectives as defined above. The objective of learning outcomes of any given youth leadership development course or programme is the development of leadership competence or competency. It is thus important to establish conceptual clarity about the definition of these terms.

Critten (1993:18) describes competence as a broad concept, which embodies the ability to transfer skills and knowledge to new situations within an occupational area. According to Meyer (1996:31) competence is the outcome and product of learning which leads to the development of competencies. Scholars have also made a clear conceptual distinction

between competence and competency, arguing that competence constitutes the aspects of a particular job that an individual can perform whereas competency represents a person's specific behaviours and characteristics that enable him or her to be effective (Winterton & Winterton, 1999:27; Mansfield *in* Bhatta, 2001:1950).

Alternatively, competency has been defined as “an underlying characteristic of an individual that is causally related to effective and/or superior performance in a job or situation” (Thach & Thompson, 2007:357; Briscoe & Hall, 1999:37). In a synthesis of definitions on competency and the development of competencies, Ronn (2011:195) points out that competence is linked to certain outcomes through an interactive process between characteristics, behaviours and task/job performance. It can thus be assumed that the specific attributes of a person or institution can be identified and reproduced through educational interventions of teaching and learning. The outcome of this process is effective performance (Ronn, 2011:195).

The process of developing leadership competencies in youths through programmatic interventions should thus include conceptual clarity of what constitutes leadership competencies and to which desired behaviours and performance each leadership competency is linked. As an exploratory study, the current research will begin to reveal on which competencies or competency sets youth leadership development programmes in South Africa focus. The development of competencies further involves a specific selection of teaching and learning methodologies.

3.6.3 TEACHING & LEARNING METHODOLOGIES

Different curricula employ different methods to reach programmatic objectives. Jobson (2011:21) asserts that youth leadership development is most successfully achieved through young people having the experience of leading, and to this end youth leadership initiatives should create learning-by-doing environments. One could identify this with experiential learning methodologies. Bournier and Flowers (1992:83), however, identify a range of methods that can be used to reach different learning outcomes. These include, but are not limited to:

- lectures based on textbooks and theoretical and contextual analysis;
- theoretical assignments;
- monitored experiential learning through projects (individual or group);
- practical work experience;
- study of case studies; and
- learning through mentorship.

The variables affecting which teaching and learning methods are used in youth leadership development programmes are also taken into account in the design and development of curricula. Age and level of education are important variables. One would be able to use, for example, a higher level of cognitive and conceptual content in a leadership programme for university students than for learners between 15 and 18 years (Bournier and Flowers, 1992:83).

The programmatic development of youth leadership development initiatives is not static and involves a process of continuous change. This change can only be tracked if monitoring and evaluation of the learning process takes place. The following section defines this process component.

3.6.4 MONITORING AND EVALUATION OF LEARNING OUTCOMES

Leadership development and the effectiveness of learning through programmatic interventions can only be measured through a process of monitoring and evaluation. This section briefly defines these terms and their relevance to the programmatic elements of youth leadership development.

“Monitoring is the policy-analytic procedure used to produce information about the causes and consequences of policies. It helps to describe relationships between policy-programme operations and their outcomes; it is the primary source of knowledge about the effectiveness of policy implementation” (Dunn, 2008:273-274). Monitoring answers questions related to the manner and reason for specific interventions or activities, whereas evaluation is concerned with the value of the outcome of specific activities (Dunn, 2008:341).

Indicators for use before, during and after the programme to monitor the learning experience and to subsequently evaluate the value of learning outcomes need to be developed and established. This is the only way to measure the effectiveness and impact, at least as a short-term and operational tool, of curricular activities aimed at developing leadership skills and competencies.

The learning outcomes of each activity in a specific curriculum of a leadership development programme need to be monitored in terms of content, teaching or learning methodology, and value. The extent to which this is the case in the range of operational youth leadership development initiatives in South Africa is difficult to estimate. However, one would be able to judge the two cases analyzed in Chapter 4 in terms of the extent of monitoring and evaluation of curricular activities and learning outcomes.

3.6.5 SYNTHESIS OF PROCESS: TOWARDS A YOUTH LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT FRAMEWORK

A synthesis of the process components defined and discussed above leads to a logical process which could represent the building blocks of a programmatic framework for youth leadership development in South Africa. Such a process would require more in-depth research, but could include the following steps:

Step 1: Establishing of a youth leadership programme.

Step 2: Setting of strategic objectives.

Step 3: Statement of learning intention through learning outcomes.

Step 4: Design of curricular objectives, content and activities.

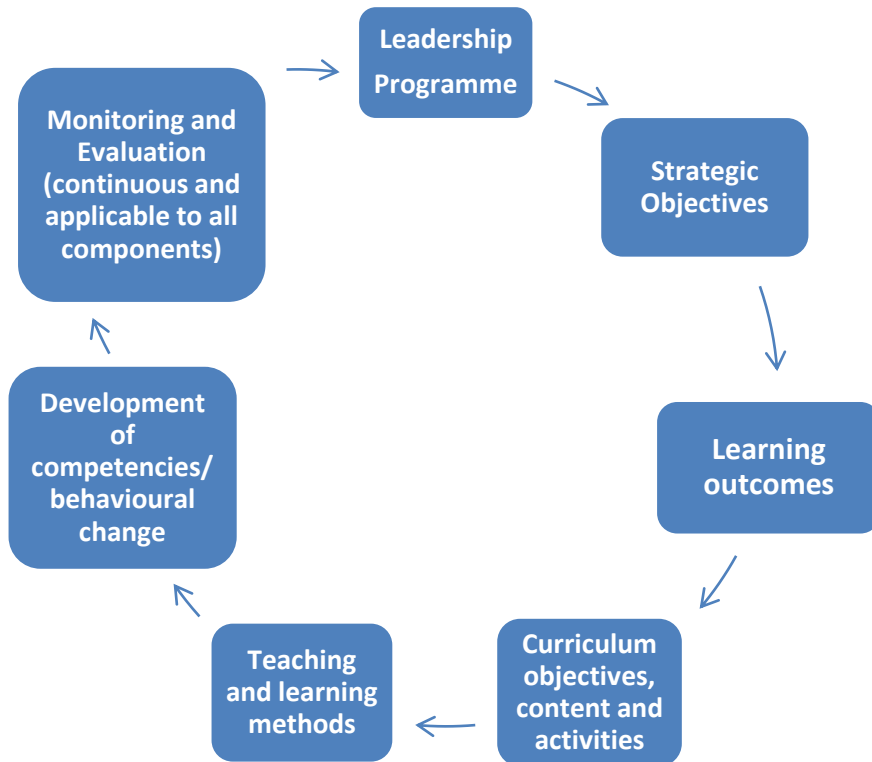
Step 5: Establish variety of teaching and learning methods.

Step 6: Development of specific (leadership) competencies.

Step 7: Continuous monitoring and evaluation of all components and stages of the process.

One can ask whether this process provides a logical and accurate example of the programmatic processes currently practised in youth leadership development programmes in South Africa. Is it consistent with the processes used by the two case studies analyzed in Chapter 4 and could it provide the basis for more in-depth grounded-theory or theory-building research to provide a framework for youth leadership development among emerging South African leaders? The current exploratory research will not be able to answer all of these questions, but the case-based analysis that follows will provide two cases of well-functioning youth leadership development institutions and the processes they employ.

Figure 3.4 Programmatic framework for youth leadership development



3.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter sought to provide a contextual overview of youth between the ages of 15 and 24 years in South Africa. Comprising nearly a fifth of the national population, it was argued that this cohort of youth are of strategic importance to target for the intentional development of emerging South African leaders. An “emerging leader context” was conceptualized and the variety of contexts and challenges this cohort of youth faces were discussed.

The analysis was done by investigating the economic, social, political, educational and technological dynamics of South African youth. In addition to analyzing the above youth context, as a sub-set of youth development, this chapter provided a critical overview of the youth leadership development landscape in South Africa at both an institutional and programmatic level. It was shown that youth development policy interventions by government rarely have specific programmes that focus on rigorous leadership development actions. However, this may change as youth development actors, such as the NYDA, realize the importance and value of quality leadership development programmes. It was argued that youth leadership development is a crucial investment in human capital is essentially linked to the successful implementation of, for example, the National Development Plan (NDP).

The latter part of the chapter analyzed the South African youth leadership development environment from a programmatic perspective and provided an exploratory seven step process-framework for such interventions. This proposed framework includes the setting of

strategic learning objectives, curricular objectives and activities, teaching methodology and the identification of leadership competencies. Coupled to this is continuous monitoring and evaluation of the programmatic process.

It can be argued that causal linkages between the contextual challenges 15-24-year-old youths face and programmatic interventions for youth leadership development, together with related desired leadership competencies, should be studied in depth and developed through theory-building or grounded-theory research.

One can hypothesize that these linkages have not been studied and are thus only vaguely known. Based on the contextual analysis this chapter provided, the researcher is of the opinion that a considerable gap exists in the research, development and monitoring of “leadership learning outcomes” within the existing South African youth leadership development context. This shortage is ascribed to the fact that the community of youth leadership development actors is still relatively unorganized and fragmented with ad hoc peer learning within the community. The establishment of a formal community of practice or youth leadership development learning network could respond to this need.

A case-based analysis of youth leadership development programmes could prove or disprove the former hypothesis and serve as a point of departure for filling the research gap discovered. The chapter that follow represents such a case-based analysis, incorporating examples of two South African youth leadership development institutions.

CHAPTER 4: THE PRACTICE OF YOUTH LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA: A CASE-BASED ANALYSIS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The goal of this chapter is to provide a case-based analysis of two institutions that promote youth leadership development through structured leadership development interventions targeted at university students in South Africa. This analysis serves to integrate an example of the practices of youth leadership development into the current research and in so doing achieves the fourth research objective of this thesis.

The contextual analysis given in Chapter 3 and the theoretical review in Chapter 2 underpin the case-based analysis conducted in this chapter. Essentially, these two cases represent learning interventions that aim to bring about behavioural change in aspirational youth who show leadership potential or a willingness to lead. This implies a linkage to the process of leadership development in young people which is the central exploratory research question of this study.

The programmatic case-based analysis that follow provide a critical view on philosophical or conceptual links to leadership development theory, curriculum content, programmatic structure, leadership learning outcomes and the monitoring and evaluation of these. In addition, the case study analysis includes an overview of the institutional nature and business model of both institutions. The latter elements are relevant as they represent the link for moving from theory to practice.

The chapter concludes with a set of analytical observations that inform part of the final recommendations of this research.

4.2 CASE 1 – INTRODUCTION & OVERVIEW: THE SOUTH AFRICA WASHINGTON INTERNATIONAL PROGRAMME (SAWIP)

This section provides a presentation of the SAWIP leadership development programme and an analytical discussion of its key components. This is done by providing an overview of the leadership philosophy and institutional goals, programmatic themes and structure, leadership curricula and its related teaching methodologies, and finally, the business model enabling the activities of the SAWIP programme.

The vision of the SAWIP programme is of “a South Africa with strong leaders who have a global perspective, who serve others with humility and integrity and in so doing inspire future generations to do the same”. The mission that aims to realize this vision is to “inspire,

develop and support a diverse new generation of emerging South African leaders within multiple disciplines to” (SAWIP, 2013):

- successfully address **transformation challenges in our post-conflict** society in order to strengthen a sustainable, efficient democracy with active citizens;
- **build trust** between members that transcends racial, socio-economic and religious boundaries;
- **commit to ethical, professional service** in all spheres of public and private life;
- gain a deeper understanding of **global leadership challenges** while developing mutually beneficial relationships with young leaders in the United States, Ireland, the United Kingdom, and across the world; and
- strengthen and deepen relationships on multiple levels between the United States and South Africa.

The SAWIP was founded in 2007 as an extension of the 15-year-old Washington Ireland Program for Service and Leadership (WIP) which is a six-month programme of personal and professional development aimed at developing future generations of leaders for a post-conflict Northern Ireland and Republic of Ireland. The individuals who established and developed SAWIP in South Africa, Washington DC, Ireland and the United Kingdom, have brought extensive knowledge and experience as well as significant networks to the programme. The historical development of the programme is documented as follows (SAWIP, 2013):

In 2004 and 2006 SAWIP developed and supported its first two students in Washington, DC. In 2007 a pilot programme was launched with five students selected from the University of Cape Town.

In 2008 the second SAWIP class with seven students was selected from the Universities of Cape Town and Stellenbosch. This was followed by a third SAWIP class with 12 students selected from the Universities of Cape Town, Stellenbosch and the Western Cape managed by SAWIP’s new Program Manager in 2009. In this year SAWIP was registered in the United States of America as a public charity with 501(c)(3) status and created a board of directors and advisory committee. In addition, SAWIP was registered in South Africa as a Section 21 non-profit company and awarded tax exemption status by the South African Revenue Services (SARS) and the organisation created its first board of directors.

In 2010 the fourth SAWIP class with 13 students was selected from the Universities of Cape Town, Stellenbosch and the Western Cape. In addition, an alumni network and committee

was established to organise alumni relations and an advisory committee was formalized. The SAWIP also appointed its first full-time programme manager in this year.

In 2011 the fifth SAWIP class with 15 students was selected from the Universities of Cape Town, Stellenbosch and the Western Cape and the organisation appointed its first executive director to manage and direct the American part of the programme.

In 2012 the sixth SAWIP class with 15 students was selected from the Universities of Cape Town, Stellenbosch and the Western Cape;

In 2013 the seventh SAWIP class of 15 students was selected as in previous years. In addition, 2 new students from the University of Pretoria were selected to lead SAWIP's pilot expansion for the Gauteng province.

The following subsections unpack the various elements that form the SAWIP programme and the various elements are then analyzed.

4.2.1 LEADERSHIP PHILOSOPHY AND INSTITUTIONAL GOALS

At an aspirational and philosophical level the South Africa Washington International Programme uses servant leadership as the point of departure for its leadership development initiatives. One can argue that it is the programme's guiding leadership philosophy or ethos and can be linked to the theoretical description of servant or service leadership reviewed as part of the theoretical analysis in Chapter 2.

An important outcome of the programme is to develop resilient young people with ambition to take leadership actions in their communities and professional careers. The programme focuses on building social networks for selected team members, which increases their future access to job opportunities and leadership opportunities.

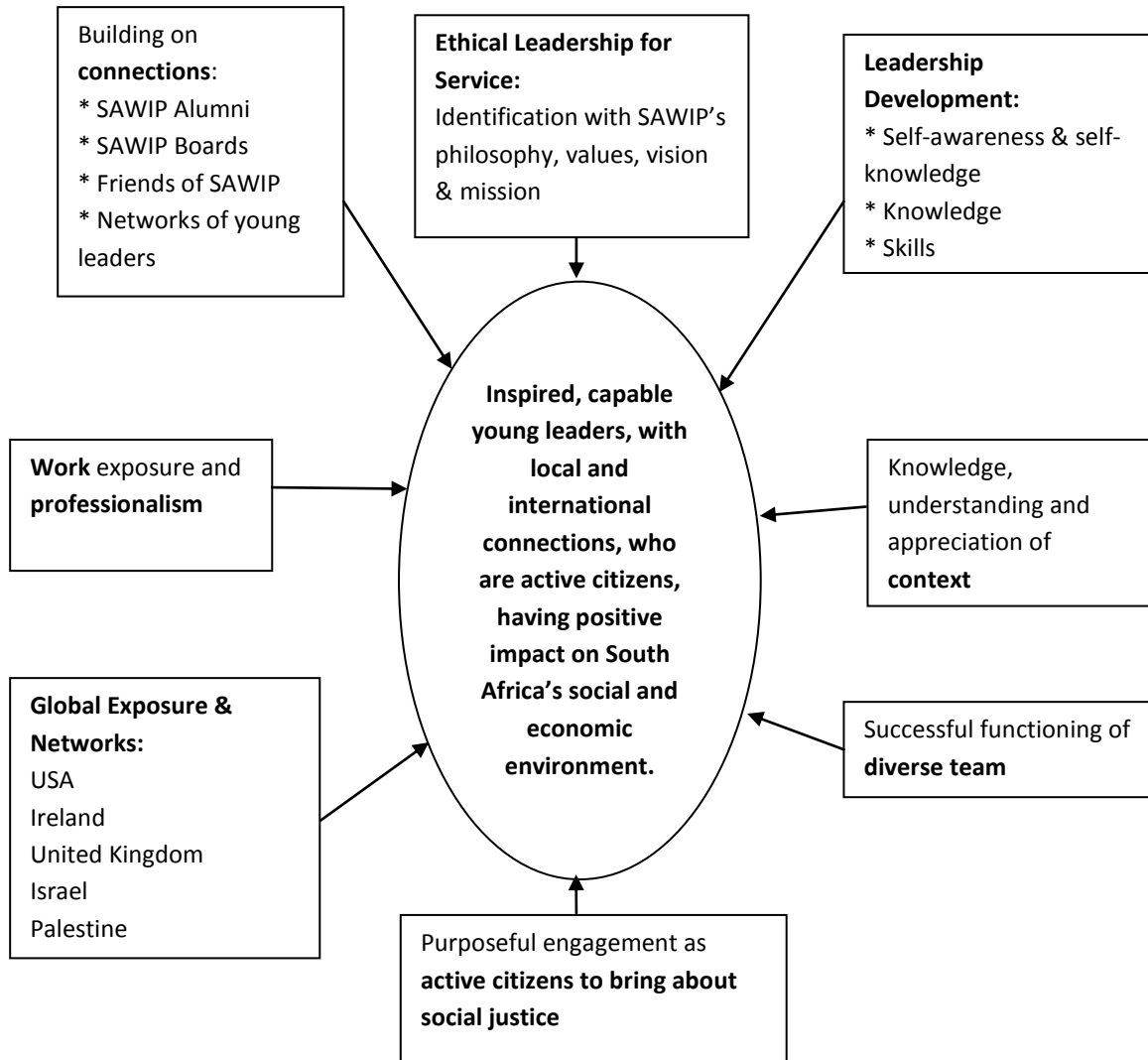
The overarching institutional goals of the leadership programme are (SAWIP, 2013:4):

- To foster a commitment to service, servant leadership and positive change amongst talented young leaders in South Africa;
- To build human understanding in a diverse world;
- To enhance an appreciation of and respect for diversity amongst the youth;
- To develop and enhance leadership skills in young leaders;
- To encourage innovation, entrepreneurship and social solutions;
- To build global awareness and promote active citizens with networks;

- To develop the personal and professional skills of young leaders within workplace settings (experiential learning through internships); and
- To develop an ever-increasing pool of youth leadership mentors who can develop other young leaders.

Figure 4.1 illustrates the complete programmatic and curricular system that drives the SAWIP's leadership learning intervention. The oval shape in the centre states the aspirational goal of the programme with the various connecting blocks being elements that contribute to the achievement of the aspirational goal which is to develop "inspired, capable young leaders, with local and international connections, who are active citizens, having positive impact on South Africa's social and economic environment" (SAWIP, 2013:4). Addendum A provides the comprehensive 2013 SAWIP leadership curriculum summary and purpose.

Figure 4.1: SAWIP curricular system (SAWIP, 2013:4)



Given the background, context and institutional aims of the SAWIP programme discussed above, the researcher has to go into more detail to understand and clarify the structural process for achieving the aspirational leadership learning goals and objectives.

4.2.2 PROGRAMME OVERVIEW: THE STRUCTURAL DIMENSIONS

The SAWIP programme consists of a 6-month period populated with a rigorous leadership curriculum. Six weeks of the programme are spent in Washington DC in the United States of America (SAWIP, 2013: 1). The programme includes:

- Residence at host families who live and work in central Washington DC;
- Structured and selected engagements with key leaders in a variety of fields and organizations.

The curriculum is designed and developed with specific learning outcomes and implemented during a series of phases. Each phase has a set of goals which are achieved through

engagement on a specific topic or theme; speakers or professionals connected to the context of the particular theme or topic; a method or activity to internalize what is being learned; pre-determined expected outcomes of the activity; and, finally, feedback notes on each activity or learning engagement. The latter element serves as a tool for evaluation of a particular activity. The phases include:

Phase 1: Selection and orientation

The first phase of the programme consists of a selection and orientation camp where selected individuals who have successfully passed the first selection screening of written applications and panel interviews are given the opportunity to participate in a weekend selection camp. Students from the University of Stellenbosch, University of Cape Town, University of the Western Cape and University of Pretoria (the latter university being in pilot phase) are recruited annually. A team of 15 candidates, representing the significantly diverse nature of South African society, is then selected and attends an inception orientation camp where members are introduced to the programme content and expectations (SAWIP, 2013: 2).

Phase 2: South African part of leadership curriculum

The second phase includes a leadership curriculum in South Africa from March to the end of May annually (SAWIP, 2013: 2). The objectives of the second phase are to:

- Build global awareness, raise social consciousness and promote active citizens;
- Assist with and support students' individual 30-hour community service projects;
- Develop and enhance team functioning and leadership skills in young leaders;
- Develop students' communication and writing skills;
- Further development of emotional intelligence for leadership;
- Encourage innovation, entrepreneurship and solutions to South Africa's challenges;
- Prepare students for their engagement with students from sister programmes, Washington Ireland Programme (WIP) and New Story Leadership (NSL) in Washington DC by deepening their knowledge of the history, socio-economic and political conditions and challenges facing South Africa, Ireland, the United Kingdom, America, Israel and Palestine.

Phase 3: Residence and curriculum in Washington DC and New York

The third phase takes place during June and July annually and involves a working visit to the city of Washington DC in America. This phase, which stretches over a 6-week period, also

includes a visit to New York City. The curriculum content in Washington DC is structured along thematic lines and includes the following themes (SAWIP, 2013: 2):

- Week 1: Welcome and introduction to the United States of America, Washington DC;
- Week 2: Business and Enterprise;
- Week 3: Global Affairs;
- Week 4: Politics and Governance;
- Week 5: Diversity and Race Relations;
- Week 6: Peace, Service and NGOs.

Each theme is explored through a set of engagements with organizations and professionals that are connected to the context and work of each theme. A detailed list of the engagements, organizations visited and schedule of the 2013 SAWIP curriculum in Washington DC can be accessed in Addendum A.

Phase 4: *Latter part of South African curriculum of which the objectives are to:*

- Further develop students' personal and people leadership skills;
- Strengthen students' practice of servant leadership/service leadership through a team community service project;
- Encourage innovation, entrepreneurship and "youth" solutions to South Africa's challenges; and
- Reflect on what they have learned during the programme and prepare an extensive feedback report.

4.2.3 CURRICULUM CONTENT

The curriculum content of the SAWIP programme seeks to provide a profoundly transformative leadership development experience to selected undergraduate and post-graduate South African students from any discipline, between the ages of 19 and 25 years, who have a commitment to social justice demonstrated by a history of service, and in this way to influence their personal, professional and social life choices, behaviours and actions.

SAWIP's organizational documentation reveals that the core purpose of its curriculum is to give effect to the preamble to the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. Through the process of "transformative leadership development, for each team member, to experience the healing of the divisions of the past so that each one of them can, in turn, contribute towards realizing this aspiration for South Africa, and help establish a society based on democratic values, social justice and fundamental human rights" (SAWIP, 2013:2). The

theme of reconciliation or the building of social cohesion comes across strongly in this learning goal. It also links with democracy, the rights of people, and justice in societal affairs.

During a thorough study of the detailed curriculum schedules of the programme it becomes apparent that the programme focuses on engagement within local and international contexts to “enlighten” or inform team members of societal realities and leadership challenges. The primary curriculum focus is to bring about individual behavioural change as well as behavioural change of the diverse team. The secondary or indirect long-term aspiration is that SAWIP graduates will lead in such a way as to bring about positive institutional change in various sectors of South African society.

4.2.4 TEACHING AND LEARNING METHODOLOGY

The SAWIP aims to embed and achieve its leadership learning outcomes through interactive workshops on certain topics, engagement with professionals in South Africa and the United States of America, and sometimes exclusive access to, and engagement with, well-respected leaders (Desmond Tutu, Barack Obama).

An environment for learning exchange between cultures within the SAWIP team is created by selecting a diverse team in terms of race, gender, religion and socio-economic background. This “team learning” methodology provides a profound learning opportunity and most curriculum opportunities are experienced in this environment.

The size of the team which is selected annually has been carefully considered by the programme’s leadership and management as experience has shown that size does impact on the quality of team learning. The size of fifteen team members is large enough to ensure diversity, but small enough to ensure it remains a unit in which there can be deep and meaningful engagement (SAWIP, 2013:1).

A variety of methodologies are used to enable leadership learning to take place during the programme. These include:

- Presentations;
- Workshops;
- Discussions/Debates/Dialogues;
- Site visits;
- Scenario setting and case studies;
- Reading ;
- Professional Exposure (short internships);

- Living with host families in DC; and
- Reflection (blogging and written evaluative reporting).

It is thus clear that the SAWIP uses a mixed-method approach to reach its learning goals through a leadership development facilitation process. Now that it is clear what the vision, aim and objectives of the SAWIP are, and how these are achieved, one can ask how the institution sustains itself and adapts to change in the context in which it operates. This question links to the institution's basic business model.

4.2.5 BUSINESS MODEL

SAWIP has been incorporated as an association not for gain in terms of Section 21 (company limited by guarantee) in South Africa. In the United States of America, SAWIP has been registered as a public charity with 501(c)(3) status.

The organization is governed and led by two independent boards, one in South Africa and one in the United States of America. The boards are supported by advisory committees in both countries. Although independent, the boards have created a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) that provides for regular communication and collaboration. The programme is governed and managed by volunteers who function within the professional governance structure. Since its inception the programme has been wholly dependent on volunteers and financial donations by sponsors in order to sustain its operations. Its current business model is thus not financially self-sustainable, but relies on the charity and goodwill of supporters to sustain it. This situation poses an on-going risk for the institution and stands in contrast to other youth leadership development institutions that have accumulated enough support to develop an investment mechanism or financial trusts which are managed to provide a sustainable income stream to ensure sustainability and expansion.

In addition to what has been stated above the governance and management structures of the SAWIP include:

- Various board sub-committees with assigned portfolio functions (e.g. fundraising, alumni relations, auditing, financial statements)
- Advisory & University Liaison Committee
- Strategy & Sustainability Committee
- One full-time paid programme manager (South Africa)
- One full-time paid executive director (USA)
- An active alumni association
- Annual General Meetings (AGMs).

The brief overview of the SAWIP's business model provides further insight on this case study analysis, particularly with regard to the institutional design of a youth leadership development institution. This insight will be used to make certain recommendations in the concluding chapter of this research and can serve as basis for comparative analysis with other youth leadership development institutions.

The SAWIP programme exists and was institutionalized in response to the need for a conscious investment in leadership development in South Africa. If one considers the multiplicity of challenges South Africa and its youth are faced with, the need for better leadership in the present time and in the future is imperative and key to sustaining the country's constitutional democracy.

The extent to which SAWIP and related programmes that invest in developing future leaders are successful can only be proved over the course of a few decades. However, short-term and medium-term monitoring and evaluation tools can be developed and applied in the interim to track leadership learning interventions and the practice of good leadership by those who receive training.

Ten SAWIP classes have graduated from the programme since 2004. In order to ascertain the perceptions of these young leaders of their ideas and experience of leadership development, the chapter that follows provides feedback from a semi-structured qualitative questionnaire answered by SAWIP alumni. It is important to consider the learning experience or overall institutional experience from the vantage point of participants of the leadership programme to add an empirical element to this case-based analysis.

The second case that follows is similar to SAWIP in that it targets more or less the same group of young people who show an interest in developing their leadership potential. It will provide a more diverse analytical and comparative discussion to conclude the case-based analysis of this chapter.

4.3 CASE 2 – INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW: FREDERIK VAN ZYL SLABBERT (FVZS) INSTITUTE FOR STUDENT LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

This section provides a presentation of the Frederik van Zyl Slabbert (FVZS) Institute for student leadership development of Stellenbosch University. This is done by providing an overview of the leadership philosophy and institutional goals, programmatic themes and structure, leadership curricula and its related teaching methodologies, and finally, the business model that enables the activities of the FVZS Institute.

The FVZS Institute was established with the purpose of improving students' leadership skills so that more graduates are capable of contributing, as well-equipped leaders, to the well-being of society and is the first of its kind in higher education in South Africa (Sustaining the Frederik van Zyl Slabbert Institute for Student Leadership Development, 2012).

The official launch of the FVZS Institute took place on Tuesday, 29 March 2011. However, most of the institute's programmes have already been developed in 2010. As such most of the current programmes are thus in session/running/active. They range from Stellenbosch University (SU) accredited short courses to life skills development programmes with a focus on community development. The evolutionary development of the FVZS Institute since 2010 has been characterized by a steady growth in capacity and its 3-year implementation plan envisages the appointment of one or two new project managers in 2013/2014 as well as student assistants. These teams, together with the institute's leadership and partners, will continue to develop new programmes (FVZS, 2012).

The FVZS Institute is part of Stellenbosch University's HOPE Project functioning under the auspices of its Democracy and Human Rights theme. The HOPE Project uses science to tackle some of South Africa and Africa's most pressing challenges. In essence, it showcases key research and teaching initiatives that serve human need and help build a better future, while developing an academically strong and relevant Stellenbosch University to entrench its tradition of excellence. The FVZS is a unique HOPE project as it focuses on younger (mostly undergraduate or graduate scholars) with an overarching focus on youth leadership development.

The institute's ethos is guided by the legacy of former Stellenbosch University Chancellor, Dr Frederik van Zyl Slabbert. He was "a visionary free-thinker and principled leader who served South Africa as an academic, a politician, an entrepreneur and as a thought leader. Deeply committed to non-racialism, he devoted decades of his life to building democracy and addressing the polarisation between black and white South Africans" (FVZS, 2011).

4.3.1 LEADERSHIP PHILOSOPHY AND INSTITUTIONAL GOALS

The institute's leadership philosophy is vested in the legacy of an exceptional public leader. The institute's central function is to "promote and develop student leadership incorporating community development and promotion of human rights and dignity in line with SU's commitment to socio-economic development in the country and the continent" (Sustaining the Frederik van Zyl Slabbert Institute for Student Leadership Development, 2012). The programmes offered by the institute address existing shortcomings in current SU student

leadership development programmes and focus on activities concerning community development and human rights and dignity.

The FVZS Institute focuses on the following themes:

- Fostering a culture of democracy;
- Enhancing academic success and excellence;
- Advocating and promoting ethical leadership;
- Promoting human dignity by understanding diversity and removing societal barriers;
- Providing tools to survive in the global arena as world citizens;
- Promoting community interaction and the maintenance of sustainable development in an African context;
- Fostering a culture of conversation by specifically developing the necessary skills for healthy, open, honest and constructive conversation(s).

Table 4.1 illustrates the desired institutional goals, impact, outcomes and outputs that it seeks to achieve through its activities to give effect to the above-mentioned themes.

Table 4.1: Macro institutional goals and project matrix (FVZS, 2012).

| Project description | Indicators | Means of verification | Assumptions |
|--|---|---|--|
| Goal/Impact | | | |
| A greater number of students and graduates contribute towards the well-being of society as socially conscious leaders. | Improvement in ethical leadership at societal level | Regular surveys will be done in an attempt to measure the development of participants | SU graduates will occupy positions of leadership in their respective occupational fields |
| Outcome | | | |
| By the end of their university life, more students are socially aware and prepared to become agents of change | Increase in student participation in leadership development programmes | Programme attendance registers | SU students will be willing to participate in leadership development programmes |
| Outputs | | | |
| More leadership training courses are conducted to the benefit of school learners, SU students and SU student leaders | Increase in leadership programme's enrolment rates from SU students in leadership positions and those not | Programme attendance registers Exchange agreements in | The number of participants will be relatively low due to |

| | | | |
|--|---|--|---|
| <p>National and international student exchanges are running</p> <p>Honorary lecture held every year</p> <p>Institute Advisory Forum constituted in the set time</p> <p>Local schools are benefiting from consultancy services</p> | <p>Increase in the number of students who benefit from exchange programme</p> | <p>collaboration with International Office</p> <p>Ad hoc members of the Advisory Forum, including the SU Vice-Rector (Teaching) will evaluate the impact of the Advisory Forum in the institute</p> <p>The number of schools impacted by the programmes of the institute will be a key evaluation criteria</p> | <p>cost implications</p> <p>The cost implications for hosting the lecture are high.</p> |
| <p>Activities</p> | | | |
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Conduct leadership training courses targeting school learners, the SU general student population and SU student leaders 2. Conduct national and international student exchange programmes through collaboration initiatives 3. Conduct an annual FVZS Honorary Lecture 4. Establish the FVZS Institute Advisory Forum 5. Offer a leadership consultancy service to schools around Stellenbosch. | | | |
| <p>Inputs</p> | | | |
| <p>-Infrastructure -Personnel (Head of institute, two project managers, a financial officer, secretary, 5 student assistants) -Office running funds</p> | | | |

The macro-institutional imperatives and methodology of implementation presented in Table 4.1 creates an enabling operational framework within which a variety of youth leadership development programmes are developed and implemented by the FVZS Institute. The section that follows lists these programmes.

4.3.2 OVERVIEW OF LEADERSHIP PROGRAMMES

The FVZS Institute's courses are in the format of accredited short courses with a standard framework for implementation. Each course has a detailed outline that covers sessions of learning engagements during evenings after university lectures or on weekend days. Courses designed and presented from 2010 to 2013 include:

- Leadership through community interaction;

- Students as agents of social change;
- Democracy and citizenship;
- Women in leadership;
- Advanced course in mentorship and coaching;
- Emerging Maties;
- Global citizenship;
- Growing citizens through multiculturalism;
- Developing leaders programme;
- Seeing the world through each other's eyes (joint exchange programme with Kennesaw State University, USA, that focuses on the UN's development themes);
- The '2DO!' or 'Two-Do' programme (focuses on the development of generic leadership skills for second-year students); and
- NUCLEUS – activating tomorrow's entrepreneurs (focuses on developing student entrepreneurs through a number of practical projects).

The titles of the courses offered point to the target audience that it seeks to draw from the body of emerging South African leaders, and in this case, found within the Stellenbosch University context. Each course's short curricular programme is aligned to its learning aims, and the institute has developed a standard curriculum design process.

4.3.3 CURRICULUM DESIGN

The generic structure of each course, found in a detailed course outline, includes the following basic elements (FVZS, 2013):

- An aspirational or inspirational quote by a great leader who led in the field of the particular course (this provides for philosophical reflection);
- Key learning outcomes of each course session;
- Questions to stimulate discussion during sessions;
- Reading materials;
- Names, contact details and commitment of facilitators of each session; and
- Presentation method of each session.

In many courses there is one session per week and different sessions are often facilitated by different facilitators. Because course topics are often relatively broad, experts are brought in on the relevant topic of each session within a course. For example, one course, titled Democracy and Citizenship, has eight sessions that cover themes from active citizenship to the various spheres of government and public policy. A variety of facilitators is then recruited to facilitate the session on which they are most knowledgeable. Addendum B provides an example of a course outline for one of the FVZS Institute's programmes titled 'leadership

through community interaction: An introduction to student-led volunteer initiatives at Stellenbosch University’.

The basic generic course outline and implementation planning methodology ensures that the institute is able to adapt and develop new programmes with different themes aimed at specific target markets in relatively short periods of time. This element of flexibility enables the institute to remain relevant in the learning products it has to offer.

4.3.4 TEACHING AND LEARNING METHODOLOGY

The FVZS Institute uses the following methodologies to facilitate the leadership learning process of their programmes (FVZS, 2013):

- lectures;
- engagement with professional and topic-specific experts;
- discussion groups;
- workshops;
- community engagement projects and/or site visits; and
- communication via an interactive blog/website on the world wide web.

The effectiveness of these methodologies will be analysed in Chapter 5.

4.3.5 BUSINESS MODEL

The FVZS, branded as a HOPE project of Stellenbosch University, is institutionalized in the Department of Student Affairs. Funding to sustain the projects, programmes and operational costs of the FVZS Institute is received from the University of Stellenbosch as well as local and international non-profit organizations and philanthropists. The institute uses existing university staff to lead and manage the institute, whilst simultaneously relying significantly on trained student volunteers for assistance and course management work (Sustaining the Frederik van Zyl Slabbert Institute for Student Leadership Development, 2012). The institution is procuring more human resource capacity as it grows. However, as it is not financially self-sustaining, funding for human and other resources remains a challenge.

As part of its business model the FVZS Institute’s blog functions as a space where students, facilitators and other interested parties can join in conversations around the themes of the different courses and activities offered by the institute. Students are encouraged to partake in interviews in order to get different perspectives and to share these interviews and other smaller research findings on the blog as a catalyst for conversation. A student team feeds the blog regularly with stimulating blog posts.

Business process planning documentation suggests that the FVZS's management team plan for potential risks to the institute's sustainability, both with regards to funding for capacity as well as for the relevance of its activities and programmes. Forward planning within the FVZS Institute governance structures suggests the intention to turn the institute into a hub of expertise (across SU faculties and departments and other institutions) that can benefit SU students and students from other institutions of higher education in South Africa and Africa. "This will be realised by building expertise in and undertaking continued research on the topic of student leadership development" (Sustaining the Frederik van Zyl Slabbert Institute for Student Leadership Development, 2012). This latter intention confirms the researcher's initial literary finding that student or youth leadership development is an under-researched field.

In contrast to the SAWIP, the FVZS Institute is positioned within a higher education institution, supported by its institutional capacity and an incentive (academic credits) for students to participate in its short leadership development programmes.

Curriculum and selection of courses are driven by student demand and societal trends and this ensures its relevance in the market of leadership development. Both cases confirm that this is yet an underdeveloped market in the knowledge economy. One can argue, however, that the FVZS at this stage mostly only benefits SU students and not a broader audience of emerging South African leaders, but this may be ascribed to capacity challenges and the relatively recent establishment date.

Monitoring and evaluation is cited in the institute's internal strategic planning documentation, but there are currently no robust monitoring and evaluation tools used to assess the extent to which leadership learning interventions lead to leadership actions by participants over time.

4.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter provided a presentation of two cases of institutions that specialize in youth leadership development targeted at emerging leaders who fall within the target population of this study. This was done by investigating the leadership philosophy, structural and programmatic dimensions, curriculum content, teaching and learning methodologies used and the business models of both the SAWIP and the FVZS Institute.

The analytical discussion of the programmatic elements of both cases, and its institutional challenges or limitations, provides for a critical understanding of the shortcomings between youth leadership theory and practice in South Africa. Based on the content analysis above, one can draw the following conclusions:

- Both cases represent institutions that perform relatively successfully within their current scope of operation;
- Both cases have a business model which is not financially self-sustainable and this creates an organizational risk and constrains expansion or change;
- The cases analyzed are both mostly practical with little focus on theoretical study or academic interest in deconstructing and understanding youth leadership development (research capacity);
- Monitoring and evaluation can only happen over time, but institutional mechanisms to track and trace development of graduates lack effectiveness;
- Specific learning themes are identified in the programmes of both institutions, however, detailed leadership competencies are not defined;
- There is a risk that by focusing on topics that are too broad, the application of learning or specific behavioural change may not occur.

These findings and the cases presented are linked to the following chapter that seeks to address the evidence-based research gap in youth leadership development in South Africa.

CHAPTER 5: REFLECTIONS OF EMERGING SOUTH AFRICAN LEADERS: EXPERIENCES OF YOUTH LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT PRACTICE – FINDINGS FROM A CASE-BASED SURVEY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The goal of this chapter is to establish and analyze empirical evidence of the leadership learning experience of emerging leaders who participated in the programmes of the two cases discussed and analyzed in Chapter 4. The chapter attempts to make sense of the reflections of young South African leaders' experience of leadership learning interventions, and in so doing, provides a selective sample of reflections on youth leadership development practice in South Africa.

The goal stated above is achieved through the design and distribution of a semi-structured questionnaire to a purposive sample of emerging leaders from the two cases discussed in Chapter 4. An analysis of the related feedback received provides for empirically based observations and assumptions that one can make as part of the exploratory research process.

Asking exploratory questions to graduates from two institutions that aim to develop emerging leaders provides an opportunity to document participants' unique learning experiences. In addition, it enables one to investigate the theoretical and contextual linkage between youth leadership theory and practice in South Africa.

This chapter concludes with a set of key findings which informs the findings and recommendations of this study presented in the final chapter.

5.2 QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN, STRUCTURE AND CONTENT

The researcher designed and distributed a semi-structured questionnaire to gather primary data to enable an evidence base for findings and recommendations of this study. The title of the questionnaire "Reflections of emerging South African leaders: Experiences of youth leadership development practice", points to the exploratory questions that constitute the questionnaire.

Each questionnaire was completed anonymously and individually online as this was the most effective method of doing the survey. The questionnaire was open for a window period and facilitated through an online surveying programme, Qualtrics, which the researcher had access to via Stellenbosch University's research support services. This surveying

programme allows unlimited numbers of online questions and respondents and offers a preliminary text analysis of questions, complemented by tools to produce graphic illustrations of feedback from respondents. The data collected through the questionnaires were thus coded and analyzed by using Qualtrics.

Participation in the questionnaire was voluntary and respondents had the option to discontinue participation at any point while doing the survey. Successful completion of the questionnaire entailed the answering of every question by the respondent. The aim of the study was made clear to all respondents and every respondent was aware that they would remain anonymous. Only the researcher and the researcher's supervisor had access to the completed questionnaires. A written e-mail explaining the aim and purpose of the research was sent to the sample population to invite potential respondents to complete the questionnaire by following an electronic link. See Addendum C for the detailed invitation sent to the sample population.

All relevant data was interpreted in order to develop new knowledge on the topic and in order to identify possible indicators for future research studies. The data gathered forms an essential part of the quest to answer the research questions of the study by making evidence-based assumptions from a sample population of respondents.

The questionnaire was designed with five sections and a total of 18 questions. Each section had a different purpose; these are presented in section 5.5 below with each question's feedback. These sections were:

- Section 1: Profile of respondent;
- Section 2: Perceptions of leadership and leadership development in South Africa;
- Section 3: Leadership development experience;
- Section 4: Teaching and learning methodology;
- Section 5: Leadership skills: from learning to action.

It is inevitable that the questionnaire had certain limitations which are briefly highlighted in the following section.

5.3 LIMITATIONS OF QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire is qualitative in nature and due to both cases being relatively young institutions, established in 2011 and 2004, a large sample population was not possible. One can further identify that the questionnaire's limitations include:

- Only a selective sample was surveyed and this could have been broader; critics may argue that it needs broader representation in terms of size and other leadership programmes.
- Questions are largely exploratory due to the nature of the research question and aim statement of this research. This may result in less exact findings which could imply more scope for interpretation of feedback.
- The sample population consists only of university students.

The questionnaire was sent to a combined sample population from the SAWIP programme and FVZS Institute, which means that separate data analysis for these two institutions was not possible. Cross-correlation between the elements of these two programmes was thus also not possible and correlation was restricted to the combined data received from the sample population with that of theoretical and contextual elements discussed in preceding chapters.

5.4 DATA FEEDBACK

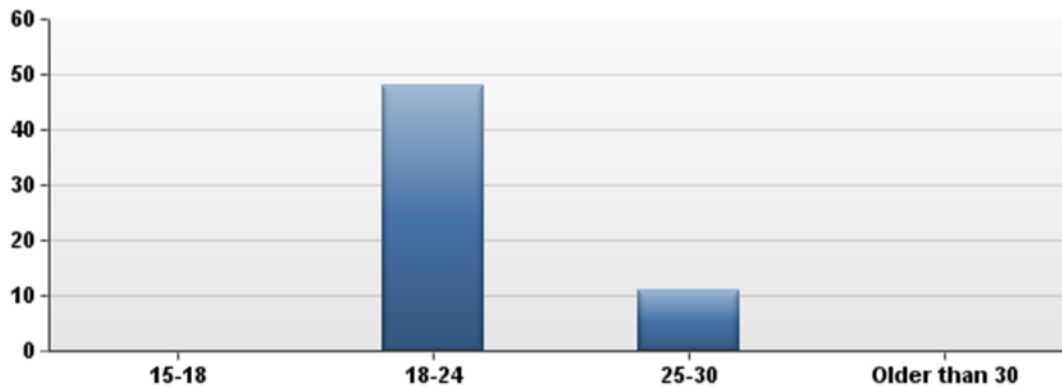
The questionnaire was sent electronically during June and July 2013 to a purposive sample population of 157 people and 59 of the sample population completed the questionnaire. This implies a 37,58 per cent response rate which is perceived by the researcher as satisfactory as the study and questionnaire are exploratory and qualitative in nature.

This section provides a graphic illustration of the feedback received on each of the 18 questions of the questionnaire. A short description of the aim and purpose of each of the 5 sections is given, followed by graphic illustrations and a critical summary of what one can deduct and identify based on the evidence received.

5.4.1 SECTION 1: RESPONDENT PROFILE

The purpose of section 1 of the questionnaire is to provide general biographical and profile information of respondents for purposes of data analysis. This includes the age and gender of respondents, their highest educational attainment, the sector in which they are employed as well as the youth leadership development programme they have participated in (SAWIP or the FVZS). The responses were as follows:

Figure 5.1: Response to Question 1
Age



Feedback on Question 1 reveals that the majority of respondents were within the target population of the study.

Table 5.1: Response to Question 2
Gender

| # | Answer | Response | % |
|---|--------|----------|------|
| 1 | Female | 40 | 68% |
| 2 | Male | 19 | 32% |
| | Total | 59 | 100% |

Table 5.2: Response to Question 3
Please indicate your highest qualification

| # | Answer | Response | % |
|---|------------------------|----------|------|
| 1 | Matric | 24 | 41% |
| 2 | Diploma | 2 | 3% |
| 3 | Bachelor's degree | 11 | 19% |
| 4 | Honours degree | 13 | 22% |
| 5 | Master's degree | 8 | 14% |
| 6 | Doctoral (PhD) | 0 | 0% |
| 7 | Other (please specify) | 1 | 2% |
| | Total | 59 | 100% |

A large part of the sample population had matric, implying that many respondents were undergraduate students. It is, however, noteworthy that if one adds the number of

respondents with Bachelor’s degrees, Honours degrees and Master’s degrees it totals 32, which represents 54,24 per cent of the total population. This reveals that more participants in both the two leadership institutions’ programmes were post-graduate scholars.

Table 5.3: Response to Question 4

Please select the sector you are currently employed in. Please select n/a if not employed.

| # | Answer | | Response | % |
|---|---------------------------------|--|----------|------|
| 1 | Private | | 11 | 21% |
| 2 | Public | | 5 | 10% |
| 3 | NGO/NPO | | 1 | 2% |
| 4 | Academic | | 4 | 8% |
| 5 | Not employed- Full time student | | 31 | 60% |
| | Total | | 52 | 100% |

The majority of respondents were full-time students at tertiary institutions.

Table 5.4: Response to Question 5

Which of the following leadership initiatives are you/have you been associated with?

| # | Answer | | Response | % |
|---|--|--|----------|-----|
| 1 | South Africa Washington International Programme (SAWIP) . Please specify which class. | | 29 | 49% |
| 2 | Frederik van Zyl Slabbert Institute for Student Leadership Development (FVZS). Please specify which course/s you did and year. | | 34 | 58% |

Feedback for Question 5 reveals that slightly more respondents came from Case 2, the FVZS Institute. This outcome was expected by the researcher as a greater number of people in the sample population who received the questionnaire had completed FVZS courses as opposed to the SAWIP programme (Case 1).

Question 6: Why did you choose to apply for and participate in the leadership initiative selected above (Question 5)?

The researcher studied and transcribed the 58 written responses received for this open-ended question. The aim of this question was to establish why respondents chose to participate in extra-curricular leadership development programmes to measure the learning expectation. In other words, what participants wanted to get out of the programme. The complete written feedback can be accessed in Addendum D.

Feedback included:

| |
|--|
| “to learn more about issues specific to South Africa and to challenge myself on two levels: 1) among fellow student leaders studying very different things from me; and 2) to test my skills in an international working environment” |
| “to engage with other young leaders on national and international issues around economics, politics and social cohesion” |
| “Critical thinking and adaptive leadership are the key tools for the future I see myself in, these opportunities are adding to my skills set” |
| “I believe that servant leadership through example and action is key to ensuring a prosperous new South Africa. The leadership initiatives I participated in provided exemplary skills and knowledge in equipping me to further the cause of the vision I have for my country” |
| “to improve my leadership skills and networking opportunities” |

The researcher identified the following topics and/or themes that were referenced by at least five respondents. One can identify these as similarities in the learning intentions of participants of the programmes. These themes are elaborated on below in greater detail.

Networking opportunities was referenced as one of the main reasons and entailed the meeting of other like-minded individuals and sharing of experiences and ideas with these individuals whilst participating in the same leadership programme.

Community engagement and service was referenced multiple times by respondents and constitute a desire to do community work with a service ethic.

Leadership skills were mentioned multiple times but represent an analytical challenge as it is general rather than specific. Nonetheless, it is noteworthy that there existed an expectation to gain leadership skills, as opposed to, for example, academic knowledge that respondents received in their formal degree programmes at university.

Enhancing employability and career opportunities: respondents felt that participation in leadership development programmes provided extra-curricular experience that would add to their employability and career opportunities. This is a realistic expectation as many of the programmes respondents participated in included partnerships with organizations that may be able to recruit them in future.

Cultural exchange was another popular reason cited by respondents and refers to exchange with individuals from other cultures within South Africa or exchanges with individuals from abroad as two of the programmes included international exchanges.

International exposure/internship was a factor attracting many of the respondents to participate in the leadership development programmes. This is mostly applicable to the SAWIP programme.

Patriotism, which refers to a commitment on behalf of respondents to serve the national interests of the Republic of South Africa, was also mentioned as a reason for participation.

Personal development was cited numerous times, referring to general personal development of respondents with a focus on the self.

Exposure to like-minded individuals was cited by respondents as a reason for participation and can be linked to the expectation for networking opportunities and the building of social capital.

The reasons listed and discussed here provides insight with regard to why young people choose to participate in leadership development programmes, and can serve as a unit of comparative analysis between expectations of potential participants and the content offering of leadership curricula.

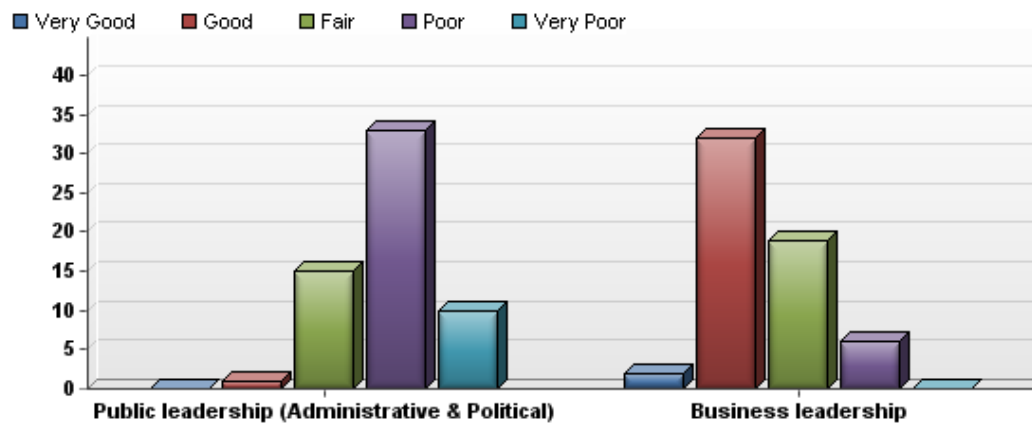
5.4.2 SECTION 2: PERCEPTIONS OF LEADERSHIP

Section 2 of the questionnaire attempted to test the perception of respondents regarding:

- The current quality South African leadership at a macro level;
- Individual leadership self-image of respondents; and
- Institutional imperatives for youth leadership development in South Africa.

Figure 5.2: Response to Question 7

Please rate the quality of leadership currently expressed in South Africa



It is clear from the graphs above that the majority of respondents perceived public leadership (defined as political and administrative leadership of public affairs) to be poor. In contrast to this the majority of respondents perceived business leadership, or leadership in the private sector, to be good. One can argue then that respondents perceive the greatest leadership inadequacies to exist in the public sector. The question did not require respondents to explain the reason for these perceptions but one can assume that it is based on what they have seen, heard and read in the media, as well as personal experience of poor leadership and management in their interactions with public institutions.

Table 5.5: Response to Question 8

Do you agree with the following statement?: I am an emerging leader with unique leadership aspirations

| # | Answer | Response | % |
|---|-------------------|----------|------|
| 1 | Strongly Agree | 30 | 52% |
| 2 | Agree | 20 | 34% |
| 3 | Somewhat Agree | 8 | 14% |
| 4 | Somewhat Disagree | 0 | 0% |
| 5 | Disagree | 0 | 0% |
| | Total | 58 | 100% |

The aim of this particular question was to test whether respondents viewed themselves as emerging leaders, and in so doing, test the leadership self-image of respondents. The overwhelming majority (86%) of respondents either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement.

Figure 5.3: Response to Question 8

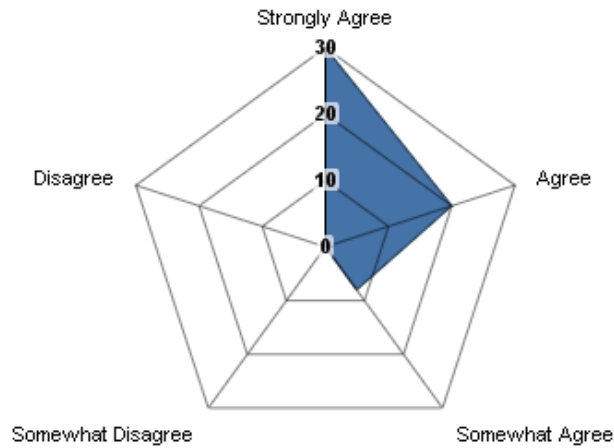


Table 5.6: Response to Question 9

Leadership development should be an imperative of the following institutions

| # | Question | Strongly Agree | Agree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Disagree | Strongly Disagree | Total Responses | Mean |
|---|-------------------------------|----------------|-------|----------------------------|----------|-------------------|-----------------|------|
| 1 | Secondary schools | 37 | 17 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 58 | 1.43 |
| 2 | Higher education institutions | 44 | 12 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 59 | 1.31 |
| 3 | Government departments | 46 | 9 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 59 | 1.32 |
| 4 | Political parties | 46 | 10 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 58 | 1.26 |
| 5 | NGOs/NPOs | 41 | 16 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 59 | 1.34 |

The highest agreement with the statement in Question 9 was for government departments and political parties (public sector), followed by higher education institutions and NGOs/NPOs. This finding is interesting as both leadership development programmes that respondents have been involved in function within a higher education institutional context. Notwithstanding this fact, respondents have identified that the public sector should play a dominant role in leadership development.

5.4.3 SECTION 3: LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT EXPERIENCE

The purpose of Section 3 of the questionnaire was to analyze and document the experiences of respondents in terms of:

- Leadership competencies gained or that they were made aware of during the programme/course they participated in;

- Monitoring the value of leadership competencies gained;
- Monitoring and evaluating the value respondents place on specific leadership learning outcomes of programme/course they participated in; and
- Measuring the level of awareness of learning outcomes of programmes and related programmatic activities.

Table 5.7: Response to Question 10

Post-completion of the programme you participated in, are you able to identify at least five (5) leadership competencies that will enable you to be an effective leader?

| # | Answer | Response | % |
|---|--------|----------|-----|
| 1 | Yes | 56 | 95% |
| 2 | No | 4 | 7% |

The majority of respondents could recall at least five generic leadership competencies, for example, listening skills or self-confidence that will enable them to be effective leaders. One can assume that the term “leadership competency” and the identification of these are well comprehended by respondents.

Question 11: Please list the three (3) most valuable leadership competencies that have enabled you to develop as a leader.

The researcher studied and transcribed the 58 written responses received for this second open-ended question. The aim of this question was to test which competencies respondents perceived as instrumental in leadership development. A myriad of skills were referenced. However, the following skills were identified the most frequently (in order of highest similarity):

1. Ability to communicate/communication skills;
2. Listening skills;
3. Interpersonal skills;
4. Self-confidence and assertiveness;
5. Understanding and internalizing servant leadership;
6. Strategic and critical thinking skills;
7. Functioning in a team context;
8. Honesty and integrity/ethical leadership;
9. Emotional intelligence;
10. Time management skills.

These findings should be transposed with those of Question 16 which invited respondents to rate the importance of the competencies and themes focused on in the curricula of both case studies. It is noteworthy that communication skills and listening skills also feature in Question

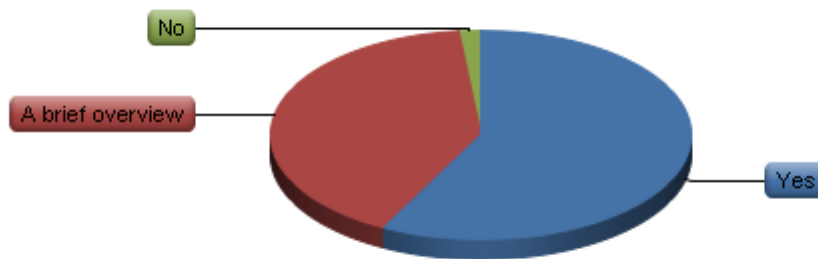
16 as two of the most important competencies for leadership development as perceived by respondents. The detailed feedback for question 11 can be found in Addendum E.

Table 5.8: Response to Question 12

Did the leadership development programme you participated in include a theoretical orientation to the concept of leadership?

| # | Answer | Response | % |
|---|------------------|----------|------|
| 1 | Yes | 34 | 58% |
| 2 | A brief overview | 24 | 41% |
| 3 | No | 1 | 2% |
| | Total | 59 | 100% |

Figure 5.4: Response to Question 12



Question 12 aimed to establish the extent to which the curriculum of the leadership programmes of Case 1 and Case 2 presented in Chapter 4 included a theoretical orientation to the concept of leadership. As illustrated by the table above, 58 per cent of respondents indicated that it did. One can, however, argue that this evidence proves that the link between the practical leadership learning interventions studied here and the academic or conceptual understanding of leadership and leadership development is relatively weak. If it were strong the numbers in the affirmative would have been higher.

Table 5.9: Response to Question 13

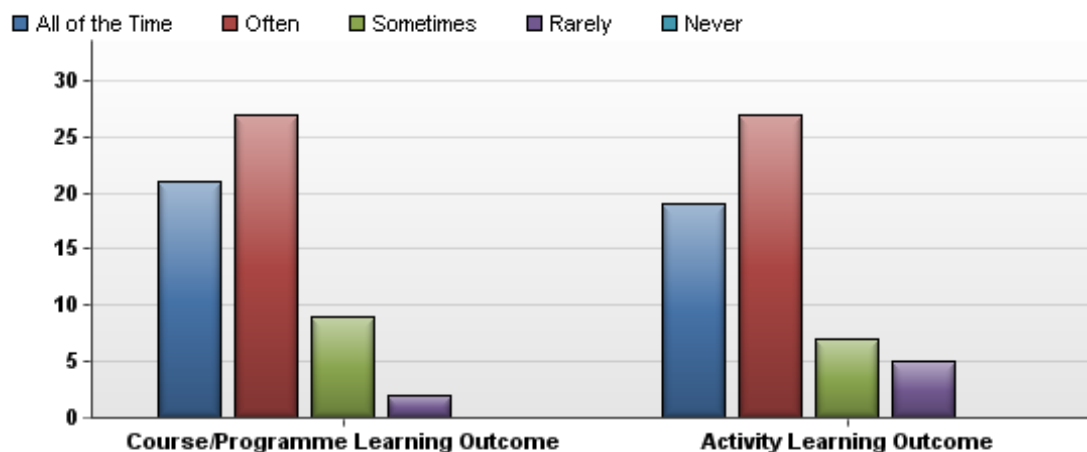
To which extent do you think it is important to learn about classical and contemporary leadership theory during a leadership development programme?

| # | Answer | Min Value | Max Value | Average Value | Standard Deviation | Responses |
|---|-------------------|-----------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|-----------|
| 1 | LEADERSHIP THEORY | 0.00 | 100.00 | 70.03 | 20.09 | 58 |

Linked to the previous question and in order to understand the linkage between theory and practice, feedback from Question 13 reveals that on average 70,03 per cent of respondents felt that it is important to learn about leadership theory during a leadership development programme. One can assume then that there may be a gap in the leadership curriculum of the programmes assessed in terms of instruction on leadership theory.

Figure 5.5: Response to Question 14

At the inception of the leadership programme you did, to which extent were you aware of the learning outcomes of the programme and its related activities?



The above question related to the conscious learning process that respondents experienced by testing their level of awareness of a) the overall programme outcomes and b) the learning outcome of a particular session or activity. The results shows that “often” is higher than “all of the time” in both instances, which one can argue is an area for improvement in the process of communicating learning outcomes to participants.

5.4.4 SECTION 4: TEACHING & LEARNING

The purpose of Section 4, titled “teaching and learning” is to analyze the experiences of respondents in terms of the effectiveness of teaching and learning methodologies used during the leadership course or programme in which they participated. Answers will provide concrete results as to which methods are most preferred and which are less preferred by

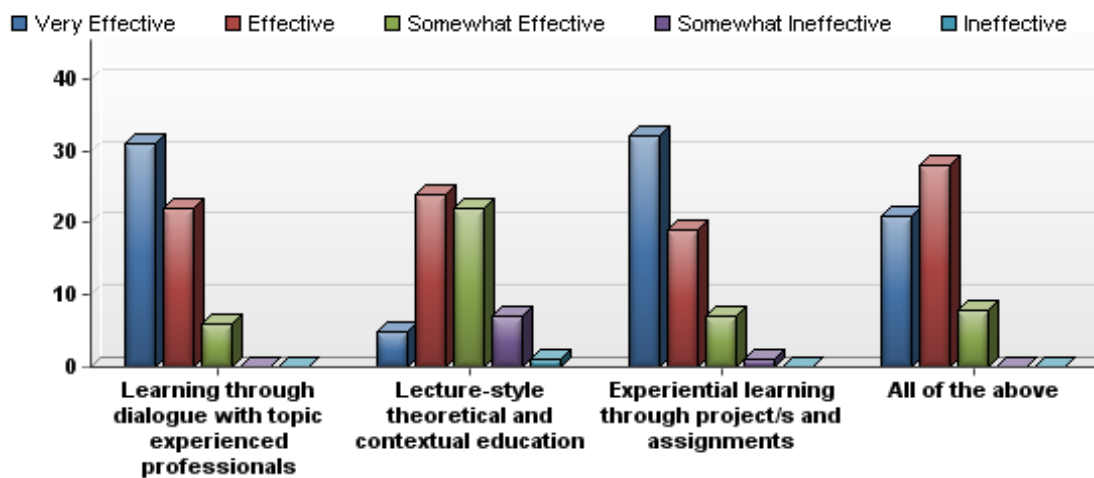
participants and inform recommendations for the curriculum structure of youth leadership development activities.

Table 5.10: Response to Question 15

Rate the level of effectiveness of the following teaching and learning methods applied in the programme you participated in.

| # | Question | Very effective | Effective | Somewhat effective | Somewhat ineffective | Ineffective | Total responses | Mean |
|---|--|----------------|-----------|--------------------|----------------------|-------------|-----------------|------|
| 1 | Learning through dialogue with topic-experienced professionals | 31 | 22 | 6 | 0 | 0 | 59 | 1.58 |
| 2 | Lecture-style theoretical and contextual education | 5 | 24 | 22 | 7 | 1 | 59 | 2.58 |
| 3 | Experiential learning through project/s and assignments | 32 | 19 | 7 | 1 | 0 | 59 | 1.61 |
| 4 | All of the above | 21 | 28 | 8 | 0 | 0 | 57 | 1.77 |

Figure 5.6: Response to Question 15



The feedback data for Question 15, presented in Table 5.10 and Figure 5.6 above, reveals that “learning through dialogue with topic experienced professionals” and “experiential

learning through project/s and assignments” were very effective among respondents, whereas “lecture-style theoretical and contextual education” scored very low in the “very effective” category. This is indicative of an experience of teaching that stands in contrast to lecture style teaching that the majority of students may encounter in their formal academic programmes at higher education institutions. The data reveals that for youth leadership development programmes the latter teaching and learning methodology is less preferred.

5.4.5 SECTION 5: LEADERSHIP SKILLS: FROM LEARNING TO ACTION

The purpose of the final section of the questionnaire is to test the extent to which certain skills and competencies transferred through the leadership learning experience have enhanced respondents’ abilities to take leadership action. The section also includes a question on which themes respondents feel are most important for leadership development programmes to include. The section concludes with a personal question to ascertain the number of respondents who have taken leadership action after completing their leadership development programmes.

Table 5.11: Response to Question 16

The following skills and competencies have developed my ability to take leadership action

| # | Answer | Min Value | Max Value | Average Value | Standard Deviation | Responses |
|----|-------------------------------------|-----------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|-----------|
| 1 | 1. Communication skills | 0.00 | 100.00 | 84.84 | 19.07 | 56 |
| 2 | 2. Public speaking | 0.00 | 100.00 | 81.35 | 20.71 | 57 |
| 3 | 3. Strategic community engagement | 0.00 | 100.00 | 75.29 | 25.32 | 56 |
| 4 | 4. Team learning | 0.00 | 100.00 | 78.57 | 20.63 | 54 |
| 5 | 5. Programme and project management | 0.00 | 100.00 | 76.96 | 19.93 | 53 |
| 6 | 6. Writing skills | 0.00 | 100.00 | 72.25 | 21.38 | 56 |
| 7 | 7. Listening skills | 0.00 | 100.00 | 85.25 | 20.03 | 51 |
| 8 | 8. Scenario planning | 0.00 | 100.00 | 69.33 | 23.02 | 55 |
| 9 | 9. Conflict management | 0.00 | 100.00 | 76.30 | 23.29 | 53 |
| 10 | 10. Mentorship & coaching | 0.00 | 100.00 | 75.56 | 22.16 | 54 |

Figure 5.7: Response to Question 16



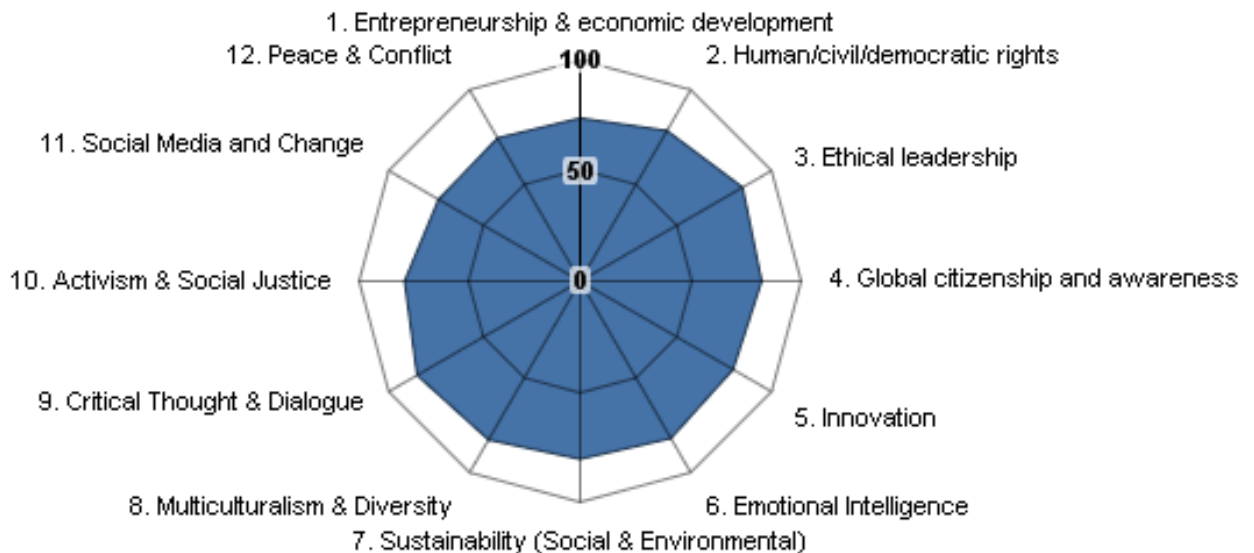
It is interesting to note that listening skills and communication skills were the two most valued competencies that enhanced respondents' leadership capabilities, whereas scenario planning scored the lowest and the remaining competencies had very similar scores. This can be ascribed to the fact that very few of the programmes presented by the FVZS Institute include a focus on scenario planning and neither does the SAWIP leadership curriculum. Scenario planning can thus be identified as a potential theme that is neglected in the leadership curricula of the two cases analysed in this study.

Table 5.12: Response to Question 17

Please rate the importance of the following themes covered in leadership development programmes.

| # | Answer | Min Value | Max Value | Average Value | Standard Deviation | Responses |
|----|--|-----------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|-----------|
| 1 | 1. Entrepreneurship & economic development | 0.00 | 100.00 | 73.76 | 23.44 | 54 |
| 2 | 2. Human/civil/democratic rights | 0.00 | 100.00 | 78.59 | 23.84 | 51 |
| 3 | 3. Ethical leadership | 0.00 | 100.00 | 84.88 | 21.49 | 51 |
| 4 | 4. Global citizenship and awareness | 0.00 | 100.00 | 82.12 | 21.93 | 50 |
| 5 | 5. Innovation | 0.00 | 100.00 | 79.90 | 21.73 | 52 |
| 6 | 6. Emotional intelligence | 0.00 | 100.00 | 82.14 | 24.12 | 50 |
| 7 | 7. Sustainability (social & environmental) | 0.00 | 100.00 | 80.53 | 21.34 | 51 |
| 8 | 8. Multiculturalism & diversity | 0.00 | 100.00 | 82.90 | 20.42 | 52 |
| 9 | 9. Critical thought & dialogue | 0.00 | 100.00 | 85.16 | 22.52 | 49 |
| 10 | 10. Activism & social justice | 0.00 | 100.00 | 79.41 | 24.26 | 49 |
| 11 | 11. Social media and change | 0.00 | 100.00 | 73.94 | 21.72 | 54 |
| 12 | 12. Peace & conflict | 0.00 | 100.00 | 74.75 | 24.37 | 51 |

Figure 5.8: Response to Question 17



In this question, respondents identified critical thought and dialogue as the most important theme to be covered by youth leadership development programmes, followed by ethical leadership and multiculturalism and diversity. Ironically, given South Africa's extensive

economic challenges, entrepreneurship and economic development scored the lowest and implies that an opportunity for curricula to focus on these themes exists.

Table 5.13: Response to Question 18

To which extent have you taken action to transfer your leadership competencies in making an impact in your/a community on a scale of 1-5 (5 being the highest)?

| # | Answer/Scale level | | Response | % |
|---|--------------------|--|----------|------|
| 1 | 1 | | 1 | 2% |
| 2 | 2 | | 9 | 18% |
| 3 | 3 | | 16 | 32% |
| 4 | 4 | | 17 | 34% |
| 5 | 5 | | 7 | 14% |
| | Total | | 50 | 100% |

The aim of Question 18 was to ascertain the extent to which respondents applied their newly acquired leadership skills in the form of community action. In this Lickert scale-based question the majority of respondents indicated that they have applied leadership skills acquired through leadership development programmes to bring about some sort of change in their communities.

5.5 IMPLICATIONS

When one considers the questionnaire feedback and integrates it with the theoretical and contextual aspects of this research in Chapters 2 and 3, one can argue that the linkage between the theoretical and contextual realities relating to youth leadership development and its programmatic practice in South Africa is relatively weak. To the researcher's knowledge this is the first study of its kind done in South Africa, notwithstanding the fact that the cases discussed in this study are not the only two institutions who do work related to youth leadership development.

Based on the data feedback one can construct a broad correlation between the data and the theoretical elements regarding leadership development in Chapter 2, thus providing a nexus between theory and practice in the context of youth leadership development. One can also deduct findings relevant to both curriculum content and the broader programmatic elements constituting leadership learning interventions in South Africa. The observation with regard to the programmatic processes of youth leadership development is compared to the proposed framework for youth leadership development presented at the end of Chapter 3. The following sections explain these findings.

5.5.1 CORRELATION WITH SIX GUIDING LEADERSHIP PRECEPTS

The data feedback brings the following insights by means of correlation to the six theoretical guiding leadership precepts discussed in 2.3 of Chapter 2. For each of the precepts one can make a connection to the findings from the case-based questionnaire.

Servant leadership: Understanding and internalizing servant leadership was identified as a critical mindset that enabled respondents to develop their leadership skills. It was also frequently cited as a reason why respondents chose to participate in leadership development programmes. The questionnaire did not test respondents' conceptual understanding of the various components of servant leadership, but one can argue that, in the minds of respondents, service and leadership were complementary. One can thus argue that there exists a strong correlation between the feedback related to servant leadership and its identification in the literature as a guiding precept for good leadership.

Thought leadership: Multiple references are made to critical thinking skills in the data feedback. It was cited as an expected learning outcome of leadership development programmes and an instrumental competency for emerging leaders to possess. Critical thinking is similar to the notion of thought leadership and one can argue that there exists a correlation between the feedback and the theoretical precept in this regard.

Ethical leadership: Respondents identified ethical leadership as both an essential competency and as a prerequisite for leadership and said that it should be an important theme in the leadership development learning process.

Effective leadership: Effective leadership was identified by respondents as a necessary response to poor public leadership and was perceived as leadership actions that bring about positive change. The notion that leadership and its effects are not neutral phenomena was thus well understood by respondents.

Resonant leadership: Respondents did not identify the concept of resonant leadership *per se*, but multiple references to functioning effectively in a team setup and understanding one's role as a leader or follower does point to an understanding of the context in which resonant and/or dissonant leadership is practised. An argument can thus be made that the concept of resonant and dissonant leadership should be more integrated in the youth leadership development programmes analyzed in this study.

Emotionally intelligent leadership: This element was cited as the ninth (out of 10) most important leadership competency that enabled respondents to develop themselves as

leaders. However, when one considers the feedback based on the three elements of emotional intelligence being: consciousness of self, consciousness of others, and consciousness of context, the correlation with each of these elements is relatively high. It would perhaps then be useful to build awareness of these sub-elements of emotional intelligence into leadership education programmes for youths.

Based on this cross-correlation between the theoretical precepts of good leadership and the data feedback, one can make generalizations and assumptions that are grounded in the sample of empirical evidence presented in this chapter. The correlation between the data and the six guiding precepts for good leadership was relatively strong, however conceptual understanding of the elements that constitute each of the six guiding precepts was only indirectly identified in some instances (e.g. emotional intelligence's sub-elements). One can assume that this is due to relatively superficial coverage of leadership theory in the programmes presented by the two institutions used as case studies.

The data also gives insight into the implications for youth leadership development curricula.

5.5.2 IMPLICATIONS FOR YOUTH LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT CURRICULUM

The following section highlights implications for the curricular content and methodology of youth leadership development programmes based on the analyzed data feedback. These implications include that:

- Learning-by-doing, for example through community service projects, and engagement with topic-specific experts/professionals proved to be the teaching methodologies with the best response.
- Communication skills, listening skills and interpersonal skills in a multicultural context were identified as competencies that are crucial to leadership development and one could investigate the development of these in greater detail in leadership curricula.
- Not all youth leadership development programmes that respondents participated in included a thorough theoretical introduction to the concept of leadership and leadership development theory, which implies a potential gap and confirms the scarcity of academic literature related specifically to youth leadership development.
- Curriculum adaptation should be based on extensive feedback and monitoring and evaluation tools applied to the leadership learning process to enable value judgements on the importance of different curricular themes or learning outcomes.

5.5.3 IMPLICATIONS FOR PROGRAMMATIC CONTEXT OF YOUTH LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT INITIATIVES

This section provides implications for the programmatic components of youth leadership development initiatives. Three general implications are discussed, followed by specific reference to the components of the proposed programmatic framework introduced in section 3.6.5 of Chapter 3.

- Most respondents viewed themselves as leaders who want to further develop their leadership skills. This implies that self-identification and acceptance of a leadership mentality often precedes participation in leadership development programmes.
- Political parties and government departments who do not have youth leadership development programmes in place should consider doing so, as respondents felt that they have a role to play in this regard.
- The findings on which themes and competencies were perceived as most important by respondents in leadership development programmes can influence the planning process of new programmes or the review of existing programmatic content.

In addition to these implications, the data feedback provides further insight to inform the content of the proposed programmatic framework for youth leadership development in the South African context which was presented in 3.5.5 of Chapter 3. Five of the seven steps in the proposed framework will benefit from the findings of the data presented above. These include:

Step 2: Setting of strategic objectives – The fact that public leadership (political and administrative) was perceived to be most problematic by respondents implies that leadership development programmes should perhaps focus more on the public leadership context as opposed to generic or non-context specific leadership development.

Step 3: Statement of learning intention through learning outcomes – The data reveals that learning outcomes exist, but respondents were not aware of them all the time during leadership learning activities. This implies a gap in the communication of learning outcomes.

Step 4: Design of curricular objectives, content and activities – The data already discussed reveals which competencies have enabled respondents to develop their leadership skills the most and which activities have the greatest learning impact.

Step 5: Establish variety of teaching and learning methods – The data confirmed that learning-by-doing through, for example, community service projects, exceeds lecture-style teaching and learning methods in the youth leadership development programmes respondents participated in.

Step 6: Development of specific leadership competencies and behavioural change – The most popular and important leadership competencies that bring about behavioural change that lead to leadership action, as perceived by respondents, was identified in the feedback and provides insight in terms of the selection of programmatic focus areas for youth leadership development.

The above observations and lessons learnt contribute to the exploratory aims of this research and have provided a previously non-existent evidence base that will inform a better understanding of youth leadership development practice in the South African context.

5.6 CONCLUSION

The goal of this chapter was to present factual findings from a qualitative semi-structured questionnaire that explored the practice of youth leadership development in South Africa from the perspective of a sample population of respondents. All respondents are graduates from either the South African Washington International Programme (SAWIP) or the FVZS Institute (or both) and their feedback served as a building block for a grounded-theory approach to youth leadership development in South Africa.

The goal of this chapter was achieved by analysing the data received in the five section of the semi-structured questionnaire. These included the profile of respondents, the perceptions of respondents of public and private sector leadership. In addition, the leadership development experience of respondents was documented and analysed as well as their preferred teaching and learning methodologies. The findings empowered the researcher to conclude with implications for youth leadership development curriculum and for the programmatic context of youth leadership development in South Africa.

The chapter integrated the empirical findings with the theoretical, contextual and case study analysis of the preceding chapters to provide an adequate response to the research questions under consideration in this study. The findings, implications and insight discussed in the latter sections of this chapter in relation to the relationship between leadership theory and youth leadership practice, as well as curricular and programmatic dynamics, is a result of making sense out of the data received from the semi-structured questionnaire.

The chapter that follows will provide a final integrated synthesis of findings that serves to inform the recommendations and conclusions of this study.

CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 SUMMARY

The goal of this research was to conduct an exploratory analysis of youth leadership development in the South African context, from both a theoretical and programmatic perspective, based on two selected case studies. The analysis provided for a better understanding of the dynamics between theoretical constructs related to youth leadership and the practice of youth leadership development in South Africa.

The substantive analysis of the research was divided into four systematic and instrumental phases, sequentially presented in Chapters 2, 3, 4 and 5. The second chapter included a detailed theoretical analysis to understand the definitions, guiding precepts, approaches and theories of leadership. Models of leadership, leadership development, and youth leadership development were also analysed.

The literary study provided the theoretical grounding for a contextual analysis of youth and youth leadership development in South Africa in Chapter 3, which represented the second non-empirical phase in the research process. The goal of this section was to investigate the strategic challenges that face South African youths and to provide insight into the environment of youth leadership development, as both a form of youth development, and as a strategic response to an apparent deficit of good public leadership in South Africa.

This was followed by Chapter 4, the goal of which was to provide an analytical presentation and discussion of two cases of institutions that specialize in youth leadership development in South Africa. The leadership philosophy and approach, curricular content, programmatic content and business models of the South Africa Washington International Programme (SAWIP) and the Frederick van Zyl Slabbert Institute for Student Leadership Development of Stellenbosch University was investigated.

Building on the content analysis of the two case studies, the final phase included an analysis of a sample of youth leadership practice in South Africa, from the perspective of participants in the two case studies analysed. The goal of this section, provided in Chapter 5, was to establish and analyze empirical evidence of the leadership learning experience of a sample of emerging South African leaders. The empirical evidence, based on findings from a semi-structured questionnaire, enabled comparative findings between leadership competencies identified by respondents and elements of youth leadership development identified in the theoretical analysis. It also provided comparative findings on the programmatic elements of

youth leadership development practice in South Africa from the perspective of participants who have been involved in this leadership learning process.

The research findings from the theoretical and contextual analysis were integrated in analytical discussions of the case-based analysis and empirical evidence presented in Chapters 4 and 5. Based on a synthesis of this analysis it is possible to make justified conclusions and recommendations with regard to the theoretical aspects of youth leadership development and its institutional practice in the South African context.

6.2 CONCLUSIONS

This section seeks to synthesise the most relevant and important conclusions of this study and not to repeat all the conclusions made at the end of each chapter. In response to the goal statement presented in the introductory chapter of this research and the goals of sequential chapters presented in this study, the following conclusions are drawn:

From a theoretical perspective one can conclude that leadership theory and its related conceptual constructs such as, for example, servant leadership and ethical leadership, can be applied to a youth context, which enables the development of a theory for youth leadership.

In addition, various authors, most notably American, have attempted to bridge the theoretical inadequacies between 'adult' leadership theory and youth leadership by establishing context-specific models for youth leadership development practice, focusing mainly on behavioural change and the transfer of competencies that can be described as leadership competencies in young people.

In terms of youth leadership development practice and context in South Africa the researcher concludes that the institutional and curricular context of youth leadership development in South Africa is not well documented, despite the existence of numerous youth leadership development programmes.

Furthermore, there exists enough programmatic content of youth leadership development practice in South Africa that can be used to develop a comprehensive model for youth leadership development.

An understanding of behaviours linked to servant leadership, ethical leadership, effective leadership, thought leadership, resonant leadership and emotionally intelligent leadership

were identified by graduates of the programmes operated by the FVZS Institute and the SAWIP. This implies that both institutions are developing leaders based on evidence of what constitutes good leadership rather than a particular political ideology.

The curricular aim, objectives and outcomes of programmes presented by the FVZS Institute are similar to those of the SAWIP programme, however, the institutional positioning of the FVZS Institute within a higher education or University context enables it to be more agile and adaptive in terms of its programmatic offering for leadership development.

Furthermore, the research has shown that international exposure in youth leadership development programmes provides for global perspectives and the broadening of world-views of emerging leaders.

In relation to leadership learning competencies that were identified in the data feedback presented in Chapter 5, the researcher concludes that communications skills, listening skills and interpersonal skills can be regarded as the most instrumental leadership competencies that enable emerging youth leaders to achieve leadership aspirations.

In addition, education on leadership theory is not dealt with extensively during the youth leadership programmes of the two cases analysed. In contrast, curriculum content focuses on the transfer of leadership knowledge and skills through learning-by-doing exercises such as team community service projects. One can conclude that by focusing mostly on these methodologies, the two programmes may be neglecting theoretical grounding of its leadership learning objectives.

Based on the summary and conclusions drawn above it is possible to propose a set of practical recommendations that address the exploratory findings of the research.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

The research content has shown that youth leadership development, as a field of practice, is not yet well organised and developed in South Africa. This implies a need for professionalization of the practice, of which an essential aspect is to conduct further in-depth research to improve contextual understanding of youth leadership development in South Africa. In response to the challenges identified in the conclusions drawn above, the researcher concludes this study with a selection of practical recommendations.

The following recommendations are made:

In relation to the theoretical aspects of youth leadership development, the researcher proposes that an extensive grounded-theory theory construction research exercise for the theoretical advancement of the concept of youth leadership development in South Africa be conducted. This academic endeavour should, ideally, be conducted in partnership with institutions working in youth leadership development.

In relation to the institutional and programmatic aspects of youth leadership development practice in South Africa the researcher recommends the following:

The establishment of a learning and knowledge exchange network of youth leadership development practitioners in an attempt to formalize the community of youth leadership development practitioners in South Africa. Peer learning, for example, the sharing of curriculum good practice can be facilitated through such a network.

The FVZS Institute should consider establishing a research unit that focuses on youth leadership development and produces knowledge resources to build the practice of youth leadership development in South Africa.

A monitoring and evaluation tool is developed to track and monitor the effectiveness of specific leadership competencies and their impact over time in the careers of graduates participating in youth leadership development curricula.

As indicated by financial pressures to sustain the operations of both case studies analyzed; government, youth development agencies and private sector institutions in South Africa are unaware of the value addition of youth leadership development programmes. This should be changed by equipping youth leadership development institutions with increased fundraising and marketing capacity.

Government policies and programmes targeted at youth should recognize the need for leadership development as a specialised form of youth development.

The National Youth Development Agency should use its allocated share of government revenue to provide for funding and support of independently operated youth leadership development interventions.

This research represented an approach to enhance youth leadership development theory and practice as a crucial form of youth development in South Africa. This study can be used by practitioners involved in the youth leadership development field that are able to implement these recommendations.

In addition, as a unique knowledge resource that builds on methodologies used in other parts of the world to study the process of youth leadership development, new programmes that seek to develop emerging South African leaders can consult this study as a point of reference.

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ADDENDUM A

2013 SAWIP leadership curriculum summary and purpose

PURPOSE & TARGET GROUP

To provide a profoundly transformative leadership development experience to selected, undergraduate and post-graduate South African students from any discipline, between the ages of 19 – 25 years, who have a commitment to social justice demonstrated by a history of service, and in this way to influence their personal, professional and social life choices, behaviours and action.

The core purpose of SAWIP's curriculum is to give effect to the preamble to the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. Through the process of transformative leadership development, for each team member, *to experience the healing of the divisions of the past* so that each one of them can, in turn, contribute towards realizing this aspiration for South Africa, and help *establish a society based on democratic values, social justice and fundamental human rights*.

ANNUAL SELECTION

A TEAM of 15 candidates, representing the significantly diverse nature of South African society, are selected annually.

TEAM METHODOLOGY

The diversity of the team – race, gender, religion and socio-economic - provides a profound learning opportunity and most curriculum opportunities are experienced in this environment.

The size of the team has been carefully considered. The number 15 is large enough to ensure diversity but small enough to ensure it remains a unit in which there can be deep and meaningful engagement.

CONTENT

The curriculum content is aimed at achieving SAWIP's Values, Vision and Mission. It is organised according to the following themes:

- VALUES & ETHICS
- DEMOCRACY
- CONTEXT, IDENTITY AND DIVERSITY
- SERVICE & COMMUNITY ENGAGEMENT
- LEADERSHIP
- TEAMS
- RESOURCE MOBILISATION
- SOCIAL & ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT: INNOVATION, ENTREPRENEURSHIP, BUSINESS
- COMMUNICATION
- PROFESSIONALISM
- GLOBAL AWARENESS & CITIZENSHIP
- RIPPLE-EFFECT

IMPLEMENTATION

This is organised in three phases:

| | | |
|-----------------|----------------------|--------------------|
| Phase 1: | South Africa | (March – May) |
| Phase 2: | Washington DC | (June/July) |
| Phase 3: | South Africa | (July – September) |

METHODOLOGIES

A variety of approaches are used:

- Presentations
- Workshops
- Discussions/Debates/Dialogues
- Site visits
- Scenario setting and Case Studies
- Reading
- Professional Exposure (short internships)
- Living with host families in DC
- Reflection (blogging and written evaluative reporting)

PRACTICAL APPLICATION

Candidates are required to:

- Continue with their ongoing community service involvements
- Implement a full service project cycle *as a Team* with the SAWIP community partner
- Share their learning through their structured engagement with young people living in marginalised communities (Team Service Project)
- Raise funds
- Write and deliver speeches in high profile environments e.g Congressional Forum; SA Embassy in DC
- Participate on panels and in discussion with experts e.g Woodrow Wilson Centre event
- Work for 5 – 6 weeks in Washington DC placements (e.g IFC, World Bank, C-Span, Congress, Corporate Council on Africa)
- Live, work and learn with SAWIP's 'sister' programmes which involve young leaders from Ireland, Israel and Palestine while in Washington DC.

ALUMNI COMMUNITY

Each Team graduates from the SAWIP programme at the end of September annually and becomes part of the Alumni Community which is organised into geographic Chapters. Activities are organised both by Chapter Leaders and SAWIP Boards. Ongoing communication within the community is through social media.

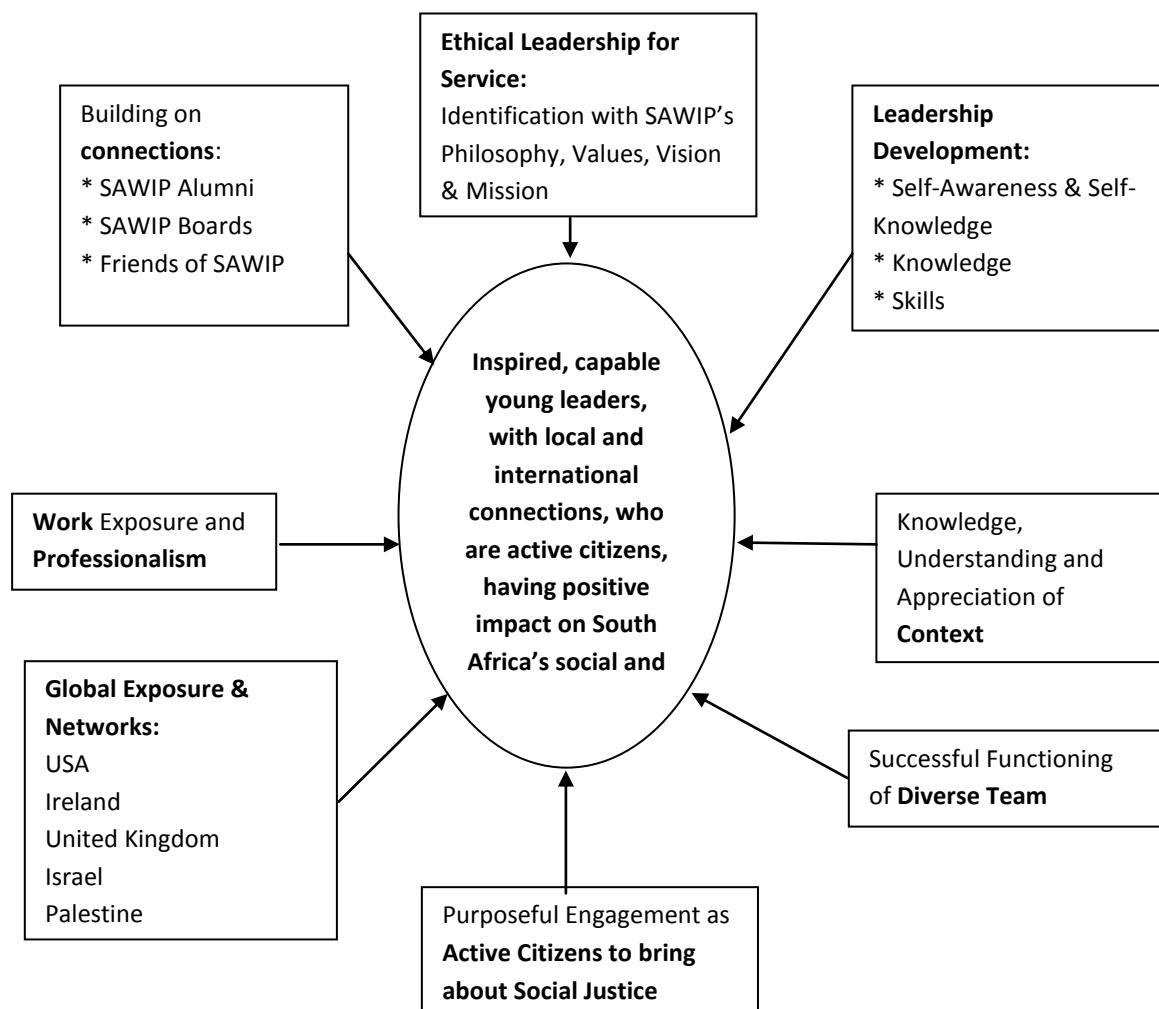
TEAM FEEDBACK

The blogs are a mine of feedback about the impact that the programme is having on the Team members. Here is just one extract:

About a month into the programme, and here we are. There's been an intensive orientation camp, we've had a number of very informative sessions and we're thinking critically about our approach to community intervention projects. I've already noticed shifts in my approach to topics and my conversations with people, even total strangers. I've never been afraid to speak but lately I've felt overtly empowered to speak and engage critically with my own and other people's opinions and perspectives. This is largely due to my interactions with my SAWIP team members. I've come to realise we don't hold back when we're discussing things, especially the debates separate from the stipulated sessions and I love it.

I have no doubt that this programme will change me. I learnt a while back that having expectations for what we may learn is a good thing but in truth the greatest lessons are the ones we're least expecting. These are the lessons that become part of our embodied knowledge that one only realises months down the line. The 15 of us come from vastly different backgrounds but we are all leaders, we are what I like to call "game-changers". There is no doubt that SAWIP is an incredible opportunity but it doesn't hold the key to our future. This programme will show me a variety of doors: countless opportunities, exposure to the unfamiliar, put me in rooms with extraordinary people but it's up to me to make use of those opportunities. For me to develop and for that development to filter down and be reflected in my community I must be ready to speak up, to engage, to challenge. Even as I write this I can feel myself getting "fired up".

What's ahead in the coming months? I don't know, just that there'll be a lot of work and sleepless nights. The other thing I'm certain of is that there'll be doors ahead of us, many doors and I for one have a bunch of keys in my hand. ..



ADDENDUM B**Leadership through community interaction:****An introduction to student-led volunteer initiatives at Stellenbosch University****1. Background**

Stellenbosch University (SU) realized that providing graduates with an excellent academic qualification is no longer sufficient. We want to develop well-rounded thought leaders who have broadened their horizons and feed what they have learnt and experienced back into society. For this reason the Frederik van Zyl Slabbert (FVZS) Institute for Student Leadership Development was founded to honour this visionary leader, alumnus and former Chancellor of SU by moulding a new generation who can lead the way into the future.

The FVZS Institute for Student Leadership Development is the latest addition to a series of new structures that provide excellent academic support and development opportunities in order to deliver successful, balanced and sought after graduates. The broader objective of the programmes is to foster ethical leadership and an understanding of students' role as leaders in an African and global context; and to develop leadership, communication, conceptual and management skills.

2. The need for a community interaction short course

Over recent years more and more SU students have sought to get involved in meaningful community interaction, giving rise to a new and innovative structure at Matie Community Service (MCS). The One-Stop Service at MCS came into existence through a collaboration of students and staff aiming to provide greater support to student-led volunteer initiatives. As interest in student-led volunteering has grown, so have efforts to better prepare students in line with best practice principles. As a joint initiative between the One-Stop Service and the FVZS Institute for Student Leadership Development, this short course will equip student leaders with the theoretical knowledge and practical understanding to lead socially responsive community interaction projects.

3. Course details

All course meetings will occur at the following times as stipulated below at MGD unless indicated otherwise. Course outcomes are specifically aligned to content along three themes: community development, project management, and leadership. Thus, attendance at all course meetings is compulsory in order to successfully complete the short course.

| Date | Content | Facilitators | Venue |
|-------------------|--|---|-----------------|
| 10 September 2011 | First Introduction to programme | All | Sonop |
| 10 September 2011 | Introduction to Community Development & Leadership | Jacob Du Plessis, Leslie van Rooi & Byron Booyesen. | Sonop |
| 20 September 2011 | Project Management, Proposal writing and Budgets | Byron Booyesen & Michelle Pietersen | Tygerberg |
| 24 September 2011 | Project Management, Proposal writing and Budgets | Lidia Rauch & Michelle Pietersen | MGD/ Middelvlei |
| 9 February 2012 | Introduction to Community Development & Leadership | Jacob Du Plessis, Leslie van Rooi & Byron Booyesen. | MGD |
| 11 February 2012 | Community Development & Leadership | Jacob Du Plessis, Leslie van Rooi & Byron Booyesen. | MGD |
| TBA | Closing Ceremony | All | TBA |

4. Course outcomes

On completion of the course, students will have demonstrated:

- An understanding and application of community development concepts, principles, and processes in practice
- An ability to shape their own service role in relation to the identified needs of a partnering community organization
- Knowledge of the project proposal drafting process
- The project management skills necessary to effectively plan, implement, and report on a community interaction project
- Socially responsive leadership
- Critical citizenship

5. Means of assessment

Assessment of course outcomes is aligned with the three different themes of the course content (community development, project management, and leadership). The means of assessment as they correspond to their respective themes are:

- Reflective journals – Community development
- Writing of business and implementation plan and budget, as well as presenting the programme to a panel – Project management
- A short written assessment – Leadership

More information on assessments will be distributed by course facilitators later at course meetings.

6. Course facilitators

- **Jacob du Plessis**- Manager projects: Division of Community Interaction; Lecturer: Sociology and Chair: Arts & Social Sciences Faculty Committee for Community Interaction (jmjdp@sun.ac.za)
- **Lidia Rauch**- Primaria: Sonop and One-Stop Service student assistant (lidiarauch@sun.ac.za)
- **Michelle Pietersen**- Project Manager: One-Stop Service at MCS (mpieters@sun.ac.za)
- **Byron Booyesen**- SRC Member: Community Interaction & External Affairs (byron@sun.ac.za)
- **Leslie van Rooi**- Head: Frederik van Zyl Slabbert Institute for Student Leadership Development (lbvr@sun.ac.za)

All general queries related to the short course can be directed towards Michelle Pietersen at mpieters@sun.ac.za .

ADDENDUM C

Invitation to complete semi-structured questionnaire on youth leadership development

Dear Emerging South African leader,

I am contacting you in my capacity as a Master's student of the **School of Public Leadership (SPL) at Stellenbosch University** to kindly request your assistance in completing a short questionnaire related to **the development of emerging South African leaders**.

You have been selected as a suitable candidate to fill in a questionnaire related to leadership development in South Africa by virtue of your past or current involvement in SAWIP or leadership programmes presented by the FVZS of Stellenbosch University. This questionnaire forms part of my Master's Thesis research on youth leadership development. The purpose of this research is to explore the dynamics of programmatic interventions for youth leadership development in South Africa and how such programmes can be optimised for maximum impact.

All data obtained from the questionnaires will be treated as confidential and anonymous. Should you wish to receive a copy of the final research report, kindly provide a forwarding e-mail address for this purpose.

The questionnaire has **5 sections** and **should not take longer than 10 minutes** to complete. Could you please complete the questionnaire by following the link given below before **Friday 3 May 2013/ Friday 10 May 2013 (If sent out on Monday 8th April 2013/If sent out on Monday 15th April 2013)**

Questionnaire link:

Your contribution to this research is invaluable and highly appreciated.

Kind regards

Petrus van Niekerk

SAWIP Board Member

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www.sawip.org

<http://blogs.sun.ac.za/fvzs/about-the-institute/>

ADDENDUM D

Why respondents participated in leadership development programmes. Detailed feedback on Question 6.

| Text Response |
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| I am currently coordinating the course, along with one of my colleagues at the International Office. The concept of Global Citizenship is something that I feel strongly about and the outcomes that we have identified for the course I consider to be valuable graduate attributes for the participants of the course. |
| To improve my leadership skills and networking opportunities. |
| I want to expand my network and develop myself as a future leader in South Africa. |
| I enjoy doing community work and helping out. |
| I was particularly interested in the internship opportunity it presented me with. |
| I wanted to develop my leadership skill and get exposed to what other young South African leaders are doing. |
| It was a good way to develop as a person, obtain a broader perspective. |
| Personal development and employer requirements. |
| The Short Course I was able to get involved in was centered around a topic near to my heart, Community Interaction. I wanted to further my knowledge and develop new skills. |
| To learn more about the issues specific to South Africa and to challenge myself on two levels: 1) among fellow student leaders studying very different things to me; and 2) to test my skills in an international working environment. |
| To enhance my skills as a young leader and make a meaningful contribution to the development of my community and country. |
| Good opportunity, personal development, networking. |
| To better understand the role of young South Africans (and student leaders) in developing South Africa. |
| To expose myself to different ways of thinking and to learn. |
| I wanted to improve my leadership skills and meet new people. |
| I was keen to develop my leadership and interaction skills at this stage of my life. |
| I wanted to broaden my horizons and for self-development |
| I wanted to get involved in voluntary work and thought it would be a good way to equip myself with the skills needed to be a good volunteer. |
| To acquire leadership skills. |
| I want to work in community development and I was intrigued by the sessions on women leadership. |
| Intellectual stimulation; community engagement. |
| It was a relevant course which I qualified for and provided necessary information to further my leadership skills. |
| Sustainable Development. |
| Personal development, furthering career and life objectives. |
| Wanted to learn new leadership skills. Wanted to learn how to communicate with different people. |
| 1. Passion for leadership and South Africa 2. Personal Benefit. |
| To meet like-minded individuals, to learn more about the short course topics and to develop my leadership skills. |
| Broaden knowledge base and equip myself. |
| Cultural exchange, international approach to knowledge. |
| To learn how to add value to my community. |

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| Wonderful opportunity to experience a prestigious internship in the USA as well as be exposed to interesting and influential peers and guest speakers. |
| To engage with other young leaders on national and international issues around economics, politics and social cohesion. |
| For personal development. |
| Leadership development and exposure. |
| Leadership growth, and professional exposure. |
| Critical thinking and adaptive leadership are the key tools for the future I see myself in, these opportunities are adding to my skill set. |
| An opportunity to learn how to use my skills and ideas to better South Africa and Africa. |
| Self-Development. |
| Personal Development. |
| Self-development |
| I believe that servant leadership through example and action is key to ensuring a prosperous new South Africa. The leadership initiatives I participated in provided exemplary skills and knowledge in equipping me to further the cause of the vision I have for my country. |
| To meet like-minded young South Africans. For the personal development benefit. |
| I wanted to grow personally and felt that I have leadership potential. |
| Improve leadership skills. |
| Improve leadership skills. |
| Broad exposure and intensive leadership development. |
| Personal Development, making a difference. |
| Leadership Exposure. |
| Cultural, leadership and professional as well as international experience and exposure. |
| Leadership is one of my passions in life, to meet others with a passion for it. |
| For preparation in various leadership roles in my future. |
| Ethos of service leadership and the opportunity for growth. |
| My own leadership development, for personal enrichment and because I want to better equip myself to make a valuable contribution to our country and internationally. |
| Improve my leadership skills. |
| For personal development. |
| Transformative ability through leadership. |
| To gain exposure to like-minded individuals and to gain international work experience. |
| To develop my leadership skills and knowledge on global issues and interact with like-minded young people. |

ADDENDUM E

**Three most valuable competencies that enable respondents to develop as leaders.
Detailed feedback on Question 11.**

| Text Response |
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| Being able to identify potential in others. Being able to be a better listener. Being able to encourage and inspire others. |
| The ability to communicate; ethical leadership to enable a further culture of ethical leadership; responsible citizenship. |
| Servanthood, mutual respect, patience. |
| Perfect at school, hockey coach and class leader. |
| Strong interpersonal skills. Problem Solver / Innovator. Value diversity. |
| Visionary, Ambitious, Humility. |
| Open-mind, hard work and perseverance. |
| Ability to adapt to change. Willingness to be quiet and listen to a team rather than telling them what I thought. Giving each member of a team a role to play and responsibility to deal with made them more invested in the overall goal because they felt a sense of achievement as well. |
| Compassion. Ability to Motivate. Enthusiasm. |
| Service Leadership, Situational Leadership, Goal setting and attainment planning. |
| 1) Vision / Imagination 2) Communication (written and verbal) 3) Project Management strategic thinking, developing vision and celebrating diversity. |
| Confidence, public speaking, networking skills. |
| Passion for/Develop others. Visioning/Strategy. Accountability. |
| I have learned how to listen to people and their different views. I work well with other people. Humility. |
| 1. I am confident. 2. I am a good public speaker. 3. I can work with all kinds of people and personalities. |
| Understanding differences in people's personalities and how to deal with it. Understanding individual needs within a project or operation, and how to optimize that for the benefit of the outcome. Realizing that being a servant leader is more important than obtaining your personal desired effect. |
| Critical Thinking. Time Management. Conflict Resolution. |
| Sensitivity to the differences between people, allowing and encouraging participation of community members, empowering people to make positive changes and carry on with them once the project is over. |
| Respect. Patience. Compromise. |
| Ability to empower others, ability to be inclusive, ability to listen. |
| Interpersonal communication skills, taking initiative, organization skills, |
| Vision, courage, authenticity. |
| Ability to deal with varied personalities/ ability to relate to people/ ability to draw various opinions and viewpoints together. |
| Communication. Cultural Intelligence. Planning. |
| 1. Assertiveness. 2. Emotional Intelligence. 3. Humility. |
| The importance of effective communications, the way that leaders need to be open to new ideas and initiatives and that a leader can develop their skills for the rest of their lives (not just when in the position of leadership). |
| Formulate a vision. Build a great team and develop the leadership skills of team members. Communication skills. |
| Empathy. Vision. Pro-activity. |
| Self-confidence, being able to work in a team and respect the values and opinions of others. |
| Willingness to take responsibility, communicating effectively and direction. |
| Negotiation. Tolerance. Empathy. |

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| Patience, the ability to follow and opportunity identification. |
| Public speaking. Team work. Servant-leadership. |
| 1) Time Management 2) Good Listening Skills 3) Broader mindset to solving problems. |
| Critical thinking, synthesis, awareness/reflection. |
| Confidence, empathy, efficiency. |
| Respect . Transparency. Humility. |
| Communication, Time Management, Insight. |
| Emotional intelligence (people skills), reading the context, generating ideas. |
| Self-awareness. Having a global mindset. Effective communication skills. |
| Critical thinking; openness towards the views of others; effective communication. |
| 1. Confidence. 2. Communication skills. 3. Conceptualization and social analytical skills. |
| Understanding the relationship between a leader and those he/she leads. How to manage people effectively, the necessity to inspire people to follow you. |
| Honesty & integrity. Ability to deal with complexities. Ability to inspire others. |
| 1. Working in a team as well as leading one. 2. Time management/efficiency. 3. Directed vision. |
| Reflective personal understanding of skills and weaknesses, ability to utilize these to their best advantage, including the strengths and weaknesses of others to facilitate the optimum outcome. |
| Listening, Effective Communication of Goals, and Leading by Example. |
| Listen. Lead. Follow. |
| Being inclusive. Being a good listener. Leading by example. |
| Collaborative decision making; listening skills and the ability to make tough decisions; leading by example (leading honestly and with integrity). |
| Communication skills, analytic skills and motivation. |
| 1. Compassion 2. Active Listening Skills 3. Appreciating and utilizing difference (diversity). |
| External awareness. Communication skills. Vision. |
| Time management, presentation of self, being accountable. |
| Understanding of cultural complexities. Vision of new possibilities. Enhance sense of caring. |
| Humility, diligence, the ability to acknowledge one's weaknesses. |
| 1) Interpersonal Skills 2) Self-Confidence 3) Acknowledging my role as a leader and knowing that I must act on it. |