EDUCATIONAL LEADERS AS CHANGE AGENTS

MEETING AN UNCERTAIN FUTURE

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EDUCATIONAL LEADERS AS CHANGE AGENTS:
MEETING AN UNCERTAIN FUTURE

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Introduction

Mualla Aksu

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This book is the proceedings of 21st Annual Conference of ENIRDELM, which was held in Antalya, Turkey, on 27-29 September 2012 in collaboration with the University of Akdeniz. The conference focused on the uncertainty of the future in this rapid changing world and the role of educational leaders as change agents. The conference theme was *"Educational Leaders as Change Agents: Meeting an Uncertain Future".* The conference aimed at opening a new gate to theoretical and practical discussions about exploring the uncertain future and the role of educational leadership in uncertain future. The written and orally shared views and suggestions at the conference were spread and inspired extensive discussions on educational leadership.

The theme of the conference and the conclusions which are drawn were also expected to inspire discussions and new efforts on the reform of the Turkish educational system. There are approximately seventeen million students in the Turkish educational system with more than seven hundred thousand teachers and forty six thousand schools, not including higher education. At the beginning of 2012-2013 school year, the Ministry of Education changed the school structure to a 4+4+4 system where there are 4 year primary, 4 year middle and 4 year high school- starting at the age of 5.5 years old as compulsory education. Before this, the compulsory education started at the age of 6 and lasted 8 years, including 5 year primary and 3 year middle school under the administration of the same principal. In addition, some curricula and course contents have already been changed. Some issues and problems arising from this new application are still being discussed among educators, academics, and parents in the

country because the project was not discussed by all those affected beforehand. Some stakeholders think that this is a huge change. Therefore, more discussion and compromise is needed before making decision. Registration of different age groups at the same school year created some issues such as increased number of the first grade students, unbalanced teacher employment, dual training and long school hours due to lack of the classrooms. For all these reasons, the activities of ENIRDELM 2012 conference provided us new knowledge and invaluable experience as teachers and teacher educators.

A diverse group of researchers, consultants, school teachers, principals, trainers and policy makers could participate in the conference and shared ideas, research findings and experiences bearing in mind the ENIRDELM mission of improving educational leadership.

The number of the total participants was 81, and 59 of them are from abroad and 22 of them are from Turkey. The 13 countries represented at the conference are the following: Belgium (3), Czech Republic (2), Finland (8), Hungary (2), Iceland (3), Ireland (4), Latvia (6), Macedonia (2), Netherlands (1), Norway (10), Poland (2), Slovenia (4), and Sweden (12).

This volume contains submitted papers that were presented at the conference as well as one keynote speech. There were 9 sessions with 31 paper presentations in the conference program. Fourteen articles including keynote speaker's text were submitted by the participants to the local committee. The first keynote was Dr. Jaroslav Kalous from Czech Republic, and his topic was "STEEPLED Analysis for Education Leaders". The second keynote was Dr. Hasan Şimşek from Turkey and his topic was "Leaders as Change Agents: Reforming Educational Systems in the Face of Ambiguity". Out of thirty-one paper presentations and four workshop sessions, thirteen papers were submitted to be published in the proceedings. Papers are organized according to the chronological presentations by the speakers. I truly believe that readers will be satisfied with the comprehensive ideas and interesting findings presented in the articles.

I think this book is the most valuable product of the ENIRDELM 2012 conference. Therefore, I would like to thank all our supporters. Firstly, I should thank our devoted board members, voluntary permanent secretary, local conference committee, distinguished keynote speakers, paper presenters, workshop leaders, and all other participants. I am grateful to

the institutions for giving our participants the opportunity to visit them - Akdeniz University Faculty of Education, Private TED Antalya College, Mehmet Akif Ersoy Preschool, and Antalya Technical and Vocational High School- for their invaluable contribution. And special thanks to Private TED Antalya College performing an ear-catching chamber orchestra and choir by their students before the opening ceremony. I also appreciate the Rectorate of Akdeniz University for their supports during the conference.

I would also like to thank Deniz Atam and Fırat Küçüktezcan that are managers at the conference venue, The Porto Bello Hotel. Bilkon Tourism Organization worked with our local team in full collaboration during the conference process and I am grateful to Yelis Yenigün, Fatih Ünlü, and Bahar Kul for their invaluable support.

Lastly, I would like to thank all the authors submitting us their articles for publishing in a traditional way as ENIRDELM conference proceedings. A special thank goes to Özer Daşcan and Anı Publishing for their efforts in the presentation of this book. I hope this book will be beneficial and useful for all the readers not only researchers and graduate students but also practitioners working in formal and non-formal educational institutions.

STEEPLED Analysis for Education Leaders

Jaroslav Kalous

Charles University

Abstract

We live in an exciting time of radical global, societal and systemic changes. These changes present both opportunities and challenges for us, as educators, in how we respond to the changes and challenges around us and how we lead education into the future. The purpose of this paper is a kind of a STEEPLED (Social, Technological, Economical, Ecological, Political, Legal, Ethical and Demographical) analysis-scanning the external surroundings of our educational institutions in all important aspects in order to think about the role of education in relation to this background.

Key words: *globalisation, demography, environment, evolutionary* psychology, education

Introduction

The number of people on the Earth has already exceeded 7 billion. When I was born sixty years ago, there were only 2.5 billion. This exponential growth has far-reaching consequences. It influences our own lives and life on our planet in general. But it is not possible to open our eyes and to see that. Our senses have evolved to deal only with near-at-hand information; direct perception of information that involves the whole planet is difficult.

Unlimited growth is unsustainable within a limited system, as our planet certainly is. What does it mean? What are the consequences? What should we do? Reflection of such questions is the contents of this paper.

State of the world

Demographic-economic paradox

The higher GDP per capita, the fewer children are born in any industrialized country. Mortality rates are low, birth control is understood and easily accessible, and costs of child-rearing are often deemed very high because of education, clothing, feeding, and social amenities. In addition, lengthy periods of higher education often mean that women start to have children later in life.

In developing countries on the other hand, families desire children for their labour and as caregivers for their parents in old age. Fertility rates are also higher due to the lack of access to contraceptives, generally lower levels of female education, and lower rates of female employment in industry.

Ageing

The world is ageing. With only a few exceptions, this process is taking place in every country and region across the globe. Population ageing arises from two demographic effects: increasing longevity and declining fertility. In 1900, the global average lifespan was just 31 years and even in the richest countries below 50 years. In 2005, the average global lifespan reached 66 years; over 80 years in some countries.

Consumption

An exponentially growing population needs to be matched by exponential growth of food production, extraction of raw materials, building homes, roads, etc. People are living longer, and urbanisation and population expands most in regions where it is most difficult to provide for basic material needs. Since World War II humanity has consumed more natural resources than during the whole of previous history (Laszlo, 2003).

Environment

Population growth also brings rapid growth of other problems. Each problem multiplied by seven billion involves enormous quantities (for example, if everyone will have one fish a day, 7 billion of fish would need to be caught every day). More precisely, the problem is not population growth as such, but the growth of consumption. The environmental burden is caused not only by numbers but also by increasingly affluent lifestyles.

Some examples of the consequent environmental problems are: soil erosion, desertification, deforestation, air and water pollution, water contamination by toxic substances, depletion of stocks of oil and mineral resources, flushing the soil into rivers and water reservoirs, spread of human habitation on to arable land, falling ground water levels, shrinking wilderness area, global warming, radioactive waste, acid rain, and so on.

The Ecological Footprint is a measure of humanity's demand on nature. It measures how much land and water area a human population requires to produce the resource it consumes and to absorb its wastes, using present technology. Humanity is now using nature's renewable services 50 % faster than the rate at which the Earth can renew them.

The Ecological Footprint of our species has more than doubled since 1966. In 2007, the most recent year for which data are available, humanity used the equivalent of 1.5 planets to support its activities. Even with modest UN projections for population growth, consumption and climate change, by 2030 humanity would need the capacity of two Earths to absorb carbon dioxide waste and keep up with natural resource consumption (2012 Living Planet Report).

Mass extinction

The last global mass extinction which eliminated the dinosaurs and many other species was most likely caused by an asteroid hitting the earth. This happened sixty-five million years ago. Another similar catastrophic extinction of species is happening now. We are causing it and most humans are not aware of it. Only a tiny fraction of humans are aware.

The numbers are the following: At the minimum, twenty-five thousand species are going extinct every year. If humans' activity were otherwise, or if humans were not here, it is estimated that there would be one species going extinct every five years. We have pushed up the natural extinction rate a hundred thousand times. Human activity is actually eliminating some forms of life.

Twenty global problems

Ten years ago, Rischard (2002) has published a book "*High Noon. Twenty Global Problems, Twenty Years to Solve Them*". Ten years later (and ten years before the announced deadline) we are not very far down the road to

solutions. Let´s just check them; they are divided into three groups:

Sharing our planet: Issues involving the global commons

- ✓ Global warming
- ✓ Biodiversity and ecosystem losses
- ✓ Fisheries depletion
- ✓ Deforestation
- ✓ Water deficits
- ✓ Maritime safety and pollution

Sharing our humanity: Issues requiring global commitment

- ✓ Massive step-up in the fight against poverty
- ✓ Peacekeeping, conflict prevention, combating terrorism
- ✓ Education for all
- ✓ Global infectious diseases
- ✓ Digital divide
- ✓ Natural disaster prevention and mitigation

Sharing our rule book: Issues needing a global regulatory approach

- ✓ Reinventing taxation for the 21st century
- ✓ Biotechnology rules
- ✓ Global financial architecture
- ✓ Illegal drugs
- ✓ Trade, investment and competition rules
- ✓ Intellectual property rights
- ✓ E-commerce rules
- ✓ International labour and migration rules

Why we are unable to solve global problems

Unconcern

Václav Havel started the series of Forum 2000 conferences with the following statement (Havel et al, 2007): "*It seems to me that what is critical now is not to point out again and again such horrors that may be lying in wait unless our global civilisation changes its essential direction. Today the most important thing, in my view, is to study the reasons why humankind does nothing*

to avert the threats about which it knows so much, and why it allows itself to be carried onward by some kind of perpetual motion - basically unaffected by self-awareness or a sense of future options and, as it seems, virtually incapable of being affected."

People need to believe in progress in their lives. Thinking about the loss of the all good things and the inevitability of decline would deprive life of its positive perspective and dynamic. Alarming information about the state of our world, similar to that above, appears in the media among floods of other horrors; anyone wishing to can easily get it. However, people read a negative vision with the same interest as they would watch a horror movie on television, nothing else. It is distant and abstract; it is uncomfortable to think about. People do not speak about such things publicly; it is as much a social taboo as the topic of death, for example.

Lack of global cohesion

Currently there is a steadily growing gap between the need for comprehensive global action to save our civilization and the ability of humanity to agree on such action. The problem is not in communication technologies; on the contrary they have interconnected the whole world. The whole world hears of an assassination on the other side of the globe in a few minutes. Some events (Olympic Games, World Cup competitions, the selection of Miss Universe) are watched simultaneously by billions of people on their TV screens. But we are not brought closer to each other in this way. "Humanity" is a term we use, but it has a minuscule influence on our seeing, thinking, feeling and acting.

The most important issues of the coming decades are global in nature, and therefore, their solutions must be at the global level. Factors that impede solutions seem to be similar everywhere in the world and are largely independent of ethnicity and culture. An International Panel identifies as the most serious (Glenn, Gordon, 2010):

- ✓ Lack of interest in the needs of future generations
- ✓ Caring for the welfare of one group or one nation
- ✓ Corruption of officials decision-makers (politicians)
- ✓ Waste
- ✓ Greed and selfishness

Individualism

The extreme individualism of western society is unlikely to be changed. It is a form of individualism, in which man is himself a goal, the purpose of life itself and in which everything else assumes a secondary role.

There is prevailing belief that individuals are behaving rationally, when they can satisfy their needs and wants, without assuming responsibility for possible consequences. The sense of community responsibility has diminished and individuals feel little collective responsibility for anything beyond themselves and those close to them.

Evolutionary psychology

Man and his predecessors spent a million years evolving in small, clearly defined and enclosed groups of hunters and collectors, usually numbering several dozen individuals. This way of life shaped us. Our patterns of congenital behaviour were developed as an adaptation to the environment during this long period, which constitutes 98% of our species history.

We used to care for the children, keep a fire, fight with the animals and survive the winter. But our predecessors did not have to take care of abundant nature. Hunter-gatherers in the Stone Age did not have any mercy on nature. They hunted and gathered, cut down and burned whenever it seemed appropriate. Damage was limited, because there were few people, so there was no reason to restrict human activity. From being a small group on the relatively huge planet, humanity has evolved to seven billion on a now relatively tiny overcrowded planet.

During the development of civilization over the past ten thousand years our biology has not changed. While there has been enormous cultural development, our emotions, instincts and restricted ways of thinking have remained the same. In this respect, we do not differ from our ancestors, the reindeer hunters of the Ice Age. The mentality of Stone Age persists, "transplanted" into modern society.

Humans are programmed to work with relatives and to some extent even with unrelated individuals, but only in groups of a certain size. Nor are humans programmed by evolution to look into the not-too-distant future: why should our ancestors have been interested in what happens

fifty years ahead? They had to deal many more important current challenges. We are prisoners of deeply ingrained archaic thinking, which is concerned only with immediate causes and consequences. We may sense that the destruction of the environment will finally lead to our extinction, but we are still directed by our evolution not to be concerned about it, we do not seem to mind. Now we have no more time to learn the trial-and-error.

Led by the hand of natural selection, we strive to continue to spread our own genes and the genes of our tribe. Human inability to see further than beyond the next few years will make us pay a high price. So will the fact that we are not programmed to work together beyond the narrow structures of our social world. Our hunter-collector morality is inadequate for the third millennium. Global problems require extensive cooperation. In its current stage of development, humanity neither wants to deal with this issue, nor is it capable of doing so.

"People were never able to think about more than a year or two ahead - but now it becomes fatal for them. Most remarkable among all other risks is that people refuse to note all the mess, about which they do not care... Humanity is considered to be six billion individuals, each is thinking of its individual life extension in tragi-comic way rather than of the fate of mankind" (Machovec, 2002).

What to do?

What sense of existence does humanity have? Could it be living to the age of 100 without diseases and problems? Ever increasing standards of living? Travel into the cosmos? Nobody formulates the targets of humankind, but one thing is clear: for at least two hundred years we have been dominated by the religion "growth of Growth", based on the thesis that the purpose of life is to accumulate as many goods and to experience as many material delights as possible.

All social and political efforts are focused on achieving and maintaining the fastest possible pace of economic growth. The consequence is a constant acceleration, flattening and materialization of life which goes hand in hand with the degradation of personal relationships, pollution of nature and playing down these facts.

Environmental problems are taken as the justifiable side effects of economic growth. Continuous increase in material production and

consumption absorbs increasing resources extracted from our basic resource - nature. We assume that in order to live better, we need to produce more, profit more, and contaminate more. The consequences are largely permanent, which means that the current situation is unsustainable. Natural resources will be exhausted, the only question is when. The availability of resources is geometrically shortened by accelerating economic growth. In the consistently limited system (Earth) everything is growing (exponentially) and the time gets thicker.

The ship is slowly sinking, but we do not feel anything. The coming disaster waits for our children and grandchildren. They do not know it too, and happily enjoy even more than we do. The Zeitgeist is hedonism; the goal is to maximize pleasure with a minimum of suffering, as if we came to this planet just to "lick the life".

There is no reason to be surprised: we always knew that the civilisations are ceasing and that the life ends with a death (Robinson Jeffers). In relation to fatal reality we can adapt the Kübler-Ross model (Kalous, 2010):

Denial – "This can't be happening. "

Anger – "Why? Who is to blame?"

Bargaining "I'll do anything for a few more years."; "I will give my life savings..."

Depression – "I'm so sad, why bother with anything? „

Acceptance - "It's going to be okay."; "I can't fight it, I may as well prepare for it. „

On the question of whether I am an optimist or a pessimist, I answer that my knowledge is pessimistic, but my longing and hope are optimistic (Albert Schweitzer).

Education for tomorrow

We find ourselves now at a time of paradigm shift in our understanding and commitment to economic growth. What is taken as beyond doubt is the value of education. Education is improving quality of peoples' lives through multiple pathways (OECD, 2001):

- strengthening peoples´ skills and abilities and thus helping people to become more productive and earn more (add to their human capital);

- giving more people better opportunities (and thus extend equity);
- promoting social development through strengthening social cohesion (enlarging social capital);
- improving health and nutrition;
- enriching lives directly (e.g. the pleasure of intelligent thought and the sense of fulfilment it gives).

Both individuals and countries benefit from education. For individuals, the potential benefits lie in general improvement in the quality of life and in the economic returns of sustained, satisfying employment. For countries, the potential benefits lie in economic growth and the development of shared values that underpin social cohesion. Education thus contributes, within the context of a sound macro-economic and political environment, to the entire society's growth and development, which in turn elevates quality of all people´s lives (Dalai Lama, Muyzenberg, 2008).

Education has become more important than ever before in influencing the well-being of individuals, communities and nations (Schleicher, 2012). The world is undergoing changes that make it much more difficult to thrive without the skills and tools that a high quality education provides (OECD 2010). Education determines who holds the keys to the treasures the world and life can furnish.

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School leaders as agents of change - a case study on how two head-teachers are trying to implement the learning study method in their school

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to describe and problematize the challenges that two head teachers meet when they try to implement the Learning Study method in an upper secondary school in Sweden. Another purpose is to discuss what strategies they use to handle the problems that continuously show up. The study is conducted as a case study that focuses on the initial implementation phase. The results, so far, show that it is relatively easy to engage interested teachers, in this case a group of teachers in history. However, there were also difficulties in creating time to synchronize appointments for the teachers involved, in order to plan, co-operate on and conduct their Learning Study teaching. It is likely that the major challenge in the next phase will be how this way of working can spread to more teachers at the school as a mainstream method.

Key words: *school leader, change agent, case study, head-teacher, learning study method*

Introduction[1]

Teaching has in recent years come to be in focus all over the globe (see eg Hattie, 2010), as well as in Sweden.

> The competence profile for teachers deals with, among other things the ability to pay attention to each pupil, to teach, to communicate and collaborate, to be able to exercise leadership and to have knowledge of laws and regulations that govern the school. (National Agency for Education (Skolinspektionen), 2011, p 59) [Note: Our translation]

A prestigious report about successful education systems from McKinsey

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[1] This paper takes its starting-point in a paper (Lundgren & von Schantz Lundgren, 2011) and in an article (Lundgren & von Schantz Lundgren, 2012) that we previously published. In both cases, the purpose was to describe the methods Lesson Study and Learning Study and also discuss if these methods would be possible for vocational teachers to use as a way to develop their teaching.

& Company (2007) accentuates the importance of teachers' cooperation, in order to develop their teaching.

> /…/ , some of the best systems have found ways to enable teachers to learn from each other. Teachers in most schools work alone. In a number of the top systems, particularly those in Japan and Finland teachers work together, plan their lesson jointly, observe each other's lessons and help each other improve. These systems create a culture in their schools in which collaborative planning, reflection and instruction, and peer coaching are the norm and constant features of school life. This enables teachers to develop continuously (McKinsey & Company, 2007, p.28)

This can also be said to be characteristics and ideas that lies behind to use Learning Study as a method in teaching.

> If one wants to improve pupils' learning is the most effective focusing on one lesson in the classroom environment. The educational changes are planned from the very beginning in the classroom. The challenge is to identify what kinds of changes that will improve pupils learning in the classroom and when these changes are identified sharing this knowledge with other teachers who have similar problems or similar goals. (Marton, 2005, p 106) [Note: Our translation].

The Swedish National Agency for Education (Skolverket, 2011, p 57) writes in a report about the situation in Swedish schools about the necessity to: "Develop the forms for the teachers' systematic and professional conversation about teaching in the daily activities" [Note: Our translation]. However, to introduce and use the Learning Study as a method is not just a matter of the teaching. It is also a question of how head teachers are able to create necessary conditions for the teaching and to support teachers in their work. A report from the Swedish Schools Inspectorate (Skolinspektionen, 2010) revealed that in every third school inspected, the head teacher was not sufficiently confident with the daily work and did not in practice act as an educational leader.

> The head teacher in many schools is not sufficiently confident with the work of the school and do not have the role as educational leader in the practical work. The head teacher must in a clearer and more active way take initiative to educational development. (Schools inspectorate, (Skolinspektionen) 2010, p 4) [Note: Our translation].

The purpose of this paper is to describe and problematize the challenges the two head teachers are meeting, when they are going to implement the

Learning Study method in an upper secondary school. Another purpose is to discuss what strategies they use. However, we are not arguing that the method Learning Study is the best teaching method, in this case it just serves as an example, albeit we presume it is a useful method to collectively develop teachers' teaching. It could, just as well, have been any pedagogical method. On the other hand, the long term aim with this study is to investigate if the Learning Study method is a useful way to improve teachers' teaching and pupils' learning.

Collection of data

This case study is part of an on-going research of a project with the aim of implementing the Learning Study method in a Swedish upper secondary school. The project started at the turn of 2011/2012, when a first planning meeting was held, and the project will continue until summer 2014. The project is, in its first step, carried out in cooperation between two head teachers, three teachers of history and two researchers. One of the head teachers is also co-author of this paper and she continuously observes and makes diary entries of events that indirectly or directly are assumed to be linked to the implementation process. To get an idea of how implementation was perceived by the three teachers in the project they were asked to write about their experiences of this and send these to the two participating researchers in the beginning of the autumn 2012. The participating researchers' role would be to follow the progress of the project and to gather information through observations, interviews, questionnaires, etc. compiled and presented to the project participants in order to both provide suggestions for actions that can develop the activities, how it can be understood and what can be learned from the project.

In the collaboration between the head teacher and the researchers there also arise some role problems that need to be managed. All interpretations are made by the researchers. This is made in order not to risk influencing, as far as possible, the head teacher's relationships with the staff in a negative way. The interpretations sometimes go beyond a literal interpretation as a way to discover other possible interpretations in relation to a wider context, but also to create new and alternative interpretations that could increase our understanding. However, there may also be occurrences that, due to ethical reasons, are not possible to describe. This is

obviously a limitation to identify all processes that this kind of development work gives rise to.

Learning study - A theoretical and collectively inspired teaching method

The concept of Lesson Study became internationally known by Stiegler and Hiebert's book "The teaching gap" (1999) in which they claimed that Japanese teachers work to improve teaching in the classroom gives teachers continuous professional development and that this could explain the Japanese pupils' successful study achievements. Marton, and his colleagues in Hong Kong, (Lo, Pong & Chik, 2005; Marton & Mun Ling, 2007, Pang & Lo, 2011) has been working to develop Lesson Study to become a theory-related method, which they call Learning Study. The method intends to achieve systematic interventions and observations of teachers teaching. In a Learning Study the so-called learning object constitutes the core, meaning that the pupils are supposed be given opportunities to "develop their qualitative understanding of a specific field of knowledge or a special ability" (Holmqvist, 2006a p 21). To understand what happens in a teaching situation and how it can be developed, Marton (2005) and his colleges, on the basis of their research on learning, developed the so-called variation theory, which rests on four principles: contrast, separation, generalization and fusion, that is when the principles of variation are combined. Marton (2005), however, says that also other theories could be useful to contribute to the understanding and learning of a particular specific aspect. An essential basis of variation theory is that pupils' understanding is a result of how they perceive the reality. In order for pupils to be able to learn from their past experiences, their understanding must be emphasized. What they learn are what they perceive as differences in relation to what they have already learned.

A Learning Study is characterized by 1) creating the conditions for a particular learning to take place in pupils, 2) that teachers learn from each other, the research literature and the Learning Study itself, and that 3) the researchers can learn about how this theory works in practice (Marton, 2005). In order to be implemented the Learning Study method requires a good knowledge of a subject, in didactics and in different scientific perspectives (Holmqvist, 2006b). The Learning Study approach can, per se, be understood as a minor action research project. The concept can also be used as a specific theme, which permeates the entire work in a school (Stigler & Hiebert, 1999). Using the Learning Study method can be assumed

to assist teachers to practice their ability to identify and distinguish central learning objects and their critical aspects of the learning situation. Teachers can thus support pupil's learning through what Vygotsky (1986) referred to as the proximal zone, in order to develop the pupil's own knowledge potential. A pupil's communicative and social development can be understood as it happens in the interplay between the pupil's biological conditions and the need to have contact with others by actively interacting with people in its environment (Säljö, 2000 with reference to Vygotsky, 1986). The teacher's role is to help the student to shift perspective and see the learning object in a new way (Holmqvist, 2006a). Starting points are a) to identify a learning object, such as a central element of the curriculum, b) to vary the teaching, and c) to compare with other alternative ways of describing the phenomenon and relate it to a context or other phenomena. It is not obvious how a learning object can be defined and selected. Syllabi are, after all, written so that it is more or less vague goals that pupils must achieve. It is in the teacher's teaching skills to identify how a learning object can be transformed into specific elements that students are expected to acquire. By showing the variations of the learning object, the pupils are given a better opportunity to understand the critical aspects and be able to pass the necessary obstacles in order to progress in their learning. This requires, however, that teachers in their teaching are able to read what kind of understanding the individual pupil has of the learning object before and after the research lesson. This is a key aspect in a Learning Study.

Objections can be addressed to the use of Learning Study method, not primarily because of the method in itself. The difficulties rather concern organizational problems, as schedule, teachers' lack of time, that there are too few teachers of a subject at a school, or that some teachers are simply not interested to try this way to teach. Head teachers seem, in this respect, to play an important role in eliminating obstacles so that the teacher could use the learning Study method in their teaching (Lundgren & von Schantz Lundgren, 2011).

Development processes need time to grow

Development processes are usually top-down initiated and may in many cases last for several years before the planned changes are established (Ekholm, 1990). One reason is that in every moment there are already established patterns of acting that are institutionalized, i.e. they are "anchored" in the stakeholders' acts and notions. These patterns have also,

in one or other way responded to demands that were suited in previous patterns and that sometimes have to be broken up and replaced by other patterns. North (1993, p 17) says that institutionalized acts "/.../ reduces uncertainty by providing structure to everyday life." Many schools exhibit, especially upper secondary schools, what Hargreavs (1998) describes as balkanized. This means that different organizational cultures exist side by side in an organization and compete in different ways with each other. Institutionalized action patterns are accordingly usually resistant to change and thus it creates stability, it is also a disadvantage when these patterns of action, for some reason, needs to be changed.

Ekholm (1990) says that development processes in organizations are usually characterized by different phases of initiation, implementation and institutionalization, which more or less overlap each other. These phases cannot always be predicted and controlled, but it is usually possible to describe them in retrospect. Also the time to initiate a development project is in many cases for long, which, among other things, has to do with how extensive and profound changes the project is intended to lead up to, and to what extent these changes are a part of an "on-going trend". The process risks going into a critical phase, when the development workers are trying to push other actors in the same direction (Ekholm, 1990). One of the reasons for this is that any attempt to change also creates resistance (Huzell, 2005). It is not obvious that those affected by a change stand behind what the leaders claim to be development. Resistance can have a variety of causes, ranging from fear of the new to that the existing power structures are going to be changed. There are usually many individuals within an organization who feel they have good reason to work actively or passively against the planned changes that are implemented. Even in a successful development project it is only possible to slowly integrate what is new. Fullan (2001) argues that when change processes start people's perception of what is meaningful will be in focus, which stirs up feelings, professional ambitions, but also creates a sense of uncertainty that affect their actions. He therefore advocates that change processes must be allowed to proceed slowly, which creates an experience that nothing much happens, that changes will not be great, and this reduces the feelings of insecurity.

Another difficulty is that it can take a long time before organizational changes may be "captured in" and described in the form of more permanent changes that have occurred, such as in the form of new routines, or patterns

"/ ... / because, adaptations, of the local organization, can come long after the initial change was introduced" (Ekholm, 1990, p 61). A development project could lead to small effects if it is terminated before it has been institutionalized. If attempts to initiate development projects has been repeated a number of times and failed, the actors will have no confidence that future projects will lead to some changes and consequently, their interest to engage is falling. This means that the leaders must act in the long term.

Head teachers interpret and act in relation to what takes place in school from several perspectives

Leadership is a classic key issue in organization theory and is given a central role both in daily work and in the management literature. The premise is that leaders both can, and want to influence and control what is happening in the organization. Weber (1983) links the leadership role to the possibility to achieve necessary legitimacy and authority with the purpose to compel others to act in accordance with the leader's will. From a social psychological perspective, it is primarily a question of the relationships that exist between the leader and co-workers (see eg Ahrenfeldt, 2001). Thus, leadership may be seen as acts which offer a given structure, as part of solving common problems (Sjölund, 1971). However, it is not obvious that the formally designated leader also will able to act as a leader. When this is not the case it seems likely that it give rise to complications of different kinds. Accordingly, it is rather uncertain how far leaders' influence extends (Lundgren, 1999). Their decisions and actions emerge in conversations, meetings and memos, which make it necessary also to rely on intuition (see eg Stacey, 1993, 1996, 2007, von Schantz Lundgren, 2008).

Bolman and Deal (2005, with reference to Carlson, 1951; Kotter, 1982; Luhans, 1988) points out that the prevailing mythology describes managers as rational planners, organizers, coordinators who control their subordinates, but what emerges when leaders' behaviour is studied is different. Sayles (1989) has described the leadership role as complex and containing many contradictions where leaders quickly shift their leadership from one situation to another. The image of the leader as a wandering person, with a never ending stream of contacts with other people, talking and listening, phoning, convenes meetings, pleading, arguing and negotiating, disputes the notion of how the leadership role is supposed to

be played. Bolman and Deal's (2005) proposed solution is that leaders must consider what is happening in the organization from different perspectives. They have discussed in several studies (2005, with reference to Bolman & Deal 1991, 1992a, 1992b; Bolman & Granell, 1999) that there is a clear positive relationship between efficiency and the ability to use several different theoretical perspectives to analyze a situation in an organization. They use four different perspectives, namely, the structural, the Human Relations (HR), the political and the symbolical. They claim that it is not possible to understand an organization if these different perspectives are not taken in consideration. The structural perspective is based on the machine metaphor (see eg Morgan, 1986), with key concepts as rules, roles, goals, policies, technology, and the surrounding society. The leader's role is to act as a social architect in order to get roles and responsibilities to fit the organization's mission. The strategic planning process is directed at formulating objectives and optimizing the use of resources by coordinating the resources. In the HR perspective, the organization is seen as "one big family", with concepts such as needs, relationships and skills in focus. The leadership is exercised in a spirit of the employees are empowered to take responsibility. Decision making is done in an open process designed to create involvement. In the political perspective, power is a central component. The premise is that there are conflicting interests, where individuals with diverse targets vie for scarce resources. The struggle for influence and positions viewed as the organization's normal state, where decisions and positions are emerging in negotiation, bargaining and competition. The stakeholder actions can be characterized by maneuvering, scheming and destructiveness, but can also be seen as a dynamic and creative force that is driving the development of the organization (Bolman & Deal, 2005 with reference to Foucault, 1975). In the political perspective is the skilful leader balancing "between the naive and the cynical" (Bolman & Deal, 2005, p 252). The leader leads by setting the agenda, establish visions, strategies, bargain and negotiate with both friends and enemies. To map the political terrain clarifies who are friends or enemies, and clarifies how networks and coalitions can be designed to promote the implementation. In the symbolic perspective, organizations are seen as complex and influenced by randomly occurring happenings, as opposed to the traditional approach that emphasizes rationality and objectivity. The symbolic perspective assumes that man's most basic need is to experience sense. Events and processes are given equal weight as to what is produced and to that people

through symbols trying to find order, direction and meaning in a complex and unpredictable everyday life. Events and symbols form a cultural context that helps people find meaning and joy in both work and private life (Bolman & Deal, 2005).

Implementing the learning study method seen from a head teacher's perspective

This section describes, from the perspective of a head teacher in this case study, what happened after the decision to introduce Learning study as a pedagogical approach had been taken. The result is mainly structured from three (structure, HR and political) of the four perspectives Bolman and Deal (2005) described in order to increase understanding of developmental processes in organizations. In extension this understanding may be a basis to address problems that emerge. In a first step, the projects include three history teachers and later on also include teachers of other subjects, for example, vocational teachers. In the long term, the plan is that most of the teachers are supposed to participate, although there seems to be a row of problems that first have to be solved.

The implementation plan

The implementation of the concept Learning study as a development project in the studied upper secondary school has its pre-history. The head teacher and one of the two researchers in the study had met each other when the researcher held a lecture and mentioned Learning study as an interesting teaching method and asked whether there was someone who would be interested to carry out a development project on this ground. The head teacher already had plans to introduce this method at her school and therefore contacted the researcher. A first meeting took place in late 2011 in the head teacher's school, where the guidelines for the project were drawn up. In the document it was said that the purpose of the project was to develop educational leadership, both for the head teachers and the teachers, through to test and evaluate the effects of the use of the Learning Study method during a two years period, from April 2012 to June 2014. The project is implemented in co-operation with the National School Leadership Training program. In the first step three history teachers were chosen to be the first ones to try to do a Learning Study.

> One reason to choose that topic is that we have a large proportion (about 25%) of pupils from different ethnic backgrounds. We have seen that the

pupils learn Swedish at different speed and good, but above all, even though they have managed to learn the Swedish language, the social and human subject areas contain many concepts that pupils have difficulty understanding. This also applies to Swedish youth, but to a greater extent young people from other countries who have no knowledge of our history and therefore not something to relate concepts to. We wanted a group of teachers who teach the same course in a subject / ... /. (Head teacher) [Note: Our translation]

In early 2012, the two head teachers, who lead this school development project, started the planning. The head teacher, who participates in the research project, writes in spring 2012 that she and the other head teacher at the school agreed that:

> If we are going to invest in Learning Study as a school development projects we will do it fully. We want to give teachers time so that we give them the best conditions in order to succeed and that it will be a good result so that we can increase the number of teachers and subjects that work according to the Learning Study method. A Learning Study requires initially that participating teachers get sufficient time for the work. We estimated the teachers' working time from the assumption that the teachers should be able to meet three hours each week in order to plan the lessons and to make an analysis of completed lessons and from there make changes in the critical aspects. They must also be disengaged during the time that the colleagues have their Learning Study lessons. When they do not teach, they will be participating observers. What we also have to take into account in terms of organization, if it is possible to arrange the schedule. We presented the proposal for our scheduler who meant that there would be no problems when it comes to a small group of teachers. However, she saw that there could be problems if we develop the work of Learning studies and there will be many groups of teachers and subjects covered. (Head teacher) [Note: Our translation]

The head teacher also notes that since it is a new approach at the school, the teachers involved will need time reserved for studying Learning Study method and the theory of variation. In the initial planning stage, they counted that four teachers would participate and that they would need to allocate financial resources equivalent to approximately 70% of a service. The three teachers started their planning through reading literature about the Learning Study method while they were also planning their part of the implementation process. For this purpose, the head teacher planned to conduct training for the teachers, involving a researcher who was well versed in the subject. In early August 2012, a training day was carried out with the three teachers, the two head teachers and the two researchers

together with an experienced researcher in the area of Learning Study. The first Learning Study lesson would be conducted by the three involved history teachers during autumn 2012.

Structural problems

The head teacher's diary shows that there were a number of structural problems and obstacles to implementing the Learning Study method. Not surprisingly, the economy is an ever present problem. The head teacher was, in early summer 2012, informed of the school management that the economy was strained and that there would be further financial cuts in the coming fiscal year. Then arose the question if it even would be possible to complete the project to introduce the Learning Study method and involve more teachers at the school. The head teacher wrote in her diary:

> The main concern right now is the economy. We have a big minus in the current situation and the mission is clear. We must have a budget in balance. Learning Study will initially cost a lot, especially in time for the teachers. (Head teacher) [Note: Our translation]

The head teacher writes also that this will not stop the project, as then would also the development grants be withdrawn. Another important reason that the head teacher felt that the project would continue as it is important to create pedagogical development, which in the new Education Act is an important part of a head teachers' responsibility. The head teacher's way to manage the problem was to try to rework the budget. However, in this case, the project is carried out on a modest scale and is thus possible to manage despite the cuts. If more teachers had been involved it would probably have been impossible to handle this problem in a successful way.

Another problem well-known in schools is to add a schedule that allows the involved teachers to have time to plan and implement their part of the Learning Study project. Later on, it was shown that the three teachers had been scheduled during each other's lessons, but that they had at least common time for planning. When this mistake was discovered, the head teacher typed in his diary:

> This is new to me; I thought I had been clear when I told the scheduler about the project and the needs from a scheduling perspective. I will send an e-mail to the scheduler, and we agreed to talk the next day. /…/ My concern that the schedule will be an obstacle became true when LL said

that it is impossible to make free lessons, in a way that everyone can be involved when one teaches and the others are observers. It will not be easier if we start LS in several subjects. The easiest is probably to find common planning time. (Head teacher) [Note: Our translation]

Another structural problem in this case is that the school is too small, which will make it difficult to organize groups of teachers who can work with the Learning Study method. The reason is that there are few courses in the new curriculum that is short courses, which makes it difficult to get the teachers' duty scheme to "break even". A possible solution to the problem is that teachers work together in a class, which then also can be an advantage if the teachers will be working with the concept of Learning Study. The head teacher writes:

- ✓ cooperation among teachers increases when it comes to planning, implementing and rate. A greater collaboration between teachers is a success factor / ... /
- ✓ creativity will likely also increase when more people are discussing the planning of a lesson
- ✓ pupils' different needs for how the teaching is structured should have a greater chance of passing courses if more opportunities, ways to work /explanations are made – i.e. an increased individualization (Head teacher) [Note: Our translation]

To organize a Learning Study is affected by the lack of financial resources when it comes to the possibility for teachers to get sufficient time for planning their lessons.

Problems, obstacles and opportunities

Schools are in many cases balkanized (Hargreaves 1998), which is something to have in mind when a development project is implemented.

> What I think is that we at our school have many different cultures. In some teams, there are almost only school developers, who are passionate about doing well for the pupils. In other working teams, there are teachers who have "found" a concept and think it works well and if proposals are coming from outside, it gets a little troublesome. We also have those who do not want to see any changes, who feel that the head teacher settles in, and who prefer an "invisible contract" with the head teacher, who is seen as an administrator. The latter it is not someone who says bluntly, but it is not very difficult to figure out that this is how you look at school/education and relationship teacher - head teacher. (Head teacher) [Note: Our translation]

The head teacher wrote in her diary that she is aware that development processes are supposed to work best if it takes place in an open process. However, this has not been the case, because it has been, as the head teacher says, important to invest in a development project she believes in. In this strategy lies a dilemma. If the head teachers release the issue freely it risks encouraging other teachers to come up with suggestions on what should be developed instead, which risks creating conflicts and disrupt the staff and at worst significantly weaken the authority of the head teachers. The two head teachers chose instead to seek support from the so-called "Cooperation-group" and the group of team's leaders. All of these said they were positive for the project. Accordingly, the head teacher had support from important actors in the school from the very beginning.

> As an educational leader and responsible for the activities, it is important that in a pedagogical way to tell what will happen and why, that it is about to work from the mission, as it is written in the governing documents, as well as what research writes about successful schools. (Head teacher) [Note: Our translation]

At this stage of the project, it is still just three history teachers and the two head teachers that are directly involved. But, the three teachers have a mission to inform the other teachers at the school about what they are doing. This is as part of the head teachers' long-term strategy to implement the Learning Study method in more subjects. One of the teachers in the study says that, what is the most attractive is the interaction with the other teachers, but he also thinks there are too few contacts between universities and schools and that this project may be one way to bridge this gap. One of the other teachers confirms that there have taken place interesting and fruitful discussions in the teacher group. To create participation also from other teachers the head teachers plan to give frequent information at every workplace meeting about the Learning Study project. The three teachers will also have talks on the so called critical aspects, based on their Lesson study with the other teachers. At the school's learning platform, Ping Pong, there will be a folder called Learning Study from where it will be links to UR (Swedish Educational Broadcasting Company), articles, literature, etc. The school library will also have copies of the selected literature. The staff will have the opportunity to ask question and get an understanding of what a Learning Study is about. "What we head teachers hope for is that staffs feel that we as leaders invest time and resources for competence building and for a better learning for students" (Head teacher) [Note: Our

translation]. At the same time the head teacher writes also of her concerns for further work and that it may in the long term be difficult, both financially and organizationally, if this approach is going to cover most of the school's teachers. Another concern is that there may be teachers, who do not feel comfortable with the Learning Study method and therefore do not use their full potential as teachers, if they are forced to work in this way.

Discussion

The purpose of this paper has been to describe and problematize the challenges head teachers are meeting, when they implement the Learning Study method in an upper secondary school. Another purpose is to discuss what strategies and actions they use and the result of this.

The project has been running for almost a year, from that the idea was brought, and it is still in its initialization phase. The first steps toward implementing the Learning Study method is now being taken. It is well known that it takes a long time to initiate development projects (Ekholm, 1990), which also applies in this case. There are still many questions seeking an answer and there are many things that need to be arranged. The head teachers have to decide what they would like to accomplish with the project. They also need to resolve the question of how the project is organized, financed and its extent. Regardless of the option chosen, it is necessary to get the staff involved and have strategies to deal with resistance when it occurs. The head teachers have in this case chose to go slowly forward and take the development in stages, a strategy such as, for example, Fullan (2001) advocates. It has made it possible, so far, to manage the structural problems (Bolman & Deal, 2005) that emerged in the form of reduced financial resources, but also schedule-technical problems.

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The role of school leaders in implementing the concept of inclusive education

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Abstract

Recent educational reforms in Macedonia promote the concept of inclusive education as a higher step in a process of 'beating' the segregation of pupils in schools and society. Strategic and legal documents were adopted to enable the implementation of this concept. Still the process meets a lot of obstacles in the realization of inclusive practice. Educational leaders are key factor in supporting the process of inclusion. The objective of the paper is to analyse the activities on macro and micro level that can ease the process of inclusion and the competencies needed for successful leadership of an inclusive school. Besides content analyses of the relevant policy documents, field research was done using the following techniques: individual structured interviews with school principles (n=7), questionnaires for teachers (n=32), and two focus groups of professional counsellors and parents. Analyses of the empirical results point out the main obstacles in the implementation of inclusive practice and optimal ways of overcoming them. Based on the results, recommendations are offered related to the kind of the support that is needed for the principals, teachers and parents in restructuring regular schools according to the principles of inclusive policy and practice.

Keywords: *school leaders, competencies, inclusive education*

Introduction

Republic of Macedonia, similar to other neighbouring Western Balkan countries, undertakes initiatives to reform the education and training system, striving to reach European directions and standards for better quality, competitiveness, and reducing the huge national unemployment rate.

Recent educational reforms in Macedonia promote the concept of inclusive education as a higher step in a process of defeating the segregation of pupils in schools and society. Strategic and legal documents were adopted to enable the implementation of this concept. Still the process meets a lot of obstacles in the realization of inclusive practice.

First, it is important to clear what we mean by the concept of inclusive education.

The first uses of this term were mainly connected to its narrow definition as an attempt to integrate persons with intellectual disabilities and other handicaps into the regular structures of educational system or more likely to adapt the school to the needs of these students. Some UNICEF projects that were implemented in Macedonia influenced this understanding of the concept. Today, the concept of inclusive education is broadly understood and it refers to 'all disadvantageous groups that are excluded or discriminated within the education system on grounds of disability, poverty, national, ethnic or social origin, language, sex, age, religion or political convictions.'[2]

One of the most important documents for the implementation of social and educational inclusion is the *National Strategy for Poverty Reduction and Social Exclusion*[3] prepared in 2010**.** The Ministry of Labour and Social Policy with the support of UNDP and UNICEF developed this document as a ground for determination of the actions that need to be undertaken in the spheres of labour and employment, social inclusion of excluded groups and other interventions aiming towards the development of human capital and a more cohesive society. Within this strategic framework for social inclusion of excluded groups, the next step was the preparation of a Joint Memorandum for Social inclusion (JIM) between the Government of Republic of Macedonia and the European Commission.

Documents and regulations that are dispersed in various laws, bylaws and other legislative acts are a basis for enabling the implementation of the concept of inclusion. However, there is a big gap between legislation and practice, and the process of realization meets lot of obstacles and barriers.

Educational leaders are the key factor in supporting the process of inclusion. Related to this, objective of the paper is to identify the activities on macro and micro levels that can ease the process of inclusion and competencies needed for successful leadership of an inclusive school.

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[2] Inclusive Education in the Balkan Countries: Policy and Practice, 12 th International Conference of BASOPED, Book of Abstracts (2009) Natasa Angeloska Galevska (ed). – Skopje:Faculty of Philosophy, University Ss. Cyril and Methodius, pg.3

[3] National Strategy for Reducing Poverty and Social Exclusion – draft document (2010), Ministry of Labor and Social Policy, www.mtsp.gov.mk

Methodology of research

The subject of the research is the process of inclusion in regular schools in Skopje and activities on a macro and micro level needed to ensure its implementation.

The aim of the research is to examine the standpoints of the teachers, principals and parents towards the necessary managerial activities for implementation of the process of inclusion in regular schools.

Objectives:

1. To examine how principles perceive their role as school managers for enabling the process of inclusion

2. To identify what competencies are needed for successful leadership of an inclusive school

3. To explore teachers' standpoints about the managerial skills of their principals

4. To find out the opinion of parents about the conditions in school for the inclusion of children with special needs

5. To detect obstacles that parents and children face in the process of inclusion

Research questions:

1. Do school leaders have a clear vision for school development?

2. What kind of leadership models are mainly used by the principles?

3. What style of leadership do the principals use (democratic-autocratic, how much they respect others ideas, etc)

4. What are the features of the school leaders (passive-active, pessimistic-optimistic, enthusiastic, etc)

5. How much do school leaders take care about complaints, mistakes and irregularities in school?

6. What are the obstacles and barriers that parents and children face in the process of inclusion?

Methods, techniques and instruments of research

The paper uses methods of theoretical analyses and an empirical non-experimental method. Data were gathered with the following techniques: document analyses, survey, individual structured interviews and focus groups. Questionnaires and protocols for interviews and content analyses were specially designed for the purpose of the research. The Sample was composed of seven school principles for individual structured interview, 32 teachers for questionnaires and two focus groups of six professional counsellors and six parents.

Data processing and analyses

According to the characteristic of implemented instruments and nature of the gathered data, mainly qualitative analyses were made, except the scales of teachers' assessments that were based on quantitative analyses.

Research results

Topic 1: Leadership and managerial competencies of school principles towards process of inclusion

Scales of assessment were given to the principals and teachers to examine their standpoints about the managerial skills that they have in leading the schools towards the process of inclusion. Scales have similar items for the two subsamples in order to make comparison of the results. It was expected that principals would give more positive answers in their self-assessment compared to the teachers, but even the teachers' standpoints were very high in assessing the school management. On the scale from 1 to 5 where 1 is minimum and 5 maximum, the following features were assessed by the teachers with the highest marks between 4 and 5.

Table 1

Teachers' standpoints about the characteristics of the leaders in their schools

Characteristic of school leaders	Arithmetic mean
Use effective methods of leadership	4.04
Has a vision for school development	4.43
Show interest for innovative models of work	4.22
Enthusiastic for the things to be done to achieve goals of inclusion	4.35
Respect teachers' ideas	4.06
Take care about the complains, mistakes, irregularities	4.11
Pessimistic – optimistic	4.21
Autocratic - democratic style of leadership	4.03
Passive – active	4.45

According to the results we can see that school principles use effective methods of leadership, they have vision for school development, they show interest for innovative models of work, they respect teachers' ideas, take care about complains, mistakes, irregularities, they are far more optimistic than pessimistic, they practice democratic style of leadership and they are active and enthusiastic to achieve goals of inclusion.

Responses of the principals to the same questions were merely 5.

Topic 2: The next topic that we explore was related to the preparation and necessary changes in school in direction of inclusion

An effective process of inclusion demands changes on a macro and micro level, meaning changes in the legislative and education system, changes in the curricula, changes in the school and classroom management, in preparation of the teachers, the pedagogical and psychological services, in didactic aspects of classroom work, in the evaluation of the achievements, cooperation with parents and local community, etc. These changes have to be done before the process of inclusion begins and to continue further as it goes. Table 2 presents the results of two-side scale,

where respondents from one side assess the importance of changes that have to be done and, from other side, the changes that are important but have been already achieved in the schools.

Table 2

Teachers' standpoints about the needed and achieved changes in school towards implementation of the inclusion process

	Changes in direction of inclusion	Need to be achieved	Already achieved
2.1	Curriculum (introducing new content and new subjects)	4.99	2.09
2.2	Pre-service preparation of teachers	4.35	2.02
2.3	In-service training of teachers	4.87	3.43
2.4	The manner and style of school management	4.04	4.04
2.5	School cooperation with local community	4.66	3.98
2.6	School cooperation with parents of children with SEN	4.98	3.84
2.7	School cooperation with all parents (organizing specific lectures, meeting, workshops)	5.00	2.55
2.8	School climate (changes in directions of inclusion)	5.00	2.33
2.9	Pedagogical-psychological services in school	4.88	3.77
2.10	Engaging specialist to support inclusion of SEN children in school	4.67	3.00
2.11	Role of the teacher	4.99	3.99
2.12	Position of pupils in the teaching process	4.88	2.23
2.13	Cultural and public school activities with and for SEN children	4.47	2.23
2.14	Evaluation of achievement	4.88	3.66

In further analyses and interpretation we will integrate the results gained by the scales of assessments, interviews and focus groups:

As we can see in table 2, regarding these questions, answers of the

respondents were not as optimistic as the previous one. We can say that there is general standpoint of all respondents that necessary changes for preparation of schools towards inclusion have not been done at a satisfactory level.

Curriculum

Teachers stated the need of enhancing curricula and introduction of new syllabus and courses.

Preparation of teachers

Many reports remark and conclude that teachers receive good theoretical training during their pre-service education, but they miss skills and competencies to work in real classrooms. Our research also shows that the teachers who work in regular classes have a firm standpoint that they do not feel prepared and capable for professional educational work with SEN children. In their pre-service education they did not gain any kind of preparation, and they assess the few training seminars as insufficient.

In-service training

An essential part of the system that also needs reconstruction is the continuous development of the teaching profession. Professional development of teachers has to be an obligatory and planned activity with appropriate phases going on through one's career. Higher education institutions have to develop and offer a whole structure of modular courses for professional development of teachers based upon their needs and according to the new demands of the society. Especially teachers who are trained and practiced in the previous professional milieu have to be re-trained and to receive the same content and skills that new teachers receive through the initial training. There is an awareness that in-service training has to be treated within the lifelong strategies, and much more has to be undertaken in this field of work.

In the research with document analyses that we made, we have found out that issues of inclusion in education are integrated in the new curricula of teaching faculties. There are separate subjects that treat these issues. In some faculties courses for teaching in classroom with children with disabilities are also included. But even this is not a guarantee that teachers are prepared to work with diversity. Special attention has to be put on

didactic training of teachers, and developing skills to create a learning environment for all children. Teachers should have pedagogical skills for individualization of the teaching process, using various strategies for group work and better participation of 'hidden' and passive children in the classroom. They should know the social, economical and cultural factors that cause differences and accept the responsibility to reduce the barriers for exclusion or fails on the schools and use effective sources in this process: like parents, staff, and community. This cannot be achieved through one or two courses; it has to be a principle of the teacher's work.[4] So the focus has to be on gaining the competencies for teachers to be capable to work in diverse environments.

Engaging specialists

Teachers are aware of the need to introduce changes in their daily work, to rely on parents as partners in education, but they also stressed the need for special educators or assistants in the classroom who will work additionally with the SEN children. According to teachers, preparation of an individual working plan for SEN children has to be done by professionals, either special educators or advisors from the Bureau for development of education.

Pedagogical-psychological counsellors in school

Pedagogical-psychological counsellors in school are assessed as significant contributors to inclusion. Related to this, several activities are mentioned: they give evidence of the children who have special needs at the very beginning when they enrol at the school, they initiate actions to prevent the drop out of students from vulnerable groups, and they support teachers in their work.

Role of the teacher

Generally teachers view themselves as capable to work with differences, except with children with special needs. But in practice you can rarely find differentiation in the teaching methods according to the learner's needs and capacities. Support of teachers to children from vulnerable groups is very

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[4] More information in: Angeloska-Galevska, N. (2010): 'Preparation of Teachers towards Education for All'. UNESCO. Sofia University St Kliment Ohridski. Department of Information and In-service training of teachers: *Quality Education for All through Improving Teacher Training*. Sofia: Paradigma. Pg. 63-73

often understood as giving higher marks even if they have very low and unsatisfactory achievements. For example: sometimes these children may reach the fifth grade, without accomplishing the objectives of the second grade.

School climate (changes in directions of inclusion)

Both principals and teachers stated that in their schools there is no discrimination. Some principals suggested that there should be positive discrimination for the children from the vulnerable groups but it is rarely done in practice.

According to the parents there are some stereotypes and prejudices towards the children with SEN or/and children from different ethnic communities. Teachers are not sufficiently supportive in creation of positive school climate, sometimes they refuse to accept a child with SEN in their class because it means extra work; there are few cases when they even use offensive words for other ethnic groups. There are no sanctions foreseen for the teachers or children with discriminatory behaviour, but in the new documents for assessing of teacher performances (from 2011), working with diversity is a one element of assessment.

Weak spots and barriers

✓ School documents such as the statute of the school do not contain any regulations or aspects of the inclusive policy; neither have some foreseen regulations or punishments for the teachers who will manifest discriminatory behaviour. The explanation is that there are no indicators that discrimination exists in the practice.

✓ Insufficient materials, textbooks and didactic tools for work with particular groups of learners (children with difficulties)

✓ Lack of sustainability of interventions. Activities are increased, but mainly driven by NGOs.

✓ Schools work in two or three shifts so they cannot accommodate the needs of children

✓ Overcrowded classes with too many pupils are also a barrier for efficient work with diversity

Further developments

Finally we can point out to some further reform actions towards better implementation of the inclusive education.

There are three key areas for intervention and reforming that should be done in order to alleviate social exclusion, through the EU's IPA programme[5]:

(i) Modernizing VET, better linking with business partners, increasing vocational competences of students and the development of computer, entrepreneurial and foreign language skills

(ii) promoting the inclusion of Roma and Albanians in education and introducing an intercultural curriculum in multiethnic schools, and

(iii) supporting the establishment of a system for adult education, including literacy and elementary education.

In the sphere of university and teacher training the following actions can be undertaken to reinforce the integration:

- ✓ Introduction of courses for pre-service and in service training of teachers for acquiring competencies to deal with prejudices and be more responsive to the needs of children from disadvantage groups.

- ✓ Curriculum improvement with contents related to the policy of inclusion. Education for all has to be integrated in the curriculums of the teaching faculties not as a separate module, but as an overall philosophy. Beside this, separate didactic courses should be introduced for developing strategies of teaching and working with different pupils and communities.

- ✓ Developing university extensions and on-line study programs for the poor and isolated groups.

- ✓ Establishing regulation, funds and career centres for student support.

- ✓ Organizing sport activities on national level for increasing of social inclusion.

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[5] IPA – the European Union's Instrument for Pre-Accession Assistance for the countries of the Western Balkans

- ✓ Introducing a system of teacher- mentors and student assistants or student- tutors for the children with special education needs

- ✓ Developing a system of monitoring and evaluation of teachers for rewarding good practice and avoiding prejudices.

- ✓ Establishing resource centres with professionals on the municipality level that will collaborate and support teachers in regular schools to work with children with special education needs.

- ✓ Up to now the policy of education for all was dispersed in many laws, by-laws, policy documents and NGOs activities. It is time to integrate all these ingredients into a whole. Higher level of cooperation and understanding is needed between the policy makers, school managers and teachers.

- ✓ With implementation of these activities, teachers and education will become a crucial factor for social cohesion and inclusion.

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Headmaster's professional competences – facilitators of change for creativity in educational institution

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Abstract

School headmaster's professional competences can either encourage or deny change in educational institutions. This all depends on school priorities and directions of school activities as well as on the team work of the school management. But mostly it depends on the personality of the school director and his vision of the school. Only a creative leader of an educational institution is able to appeal to creative actions involving the school staff in the process, and delegate various significant tasks to the Students' Council. New leaders of educational establishments as well as those who have led schools for 1 to 10 years were interviewed in 2011 on questions of educational management. 252 Deputy Directors answered the questionnaires. The aim was to create understanding of what it means to be the school headmaster, who determines the choice to become the leader of the school, what kind of education and level of qualification is needed to become the school headmaster, what the greatest successes and the biggest difficulties are to manage the school successfully, what demands the headmasters put forward for their deputy directors in order to create a team work. Is it necessary for the leader to be strong and creative at school? What does it bring to society and the school? Which headmaster's professional competences are the main competences? How can a creative leader affect the quality and effectiveness of the educational establishment?

Key words: *creative leader, professional competences, change, distributing leadership.*

Introduction

School headmaster's professional competences can either encourage or deny changes in educational institution. This all depends on school priorities and directions of school activities as well as on the team work of the school management. But mostly it depends on the personality of the school headmaster and his vision of the school. Only a creative leader of the educational institution is able to appeal to creative actions, involving the school staff in the process, delegating various significant tasks to the Students' Council.

New leaders of educational establishments as well as those who led schools for 1 to 10 years were interviewed in 2011 on the questions of educational management.

The aim of the study

To create understanding of what it means to be a school headmaster nowadays, who determines the choice to become the leader of the school, what education and level of qualification are needed to become the school headmaster, what the greatest successes and the biggest difficulties are to manage the school successfully, and what demands the headmasters put forward for their deputy directors in order to create team work. Is it necessary for the leader to be strong and creative at school? What does it give to society and the school? What headmaster's professional competences are the main competences? How can a creative leader affect the quality and effectiveness of the educational establishment?

Materials and methods

Material was made in the framework of the internal project "Education management: motivation of the director and deputy director of comprehensive schools to improve management capacity". The work is based on the interpretation of interviews of school headmasters.

Respondents 252 deputy directors, 8 school headmasters with 10 years of work experience took part in the interviews and surveys. This condition is significant to understand the reasons and psychological factors determining the Headmaster's readiness to hold this position.

What is the role of a formal leader?

Leadership is not a constant quality – leadership and a leader is not the same. Lambert (1998) states that leadership is connected with cooperative learning that makes possible targeted changes. This learning is directed to higher efforts and common goals. We have expressed the opinion that restructuring of the whole organization is a necessary demand for forming contexts where leadership and learning can go on naturally. The change of the structure directly eases professional participation and it is difficult to lead this process either due to unfavourable external circumstances or almost unavoidable internal opposition.

Administration is a complicated task demanding skills, though any person working at school is able to obtain them if the support is provided. Eventually, leadership is democracy in action. This inevitably means to add value to all these voices that make alive experience of the school so the students' voices will be heard. Leadership in this connection is a collective work and changes at school are common tasks. To go on a long, sustainable path of improvements capacity is needed which is based on a shared and incorporated action of collaboration. This kind of leadership demands redistribution of power and authority.

Bigger meaning is paid to common goals and coordination when leadership is released in that way. Common values, opinions and targets provide coordination on the highest level. Formal leaders (headmasters) will express these values in life and in practical work either as leaders or as followers. They will look seriously at their own learning – in educational, pedagogical work and in mutual relationship sphere. They will be trainers and assistants, social architects and builders of the community.

These leaders will design the architecture of the organization, they will foster social capital helping to embody divided leadership and cooperation that are based on mutual confidence and "coexisting dependence". In its turn, confidence relationships make possible transparent joining and sharing with knowledge. This kind of leader will consolidate the school based on common values and higher goals. They will be able to express themselves accurately, thus encouraging identification and coordination of values as well as defining and approving viewpoints. They will "propagate rhetoric" (Weick, 1976) and will make people responsible for commonly adopted values. They will have enough moral courage to restructure their schools gradually based on double pillars of higher level goals and school values. Leaders in organizations wishing to learn this way refuse power, distribute leadership, and support others in order to get success.

These leaders are unusual people and it is unreal to hope that school headmasters of Latvia will be able to do it individually. 'We cannot save education saving schools one by one' (Harris, Lambert, 2003). Principles are foreseen either for beginners who start work in leading positions or for those who work with new leaders like mentors or assistants, giving effective support as well as for experienced managers to expand their horizon about different aspects of leadership and management. Headmasters can be interesting for educators of teachers and for emerging teachers. They are rooted in theory and practice.

The necessity for school leaders to investigate the current situation and their capacity is based on developing principles to deliberately take into account the rapidly changing situation in education in Latvia. Those people who took care of youngsters' education in Latvia since regaining independence in 1991 have withdrawn themselves from functioning as administrators whose main task was to follow the accomplishment of regulations. There will always exist certain regulations and guidelines set by the state, but school leaders have already changed a lot in their spheres of responsibility, consistently raising the feeling of autonomy and trust about the quality and content of the offered education. Latvia's partnership in the EU has served as a stimulus in the process of social alterations. The project of school leadership is feedback to professional educators' needs for mutual support in this situation. The project is made in this way to help leaders to develop new skills and ideas, and to raise capacity in the formation of new, genuine and exact leadership identity.

These kinds of principles are attempts to solve a paradox. The paradox is this: in many cases people can agree upon the term "good practice", though in professional action quite often one thing suitable for one place does not fit in the other, but in another is not suitable at all (James and Biesta, 2007). The principles are meant for those leaders who are eager to form and develop their practice as leaders, who would offer the possible action plans or steps. They certainly are not self-sufficient, and to be truly appropriate the principles should be discussed and used in practice as well as the exchange of experience with other colleagues, and in a critical atmosphere should be necessary.

What are the competences needed to ensure creativity?

Competence as knowledge: *on current trends, current issues ..., in general management, theory of economics , statistics, etc. in business communication, management psychology, legal knowledge, human resources management, risk management, marketing, etc., providing a basis in the organization for creative work management.*

As a skill (ability): identify problems and find solutions, make decisions, subject to micro-and macro changes, make organizational development goals and objectives, and work individually and in a team, delegate and coordinate the performance of duties, motivate the staff, create the organizational development appropriate to the human resource

management policy and efficiently use the latest methods of work organization, identify the components of creativity and support creativity enhancing decision-making in the context of the organization's working process, be able to orient in legislative processes and the organization's regulatory documents and laws, act in accordance with the economic development of the regularities and principles of the use of modern information collection, processing and filing technology management process, know the official language on the highest level and use a foreign language in communication etc.

As attitude: a positive attitude towards colleagues, customers and business partners, motivated to acquire new knowledge, develop skills ... caring for introduction of innovation /change, interest in the organization long-term development, a balanced ethical and social responsibility, sustainable approach addressing conflict situations in the organization, provoking attitude to the team/ group work managing the organization etc.

Integral or personality aspect of the competence model. Competence as: influence, achievement orientation, teamwork and cooperation, analytical thinking, initiative, development of others, self-confidence, imperious/insistence, finding information, team management, conceptual thinking (Spencer, 2011).

Results

Nowadays questions about communication, mutual correlations, positive relationships and motivated atmosphere have become more important, as circumstances are changing, many schools are closed and people are doubtful about their future and about possibilities of development. Only communication creates membership to some certain environment and then the educational establishment is the organization where values and standards, which are significant for the whole society, are preserved. During times of rapid change each individual's skills to adjust to variable demands become the topic of the day. With this the tasks of each educational establishment turn to more complicated and so skilful (creative) action of the school leader has the crucial meaning making the organization structure turned to society capable of reacting to the demands of society (Ešenvalde, 2007).

Interviews and questionnaires were carried out with 8 headmasters and 252 deputy heads to clarify the viewpoints of the headmasters about the activities of a contemporary leader in current economical circumstances. 11 questions were included in the interview and questionnaires about:

✓ work experience in the management of education,
✓ criteria for headmaster's candidates,
✓ further education,
✓ necessary knowledge in the management field,
✓ creative management action in certain economical conditions,
✓ basic principles of school work.

Interviews and questionnaires were carried out in Latvia: 54 % respondents live in Riga, 27 % in other cities of Latvia, 19% in other regional parts of Latvia (Figure 1).
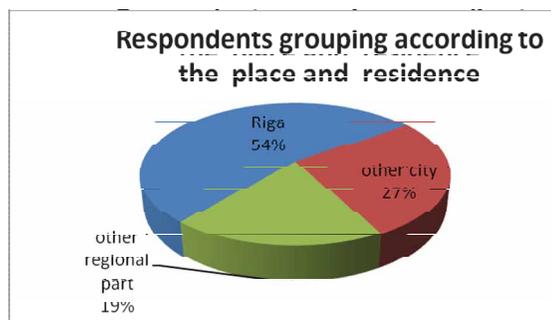
Figure 1. Respondents grouping according to the place and residence.

The analysis of the interviews and questionnaires help to understand criteria and basic principles of the quality of education. To a great extent the quality of education is dependent on the leader who is the head of the certain educational establishment – he serves his school, his teachers, his students. Management style is mostly democratic, provided by focused teamwork and turned into cooperation on all levels.

Interviews and questionnaires were carried out with 8 headmasters, 252 deputy heads, and only 16 respondents were men and 236 women (Figure 2). The situation in Latvia concerning gender roles in education is rather dramatic.

Respondents sex grouping

man
6%

woman
94%
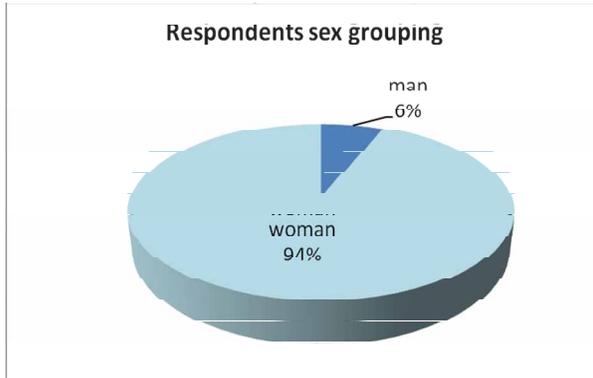
Figure 2. Respondents sex grouping.

Different age groups were involved in the research. There were only 7 respondents younger than 30 and 11 respondents between 66 and 71. More respondents were involved in the interviews and questionnaires. The other respondents' ages one can see rating in leading position in Figure 3.

Respondents age grouping
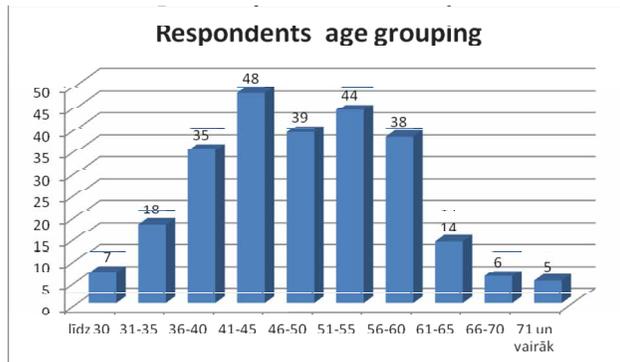
Figure 3. Respondents age grouping.

To ensure common teamwork headmasters have to put forward demands for deputies. The interviews with school headmasters emerged from different points of view.

What demands do headmasters put forward for their deputy directors in order to develop team work?

"How to plan a timetable and create study materials".

Personal characteristics, ability to cooperate, ability to trust, ability to hold responsibility from the others. Teamwork, personnel management, be knowledgeable in one's own field, be responsible. Skills to require. Headmaster is responsible for a group of people. And there should be a clear vision of what to ask from the people. Have an idea and you must be able to specify it, so they understand what needs to be done. To have the result. Result should be clear. And then given instructions on a common goal. Children are clients whom we work for. Everything has to go in one direction - plan, transparency, direct. The same small director. Management for everyone in their areas. "The first requirement would be teaching life experience [..] Deputy head a little more than a teacher should look around, see what happens, what changes, what does not change. He must be innovative, support teachers' ideas, inspect lessons, should not be squandered, but the teacher simply should feel the shoulder, because not all lessons can be successful [..] The deputy should be [..] very sociable. [..] One of the competences, which I would like - it's creativity. Rather than just mechanically do the job, but to plan, coordinate, more effectively, that all would benefit. [..] The deputy himself should be willing to work this job, mechanically put to work as the deputy would not be properly. [..]

"The deputy should be reliable, one can rely on. As soon as possible to arrange a case, because if the deputy is waiting what the manager says, that is a different way must be chosen." (Respondent E).

"The deputy director is the practical doer - he must be knowledgeable in pedagogy, be able to manage the meeting, analyze the process, should posses analytical mind, a systematic way of thinking, be creative, have ideas how to change things at school (also know how to do it), should be successive, logical, who is able to substantiate the viewpoint, can build a successful cooperation with parents " (Respondent F).

"The deputy of teaching-learning process – must have competences in accounting, teacher training methodology, legislation. The deputy of education – must have competences of a producer, ability to popularize the school's image, leading the students' self-government" (Respondent G).

"The deputy should be motivated willingly perform the duties of deputy director. He is [..] a professional who knows well the legal foundations and government regulations, orders related to the learning organization. He needs to control the process, because he is closer to the teacher. He must be a very good teacher, the teacher needs to believe in him and respect him. Deputy Director - the best teacher at school. Also, the best methodologist at school". (Respondent H).

What demands did the deputy directors put forward for their headmasters in order to create a team work?

✓ Acquired knowledge in management is too narrow scope.

✓ Requires organizations and educational management education, but with the personality skills, enabling them to work with people of all ages, especially with children.

✓ Each case is individual.

✓ Requires previous experience of teaching post at least 10 years

✓ Understanding of the educational system (as a whole) and the learning process.

✓ Have knowledge of staff duties.

✓ In school management and in the post of the director of the school, I think, is a very important experience, which is best obtained in practice.

✓ Headmasters should have a practical knowledge of a real school life rather than academic postulates that are tenuously connected with life.

✓ It depends on whether the person has been deputy director before, how much teaching experience one has.

✓ Valuable education is a "fresh" education, I do not mean that 20 years ago obtained a diploma in school management and management is not practiced, but understanding of higher value as managing and learning at the same time.

✓ Must be the person oneself - it cannot be taught!

What are the greatest successes and the biggest difficulties to manage the school successfully? Is it necessary for the leader to be strong and creative at school?

As illustrated in Figure 4, school principals, in response to this question, mention not only the problems and difficulties, but also provides valuable tips:
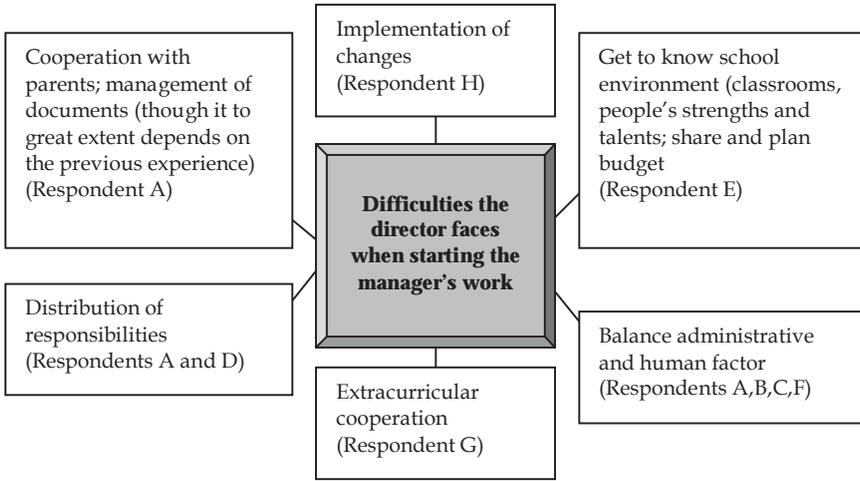
Figure 4. What are the biggest difficulties to manage the school successfully?

Table 1 shows the advices of four participants to headmasters starting their leadership positions.

Table 1

Pieces of advice for headmasters starting the leadership job

Respondent A	Immediately not to destroy the established order, gain the authority, priorities need to be planned for the whole year, recommended legal education.
Respondent B	Always use the situation (and difficulties), for the benefit of school and oneself, good things take over, not to destroy what is well arranged.
Respondent A and C	One must have good deputies in different areas
Respondent D	Must be someone who can inspire in tough times, work with colleagues; must trust subordinates, not to do everything oneself, but control.

One can conclude that it is necessary for the leader to be strong and creative at school.

What it gives to the society and the school?

Success , as well as bigger as not so big, is a major driving force to form opinions in society, that a definite educational institution is a good school that provides quality education. SA successful school's image is interpreted as a modern school in Latvia.

Table 2

What it gives society and the school?

(A) Director 6 years	Extended work outside the school: participation in Olympiads, methodology work and research. Improved communication with teachers during pedagogical meetings, they show greater self-dependence, the Director has no longer to talk as much as before. The school is economically put in order. E-medium was arranged for the school a year ago.
(B) Director 2 years	The number of pupils at school has increased as there is a good cooperation with two pre-schools. Evaluation system, work of methodology commissions, work with parents has improved. E-class is introduced. Projects are carried out, school environment is well-arranged.
(C) Director 3 years	Projects are worked out (choir costumes, installation of music equipment, ravine with lights and equipment for mountain climbers).
(D) Director 1 year	Well arranged environment. Positive staff.
(E) Director 1 year 8 months	Good administration team. School is open for new ideas, activities, works. E-school functions. Good results in final examinations. Outer and inner environment put in order. "We are the only school in Latvia which has the three dimensional board".
(F) Director 7 years	The greatest success – the Director supports international projects. Renovation made, equipment and technologies refreshed.
(G) Director 5 years	Renovation made. The school has been accredited.
(H) Director 1 year	Prevention of lessons' non-attendance. Expanded possibilities of interest education (21 program of interest education) to become the centre for children of the area, closer their homes.

The answers are very different – some give exact answers and concentrate on the analysis of the work done, some pay more attention to characteristics of drawbacks. That is the reason why the evaluation of their own work is different:

> "The link pupils - parents is complicated. Pupils frequently feel that parents just interfere, …we have to start work with the new teacher as soon as he comes to school rather than criticize him for doing something wrong. Project management and accounting should be taught to the Directors as well as office work." (Respondent A)

Trying to imagine the desirable school in Latvia nowadays the Directors cannot do without problem characteristics as the desired could be reached only in the case when all difficulties will be overcome and the school work will be improved.

> "Think creatively, respond to non-standard situations, analyze them, make decisions, provide security." Can we do all this? I think that not. We teach behaviour and attitude in conflicts, in competitions, in hikes. We wish the teachers worked creatively." (Respondent D)

> "I would not want to see the school when books are eliminated, as it is in Sweden – everything is computerized, these technologies damage but not encourage. [..] future school […] Lists of students can be digital but not the lessons… […]." (Respondent F)

> "Learning! For this the knowledgeable, intelligent, tolerant teacher is needed. The teachers should be communicative, educated, well-dressed people with proper salary who are not ashamed to be in front of students." (Respondent H)

> "Without a doubt the Finns are ahead in the world. The first thing for them is education, the second – health. How do we arrange these things? These issues need to be sorted a bit different, say, in the system. [..] "(Respondent E)

There are different views about two-language schools: respondent (H) dreams about school "*with a larger number of children – two-language school, night school classes as well.*"

It is important that directors evaluating their work mention qualitative and quantitative rates. This means that their view point is not one-sided, they put in order not only obvious matters (premises, teachers' salaries, infrastructure, timetable of lessons, etc.) but also care about cooperation among staff members, atmosphere at school, problems between pupils and parents. This all does not directly affect Director's work but in an indirect

way strongly influences the learning process and school environment. The rate "number of pupils" can be valued in two ways as qualitative and quantitative because the increase of the number of pupils is affected not only by the demographic situation, but it also influences the prestige of school, professionalism of teachers, ways of cooperation with pre-school educational establishments, local authorities.

Directors differently assess what success at work is. (C) talks about infrastructure improvement works, but (D) says: "*I do not know if renovation is success. It is something you can accomplish practically.*" Particularly praises interconnection among 56 staff members only three of whom are men. (D) says: "*It is great piece of luck if you have a positive staff. [..] And if you can maintain positive mood in the women's staff…and the wish to work and express your ideas.*"

The results of the investigation confirm the fact that the headmaster at school today has to be creative to ensure the quality of education.

Which headmaster's professional competences are the main competences?

At the end of the interview the headmasters told about the specific features of the job, a degree of responsibility, the teachers' staff and psychological characteristics of the teaching profession, about the teacher's profession prestige, self-esteem and attitude towards it in Latvia, and expressed the desire to be loved and feel a direct care of the direct supervisors.

> "[..] the head of each institution should be a leader. Should be honest towards all colleagues, equal on various issues. [..] Another nuance, when of our system is spoiled children [..] I went to school - we had a clean-up gatherings, and it was blessed, it was work that brought us up. Now farming at houses is eliminated, .." (Respondent E)

> "The leader must continually learn, improve oneself. Now data recording comes into school, legal matters (in the leaders competence). Training leader should be smart, prepared. Psychologists have supervisions - leaders should organize a club- to discuss things that school management are current, share mutual experiences." (Respondent F)

> "Must be prepared to meet with any society member. Difficult to live in the same area - all are watching! It is better to live far from the school." (Respondent G)

"[..] The headmaster's work is very difficult and responsible. Headmaster like any man should be loved. Bosses should take care of him. If we feel concern for us, we will want to be grateful, in all participate fully. Superior would not object to anything good what the headmaster wants to do, to have less intrusive factors at work, since it is only by understanding one can get a positive result." (Respondent H)

How can the creative leader affect the quality and effectiveness of the educational establishment?

It depends on what kind of professional development the headmaster has, what experience and viewpoint he has.

"Two options: 1) Acquiring teacher's qualifications, begins to work, and if one wishes to become a headmaster studies school management. 2) If one starts studying to become a leader, there must be selection. Not everyone can be a leader. There should also be a good, realistic practice. Practical things must be taught. Lecturers must renew and develop annually their courses. [..]" (Respondent A)

Organizing competition for the headmaster's post, there must be tests, essays, interviews. The question is whether a person can be a leader. We have no competition, because people do not apply. Then the selection is not possible.

"Master degree is needed. [..] Education is required and experience. [..]On legal matters should be much more. [..] Master degree is also needed for headmaster. And also for the deputies." (Respondent B)

"I contribute most from the meetings with other headmasters. Also, in courses, not lectures, but the meetings ... where one can talk. There should the three-month practice period within three years in the municipality or elsewhere, where decisions are made about education.To have a broader vision. The University cannot organize it. For headmasters - practice in the state, municipal or private companies, tosee – how ethics codes are made, development strategies .... all different. To train people to be self-sufficient. In tough and reflection times how not to burn oneself - and "not to hide in ashes," [..] I do not know how to deal immediately with sassy and challenging people. I've grown up in a family where it was not so, it is missing." (Respondent C)

"Theoretical baggage knowledge [..] is valuable, if there is a possibility to gain experience. If one studies to become a director, then one has to go through all steps which are in school, from the bottom. Not exactly as a cleaner, pick up a broom, but why not? Also, the technical staff is the school's cell, and one of the main [..] Headmaster having worked as a deputy director ... that is it has been promoted gradually [..] There is a need to wish to improve and make a contribution." (Respondent D)

"[..] To provide subject matter expertise on Latvia: what processes take place in Latvia, there will be included as well as communication competences [..] Preparing the heads of institutions [..] would be very useful to give an idea of what the deputies are doing, about these lessons – one can put the music first or the last lesson."(Respondent E)

"Get acquainted with the Latvian University, Faculty of School management experience. To a large extent psychology was taught, made us understand management matters, English, record-keeping. Quite a positive experience, many of the graduates are known Latvian leaders." (Respondent F)

"[..] The key, in my opinion, psychology studies, law. In practice, new headmasters offer to be shadows of directors." (Respondent G)

"It is necessary to have a data base in the city, where it would be known that one wants to become a school headmaster. Then he would still have to pass the school management courses. Another practice! Then the prospective headmaster could be at a week practice at a real school headmaster- watching the process of acquiring new skills in working with documents, receiving reference for the university from the school's headmaster, and of course, for the future headmaster himself. Someone to assess what else should this new prospective school headmaster needs . Assistance should be targeted." (Respondent H)

Conclusions

✓ Professional competences of comprehensive school headmasters have a complex system that provides creativity in education.
✓ The creative leader was not born but learned to become one.
✓ Eight school headmasters participated in the interviews and surveys, with working experience up to 10 years and 252 deputy directors - men and women aged from 30 - 71 years of age. Such a condition is important to understand the causes and psychological factors that determine the school headmasters' professional competences.
✓ Schools' headmasters are creative and strong, able to overcome the problems and difficulties, as well as provide valuable advice.
✓ Headmasters value differently what is creativity at work. The ratio "number of students" can be measured in two ways - as both a quantitative as well as qualitative, since the increase in the number of students affects not only the demographic but

also the prestige of the school, the teachers' professionalism, forms of cooperation with the other educational institutions.
- ✓ It is easier to make consequence, duration and leadership together than separately.
- ✓ Competences as knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary to provide creativity in educational institution.

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Educating educational leaders in Vietnam

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Abstract

The idea that leadership is a key factor in realizing educational reforms is widely cherished. All over the world educational leaders face new challenges and extended responsibilities. In these new situations a completed teacher-training program is no longer sufficient to become a successful educational leader. There is a growing need for leadership development and there is a need to discuss and compare the content and design of leadership programs in order to gain more experience and knowledge on how to create programs with practical relevance.

This paper discusses the design and delivery of a master program in educational leadership and management in a joint venture between two universities in Vietnam and Sweden. Moreover, the paper argues that universities might play a special role in helping educational leaders to strengthen their professional status and to develop their own community of practice through helping them to identify their own solid body of disciplinary knowledge and their own research agenda.

Keywords: educational leadership, leadership development, leadership curriculum

Prelude

In November 2006 Prof. Nguyen My Loc, the rector of the University of Education in Vietnam National University in Hanoi arrived at Dalarna University in Falun in Sweden to discuss the formal and practical arrangements for the design and delivery of a master program for Vietnamese educational leaders.

In Sweden there was no tradition for educational leaders to a have a specific leadership education. However, after the general election in 2006 the new government put forward a proposal for a mandatory national in-service training program for school principals. The new school leadership program is provided by the universities. It comprises three courses at the

master level and leads to a certificate of 30 ECT credits. The program can be seen as the principals' induction course with the general purpose to deepen the principals' knowledge of the national school system and the national goals for the school. There is an emphasis on democratic and communicative forms of leadership and measures to be taken in order to assure each student's goal achievement and development as an independent learner. "Pedagogic leadership" is a key concept, which is based on the firm belief that successful schools need principals who can inspire the teachers to apply innovative teaching methods. The principals are expected to spend time in the classrooms and acquire insights into the problems that teachers and students struggle with. However, it is interesting to note that in real life the Swedish principals are heavily preoccupied with administrative duties. The Swedish School Inspection reports that the principals are not seen in the classrooms. In real life Swedish teachers manage the teaching without much interference.

In Vietnam the expansion of the education system had caused a pipeline problem. The number of newly appointed principals and school managers were growing and the demand for leadership development was increasing but the number of providers and courses remained very limited. The university programs and the National Training Programme for School Principals were designed in the traditional Vietnamese mode with formal lectures dealing with abstract contents far removed from the day-to-day operations in the schools and with no opportunities to practice. Moreover, these programs suffered from a lack of good facilities and a lack of competent instructors.

In December 2001 Prime Minister Phan Van Khai had signed Decision 201 in which he approved of the Strategy for Educational Development in 2001-10. The Decision criticizes the education system for failing to provide the country with enough qualified human resources to support the transformation of the centrally controlled and subsidised economy into the socialist and market oriented economy. It is pointed out that due attention had not been paid to the qualifications of educational leaders and that educational leaders should be regularly trained in administration knowledge and skills as well as ethical behaviour. Moreover, the current leadership thinking and mode should be renewed in order to support the progressive decentralisation and the creativity and sense of self-responsibility at each level and in each educational establishment. Furthermore, in June 2004 the Politburo of the Vietnamese Communist

Party had issued Instruction 40/CT/T on the development and quality improvement of teachers and educational managers. The Instruction emphasizes the importance of building and improving the quality and morality of education leaders.

Against this background the two universities were preparing to enter into an international co-operation with the purpose to enhance the leadership capacity of Vietnamese principals and educational leaders. In February 2007 an agreement was signed at a meeting in Hanoi and in May 2007 the first cohort of Vietnamese leaders joined the program. In the following 5 years 120 educational leaders at all levels, including state and provincial and district officers and school principals and heads of department, became students and were supervised and lectured by a group of Swedish lecturers and Vietnamese co-supervisors, using English and the Internet to communicate. They examined administrative procedures and organized collective inquiries in their home organisations. More than often the challenges seemed overwhelming. However, during the program the students showed a tireless commitment to improving the quality of Vietnamese education and, eventually, 76 of them could complete the coursework and defend their master theses while keeping up their ordinary jobs and other undertakings as well as taking care of their families.

Intentions

A curriculum is by no means a neutral statement. It contains normative standpoints on what should be considered as important knowledge and how the students may acquire this knowledge and it expresses the desired future role of the students and what they hopefully will be able to accomplish.

It was obvious from the first meeting that the common goal was to develop the Vietnamese leaders' capacity to play a decisive role in reforming education in Vietnam. Together we wished to develop their administrative expertise and know-how so that they would gain the confidence of stakeholders and central authorities and be able to initiate and sustain local developments. However, from a closer reading of the obtainable policy documents we found only vague indications of extended authorities.

With the new market orientation in education the policy makers had introduced an open system approach, suggesting that the new structure

with various autonomous units, public and private, would bring a new effectiveness to education through its capacity to adapt to varied student inputs and varied demands for well-trained and capable workers and professionals. Moreover, it is well known in organizational analysis that when the complexity of the structure increases more attention needs to be paid to problems related to communication and coordination to ensure that the system does not break down in separate parts (Mintzberg, 1983). In this situation we expected that there would be less interest from the central authorities to maintain control of each and every activity in the education system and to leave the control with principals and educational leaders. To sum up, our first intention was to help the participants to analyse the consequences of the reform policies and to introduce them to a broad range of alternative administrative procedures that they could test and use in order to   make their organisations' outputs more competitive.

Secondly, it was of course necessary to relate the curriculum to the Swedish academic regulations with the usual focus on theory and thesis writing and the specific focus on the participants' independent critical thinking. Moreover, it was necessary to relate the curriculum to the explicit Swedish ideological standpoint that education at all levels must promote democracy as a fundamental social value. Thus, we agreed to create a democratic environment in the host university in Hanoi and to ensure an informal relationship with the participants marked by equality and appreciation of each participant's personal experiences and knowledge.

Thirdly, we agreed that course work and theoretical studies was not an end in itself but should be regarded as a means to help the participants to feel less constrained by established relations and procedures and to start seeing their functions and daily activities in a wider and comparative context. We anticipated that as leaders in units that were gaining more autonomy they were liable to deal with more complex issues that could be framed in different ways, from different perspectives and from different interests. We found it likely that in their future careers they would have to deal with increasing numbers of unexpected and unwanted problems that would be difficult to analyse and difficult to respond to and therefore it was our intention to help them to increase their repertory of possible solutions and their capacity to use various sources of knowledge in their search for adequate responses to future challenges.

Finally, all communication would be in English to compensate for the lack of a common language. However, we knew that the participants' actual proficiency in English would be very poor as well as their

proficiency in academic writing, although they were required to have a completed undergraduate exam. Thus, it was decided that the host university in Hanoi would provide bilingual translators and interpreters. Moreover, there would be a focus on written assignments. With the help from translators the participants would write and submit papers and receive feedback from the Swedish lecturers and supervisors on the email. The continuous exchange of papers and feedback was seen a means to help the participants to develop their communicative skills and to wield control of a new and extended professional vocabulary.

Knowledge in leadership

In our search for more specific suggestions on what educational leaders need to learn we soon found ourselves enclosed in an amazingly rich flow of articles and books that deal with effective leadership. Leithwood and Riehl (2003) argue in their extensive review of studies in school leadership for the American Educational Research Association that leadership proficiency is related to three core performances:

- ✓ setting directions,
- ✓ developing people,
- ✓ re-designing the organisation.

This claim is supported by the International Successful School Principalship Project (ISSPP), which is a network of research teams in 15 countries with the aim to collect case studies on different school leadership practices through interviews with school principals, teachers, support staff, parents and students. With more than 60 cases it is one of the largest leadership studies ever undertaken (Gurr et al, 2006).

Moreover, the Improving School Leadership (ISL) project that was organised by OECD in 2004 compared different approaches to school leadership in 22 education systems in 19 countries. The report (Pont et al, 2008) identifies four core leadership practices:

- ✓ supporting and developing teacher quality,
- ✓ defining goals and measuring progress,
- ✓ managing strategic resources,
- ✓ collaborating with external partners.

Finally, we studied the standards created by the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC), a national professional association of educational leaders formed in 1996. These standards are reported to have

had a major influence on the preparation and recruitment of educational leaders and principals in the USA. The 179 standards are structured in six focal areas and cover the knowledge, dispositions and performances that constitute effective leadership. According to ISLLC, a competent educational leader promotes the success of every student by:

- ✓ facilitating the development of a shared vision of learning,
- ✓ advocating a school culture and conducive instructural program,
- ✓ ensuring resources for a safe, efficient and effective learning environment,
- ✓ collaborating with faculty and community members,
- ✓ acting with integrity and fairness,
- ✓ understanding and responding to the political, social, economic, legal and cultural context.

There are of course good reasons to maintain a critical distance to the claims that the above sets of leadership competences are valid for all schools at all levels and cross all cultures. It is fair to assume that the identified generic competences are enacted differently in different contexts. Probably, competent leaders can select and enact competences that are appropriate in different situations and different competences can be used to accomplish the same outcome. Moreover, it is likely that the identified competences interact in complex ways and that leadership effectiveness cannot be understood unless these interactions are understood. Bush and Clover (2003) argue that successful school leaders are likely to embody most or all of the emphasized competences. And English (2008) argues that the selection of specific competences implies that highly relevant competences might be excluded. Moreover, English points out that there is a risk that the selected competences are framed in the language of technical efficiency and that the ambiguous, multidimensional, highly subjective, contradictive and non-empirical properties of educational leadership are lost. Finally, Bowden and Marton (2004) argue that it is important for educationalists to go beyond narrowly defined competences and they argue that students need to experience a curriculum that will enable them to develop the capacity to perform in unpredicted circumstances in powerful ways.

However, the above studies show plainly that a completed teacher training is not sufficient to take on the challenges that currently confront educational leaders. Teachers who get promoted and become leaders run

the risk of becoming absorbed in multiple and fragmented activities and demands. With no prior education in administration they will find it hard to widen their scope of authority and create the necessary space for strategic activities. Several studies recognize the need for administrative knowledge. Forty-three of the ISLLC standards specify the knowledge and understanding in various fields of administration that leaders need to acquire, such as:

- ✓ the principles of developing and implementing strategic plans,
- ✓ systems theory,
- ✓ the change process for systems organisation and individuals,
- ✓ school cultures,
- ✓ theories and models for organisations and the principles of organisational development,
- ✓ human resource management and development,
- ✓ principles and issues relating to fiscal operations of school management,
- ✓ current technologies that support management functions,
- ✓ successful models of partnerships,
- ✓ the purpose of education and the role of leadership in modern society,
- ✓ the dynamics of policy development and advocacy.

Moreover, several studies put an emphasis on communication and cooperation, which is not surprising since these competences are emphasized in almost all job descriptions. The International Comparison of School Leadership Development Programs, which was a project conducted at the University of Bamberg, Germany in 1998-2001, compares programs in leadership development in 15 countries across Europe, Asia, Australasia and America. It concludes that there is a trend to include communication and cooperation and calls this 'an international paradigm shift' and argues that it indicates a clear shift in the core responsibilities of school leaders with a new focus on people and relationships and a new need to prepare school leaders for their task as school developers (Huber, 2004).

Courses

Eventually the curriculum was designed and acknowledged. It contains 6 courses that are covered in 6 sessions lasting 4-5 days and include seminars, workshops and lectures. In between sessions the participants complete 9 assignments. They submit their drafts and papers and receive feedback on the email. This text based communication is slow and cumbersome but gives the necessary room for third party translators to contribute and for both sides to get involved in more thorough readings to clear away some misinterpretations and to disclose meanings that are hidden in unexpected wordings and reasoning.

The first course deals with *organisation theory.* The participants get acquainted with alternative ways to represent existing school organisations using various models and they evaluate the consequences of established organisational measures. They compare Vietnamese school hierarchies with Swedish cross-disciplinary teams with delegated authorities and responsibilities. In the assignment they describe the formal structures and procedures in the organisations where they work using at least 5 of the studied models in order to frame and explore specific organisational concerns.

In the second course on the *history and organisation of Vietnam education* the participants evaluate the unique features in their own school tradition.

In the third the course on *New Public Management* the participants focus on the introduction of market type mechanisms as a means to create effectiveness. They compare Vietnamese education policies with the ways governments all over the world promote decentralization and privatization and they analyse the consequences of gaining increased authorities over strategic resources.

The fourth course deals with *strategies in Human Resource Management* (HRM). It includes workshops on team building and coaching. In the exercises HRM procedures are contrasted with traditional bureaucratic means to control and manage the staff. Schools are seen as learning organisations and the participants explore measures to attract and retain high performing employees.

In the fifth course on *current policy making and education practices in schools and universities* the participants describe and evaluate the shift in Vietnamese education policies and focus the new contradictory and

complex demands on school leaders. In the assignment the participants describe and analyse the intricate network of the different Vietnamese governing organisations acting as stakeholders.

The sixth course on *leading organisational transition* has a focus on school development and strategic leadership. The participants identify and evaluate indicators of effectiveness and efficiency. They discuss and compare means to break up unproductive patterns of behaviour and they reflect on ways to empower staff members and to win their commitment and cooperation. In the assignments they evaluate different techniques to link the daily activities in the school to overall strategic orientations.

Assignments and thesis

The assignments and the thesis as well as the course on research methodology are designed to explicitly link the curriculum with workplace practice. In the assignments the participants focus on various processes that add value to the quality of teaching. They describe the decision-making and budgeting and management control and goal setting and staff behaviour and attitudes, etc, and they develop an understanding of the importance of detailed and accurate descriptions. They use the models and principles that they study in the courses to name and frame the processes and to describe the included elements and to suggest changes and improvements. Moreover, they are instructed to use labelled boxes and circles and arrows and lines to construct socio-grams, cause-and-effect diagrams, hierarchies, centre-periphery diagrams and flowcharts, etc, as instruments to visualise certain aspects of the process or to point out elements that need to be added or changed.

After completing the assignments the participants are permitted to start working on their research proposals, laying the ground for the master thesis, which eventually is defended in a final seminar that is conducted as an informal discussion with a small group of participants and two Swedish supervisors and a Vietnamese co-supervisor. The seminar identifies the need for further improvements and revisions and the graduation can take place two months later.

In the continuous supervision the participants are encouraged to look beyond immediate solutions to well known problems and to begin to appreciate their own home organisations as research fields. They can

choose to organize focus groups and do interviews and use life stories and cases to engage groups of stakeholders in collective inquiries. The methodology is influenced by Schön's discussion on reflection as a means to create knowledge. Schön (1983) links reflection to experimentation and he concludes that skilled practitioners test their ways forward by means of small experiments in which problems and solutions are defined interactively. Schön describes how professionals get involved in progressive inquiries and become researchers in their own work.

The practitioners start the research by focusing on a specific process, which is defined as unsatisfactory. They identify the stakeholders who can contribute to a better understanding of the process and to a change to the better. They listen and document and question and in the process they become sensitive to the value of local knowledge. They use diagrams and flow charts and other artefacts to create shared references and to help the stakeholders to express their views and to propose solutions and to help them to experience the process in alternative ways. At times the supervisors help them to shift their attention away from the process being studied and to use reflexivity to catch sight of themselves and become aware of how they interact with the stakeholders. Together they evaluate the participants' impact on the process and the construction of new local knowledge and the participants examine their own responsiveness and the ways they communicate.

The delivery

International programs create occasions for both participants and lecturers to compare experiences and to learn from other cultures and traditions. In designing the curriculum we had of course reasons to be careful about transferring knowledge and ideas based on European and Swedish traditions and values. Nevertheless, in a Swedish degree program it is almost mandatory to promote democratic values and to support reform policies that promote the decentralisation of formal powers and authorities.

Moreover, coming from senior positions the participants felt tremendous pressure to succeed. They looked for useful measures and effective solutions to problems that they were struggling with in their daily work. And they wanted clear and detailed instructions in order to pass all assignments and complete the thesis and receive the master degree in due time. On the other hand the curriculum required an equally strong interest

in a research-based understanding of administration and leadership. The inconsistent expectations resulted in much frustration and disappointments and much time had to be spent on establishing a reasonable balance between workplace relevance and academic requirements.

Finally, the stress on change and local improvement created an ethical dilemma since it implied a considerable risk-taking. The coexistence of formal and informal economies in Vietnam and the fact that the informal economy often has a stronger legitimacy create circumstances that require leadership competences that were not included in the curriculum and are not found in the academic leadership discourse. Moreover, both the Vietnamese Communist Party and the National Fatherland Front with its hierarchy of mass popular organizations and unions have representatives inside the schools and organizations, which often make it more suitable and advisable to maintain status quo rather than to introduce change. And the direct control and authority over staffing and finance and salaries and student intake exercised by the provincial and local departments and specialized agencies of the Government and the local levels of the Peoples Committees severely limit the room for any testing of new and alternative perspectives.

Concluding remarks

We started by pointing out that effective school leadership is widely regarded as a key factor in the realisation of educational reforms. In Vietnam, as in many other countries, policy makers trust in decentralisation and privatisation and competition among autonomous units to increase effectiveness and improve student achievements. Thus, we found it reasonable to conclude that in order to make these policies meaningful in local contexts educational leaders need to be prepared to assume extended administrative responsibilities. Moreover, we recognized in the international discussion on leadership competences and development a focus on communicative and collaborative competences and a focus on workplace relevance.

In the paper we argue that cross disciplinary studies in public administration have the potentials to help educational leaders to learn from their experiences and to discern the new and not yet experienced issues that they must deal with in the future. Moreover, we argue that conducting participatory research develops the leader's capacity to create small-scale experiments and to involve different voices and perspectives in their search for new and more effective solutions.

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Do schools and school leadership change – or are they the islands of stability?[6]

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Abstract

The first part of the paper deals with the characteristic of the changing world in relation to values and investigates whether and how much those values which orient education should change. It also reflects on how changes can influence school leadership. The next part of the paper gives an overview of the so-called demand-driven development of competence requirements for school leaders at a transnational level. It introduces the process of development starting from the existing requirements of educational decision makers, acting school leaders and teachers regarding relevant knowledge, way of thinking and acting of head teachers arriving at the final competence description in five fields clustering the competence elements into knowledge, skills and attitudes. Finally, the paper summarizes the key questions regarding school leaders as competent driving forces in uncertain times.

Key words: school leaders, competency, demand-driven development, change

This study focuses on how our rapidly changing world influences schooling and school leadership. What kind of knowledge and what kind of competences are necessary for the successful leadership of a school in the 21st century? Can these competences necessary for success be defined? If so, how? The possible answers to the above questions are articulated here by describing the antecedents, the objective and the results of a Central European project.

Rapidly changing world – exponential times

The changes taking place in the world have fundamentally transformed the role of knowledge and learning both for a private individual and the entire

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[6] A presentation with the same title was given by Tibor Baráth and Justina Erculj at the 2012 ENIRDELM conference. This study does not cover the Slovenian case study.

functioning of society. The birth of knowledge-based societies made life-long-learning a part of everyday life. The speed at which information can become outdated or novel, the rapid pace at which new vocations are created – together with the knowledge they require – the technological, social and organizational changes and their pace, all make it indispensible for us to learn new things and adapt to the changes that take place around us. The nature and the content of these require a fundamental change in the way we adapt and think.

Even from the aspect of learning, the complexity of our world, which is connected to the rapidness of the changes, is an important factor. With air travel, an epidemic for instance, can rapidly spread from one continent to the other, new viruses can develop in a new environment, but medical treatment for these might not yet be known. We can experience similar trends in the economy as well. The financial crisis, which started in the USA in 2008 when the secondary real estate sector securities devalued and grew into a socio-economic problem, illustrates that the complexity and the speed of changes requires new approaches and methods. Such a world would have been impossible to imagine 50 years ago. Today however, even in the global financial world, such complex networks have been formed and have resulted in the linear distribution of such impacts, and their consequences are more difficult to predict than what we experienced in previous crisis situations.

We can find examples of the exponential nature of changes in many fields of life. In Iceland, a study was conducted to examine the proportion of students in higher education compared to the total population of 20-24 year olds. From the 1911-1970 figures they predicted an exponential rise, which was confirmed. See *Figure 1* (Jónasson, 2012).
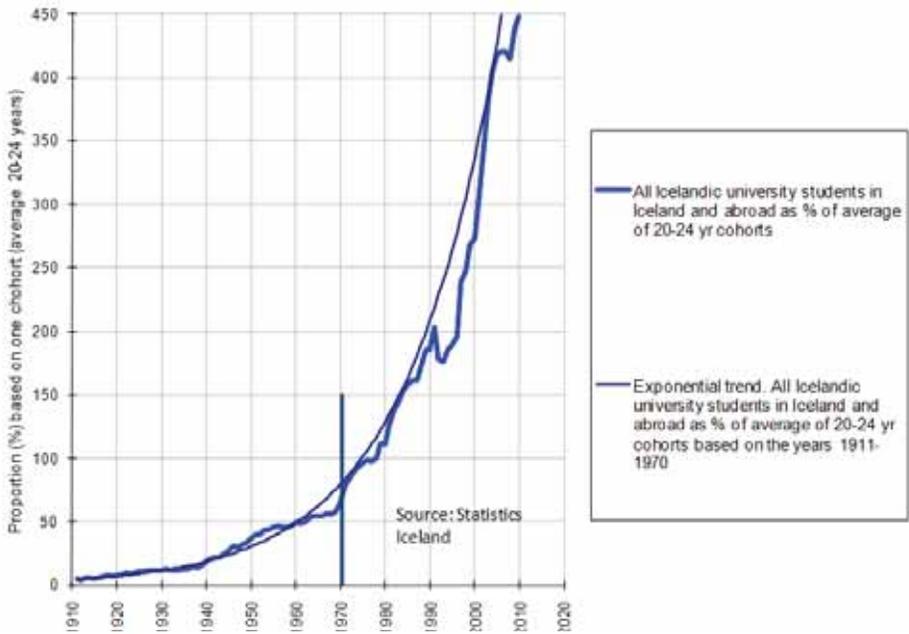
Figure 1. Higher education: enrolment in Iceland 1911-1970-2010

We could go on to mention the example of global warming, the impacts on the earth's eco- system, and the exponential growth in its population. These factors influence the way we live day by day[7]. Therefore, it is a vital issue to examine what schools do in order to aid the intelligent adaptation of our growing generation.

When talking about complexity, we should also discuss the content and concept of learning. Formerly, learning was understood as an individual activity, but now, in addition to individual learning, there are increasing possibilities for learning within a group format. Linking the intra-individual processes with the intra-group processes makes learning itself more complicated than previously thought. This is also reflected in the fact that besides what we now call formal learning, non-formal and informal learning are also recognized as important, and the need for linking these in a system also emerges. By now, one of the greatest challenges in leading

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[7] United Nations (para): *The World at Six Billions.*
http://www.un.org/esa/population/publications/sixbillion/sixbilpart1.pdf, 22/02/2013 viewing.

school learning is how much of the knowledge is learnt via the formal learning process.

The role of the school also changes as a result of these exponential changes and the complexity of the knowledge-based society. Whilst previously it was natural for students to prepare for certain, well-known vocations in schools of various academic levels and types, now schools need to prepare students for jobs that did not exist at the time of the start of the training, and prepare them to solve problems that have not even materialized. These all fundamentally influence the role of learning and the way we think about these as well as the learning management methods and techniques that can be used successfully. Next, we are going to deal with the meaning of learning and its context.

The context and meaning of learning

The socio-economic environment of learning

The role and importance of learning have changed and grown in our post-modern society. The transition into a knowledge-based society raises the value of learning, which makes it a decisive factor in the world of business and work as well. Now we are briefly going to introduce the link between learning and business on the basis of a study conducted by the OECD in 2010. The researchers who conducted the study, E.A. Hanuschek, and L. Woessmann, in cooperation with the members of the PISA Committee and OECD Secretariat, used a new model with the help of which they could explore the link between learners' cognitive skills and competences and economic growth. The competences were measured mainly by PISA tests, while the economic impact was defined by the expected growth of GDP. They analyzed what impact it would have on the economic growth of OECD countries if, as a result of a 20-year-long educational reform launched in 2010:

- ✓ the performance of the learners of all countries improved by 25 points in the PISA tests;

- ✓ if the learners in all countries reached a minimum of 400 points;

- ✓ and finally, if the learners of each country scored the same average score (546 points) as Finnish learners did between 2000-2006 (in Maths and Sciences).

The findings of the applied model show that even a relatively small scale of performance improvement in the competences of the labour force of individual countries would have a significant impact on welfare in the long-term. In the three cases mentioned above – calculating with an average age of 80 of those born in 2010 – by 2090, the total GDP of the OECD countries would grow by USD 115, 200, and 260 trillion. This is much higher than the development costs would be (OECD, 2010).

The OECD analysis enforces the importance of learning for the society and the individual alike. It is not the length of time spent on learning but the successful outcome of learning that counts. The exponential pace of the growth of knowledge, the speed at which this knowledge becomes outdated, and the spread of learning over an entire lifespan, all place learning abilities and the formation of attitudes in the centre of attention in a natural way.

Learning and school

The changes significantly restructure the link between the world of work and learning. The labour market tends to define more and more the competences rather than or instead of the qualifications that are required from a candidate for a certain position or responsibility. At the same time, the role of the individuals, their tasks and responsibilities also increase regarding the improvement of their own preparedness. As a result, what also changes is the role of the sector that enables the preparation of the individuals and supports their learning and thus forms a bridge between the individual and the world of work.

These issues described above lead us to the latest findings of learning science, which show us the necessary transformation of schooling. Now we will provide an overview of some key events related to this issue on the basis of a study written by Keith Sawyer (2008).

The present form of schooling emerged in the era of the industrial society, and it became widespread in the early 20th century. Education, as a subsystem of society, became one of the biggest and most bureaucratic systems. At the time of its emergence, there was no deep and sound knowledge available on learning that school education could have been based upon. In many respects, at that time, schooling was built on experiences gained so far, common sense and pre-suppositions that had

never been examined and therefore, they had not been proven either. According to the schooling model – termed by Sawyer as standard:

- ✓ the basis of schooling lies on the acquisition of facts, rules and procedures;

- ✓ the level of a person's academic knowledge is reflected by the amount of the above-mentioned;

- ✓ knowledge is owned by the teacher, whose task it is to pass on this knowledge to the learners;

- ✓ learning goes from simple to complex, but what is simple/complex is defined by the education experts and not by the child's learning method;

- ✓ the success of schooling can be measured by the level of acquiring these facts and procedures (Sawyer, p. 45-47).

The transition from an industrial society to a knowledge-based society, and similarly, the transition from an industrial economy to knowledge economy, fundamentally transforms the world of learning, and as a part of it, schooling. In this "new world", the economy is built more on the production and distribution of information rather than the production and distribution of assets and objects (Drucker, 1993, p. 182). Carefully selected facts, rules and procedures are not enough to adjust to the world of work, to be successful at the workplace, because the complexity of work itself has grown radically, and basically in all kinds of vocations and professional fields. A perfect example of this for instance is that while 20 years ago using a computer was the prerogative of a few people only, mainly in highly qualified jobs, today it has become a common skill requirement.

With the help of learning science, and built on recent research findings, a new learning model can be formed. The key elements of this, following the concepts of Sawyer, are the following:

- ✓ A deeper and conceptual understanding of learning instead of concentrating on superficial facts and procedures;

- ✓ The importance of coherent, integrated and correlated knowledge, as opposed to knowledge segmented into various academic subjects;

✓ The importance of contextualized and authentic knowledge, as opposed to the application of exercises lifted out from the classroom context;
✓ The importance of cooperative rather than isolated learning.

A successful learning environment according to the principles described above can be characterized as follows:

✓ Learning tailor-suited to the target group. All children can gain experience in learning experiences that are customized to them;
✓ The availability of many types of knowledge sources. The learners can access the necessary knowledge at any time from various sources, books, the internet, and experts from all over the world;
✓ Joint group learning. The learners study together, where they work jointly on authentic and interesting projects;
✓ Testing deeper understanding. Tests must assess the deeper and conceptual understanding of the learners, and they must be able to reveal to what extent the learners' knowledge is integrated, coherent and contextualized (Sawyer, 2008, p.58).

The two learning models described above (the standard and the new model) are closely attached to the economy in a sense that they both strive to form and operate a kind of education process that takes the expectations of the economy into consideration. The relation between the economy and the system of learning is complex and characteristically indirect; and the knowledge, the values and way of thinking of the given era have great influence on this correlation.

If we look at the models of schooling, two questions arise: how does the education system change along its own path of logic and in response to the changes of its environment? What kind of balance will it be able to create between tradition and modernity? Will it be able to achieve this balance while focusing on the future or is its operation managed by some form of inertia? How do the changes influence the role of school leadership and what kind of competences can enable school leaders to be successful in an uncertain future? It would go well beyond the limitations of this study if we endeavoured to deal with all these questions. Next we are going to focus on defining leader competences.

School leadership and the success of learning

In 1997, the education ministries of five Central-European countries, Austria, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Slovakia and Slovenia, entered into agreement to cooperate in order to share their experiences in fields they jointly found strategically outstanding, and in order to carry out joint development efforts, mainly through projects. In 2007, the Central European Cooperation in Education (CECE) agreement was renewed. Those managing education realized that there is a rising interest in the field of school leadership, which was confirmed by the OECD's Improving School Leadership program. The related report written (Pont, Nusche and Moorman, 2008) gave an impetus to dealing with the role of school leadership, and the link between school leadership and the success of learning.

The foundations for defining school leader competences

Three co-related projects within the framework of CECE, dealing with leadership development were organized by the Tempus Public Foundation[8]. In the first project, named The Role of School Leadership in Creating a Learning Environment that is Conducive to Effective Learning with Special Regard to the Improvement of the Quality of Teacher Activity, researchers examined and analyzed the characteristic features of school leadership (state of the art of leadership) in five countries. They established a common interpretation framework for the country reports (the context of school leadership development, the changing role of school leadership, school leadership development approaches and tendencies), and they uniformized the terminology used. The analysis of the state of school leadership and its development possibilities led to the formulation of policy recommendations. The key results of the project is identifying the development areas of school leadership, for which the precise and exact definition of school leader competencies is a necessary pre-condition (Abari-Ibolya, 2009).

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[8] Tempus Public Foundation is a non-profit organization under the supervision of the ministry responsible for education. Its main mission is to represent European values and to contirbute to the development of education via a two-way transfer of international knowledge and experience. http://english.tpf.hu/

School leader competence areas and international leader competence profiles

The aim of the second project, named Quality School Leadership for Effective Learning was to define school leadership competence areas. As a result of the research and development project country-specific school leader profiles were formulated, and the relation between competence expectations and school autonomy was also examined. The key result of the development was to integrate relevant interest group opinions into the definition of competence expectations. The description built on empirical experiences, and focusing on behaviour, actions and attitudes when characterizing leader competences, seemed promising regarding the selection of leaders, the personal development of leaders and training programs to be developed for them. For the description and comparison of competence profiles, we used the Role Diagrammatic Approach (RDA) model, which focuses on the holistic description of human behaviour. It describes behaviour as an active presentation form of competences with approximately 30,000 words and expressions, which enables a rather sophisticated characterization (Abari-Ibolya, Baráth, eds., 2010).

Competent leadership – leader competences

The third project, named International Cooperation for School Leadership Project, focused on the detailed description of school leader competences. The methods and development procedures used in the R&D development project were closely linked to those used in the second project. Next we are going to briefly describe the development concept, the applied methods and the results found.

The concept of the development and its methodology

During the definition and elaboration of school leader competences, two alternatives were available to us: the theoretical approach and the empirical model. These two development strategies are detailed in Table 1.

Table 1

Possible strategies for development

Theoretical model	Empirical model
Analysis of the literature, national cases, country characteristics	Analysis of the relation between education and the world of labour, literature, cases, etc.
Development of the competence structure	Survey of the requirements of stakeholders, and building the competence structure on them
Characteristics of the process: fast, coherent, close	Characteristics: slower, turbulent, open

Confirming the methods and procedures used in the second project, we opted for the empirical model. From its open structure and the deep as well as intensive interaction with stakeholders, besides the sound theoretical base, we expected the model to be well fitting to the practice of the countries and the institutions. The development procedure used was the so-called demand-driven development[9]. The main characteristic features of these can be summarized as follows:

a) The elaboration of a school leader competence structure, and the definition of the expectations regarding specific jobs are built on the selection of the target groups that use the knowledge represented by the profession and their integration into the development process.

b) The representative of the target groups using this knowledge, primarily the employers of school leaders, leader trainers and those fulfilling leader tasks, have a thorough and detailed discussion and come to a conclusion about the relevant expectations.

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[9] During the formation of the development model, we studied and adapted the development model used in Great Britain by the sectoral skill councils. See for instance, the sector of life-long learning: http://www.excellencegateway.org.uk/node/57

c) Defining the expectations happens through identifying what behaviour (actions, ways of thinking, and attitude) results in successful leadership. This reflects that behaviour can be considered the active representation forms of competences.

d) Learning about, studying and using the existing competence models and the knowledge contained in them for the development process.

e) The application of qualitative and quantitative models, methods and procedures that enable the measurement and comparison of competences.

The methodology applied in the project is in accordance with the approach of the OECD Skills Strategy (*OECD*, 2012) as the objective of the OECD development is to differentiate between formal qualifications and real, operating skills (*OECD*, 2012, 12), and in harmony with this, to focus on the application and utilization of skills.

The development process and its result

During the process we tried to find an answer to what makes school leaders successful in the 21st century. The groups of the participating countries described above in the previous chapter held workshops during which they had detailed discussions and came to conclusions to define the behaviour forms, activities, and attitudes that a leadership that functions optimally must possess. The expectations were laid down in short sentences, where one sentence referred to one expectation. The descriptions (sentence lists) compiled during these national workshops were collected, content overlaps were sorted out, the expectations were fine-tuned, and then grouped into clusters. Five areas, i.e. clusters, were defined, the central one of which was that of leading or managing learning and teaching, and the other four areas were meant to support this central issue. The five areas are the following:

a) Leading and managing learning and teaching;
b) Leading and managing change;
c) Leading and managing self;
d) Leading and managing others;
e) Leading and managing institution.

For the practical application of the expectations referring to the five

areas, it was necessary to describe these alongside the categories of knowledge and understanding, skills and abilities and attitude. Competence was interpreted as the harmonized and proportionate part of these (Baráth, 2013, 31-42).

Figure 2 shows the main areas of the Central5 and their correlation to each other. It demonstrates that from the aspect of leadership, the leading of learning and teaching, which supports learning are in the centre. The management of the areas around it, i.e. change, self and others, institution, similarly to the relation between the main processes and supporting processes in quality management, provide assistance for the successful and high quality realization of the activities which are in the focus of leadership. *Figure 2* also shows that a successful leader must have well-defined knowledge, skills and attitude in each area.
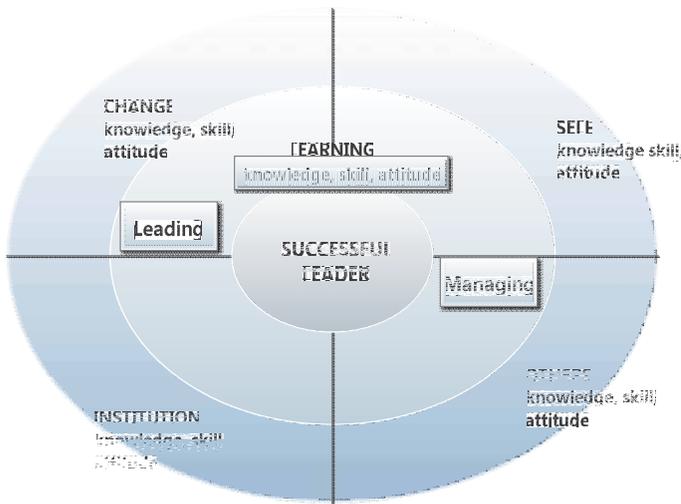

Figure 2. Relation among the areas of the Central5

Based on the development, two issues must be emphasized here that significantly influence the application and practical utilization of the competence structure created. The first one is that when we talk about the optimal leadership of a specific institution, we do not exclusively talk about

the top leader but the entire management of the school. Therefore, the competences necessary for the management of an institution should not be possessed by one person, rather the whole management jointly. The other issue to be mentioned here is that organizations in different stages of development require different management and management types. The Central5 enables us to harmonize the management and the organizational stage.

It was of key importance to harmonize the steps of the development process and to create consistency, while guaranteeing that the expectations articulated at the national workshops are preserved during the development process. Therefore, the final product that emerged in connection with the knowledge, skills and attitudes for the five areas, gives a true picture of the original expectations. In this study, we cannot go into detail about what evidences can serve as the foundation of the coherence of the project and the validation of the results, and consequently, here we will only refer to the quantitative and qualitative procedures used in the ICSL project that provided us with adequate proof (Baráth, Glynn, Haskova, 2013, p. 66-77).

School leadership – the competent driving force in an uncertain time

Next we are going to discuss how the Central5 adjusts to the socio-economic environment, the characteristics of which were described in chapter 3. Two issues need to be highlighted here, the first one being the role of learning in the society. In the centre of the Central5, as we could see in chapter 3, is learning. The task and responsibility of the leader is to achieve that learning and teaching, which supports learning and should lead to the development of the learner, to create an open and motivating atmosphere for effective learning, to create an evaluation and feedback culture directed at development, etc. Leadership must assist everybody's learning within the organization, and their prime objective is to operate and develop the school as a learning organization (Baráth et al., 2013, p. 46). The detailed description and elaboration of knowledge, skills and attitude (Baráth et al. 2013, p. 47-48) clearly shows that theoretical preparedness, readiness and attitude of a leader can lead to the successful realization of the above-mentioned results. Therefore, we can conclude that the Central5 is based on a clear-cut and modern interpretation of the concepts of school and learning.

The second area that needs to be highlighted in connection with knowledge society and globalization is change. One area of the Central5 is directing and managing change. Similarly to what we have seen in connection with learning, here we can also examine the main elements and characteristic features of the competence area. In the case of change, amongst the expectations we can find, besides others, the following: the management has a vision that is built on common values, and that supports the development of learners, this vision is transmitted to its environment; the management has a clear strategy and sees the road leading to the realization of this strategy; the management creates an environment in which those involved can approach the changes openly and constructively; etc. (Baráth et al., 2013, p. 50-52). Similarly to the area of learning and teaching, here we can also find the detailed description of the concept of competence, which with the help of the Central5 shows whether the leader can operate as an agent of change.

Last but not least, we should also examine what values are of key importance for a successful leader in an uncertain future. We will highlight five values here. Firstly, let us focus on a positive and active attitude towards change and complexity. Understanding and accepting changes help the leader manage learning in the organization in a way that will result in the learners' high level acquisition of skills and can preserve a positive attitude to learning. This can be a guarantee for them to become able to renew their knowledge and be able to solve situations, problems and tasks they have not learnt about yet, and that they have not yet been prepared for during their school education. The principle of complexity helps the leader understand the complexity of learning, and plan as well as operate complicated impact mechanisms such as learning (at the level of the individual and the organization alike). The active relation of the leader is demonstrated by the fact that he/she knows and can apply the models, methods and techniques that are required for the management of change processes.

The second value is the revalued responsibility. This means responsibility for the success of the organization, a future-conscious behaviour and the dedication for the objectives. In this case, the leader assumes responsibility for events, processes and results that he/she often has no direct influence on, however, the indirect influence might be quite significant.

Thirdly, we can mention the understanding of the self. For a leader it is vital to have thorough self-knowledge and to strive for continuous self-development, for this see the self-management and self-leading area of Central5.

The fourth value that has decisive importance for a leader in a knowledge society is the ability to encourage others, to be able to motivate people and to be dedicated towards this idea. The performance of an organization tends to indirectly depend on the leader and the management, which also happens in the case of schools. (See the findings of the research projects into school leadership and learner results (*Hallinger-Heck*, 1996, 1998; *Leithwood*, 2001; *Waters at all*, 2003, 3). In order to achieve good school results, to sustain them at a high level or to improve them, it is indispensible to continuously develop the teaching staff, to be ready to act and to preserve the dedication of learners towards development.

Lastly, we shall mention what probably defines most a leader's or the management's activity: this is the understanding, experiencing the importance of leader ethics. Ethics, of course, cannot be directly separated from the above-mentioned assumption of responsibility. One way how this can be manifested is how the leader with his/her actions promotes, and with his/her behaviour expresses and strengthens the values declared by the organization on an everyday basis, thus demonstrating responsibility for the harmony of values which are laid down in writing, communicated and practiced. Thus, the leader also sets an example. Accordingly, ethics is also expressed at the organizational and individual behaviour level. Out of the leader activities, it is decision-making that might best reflect the existence of ethical behaviour. The key element of this is that the decisions of the leader may not only be influenced by interests but also the consideration of the environment and the people (those affected). We can mention ethics in the field of innovation as an example. A leader must be aware of the fact whether – considering their given preparedness and state - the teaching staff is ready and able or can be made ready and able to professionally carry out an innovation process. If the answer is no, no matter how attractive, interesting or promising the innovation is, it is not ethically acceptable to force the teaching staff to jump into the innovation process.

For an ethical management, respecting laws and legal regulations goes without saying, but when it comes to implementing them, with his/her

actions and behaviour, a leader does not only emphasize lawfulness but endeavors to convey the respect of the spirit of rules and regulations.

In summary, we can conclude that in the 21st century, successful leaders have a good compass for the management of their organization. In a turbulent and rapidly changing environment, this kind of leadership goes together with changes in management directions. However, successful leaders know the reasons why changes should take place, and they are also in possession of the methods and techniques that make them ready and able to act. Similarly they are aware of the content of changes. Their decisions are jointly determined by professional quality and ethics.

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Change agents of school cultures – the requirement of adaptable analytic tools

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Abstract

This paper focuses on the requirement of revised and adaptable instruments for the analysis of school cultures. The main reason for this need is to provide a greater opportunity to highlight the values and motives underlying the activities of local players involved in daily work at schools, from a micro-oriented perspective. School development can be described through the concept of culture, as the interaction between the defined school culture and its consequences. For sustainable development, not restricted to the structuring of descriptions, an increased focus on school cultural subjects is obviously a matter of concern. Schools of today are in many ways characterized by goal steering, with the state assigning objectives for desired operations in general, ambiguous and vague terms. Through their own interpretations of these objectives, schools as organizations have a higher degree of autonomy to implement the outcome of the governmental assignments. A circumspect and clear analysis of school cultures and their contents could be a feasible path to uncover and interpret the underlying patterns of values and motives for teachers and students in their daily work. With reference to the idea of school cultures as change agents, the current analytic instruments of identifying and explaining their performance most likely require an update.

From a cultural perspective to a cultural understanding

To manage and lead an organization from a cultural perspective requires a different approach than the traditional instrumental or pragmatic view. The research in this area has long time been mostly limited to ideas of efficiency and performance (Alvesson, 2001).

In my work as a school developer, I felt that the available models and explanations failed to provide enough clear answers to describe and understand the complexity of school cultures. The problem of finding

credible and understandable ways of achieving successful knowledge transfer between the various stakeholder groups of school (Abrahamsson and Andersen, 2005) motivated me to take a closer look of what might be done in this area.

For deeper understanding of the daily work in schools, I recognized the need of revised and adaptable analytic tools. Berg (2011) notes that school activities cannot only be understood on their own terms, but should also be considered in relation to the complexity and widespread confusion that characterize the world of today. The school as a organization can be conceived as the product of a complex interplay of formal steering and informal influences grounded in local communities and in society as the whole. Researchers trying to establish a more holistic approach on issues related to school development need to bring together various elements into a coherent analytical model. A special problem is that current models for analysis of schools often have a limited focus on the double role of school as an organization and an institution, thus excluding a sufficient number of variables, useful to capture what is actually happening to individual members of the local school culture.

In this paper I wish to highlight the need of adaptable instruments for revised analyses of school cultures. I also wish to introduce the idea of school cultures as change agents. The concept of school cultures as change agents is based on the opportunities for teachers and students to acquire change agent competencies and expertise, given their capacity to influence both upwards and downwards, despite their the lack of positional and hierarchical power (Butcher and Atkinson, 1999). To be considered competent, teachers and students not only have to participate in daily work, but also to act and speak on behalf of their colleagues and fellow schoolmates. A competent actor can be assumed as someone who cares about the common good (Talpin, 2011).

The skills of competent actors are important components of the strategies for changing daily work. Fullan (1993) clearly states that the best practice of making teaching a noble and effective profession is having teachers combining their usual assignments with the skills of change agentry. Fullan identifies a number of organizational and institutional capacities for the change agents of school; vision-building, norms and practices of inquiry, the development of increased repertoires of skills and know-how among organizational members. He also mentions the creation

of collaborative school cultures. In order to understand the impact of school cultures as change agents we need a certain degree of cultural understanding. We learn to see order in reality, depending on the culture in which we are participating. Schools are complex institutions, with their daily work often characterized by the dialectical relationship between and within the present school cultures. In addition the collective needs, skills and preferences of the informal organization must be discovered and exploited in order to encourage greater acceptance, motivation and efficiency (Treutiger, 1990).

Larsson and Löwstedt (2010) talk of schools as sites for ongoing organization, rather than institutions with the core business of teaching. Successful school development requires a commitment at every level and cannot be defined solely by school management and teaching staff. A key to successful school improvement could be the increasing of collective learning for students and teachers in mutual activities. Although researchers and practitioners have gathered knowledge about school and its activities for a long time, there is still no panacea for how school might be best developed to fulfil its societal task. A common experience for all who intend to participate in a school improvement process is the need for detailed knowledge of the complexity in the school's content and form. Having this knowledge will increase the chances of successfully renewing and improving the school as an organization.

Organizational structures and daily work

School development is an ambiguous concept, which can be explained and interpreted in different ways, according to the choice of perspective and approach. The internal research in a school is often characterized by educational activities, in various ways encouraging exploring and identifying new ways of learning. Policy documents stress and emphasize that daily school operations must evolve towards a greater goal attainment. The educational leadership and the teachers' professional responsibility are, according to their curriculum, to take place in an interactive relationship between staff and pupils, and in close contact with parents and the surrounding community. School development often aims to facilitate improvement in current conditions of schoolwork, and questions the limits and rules of a certain school (Olin, 2009).

Berg (2011) states that school activities should not be understood on their own terms only, but in relation to the complex and widespread confusion that characterizes our world today. Schools as organizations can be explained as the result of the interplay between the formal steering and the informal influences, grounded both in the society as a whole and in local communities. Toward a more holistic approach on school as an organization and on school development, we have to position various elements together in a coherent analytical model. Independent of the political ideology for the day, schools are mostly characterized by goal steering, with the state assigning objectives for desired operations of schools in general and vague terms. Through their own interpretations of these objectives, schools can mobilize high degrees of autonomy to implement the outcome of national guidelines in their everyday operations. The institutional and organizational efforts will together create an arena for expressing the actor values and motives for their actions and for understanding what really happens.

Organizations can be understood and described from many different perspectives, based on factors as their mission, formal structure and composition of personnel. A frequently used description is the organization as a systematically set-up association of people with the mutual aims to achieve certain goals (Abrahamsson and Andersen, 2005). The propelling force is related to its basic purpose and the organizational structure. In order to optimize the driving force, a deeper knowledge is required of how the organization's purpose and structure has been adapted to its current activities. The link between organizational structures and daily work practice is not seldom unclear and superficial.

The issue of values

The issue of values, and especially the values of the individual members, should be made a key point in the analysis of organizations argues (Hodgkinson, 1996). Safety issues are very important for both inner and outer work of the organization. Within the organization, conflicts are easily generated between actors, when the interests of the organization and its members do not match enough. The difference between facts and values may similarly attribute different values to the same piece of fact. The contest between personal and common interest might lead to the divergence of the individual, organizational and institutional needs.

Hodgkinson (1996) emphasizes how the nomothetic-rational ideology of organizations often is tempered by countervailing idiographic-humanistic tendencies with competing ideologies.   An important task in any organization is uniting the formal nomothetic approach to the informal idiographic conduct of its members. Out of the organization's quest for order there is a natural effort to limit the strength of the individuals' idiographic impact. This antagonism creates a dialectical relationship between the organizational contexts of nomothetic rules and the idiographic aspirations enlightened by individuals in their everyday work. Hodgkinson argues that decisions are inextricably interwoven with values. In complex organizations, decisions and enforcement are for that reason best understood by simultaneous looks at multiple levels and from both a nomothetic and an idiographic perspective. In schools the nomothetic approach is more or less equivalent to formal management and leadership on the basis of given assignment. The idiographic perspective is synonymous with school culture and school codex.

Cultural analysis can be described as studying of the organizational value bases at the bottom of a school's everyday work (Berg, 2003). The main problem of the organization, according to Hodgkinson (1996), is the superimposition of the nomothetic upon the idiographic. Organizational purpose is external, impersonal and objective, but for the individual member it is internal, personal and subjective. Organizational purpose modulates individual purpose and to a lesser extent even conversely. The nomothetic ideology is tempered by idiographic countervailing tendencies and their associated ideologies. Hodgkinson (1996) speaks of interhierarchical conflicts between different levels, for example of the common well versus selfish interest, or simply the dialectic between the idiographic and the nomothetic. Berg (2003) identifies a number of institutional imperatives to describe the complex relationships between the school's institutional governance and organizational leadership. These imperatives are requests from schools as institutions to schools as organizations to freely organize and operate their daily activities within the given framework. The institutional imperatives will maybe bring some order into the complex mix of ideologies which constitutes the steering of schools, but are insufficient to fully describe and explain what is really going on from a cultural perspective.

A phenomenon that may occur with organizational steering is the decentralization paradox. This means that the organization differs from

what you say you want to accomplish and the way it is done in practice. The problem can also be expressed as the inability to find and develop the compatible frames of reference, needed to explain and understand the fundamentally common tasks at different levels of the organization. School leaders need to recognize and concretize given goals, negotiate different interests, needs and requirements and finally bring them into daily work. Rapprochement between leaders and the led can be seen as a transition towards a more democratic leadership, according to the demands of influence and decision-making participation of stakeholders. The leaders formulate a number of objectives in dialogue with their employees and give them the right to participate in choosing their own means of goal achievement. When participants in a school improvement process develop their competent skills as change agents, the school's possibility for strong achievement will increase.

Bronfenbrenner and the scope for action

The scope for action is defined by Berg (2003) as a strategic process, enclosing the relations between "how the work of schools as organizations, and how the activities of the school as an institution imposes on schools as organizations " (p. 34). How the scope for action is received depends on the knowledge, skills and attitudes of the individual school actors. Providing a cultural analysis will only give a brief knowledge of the actors' capability of decision making in the organization.

Researchers often use abstract models for explaining and exploring an actual field of research, together with their theoretical commitments. Studying complex organizations, such as schools, means requiring different approaches and perspectives how to properly address and describe the research area. In order to present my understanding of schools and school development, I use different starting points, with their roots in the opinion of school as both an organization and an institution. In this respect, I see Bronfenbrenner`s (1979) ecological model as valuable. The concept of an ecological model is that human behaviour has multiple levels of influences, ranging from biological and psychological factors, to social, environmental and cultural means. Ecological models can provide comprehensive frameworks for understanding the multiple and interacting determinants of behaviours e.g. among individuals in an organization. Bronfenbrenner states that development reflects the influence of four environmental systems. These systems include a microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem

and macrosystem. He argues that the interaction between the interlapping ecosystems will have a significant effect on individuals. Understanding these interactions will provide a better understanding of what kind of factors that might lead to develop and to failure, e.g. in a process of school development. I hereby focus on the micro system, including the classroom and the immediate environment in which pupils and their teachers are operating. I must also consider that these systems are not mainly interacting towards or opposite a scope for action, but overlap and intertwine each other in complex dynamic and contingent relationships (Hodgkinson, 1996)

The school's decision-makers renew and modify the responsibilities between the actors in the changing strategies of collective user involvement and choice, based on factors such as current political ideology, competition and market orientation. During the post-war area the Swedish school institution was dominated by a high degree of centralized steering by rules. The governmental micromanagement has nowadays been gradually deregulated and replaced by a more decentralized system, where the responsibilities and powers are transferred from central agencies to local school authorities. Berg describes different institutional arenas in partially diverse societal structures. These arenas are characterized by changing power relation between the state and society. The scope for action is situated between the boundaries of schools as institutions with its governing municipal authorities, and individual schools as organizations. The discovery and exploitation of the scope for action are professional activities in an approach to school development (Berg, 2011).

Real development – not only descriptions

Berg (2003) argues that the descriptions of the school do not sufficiently take into account the degree of the complexity that distinguishes the agency. Without adequate preparedness for change, there is a risk that school development will be watered down to descriptions and simple slogans without content. The debate about the school is often based on too tightly cropped and consensual approaches. Every single school is a complex system composed of a number of different sub-systems. An interesting question is whether, and if so in what way, the school organization according to its complex organizational structure, differs from other organizations' structures and conditions for their work.

Scherp (2002) emphasizes the learning organization's role in the development of schools, to handle the increasing pace of change. Action-based learning from everyday activities can help improving the quality of work. The school's actors convey intelligible connections between organizational models and administrative practices, and the pedagogical work of teaching can facilitate school improvement (Blossing, 2003). There is a recurrent endeavour in many schools to develop a unique pedagogic profile. Diversity is encouraged and perceived as desirable and sometimes mentioned as almost a prerequisite for the schools' existence and survival. Traditional, non-profiled, schools can be considered mediocre and obsolete. This ongoing trend can be seen in the light of the intensive informational flow of our late modern time, with the obligations of each party in society to develop its own brand, in order to break off from the communicative noise. If schools in general will play dynamic and important roles in local environments and the global society that is emerging, their individual brands must be easy communicated and accessible to every user.

The schools fragmented conception can be partly explained by their pedagogical heritage and self-understanding. One problem is the complexities of different values, with civil inequality and lack of alignment with each other. Berg (1992) raises the question of which kind of consolidated value bases the school as an institution is resting on. If the emphasis is placed on teaching, as the content of school activity, to which principles of organization of the outside world, does this content correspond? The answer, due to Berg, is that schools as institutions are generally founded on values of social structure and feudally governed principles of social organization. The institutional values could be considered as variables of utmost importance to highlight, because they may enlighten and clarify the basic mission of schools school as organizations. The fundamental values in public institutions are often vague and conflict-ridden. To shed light on these ambiguous values is an important task. If we stride to understand schools and school development on a more basic level, it is important to conduct studies both on the organizational and the institutional level.

School cultures as change agents

Cultural analysis is expected to clarify and highlight the micro oriented aspects and tensions within and between the existing school cultures in a certain school. In the original design of cultural analysis, the interpretation of the individual aspects is hindered by the focus on the ambiguity of human behaviour, rather than on the individual actor's motives and values. At the rate that school staff become more and more independent as a result of the political concept of decentralism, the need for knowledge of school cultural goals and values, based on micro oriented aspects will increase. The relations between centralism and decentralism are though relative. One part of a school culture can have a centralized feature, while another at the same time has a much more decentralized form.

Hodgkinson (1991) argues that the school's operational philosophy is characterized by the interaction of role and personality in the context of value. It is therefore desirable that the analysis of school culture should involve a simultaneous consideration of individual as well as organizational and institutional factors in the school culture. Organizations need not necessarily be studied or assessed in relation to its members' values, but these essentially primitive and often negative forces can contribute to the organization's effectiveness if well managed. In every organization there are conflicts in everyday work. To overcome these conflicts and use the dynamic forces that appear to develop the organization requires both a cultural understanding and a good knowledge of the problem-solving processes. With this in mind the common criteria for change agents could be related to the individual members of the current school cultures. The term of culture includes the notion of the informal system, including feelings, informal actions and interactions, group norms and values. The informal system is in some ways often a hidden or suppressed domain of the organization and only partially examined (French and Bell, 1973). School development focus both on the formal and the informal system, but the intervention strategy is usually through the informal system or in this case the school culture. By regarding school cultures as change agents we can improve a more effective link between these two systems, with the emphasis on formal and informal work teams in a collaborative management of the culture for organizational renewal.

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Do inspections of schools influence head teachers' leadership?

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Abstract

This paper seeks to describe and discuss the impact of inspections of schools in Sweden. It outlines the political context, based on New Public Management (NPM) theory, according to what role the Schools Inspectorate is supposed to play in order to govern and control. Attention is also devoted, referring an on-going case study, to how inspections influence head teachers and their leadership in their everyday work. Reports from the Schools inspectorate are public. This forces both politicians and head teachers to take measures. In this case, the head teachers perceived that the inspection reports confirmed what they already knew, but it also gave them an alibi and a tool to push their teachers to take part in everyday school development work. During the first year after the inspection the head teachers mainly strived to adjust formal deficiencies in local steering documents. However, some of the deviations reported from the Schools inspectorate are regarding pedagogical problems that are complicated and difficult to handle. As interventions in many cases will show up much later the results are, for example as increased goal fulfilment, in this case, still an open question. Nevertheless, it seems obvious that the Schools Inspectorate must be seen as a result of the governing philosophy that denotes New Public Management (NPM).

Key words: New Public Management, Schools inspectorate, leadership, principal, head teacher

Introduction[10]

A global educational reform movement is sweeping around the world, sometimes referred to as the Global Education Reform Movement (GERM) (see e.g. Sahlberg, 2011). On the international level this takes the shape of

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[10] This paper is an extension of an earlier paper entitled: Lundgren, M., von Schantz Lundgren (2011) The Swedish Schools Inspectorate – School leaders and their view on inspections of schools. Paper presented at the ENIRDELM conference in Reykjavik, Island 22 – 24 September 2011.

different tests that are used to evaluate and control schools, tests as PISA (Program for international Student Assessment), TIMSS (Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study) and PIRLS (Progress in Reading Literacy Study). These tests compare various national education systems and they function in practice as more or less universally accepted standards. Ball (2003; 2004; 2005; 2008) has described how this has created a practice that dominates the educational discourse, both globally and nationally.

At the national level exists, as in a number of countries, a Schools Inspectorate. Sweden has had, in various forms, a Schools Inspectorate from 1861 until 1991 when it closed, but was then reintroduced in 1998, albeit only in modest scale (Ekholm & Lindvall, 2008). However, in 2008 a new agency, the Schools Inspectorate was established, tasked to regularly conduct supervisory and quality review. Its supervision focuses on four main areas: 1) efficiency and results, 2) educational management and development of the school, 3) school's educational environment and 4) pupils' rights. The Schools Inspectorate gives priority to schools' mission and that outcomes are monitored at all levels in the school system in relation to curricula and syllabuses (SOU 2007:101). Nevertheless, in the end it is the head teachers that are responsible for the school's operations (SFS 2010:800, 2 kap. 9 §) and they are affected in their daily work by school inspections and other control systems.

In this paper we describe and discuss the impact of school inspections and outline the political context, based on new Public Management (NPM)[11] theory. We also discuss the role of the Schools Inspectorate and how inspections are supposed to govern and to control schools, as well as how the relationship between the macro Swedish School Inspectorate policy influences the microdynamics of head teachers' acting.

Data collection

Data were collected from observations at several meetings over almost two years following an inspection in the municipality in an "on-going" case study[12]. We also visited schools, conducted interviews with head teachers,

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[11] The concept was first formulated by Hood (1991).

[12] This case study is a part of the research project in a Swedish municipality named: "What makes a difference, 2.0?" The project started in January 2011 and will last until the end of 2015. The project

teachers and the school management and studied reports from the Schools Inspectorate, as well as the answers from the municipality to the Schools Inspectorate. Their first answer was delivered in April 2011 and then after a revisit from the inspectors in March 2012. Data has also been collected through two surveys to head teachers during this period.

Management and supervision in public administration

A contemporary approach to public administration is that laws, regulations and administration are functioning as a kind of machine in order to implement policy. A fundamental line of thought is that politicians should engage in strategic issues and through directives, decisions and orders to the administration to get these tasks carried and controlled out as efficiently as possible (Gustafsson, 2011). "When you are talking about 'quality control' today in the public sector it refers to anonymous and abstract systems for measuring and to following-up of individual performance" (Gustafson, 2011, p 114) [Note: our translation]. Pollitt (1990, p 1) defines this as managerialism, which consists of "a set of beliefs and practices, at the core of which burns the seldom-tested assumption that better management will prove an effective solvent for a wide range of economic and social ills". Christensen, Lægreid, Roness and Røvik (2005) describe how a tendency to streamline roles and tasks within the public sector gradually gains ground. It is about transforming integrated sectorial organizations to functioning as "single-purpose organizations", with the task of controlling. This way to govern organizations has become to be known as New Public Management (NPM), in which organizational models, management and control used in the private sector are seen as useful and valuable to apply in the public sector. A prominent characteristic of NPM is that superordinate levels are considered able to influence the subordinates' actions through sanctions and rewards (see e.g. Christensen, Lægreid, Roness & Røvik, 2005).

There are, however, critical voices against the development of bureaucratic control systems, the audit society (Power, 1997), or expressed as the law of ever-expanding control (Downs, 1967). Christensen, Lægreid, Roness and Røvik (2005) uses the term rationalized myths meaning that at any given time there is a number of accepted recipes circulating over how

intends, among other things, to study how head teachers handle deficiencies that the Schools Inspectorate draws attention to in their inspections.

organizations should be structured. Such myths have two characteristics, one is that successful organizations use effective tools to achieve goal fulfilment and the other is that they are perceived as modern and up to date (see also Hall, 2012; Czarniawska-Joerges, 1997). Decentralized responsibilities result in the central level constantly distributing more and more information about goal achievement and result fulfilment, which increases bureaucratization (Tarschys, 2006). Increased requirements for reporting, risks that the focus on core tasks will be lost and the activities that take place intend instead to satisfy superordinate levels in the organization and their need for control (Ekonomistyrningsverket, 2003). Accordingly it is necessary for more and more processes to be controlled, through audits and evaluations. This can be seen as an attempt to develop the bureaucracy, not as a way to abolish this form of steering the public sector (Hall, 2012 with reference to Broadbent, 2007, McSweeney, 2006; Olson et al, 2001). This also risks reducing faith in professional actors (see e.g. Newman, 2001).

The schools inspectorate - control body or tool for developing schools?

When an inspection reveals problems in the public sector are there usually two types of measures that are used. One is to improve single individuals' acting, controlled through tests of achievements. Bolman and Deal (2005, with reference to Mintzberg, 1979) distinguish, between control of achievements, for example by national proficiency test, and control of action plans, such as inspection of schools. If the goals are unclear the control of achievements is difficult to manage. Controlling action plans works best in cases where it is easier to assess how work is done rather than to what extent the objectives are achieved. Bolman and Deal (2005) also write that the objectives in the education sector usually are diffuse, formulated as how to raise people's level of education or to improve individuals' life situation. When a school does not meet the standards, the Schools Inspectorate takes measures, in order also to have the statutory task to stimulate the overall quality of schools (Macnab, 2004).

> By providing feedback on these findings to schools, but also by publishing the report on the school or institution, inspectorates expect to be able to influence school policy and, by doing so, contribute to an improvement in the quality of education at the school in question. (Wolf & Janssens, 2007, p. 381)

Case, Case and Catling (2000) describe, from English experiences, that: "/…/ we might understand the entire OFSTED regime as performing 'educational accountability' for the imagined gaze of a wider public" (Case, Case, & Catling, 2000, p. 618).

School inspections and its influence on head teachers' leadership

Head teachers in general appear also to act as loyal bureaucrats, as an accepted ideal type (Weber, 1983), willing to act as they think they are supposed to do.

> Head teachers in general are positive about getting attention from the inspectors and that they recognize themselves in the inspection report and they are constantly willing to correct the deficiencies noted. (Ekholm & Lindvall, 2008, p. 51) [Note: our translation]

The imposition of managerialism within schools has compromised and altered role relationships (Case, Case, & Catling 2000 with reference to Ozga, 1995; Jeffrey & Woods, 1996; Woods et al., 1997; Woods & Jeffrey, 1998). It seems likely that school inspections, when the results are published, give head teachers a clearer role as manager. However, Case, Case and Catling (2000) found in a study that many head teachers, though not all, were uncomfortable viewing themselves or being viewed by others as managers rather than as leading a group of fellow professionals (primus inter pares). Nevertheless, school inspections can be a catalyst for change. Head teachers seem to see the recommendations as a support for their existing ideas and desire for change and the inspection added an authority and legitimacy to their agendas. Accordingly, it seems that head teachers use this situation as an alibi to change things, however, not always with the consequences intended.

> Some head teachers appeared to have used the inspection process as an opportunity for implementing substantial overhauls to their policies and systems. This injected further tension into relationships between staff (Case, Case & Catling 2000, p. 616).

Ehren and Visscher (2006 with reference to Wilcox & Gray, 1996) claim that head teachers do not turn recommendations from inspections into

broader visions and use strategies that are owned by the staff. Action plans are essentially seen as a mundane process. A study of Nytell (1994) indicates that head teachers and their possibilities, from having got sanctions, to carry out their work in line with their formal mission must be regarded as restrained. Ehren and Visscher (2006) claim, that research on the effects of school inspections presents a mixed picture. They say, also with reference to English research (Earley, 1998; Gray & Wilcox, 1995; Kogan & Maden, 1999), that the impression of inspection is that they generally bring about little improvement in the quality of teaching and learning within schools. Ehren and Visscher (2006) also refer to studies that even showed a slight decline in pupil achievement levels in the year of the inspection visit (Shaw et al., 2003; Rosenthal, 2004). On the other hand, in a report from OFSTED, educational standards that are measured by national tests and examinations show improved quality, especially among the weakest institutions (Matthews & Sammons, 2004).

However, control systems also have side effects, unintentional effects, which can be either desirable or undesirable. A well-known form of unintended strategic behaviour is "window dressing", meaning the creation of proactive and reactive arrangements to respond to criticism, sometimes so excessive that it constitutes fraud (see for example Smith, 1993). A second category of undesirable side effects are various forms of unintended strategic behaviour, for example, a one-sided emphasis on the assessed elements. In the literature referred to as "teaching to the test" or "teaching to inspection" (Wolf & Janssens, 2007). Wolf & Janssens (2007) say that the more often this series of side effects occurs, the more will this result in isomorphism, meaning that schools become alike.

Case study results

A fundamental criticism from the Schools Inspectorate (2010, p. 5) in our case study was said to be that: "All pupils are not provided opportunities to reach the targets for their education." Swedish Schools Inspectorate (2010a) decided, among many other things, that the municipality:

> /.../ must take measures to ensure that the head teachers are taking even more responsibility for carrying out its mission. (Swedish Schools Inspectorate, 2010a) [Note: our translation].

Nevertheless, the first report from the Schools Inspectorate, in the beginning of 2011, got as expected a rather positive reception from the head teachers. At the time the inspection report was published the head teacher came in focus as being responsible for the deficiencies that existed in their schools. This leads to questions about what kind of measures head teachers will implement as a result of an inspection.

It seems reasonable to assume that the formal errors, which were found in various local policy documents, were perceived as a minor concern. One explanation may be that this was the first time that school inspections were carried out this way, but also that there have been a lot of reforms within the Swedish education system during the past years and also the fact that these deficiencies were perceived relatively easy to fix.

In line with what is expected of public sector bureaucrats, the head teachers were willing to do what was required of them. That seems also to be the case, even when a task probably is impossible to solve. It is, for example, a fact that all pupils do not achieve learning objectives in the schools inspected in this case, but so also in most Swedish schools. However, there is in the report from the Schools Inspectorate an implicit message that all pupils should achieve all knowledge goals, although the Education Act only states that "Children and pupils should be given support and encouragement so that they develop as far as possible" (1 Chapter 4§) Note: our translation]. To create the conditions necessary for all pupils to meet all educational objectives requires financial resources, a functioning organization, high quality of teachers' pedagogical skills and good pedagogical leadership. It is the head teachers who have the operational responsibility to manage to solve these tasks. The schools had already for years been obliged to reduce their spending. Head teachers cannot count on increased financial resources to solve the problems. Organizational change can be a solution, but this meets often resistance from teachers, parents and pupils and is therefore usually difficult to implement. The path that remains seems to be to exert an educational leadership in order to support good teaching. However, there are studies (see for example Swedish Schools Inspectorate, 2010b; 2012) that show that head teachers for the most part do not have the ability to prioritize their educational leadership. To develop schools seems in theory like a simple task, but experiences from practice have been found to contain a number of difficulties (see e.g. Holmström, 2007; von Schantz Lundgren, 2008).

Discussion and Conclusions

The purpose of this paper has been to describe and discuss the impact of school inspections. It outlines the political context of the issue, discusses the role of a Schools Inspectorate and how inspections are supposed to govern and control schools with attention to its influence on the leadership of head teachers. Finally, it is an attempt to articulate the relationship between the macro Swedish School Inspectorate policy and the micro dynamics of head teachers' acting from a still on-going qualitative case study.

In this case, the inspection revealed different types of problems as, formal mistakes in local action plans, deficiencies in target achievement and not following-up the development of pupils' knowledge. The head teachers are responsible for taking action. The report from the Schools Inspectorate was perceived, seen from head teachers point of view, as a possibility to be used as a tool to push on the development further in their school, which is consistent with previous experience (see e.g. Wilcox & Gray, 1996). But as the results of interventions are reviled much later, it is still a question whether the results in this matter will be increased goal fulfilment or not.

A majority of the head teachers said that the report from the Schools Inspectorate will be of great value in order to develop their schools. The formal errors that were found in various local policy documents were rather easy to correct. They also saw a good chance that they would be able to correct any deficiencies that were mentioned, despite many of those deficiencies probably being, more or less, impossible to resolve. On the other hand, it was only about half of the head teachers answered whose teachers saw the report as an incentive to develop the pupils' study results. The reason for this was stated to be that the report was so generally described in this matter, that the teachers saw it as something that was referring to others, and accordingly did not apply to them. However, the majority of the head teachers had been active in their role for a long time. They knew the existing requirements and in most cases they reacted with a distanced professional approach to the results of the inspection. They were aware of the existing shortcomings and what it seemed to be possible to bring about in practice. An interpretation of what the head teachers' said is that the Schools Inspectorate's report was not possible to dispute publicly, and that it would not be possible to address the deficiencies that did exist. The head teachers seemed to play their role in the way they were supposed to do (see for example Ekholm & Lindvall, 2008).

How schools are governed seems to match the notion that it is the politicians that create rules and strategies perfectly, and that head teachers have the task to transform this to reality (Gustafsson, 2011). The existence of a Schools Inspectorate also fit the notion that control is an effective tool to reach the goals. Another notion is that the school is modern and constantly up to date by being compares to schools around the globe in tests like PISA, TIMMS, PIRLS and so on (see for example Hall, 2012). It seems obvious that the introduction of a control authority as a Schools Inspectorate must be seen as a result of the governing philosophy that denotes New Public Management (NPM).

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Change vision in schools: School leaders' role towards an unknown future

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 Abstract

Education is widely considered to be a change agent. However it seems to be changing towards an unknown future. Through the transformation, the demands on school have changed compulsively because of changing expectations of society in the last decade and this process will go on rapidly in future. Therefore, school leaders should recognize the exigency of change and predict the future. The purpose of this study was to determine teachers' and school principals' views about the role of school leaders in terms of change vision. This is a qualitative study. The data were collected via interviews based on the semi-structured open-ended questions. The data were analyzed by descriptive analysis techniques using NVivo 9. The frequency of the themes were also calculated to support the data quantitatively. The results show that changes in expected roles and competencies of school leaders, are needed and moreover views regarding educational change process in the future should also be revised. The main result of this study was that participating teachers and principals were not satisfied with participating to decision making process about the education system changes in Turkey.

Keywords: leadership, school leader, change vision, unknown future.

Introduction

In recent years, rapid changes and developments have been witnessed all over the world. Education, as a widely viewed change agent, provides capacity building in areas such as human, economic and knowledge capital. However, education itself is subjected to frequent changes. There are many reasons that cause change in the schools. Because schools are generally seen as the institutions that are responsible for educating new generations,

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community members are interested in schools and education process. Many variables affect structures and aims of the schools, hence schools are exposed to change. In such change processes, school leadership becomes much more important. When education system is transformed, school leaders have new responsibilities as well as traditional task. "The school leader is most often cited as the key figure in the individual school's development, either blocking or promoting change, acting as the internal change agent and overseeing the processes of growth and renewal"(Huber and Hiltmann, 2010).

Educational change is multi-dimensional, and mostly future is uncertain and unpredictable for today's people. Therefore, change at schools will be more challenging and complex. "To cope creatively with increasing uncertainty, schools will need to become professional learning organizations which can instigate, direct and reflect on their own learning" (Webb, 2005, p.88). "Therefore, "teachers must understand the theoretical underpinnings of the change" (Daniels, 2009, p.31). "Being a school leader means fulfilling diverse and complex tasks which are connected to professional and personal demands. It is the 'fit' between job characteristics and a person's skills, attitudes, and ability to learn that matters"(Huber and Hiltmann, 2010, p.66).

According to Senge (2002, p.9), change is activating the self-energizing commitment and energy of people around growth processes. In this context, the role of leaders as the designers of the organizational behaviours is to mobilize the workers in line with organizational goals based on improvement in the change process. One of the key elements of this transformation process, however, is balanced management. Therefore, leaders in schools are key elements for an effective change process. In order to maintain the change, qualitative patterns should be ingrained in the organizational culture, pedagogical practices and leadership (Tischler, 2004). Fullan discussed that change is inevitable in personal and professional life. Change occurs with or without support. Understanding that change was a process, rather than a product was essential to the success of new initiatives (Cited in Daniels, 2004, p.30). In fact, vision itself is a change process. Furthermore, in order to lead change, school leaders should be a pioneer for a shared vision towards unknown future.

Leader is expected to give critical decisions instead of daily routines. Leadership involves foreseeing future, determining a realistic vision and

targets for the future of the organization and collaborating people in order to actualize all these things (Gülcan, 2011, p.625). As stated by Johnson and Johnson (1989), Hoy and Hoy (2003) and Palandra (2010), the principal should enthusiastically and frequently share a clear vision aimed at the best possible instruction and continuous professional development of teachers. "Leadership also involves 'coping with change' and includes setting an organization's direction, aligning the right people to the right task, motivating and inspiring, creating a vision, building support coalitions, and communicating to the organization the vision for the future" (McBride, 2010, p.2).

Fullan (1993) states that when working with change: (a) everyone needs to take responsibility for change; (b) a few people are not be able to make change happen; (c) there would be uncertainty with change and problems would arise (cited in Daniels, 2004, p.31). Although the principal is in a critical position to lead change, he/she cannot do it alone. Empowering others throughout the school to develop and exercise leadership roles and to share the leadership of change is both desirable and achievable (Kiwi Leadership for Principals, 2012). School administrators traditionally attempt to initiate new programs in a linear fashion, with each step systematically charted and organized (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2007). However, "despite careful planning and directly blueprinted courses of action, schools are not linear systems" (Glickman et al., 2007, p.435), and change cannot be so precisely controlled. The sheer complexity of the number of factors involved in change makes the process a most complicated endeavour. Stacey (1996) identifies the comprehensive nature of organizational growth and describes organizations being enhanced strongly by the integration and adaptation of internal forces and yet equally disassembled by division and isolation. "In light of the complexity of efforts to affect school change, educational leaders must overcome various obstacles in order to implement effective school programs" (Dove and Freeley, 2011, p.25). In brief, principals could be considered to be the strongest agents of change since they work directly with teachers and students on a daily basis.

Rapid change in education systems causes sharp and great transformation in roles of school leaders. In addition, investment in capacity building of teachers is on the agenda of today's schools and it will probably be much more important in future's schools. Therefore, schools

will need more qualified teaching staff in future to meet the demands of new generations and society in general. Herein, Sergiovanni (1998, p.37) proposes pedagogical leadership approach for improving schools as an alternative to bureaucratic, visionary, and entrepreneurial leadership. Pedagogical leaders invest in capacity building by developing intellectual and professional capital for teachers.

Understanding that change was a process rather than a product was essential to the success of new initiatives (Daniels, 2004, p.31). Understanding organizational change requires a study of the role of change agents, the dynamics of the change process, and the creation of a change culture (Bunn, 2010, p.41). In this context, the study aims at determining the views of teachers and school principals regarding role of school leaders in terms of change vision at schools towards unknown future. For this purpose, the following research questions were developed:

1. What changes are needed in Turkish educational system in the future?

2. What roles should be expected from principals as school leaders in the change process?

3. What are the competencies that principals as change agents should have in the future?

4. What are the views regarding educational change process in Turkey?

Method

This study intended to explore the views of primary school teachers and principals regarding the school leaders' role in change process for an unknown future. A holistic multiple case study design which is one of the qualitative research methods was used.

The study included a total of four principals and four teachers working in four primary schools in Antalya, Turkey. One principal and one teacher from each school participated voluntarily in the study. Data for this research were drawn upon to examine the views on role of school leaders in change process towards unknown future. The data were collected over a six-week period via individual interviews based on the four semi-structured open-ended questions. Each interview lasted approximately one

hour and was conducted in schools where participants worked. The data were analyzed in the scope of descriptive methods using NVivo9. The numbers which were used after the letters "T" and "P", as abbreviations of teacher and principal refers to the participant's codes.

Results

Four primary schools, three public and one private, were chosen for the study. One principal and one teacher from each participating schools took part in the study (a total of 4 principals and 4 teachers). All principals were male and their seniorities varied between 14 and 33 years. All teachers except one were female and their seniorities varied between 3 and 15 years. All participants hold a bachelor's degree.

Table 1

Demographic data of participants

Code*	Gender	Seniority (year)	Degree Graduated	Type of school
P1	Male	14	Bachelor's	Public
P2	Male	22	Bachelor's	Public
P3	Male	33	Bachelor's	Public
P4	Male	23	Bachelor's	Private
T1	Female	14	Bachelor's	Public
T2	Male	15	Bachelor's	Public
T3	Female	3	Bachelor's	Public
T4	Female	7	Bachelor's	Private

"P" refers to "Principal"; "T" refers to "Teacher."

Results of the study were shown in related tables and some samples of direct quotations from interviews with participants were given in italics. Results were presented under four headings based on the research questions.

Changes needed in Turkish educational system in the future

Principals' views regarding changes needed in the future were presented under seven sub-themes in Table 2.

Table 2

Principals' views regarding changes needed in Turkish educational system in the future

Sub-themes	P1	P2	P3	P4
1. Educational planning should reflect contemporary requirements and stakeholders' expectations.	√	√	√	√
2. Teachers' competency level should be improved.	√	√	√	√
3. Financial resources should be improved.	√	√	√	√
4. Educational system should be decentralized.	√	√	√	√
5. Principals' authority and autonomy should be broadened.		√	√	√
6. Educational technology should be used more effectively.	√	√		√
7. Schools' infrastructure should be made improved.	√	√	√	

All participating principals suggested that educational planning reflect contemporary requirements and stakeholders' expectations for change in Turkish educational system in the future. In this context, P4 expressed *"Now that we consider the world as a village, we should teach universal values and knowledge in our schools such as universal geography and universal history which concerns the whole countries… We should necessarily switch into a system which teaches them how to be a good person and the values well-accepted all over the world especially in the areas where these values are corrupted or lost their significance"*. P1 stated *"Today, in our schools we teach unnecessary knowledge. In fact, the aim of the school is to prepare students for their future. Instead of giving them needless knowledge, we should guide them to the field in accordance with their skills and teach them how and where they can reach the information which they need."*

Another sub-theme mentioned by all the principals is the necessity of improving the competency levels of teachers. In this regard, P2 reflected *"We have to make them well equipped, self-renewing individuals who are seeking to learn and incorporate new skills. Unfortunately, most of the teachers are not good at renewing themselves. Especially they are weak in proper using of technology, adoption to new regulations and curriculum because they are single-sighted. However, teachers should see the problems from various aspects and they should be clever enough to find alternative solutions to any problem. It is necessary to make teachers well-equipped and help them to be multi-faceted. They should be educated in such a way that they can understand today's generation well enough."*

All principals also expressed that improvement of financial resources is

necessary. In this regard, P2 stated "*Schools should not have to deal with money and other financial issues anymore. It is not fair that principals and teachers are put in position to collect money from parents. Schools should be financed by local authorities and central government.*" In addition, all principals suggested education should be decentralized. Three principals recommended principals' authority and autonomy should be broadened; educational technology should be used more effectively; and schools' infrastructure should be improved.

Teachers' views regarding changes needed in the future are presented under seven sub-themes in Table 3.

Table 3

Teachers' views regarding changes needed in Turkish educational system in the future

Sub-themes	T1	T2	T3	T4
1. Schools should act interactively and cooperatively with the stakeholders	√	√	√	√
2. Information technology should be used more effectively.	√	√	√	
3. Educational institutions should have qualified physical infrastructure.	√		√	√
4. Continuous curriculum development should be made to meet the needs of the productive society.	√		√	√
5. Teacher training and employment system should be restructured.	√	√		√
6. Continuous personal and professional development of teachers should be provided.	√	√		√
7. Principals should not be expected to create financial resources		√		√

All participating teachers expressed that schools should act interactively and cooperatively with the stakeholders. In this regard, T3 said "*It would be nice if the school community is able to use the facilities like internet and library at schools.*" Three teachers mentioned more effective use of information technology in the future. T1 explained: "*Traditional learning approaches with paper-pencil all date back to the 1980s. Today's children use computers instead. If the only thing they love is their computer, then we should make students use it properly.*"

Three teachers were also concern about supplying institutions with better and more qualified physical infrastructure. In this regard, T4 said "*I definitely think that every school must have a laboratory. Furthermore, a library should certainly be set up in every school and all classroom teachers must take their students there and teach them the library rules.*"

Three teachers mentioned continuous curriculum development in order to meet the needs of productive society. Regarding this issue, T4 said "*Curriculum development should be made in cooperation with practicing teachers instead of selected group of people by the Ministry of National Education (MONE). Our curriculum was prepared in 2005. However, information seminar on the new curriculum for teachers was held in 2012. That's why the teachers still have trouble with the practice and do not feel well-informed on their new tasks.*"

Three teachers also stated that restructuring the teacher training programmes and employment policy are necessary. Related to this, T3 claimed "*I believe that universities should offer better training for prospective teachers. I am not talking about classical reciting method and techniques. What I mean is something different. For example, at universities instructional games could be offered as a course so that you can learn which games are suitable while teaching natural numbers.*"

Three teachers remarked the need of continuous personal and professional development of teachers. In this regard, T2 said "*Teachers need to know more developmental and instructional psychology. For this, teachers should attend a seminar at least for 5-6 months instead of a few days. First of all, they should analyse the psychological situation of the class they are teaching. Teachers in this current system need to be educated on this subject.*"

Two teachers stated that principals should not be expected to find financial resources. In this regard, T2 expressed "*Principals are having trouble with funding the schools, too. That's why MONE should not expect them to create financial resources. I think that coping with this issue is not a principal's role or task. Demanding money from the parents in order to meet the needs of the school makes the principal repulsive in the eyes of the parents.*"

Roles expected of school leaders in the change process

Principals' views regarding roles expected of school leaders in the change process were presented under seven sub-themes in Table 4.

Table 4

Principals' views regarding roles expected of school leaders in the change process

Sub-themes	P1	P2	P3	P4
1. Educating people on the change	√		√	
2. Initiating and designing the change process			√	√
3. Putting into practice the change			√	√
4. Demonstrating leadership behaviours		√		√
5. Communicating effectively			√	√
6. Supervising the change process.	√			
7. Facilitating the changing process.	√			

As shown in Table 4, the roles expected of school leaders in the change process differ from educating people to initiating and designing the change, putting into practice, demonstrating leadership behaviours, communicating effectively, supervising and facilitating the change process.

Two participating principals remarked the role of educating people and in this context, P2 said "*Our task is education. Our task is related to students. We are educational administrators. So we must deal with them*".

One of the roles that two principals wanted to undertake was to initiate and design the change. In this regard, P3 stated "*As principals we should be directly involved in it. It is necessary to take inputs from each school separately. About the changes to be done in the system there should be held meetings with principals and teachers in advance.*"

With regard to the role of practitioner, P3 stated "*Not only initiating the change but also putting something new into practice is also very important. Otherwise, we continue to remain restricted.*" They also both imply that it is important to implement best practises in terms of development and progress in educational institutions. In this context, they emphasized that being a competent practitioner as school principals is crucial.

Another role that principals wanted to undertake during the change process was the leadership. In this context, P2 said "*Principals must be seen*

leaders of teaching and learning process." P4 made the following long statement "*Being a administrator and being a leader are different things. Being an administrator is very easy because according to some people you can be a good administrator if you just apply what is written in regulations. However, unless you take any risks, you will be static. Therefore, you will need to take some risks. Of course while doing this, we should consider and analyse it carefully because in this field we are dealing with human beings. You do not have the luxury to do whatever you want... If you try to perform all the tasks on your own, things do not work out quite well. You need to have new leaders. The reason that I am comfortable with my work and doing things right is my vice-principals. When I assign a task to them I am sure the job gets done properly. Otherwise, it is not possible to administer such a big school just by yourselves. If the school you are administering is small, i.e. group of 150-200, then you can manage it on your own. When it gets bigger, it is not possible. So you have to share the leadership."*

Related with the role of being communicative P4 expressed his views like that "*A principal should be the one who is creative and has good communicative skills. This is the first priority in our school. Your communication skill must be effective."*

Teachers' views regarding roles expected of school leaders in the change process were presented under four sub-themes in Table 5.

Table 5

Teachers' views regarding roles expected of school leaders in the change process

Sub-themes	T1	T2	T3	T4
1. Mentorship	√	√	√	√
2. Innovativeness, creativeness, entrepreneurship and productivity	√	√		√
3. Expertise	√			
4. Visionary		√		

As shown in Table 5, all participating teachers expected that school leaders should a mentor for the staff by using their pedagogical knowledge. In this regard, T3 said "*The principal can guide as a consultant. But he should be careful not to be too strict while playing this role, he should careful with his tone in order not to be sounded as a fait accompli.*" Three teachers expected that school

leaders should be innovative, entrepreneur and productive in the change process. In this regard, T1 stated *"A good leader should be entrepreneur, creative, and productive. He/she should produce new projects rather than just sitting in the office."* In addition, the role of expertise was mentioned by T1 and the role of visionary was proposed by T2 regarding this theme.

Competencies expected of principals in the future

Principals' views regarding competencies expected of principals in the future were presented under eight sub-themes in Table 6.

Table 6

Principals' views regarding competencies expected of principals in the future

Sub-themes	P1	P2	P3	P4
1. Qualified as a skilled leader	√	√	√	√
2. Ability to use the technology effectively and adequately	√		√	√
3. Knowledgeable in their field and skilful in school management	√	√	√	
4. Capable in research, planning and analysing		√	√	√
5. Embracing change		√		√
6. Effective communicator		√		√
7. Able to speak a foreign language				√
8. Adherent to basic principles				√

As shown in Table 6, all participating principals emphasized the qualification as a skilled leader regarding competencies expected of principals in the future. In this regard, P2 said *"A good leader needs to be a good observer. One should analyse the events and situations thoroughly in their surroundings and, in this way, gain a wider perspective from past to future so that they can foresee what is coming. There is no point of burying our heads into sand like ostrich does. We should analyse our environment well and realize what has changed so far in people's thinking; what they were thinking yesterday, what they are thinking now and what they will think in the future. We should observe them*

carefully in a detailed way. We should specify our necessities in the past, now and think about what they will be in the future. Every passing day our first priorities change. A principal should guide them through this process. What made them happy yesterday and what their requirements are to be happy now. For example, five years ago having a bicycle was unattainable for most of the children but now it is not that much important and hard-to-reach. We should search and find new goals, new requirements, and priorities and in the light of these, we should determine our status. In order to understand and grasp what is going on in the environment, a leader must be smart."

Three principals talked about using technology effectively and adequately. In this regard, P1 said *"To keep up with the changes, a leader should use technology better than teachers. You see students use technology well so teachers must use it far better than students, and principal should use even much better than teachers."*

Three participating principals mentioned "knowledgeable in the field and skilful in school management as a competency for future's principals. In this regard, P3 claimed *"Principals should be given the opportunity to read the studies conducted in literature of educational administration and supervision. In addition, study visits in other countries for principals should be provided. We need to educate ourselves in terms of leadership. Nowadays people do not work with the order. Therefore, in order to make people work every principal should have the basic knowledge in the field. Unless we have this knowledge, we will not earn respect and consequently we won't have good leaders. In my opinion we should be educated well on this subject."*

Being capable in research, planning and analysing was another competency suggested by three principals. In this regard, P4 said *"A principal need to be a good planner. He/she should know what to do, what the priorities are, and how a SWOT analysis is done. Principals ought to be aware of all these subjects."* Embracing change is another sub-theme regarding competencies expected of principals in the future. In this regard, P2 said *"Principals should keep up with the changes in the first place. You should be able to conduct changes, be open to changes and be a good role model. Change process should start from the top. If the principal is against to changes, some problems may occur among stakeholders."*

Effective communication is another competency that is emphasized by two principals. With regard to this P2 said *"Principals should be educated effectively in interpersonal relationships, communication, understanding other people. In this instance, principals become more useful and effective. In my opinion what makes a good leader in education is the ability to show empathy towards*

others. He should feel and experience the mood of the person he/she is with. The people might be sad, angry or happy. In that case, principal should think about if he/she were in their shoes what he/she would have done and then empathize with them. It is probable that some bad things can happen because the person might have some problems, be very angry or sad. Under these circumstances, showing patience and empathy are necessary. If you want to make your employees happy, you have to make some sacrifices and be patient and calm. You need to act objectively. Even if someone insults you, you should try to understand them before giving immediate reaction as an educational leader."

Teachers' views regarding competencies expected of principals in the future were presented under five sub-themes in Table 7.

Table 7

Teachers' views regarding competencies expected of principals in the future

Sub-themes	T1	T2	T3	T4
1. Technological guidance	√	√	√	√
2. Intellectual decision making with high self-esteem	√	√		√
3. Continuous professional and personal development	√	√		
4. Motivating people	√		√	
4. Thorough knowledge on regulations and act in accordance with the legislation	√			

As shown in Table 7, all participating teachers suggested principals be competent in technological guidance in the future. In this regard, T3 stated *"In the seminars I have attended I noticed that principals' knowledge about information technology was not sufficient. I think school principals should be knowledgeable in this subject."* Three teachers emphasized intellectual decision making with high self-esteem regarding competencies expected of principals in the future. In this regard, T4 said *"Leaders should be brave and should support the teachers in every sense because we sometimes can reach a deadlock during the change process."* Two teachers asked continuous professional and personal development as a competency expected of principals in the future. In this regard, T2 expressed *"Principals can improve themselves by following and reading professional publications and they should be aware of new developments in the field."*

Views regarding educational change process in Turkey

Principals' views regarding educational change process in Turkey were presented under nine sub-themes in Table 8.

Table 8

Principals' views regarding educational change process in Turkey

Sub-themes	P1	P2	P3	P4
1. Lack of meeting stakeholders' expectations and needs	√	√	√	√
2. Lack of prescient plans	√	√	√	
3. Inadequate explanation to and lack of collaboration with stakeholders prior to change		√	√	√
4. Lack of scientific-based changes		√		√
5. Lack of preliminary preparations prior to change		√	√	
6. Frequent changes in the system			√	√
7. Lack of evaluation of the change process	√			√
8. Irrational and inapplicable changes	√			√
9. Change initiatives that usually fail		√		

As shown in Table 8, all participating principals complained about the lack of meeting the stakeholders' expectations and needs in educational change process in Turkey. In this regard, emphasizing the importance of considering stakeholders' needs and expectations before and during the change process P3 said *"All stakeholders should be involved in change preparations. This involvement should not be restricted with only few people, schools or unions. Instead, we should extend the participation and seek consensus among all stakeholders."*

Three principals emphasized the importance of planning during the change process. In this regard, P3 explained *"We are doing the application process in a hurry. Before doing careful planning, we are just going through the application process. Thus, in application process we face many troubles that cause adverse effects on the stakeholders. This cause dispiritedness and boredom at work. So planning process should be dealt thoroughly. Enacting legislation without careful planning causes troubles and leads to failure."*

Three principals emphasized the importance adequate explanation to and collaboration with stakeholders prior to the change process. In this regard, P3 said *"Change process should not be executed under pressure. Firstly, any change initiative should be shared with public. We must be informed and get prepared psychologically and then application process should get started. However, here in Turkey this is not the case. On the contrary we are usually in a rush."*

Two principals complained about the lack of scientific-based changes in Turkish educational system. In this regard, P2 stated *"With related to this subject I do not think that researches which are serious enough have conducted. In addition, educational level should be raised absolutely as in the developed countries."* Two principals emphasized preliminary preparations prior to change and in this regard, P3 claimed *"I think, first of all, we should complete the lack of infrastructure before the relevant legislation come into force. Frequent changes cause negative effects as well as positive ones. It should be considered well and then first infrastructure should be set up and after that if it is needed, then a new system should be constituted. Otherwise, this makes the situation worse. To me we are too hasty in practising the process."*

Teachers' views regarding educational change process in Turkey are presented under three sub-themes in Table 9.

Table 9

Teachers' views regarding educational change process in Turkey

Sub-themes	T1	T2	T3	T4
1. Lack of science-based education policy	√	√	√	√
2. Absence of needs assessment prior to the change process	√	√	√	√
3. Absence of transparency in evaluating change process and initiating a new plan without evaluating outcomes of previous change	√		√	√

As shown in Table 9, all participating teachers complained about the lack of science-based education policy. In this regard, T3 explained *"I do not believe the changes have been made are science-based. I do not want continuous changes because we can not easily adapt to the new situation."* T1 expressed his

views on the same sub-theme *"We must have a science-based national policy for education if we want to have a better education system."* All teachers emphasized the importance of needs assessment prior to the change process. In this regard, T4 said *"If something goes wrong, change is a must"*. Three teachers complained about absence of transparency in evaluating change process and initiation of a new plan without evaluating outcomes of previous change.

Discussion and conclusion

What school principals would like to do was to design the education system in the future in accordance with modern requirements and stakeholders' expectations. They also indicated that teachers' professional competency must be improved in order to make the system efficient and effective. Moreover, they thought that individual characteristics and skills should be considered in education process. Their views to get autonomy in school administration in both financial and curricular levels are parallel to the topics discussed by the stakeholders. Issues mentioned by principals were as in the following:

- ✓ to increase autonomy and authority of principals in terms of responsibility and accountability,
- ✓ to be able to overcome financial problems of schools,
- ✓ to have the power to choose their own teachers,
- ✓ to spend more time on education rather than non-educational work,
- ✓ to improve the economic situations of the people working in the field,
- ✓ to apply performance management system,
- ✓ to use technology more efficiently
- ✓ to change the infrastructure to be suitable for education and learning.

The teachers stated that information technologies should be used more often in the education system in the future. They stated that both public and non-public funding should be used in order to finance education. They thought that curricula did not meet their needs and they were willing to participate in the process of curriculum development. They implied a strong wish to get in-service training in order to improve their personal and professional skills.

A comparison of principals' and teachers' views on desired changes in future education system shows a remarkable resemblance. This result is very promising since teachers and school leaders have been expected to act as a team in the change process. Different views on this theme could be interpreted as reflection of their roles at school. While principals emphasized decentralization of the system and increased authority and autonomy, teachers highlighted teacher education and employment as well as continuous development of curriculum.

According to the principals, a school leader's role in the change process should be educating, initiating, demonstrating, communicating, supervising, and facilitating. For teachers, school leaders must take roles such as mentorship, innovativeness, creativeness, entrepreneurship, productivity, expertise, and visionary. They should also have good communication skills with public. When the views of two groups are compared, teachers highlighted leadership attributes while principals underlined administrative processes as well as leadership behaviour.

The principals suggested the following competencies for future school leaders: qualification as management issues; ability to use the technology effectively and adequately; knowledgeable in their field and skilful in school management; capable in research, planning and analysing; embracing change; effective communicator; able to speak a foreign language; adherent to basic principles. Teachers expected the future school leaders to have the following competencies: technological guidance, intellectual decision making with high self-esteem, continuous professional and personal development, thorough knowledge on regulations and act in accordance with the legislation, and motivating people. Principals' and teachers' views on future leadership competences were quite different from each other. Similarities were only observed on the competencies of administrative knowledge and skills and effective use of technology.

The principals' views on the current changes in the educational system were usually negative. Their observations reflected the need for well-based planning before making any changes in the educational system. The needs and expectations of the all parties interested in education should be taken into consideration before and during the change process. They should be informed on change process and their collaboration should be sought. Furthermore, change should be planned scientifically and should be built on strong foundations. Principals in general seem more pessimistic than

teachers are on educational change process in Turkey. Since the list obtained from the principals on this theme was more comprehensive, it included all inadequacies stated by the teachers. Teachers, on the other hand, felt discomfort about the way of the implementation of change. They suggested that educational policies should be based on scientific norms rather than short-sighted political intervenes.

Consequently, both groups had negative experiences on change process. Because this is a qualitative study, results cannot be generalized as all Turkish principals' and teachers' views. Turkish educational system is a huge organization with approximately seventeen million students, more than seven hundred thousand teachers and forty six thousand schools, not including higher education. Radical changes in such systems affect not only students, teachers and principals but also parents and the whole community. Unfortunately, MONE has a tendency to start a new application with limited input from academic community, practitioners and public. The compulsory education system, for instance, was transformed to a 4+4+4 school structure beginning from 2012-2013 school year over a night. MONE initiated this change by ignoring preparation of schools and teachers. For this reason, chaotic situation at schools has still been continuing although a school year has already been completed, and this change process have still been discussed among educators, parents and community members. The researchers of this study hope that MONE would consider views of the stakeholders for change initiatives in the future and would attempt to meet their needs.

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Globally good educational leaders: a contribution to a new discourse on educational leadership

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Abstract

Today's humanity finds itself in a socio-historically unprecedented predicament referred to as globalization. Every aspect of human activity, including educational leadership, has to face this dynamic of opportunities and dangers. The nature of the response of educational leadership to globalization can be adaptive, reactive or transformative. The currently prevalent perspective on public education views educational leadership as a managerial function, securing the most efficient output of an educational assembly line. Bypassing the most essential questions pertaining to its purpose and basic rationale, this approach degrades educational leadership to a mere instrumentality in service to the mechanisms of market economy. This paper will present an alternative approach, arguing for the necessity of a transformative leadership response – one that is predicated on the idea of schools acting as spearheads of glocal societal transformation, primarily based on Reconstructionist educational philosophy. The paper will, then, move on to construct the concept, and identify the salient features, of the globally good educational leader: a leadership role that has the wellbeing of the entire global society as its starting point, and that would be accepted as desirable by rationally thinking people in any cultural setting.

Keywords: educational leadership, globalization, transformative education, reconstructionism

Introduction

We live by many thinkers' account in a very extraordinary era of humanity's development, characterized by a Janus-faced predicament of unprecedented possibilities for universal wellbeing and dangers of world-wide destruction. Both of these tendencies are underscored by a set of processes commonly referred to as globalization. Schools have a tradition of living lives of their own, very much like medieval European castles of feudal lords, relatively detached from the developmental challenges of their surrounding society at large. But even these bastions of illusory stability have not been spared shaking encounters with globalization.

There are two ways at least in which educational leaders today come face to face with the forces of globalized change. Firstly, schools have become increasingly miniature models of the global society in terms of their multicultural student bodies. Secondly, global trends, with regard to both the underlying rationale of education and the particular ways of managing it, are being franchised across the planet.

In this paper, I will seek to explore the kind of response, conceptually as well as in terms of action models, to the phenomenon of globalization by educational leaders that would be both rational and ethical and, above all, would constitute an approach befitting what is at stake. As will become apparent further on in this paper, this stance represents a discourse radically different from the prevailing one on educational leadership. I consider an alternative discourse to be urgently necessary, and hope that this paper can, in some small way, contribute towards forming and consolidating it.

Educational leadership meets globalization: three possible responses

When considering the appropriate response of educational leadership to the possibilities and challenges of globalization, two key questions need to be taken into account: What *ought to* be and what *can* be done? In order to do justice to these questions, a closer inspection of globalization, its nature and its potentialities is required, and will be undertaken later on in this paper. At this point, I would merely like to suggest that three possible responses are logically available to educational leaders with regard to the omnipresent processes of globalization: *adaptation*, *reaction* and *transformation* (Namdar, 2012).

By adaptation I mean the kind of reasoning whereby globalization is seen either as unproblematic or uncontrollable and hence accepted and embraced in whatever form it comes. A reactive response is one where a critical and opposing stance is taken towards one or more aspects of globalization. The alternative may vary or even not be envisioned, but what is essential to this type of response is that it is formulated in terms and as a negation of something that is seen to be an important feature of globalization. Globalization, in its present form, sets thus the point of departure for the reactive response.

In distinction from a reactive response, the transformative one is based on a vision of a desirable future state of the global society, a vision that is

then employed as the benchmark whereby the phenomenon of globalization is studied, its potentialities determined, and a strategy of responsive action construed. Thus, the starting point is radically different from that of the reactive response. One could actually say that the transformative mode of response is not so much a response to globalization as it is a program of societal transformation that takes into account and seeks to exploit the dynamics of globalization.

Of these possible three types of response, the most prevalent one is the adaptive response. One of the obvious expressions of globalization is the discursive and practical domination of neo-liberal economistic philosophy that redefines cultural, social, and political issues as economic ones. This approach is predicated on the kind of instrumental reasoning that Weber predicted would spread increasingly into various areas of social life within the modern bureaucratic state, and where "in the interests of efficiency, value does not inhere in the activity itself" (Fitzsimons, 1999).

A significant embodiment of neo-liberalism is the brand of managerialism known as *New Public Management* that characterizes current shifts internationally from educational policy and administration to educational management. Some of the salient features of educational managerialism are the construction of quantitative standards and measures of performance, emphasis on economic rewards and sanctions, and the marketization and privatization of state education (ibid.). The fact that educational leadership has internationally either willingly bought into or been subjected to educational managerialism betokens its adaptive response to the forces of globalization.

The three responses sketched above each imply a certain notion of two interrelated issues of human agency and of the future. The future can be conceptualized as something that will happen to us as a result of forces either beyond our control or comprehension. This kind of an approach is what could be called the coffee dregs view of the future. In some parts of the world the high complexity of societal dynamics, and in others the lack of democratic opportunities have led to a widespread sense of powerlessness among people, hence strengthening the idea of the future as something that will happen to us.

Such a self-image as is connoted by the coffee dregs view of the future undermines the possibility of true democracy and instead lays the ground

for passive adaptation. It is important to remind ourselves that already in the infancy of democracy in ancient Greece, the most despised of free men, the supposed agents of the democratic life, were those who failed to engage in public political life and were merely concerned with their personal and family lives. Such men were called idiots, an appellation much more derisive in those days than in its modern usage.

There is also a perspective whereby the future is something created by conscious endeavours of human agents. Beyond a simplistic notion of social engineering, this viewpoint builds upon the ontological possibility and the ethical responsibility of humans to become the constructors of their own future. Even though the patterns of interaction are very complex and their outcomes not easily predictable, all of us inhabiting this planet are collectively accountable for what the world looks like, as a result of our actions or the lack thereof. Without such a stance, there are no grounds for true democracy, and we will have to accept some form of social Darwinism, be it in the fine wrappings of neo-liberalism.

What has been referred to as the transformative response above stems from this latter conceptualization of human agency and of the future, embracing democracy in its deepest sense, as the ability, right, and responsibility of humans to live their lives as conscious agents, not merely as individuals, but as citizens concerned with and engaged in serving the best interests of society. The transformative response recognizes the close interrelationship of democracy and education, as well as the fact that "democracy demands a specific kind of education" (Snauwaert, 2001, p. 10). Its core axiom is that in this age of the "global village", education, and educational leadership, can only be truly meaningful and relevant if they see as their purpose to capacitate the young generation to become builders of a justifiably desirable global society.

This idea was propagated already in 1956 by Theodore Brameld, one of the most notable representatives of a currently little known but highly topical school of educational philosophy, Reconstructionism:

> To expose the conflict between the demands of traditional national sovereignty and the need for responsible international order, and to commit ourselves unequivocally to world government and world citizenship, is not only one of our highest educational obligations; it is the most urgent of those obligations" (1956, p. 117).

My purpose here is to elaborate on some of the implications of the Reconstructionist position, in order to elucidate the necessity of and urgency of what I have termed the transformative response. In order to do that, I will next take a closer look at the phenomenon of globalization, in relation to which the transformative response is to be given.

Globalization: Its many faces and potentialities

There is a wide spectrum of descriptions and analyses pertaining to globalization among its scholars, arching from a Skeptical view that there is nothing new about globalization to the Transformationalist thesis whereby globalization has brought about a radically new order of political and economic powers and relationships (Held et.al., 1999). None of the various interpretations of globalization deny the fact that today's world is a highly interdependent one, one where according to Macgregor Wise (2008) there prevails "a sense of the world as a whole; that is, that not only is one aware of other people and places, but there is a sense of simultaneity and interconnection, that events and decisions made in far-off places can have consequences for your everyday life, and that your everyday life can have consequences for many others a world away" (p. 29). The differences lie in what is seen as the most significant implications of this state of affairs.

For many academics and activists alike, the true face of globalization is an ugly one, the face of a one-eyed Cyclops of neoliberal economism where everything in life is reduced to and measured in terms of economic growth. Even though globalized economy has led to great advances in terms of increased and cheaper production as well as broader and more effective distribution of goods and services, it is pointed out that the fruits of economic globalization have benefitted a minority, within and among societies, while spelling catastrophe for the rest, especially those least advantaged (see e.g. Falk, 1999; Smith, 2003a). Obviously, as I previously pointed out in connection with the adaptive response of educational leadership, many view neoliberal globalized market economy as the only game in town, a game they are happy to be able to play and in which they aim to excel.

What I find especially interesting and promising about globalization are the uniquely novel possibilities it has created for cultural, ideational, and societal cross-fertilization and transformation. One of the most prominent analysts of globalization, Scholte (1997), points out that one way to regard

globalization is in terms of its *supraterritoriality*. He goes on to explain that from that vantage point globalization can be seen as enabling people around the world to have practically instantaneous contact with each other, regardless of political boundaries or geographical distance; an increasing number of organizations, governmental, business, and civic, to operate transnationally; and emergence of a global consciousness as people have started regarding the world as "a single place", identifying with transnational communities, and thinking of their destiny in planetary terms (pp. 431–432).

In a similar manner, Robertson (1992) refers to globalization as "the compression of the world and the intensification of consciousness of the world as a whole" (p. 8). Appadurai (1996) illustrates the complexity of globalization by presenting it as a set of, at times contradictory and unpredictably interacting, processes. He refers to the various fields of global activity as various "scapes", thus wanting us to visualize a number of separate landscapes of global flows each of which can have its own shifts. These scapes, while they interact, each have their own developmental dynamics. In other words, while globalization of the market may follow the logic of national self-interest, globalization of consciousness can develop in the direction of greater universal solidarity.

The fullest constructive potential of globalization is epitomized in Delanty´s (2009) concept of *cosmopolitan imagination*. According to Delanty, cosmopolitanism is a transformative potential inherent in, or the *immanent transcendence* of, societies and cultures which he further clarifies in terms of "the assumption that culture contains immanent capacities for learning and that societies have developmental possibilities" (p. 88). This capability for self-transformation is predicated on two main factors that have already been referred to earlier in this paper: an imagined future and belief in the possibility of human agency to transform the present in accordance to that vision. The focus on an alternative, desirable society renders cosmopolitan imagination normative. At its highest level, cosmopolitanism manifests itself as the capacity to create a shared normative culture. This constitutes a *third culture* that "emerges out of the critical dialogue of standpoints and consists of a transcendence of difference and diversity towards a shared or common culture" (p. 67).

It could be summarized that globalization is a Janus-faced phenomenon. On the one hand, it holds the potentialities for an unprecedented

cosmopolitan culture of harmonized diversity, justice, and solidarity. On the other, it contains the threat of unimaginable horrors from ecological to nuclear devastation of the planet. As numerous thinkers have pointed out, the gist of the predicament at hand is the imbalance between humanity's scientific-technical and ethical-spiritual development (Dunning, 2004), reminiscent of the initial imbalance between physical and mental maturation in adolescence. The inability or refusal to see this constitutes the blind spot of the prevailing neoliberal, materialistic paradigm. Herein lies also the urgency of transformative action, as more of the same is not only ineffective but extremely dangerous.

Globally good educational leaders

For educational leadership, the emphasis laid by Delanty on societal *learning* is highly significant. Indeed, Delanty goes as far as claiming that "Without a learning process, that is an internal cognitive transformation, it makes little sense in calling something cosmopolitan" (p. 75). It can be concluded that consciously transformative social action and educational practices are fundamentally intertwined through their shared core interest in normative learning. Educational leaders can and have a moral responsibility to provide such leadership as will develop public education towards much greater relevance for and engagement in societal reconstruction.

Co-creating a new global third culture is a manifestation of unity in diversity. The concept of unity in diversity is perhaps most clearly exemplified in the formation of an orchestra. Different instruments and their distinct sounds are brought together to create something richer than what any of the individual instruments or group of instruments could accomplish. Diversity of tones, in other words, is a great asset in orchestral music. However, for the combined sounds of the instruments gathered to be beautiful and not simply cacophonic, an element of unity, such as a common key or a common theme is required. Obviously, learning to play together as an orchestra involves a learning process, requiring both an attitude of co-creation and certain skills such as listening to other instruments' sounds.

It should be quite self-evident to posit that children and youth are best suited among all of humanity to engage in the creation of a cosmopolitan third culture, to learn to play together as a global orchestra. Hence, in contradiction to the common rhetoric, I consider the young generations of

our planet not only as our future, but very importantly, as the most vital force of societal reconstruction in the present. Schools can and should be conceptualized, as the former Swedish Prime Minister, Olof Palme, did in his earlier post as the Minister of Education, as "spearheads towards the future", arenas for preparing the young to act as global citizens, as constructors of a cosmopolitan civilization.

But for children and youth to be able to assume such a historical role, they need to be led by educators who themselves have the vision, understanding and skills required in such a mandate. Here, lies the primary challenge for educational leaders if they want to respond meaningfully and relevantly to the realities of the age of globalization. For Counts, another outstanding Reconstructionist, this was by and large clear already in 1930s when he pointed out:

If the schools are to be really effective, they must become centres for the building, and not merely for the contemplation, of our civilization. This does not mean that we should endeavour to promote particular reforms through the educational system. We should, however, give to our children a vision of the possibilities which lie head and endeavour to enlist their loyalties and enthusiasms in the realization of the vision. Also our social institutions and practices, all of them, should be critically examined in the light of such a vision (Counts, 1978, p. 34).

The ground has now been sufficiently prepared for a more exact definition of what is meant by globally good educational leaders. The qualifier *globally good* refers to two interconnected aspects: that the educational leader has the wellbeing or good of the entire planet as her primary purpose, in other words, that her leadership is not aimed only at the particular learners she is legally commissioned to lead, but at all the learners in the world, and that her leadership is such that it can be considered good by any ethically and rationally thinking person anywhere in the world.

For educational leaders to become globally good means that education is viewed primarily as a process intimately interconnected with societal reconstruction. Such a perspective has also certain implications in terms of a notion of human nature and that of the mandate of the school as an institution. In order to arrive at a better understanding of some more detailed aspects of globally good educational leadership, we will explore next these two issues.

Globally reconstructive educational leadership and human nature

When approaching education as engagement with societal transformation, we immediately encounter two dilemmas (Uljens, 2009). One has to do with the issue that educating the young for life in a desirable future society equips them to deal with a reality possibly diametrically opposed to the one they have to deal with in the present-day society. At least one way out of this paradox is to conceptualize future-oriented education not as a preparation for a different kind of life in a different kind of world, but as fostering in the learners' values and capabilities that enable them to act as reconstructive agents capable of impacting the world in ways that will promote the desired transformations. As Johanisson (2010) points out when speaking about the natural tendency in children towards entrepreneurship, in its broadest sense, due to this predisposition they end up living in two worlds or developmental time zones simultaneously.

The other dilemma pertains to the simultaneous need for the young, on the one hand, to be guided as they lack the knowledge and skills to even master their own lives while, on the other, to have sufficient autonomy so that their views and patterns of behaviour do not simply become replicas of their educators', thus perpetuating practices that may prove insufficient or even detrimental from the point of view of reconstructive goals. To better understand how this paradox can be resolved, we will benefit from referring to anther related theme developed by Uljens (2004). Here, Uljens essentially poses the question whether a human being is fully human at the point of birth, and concludes that if this were the case, there would be no need to educate people within and into cultural contexts. Obviously then, we *are* not humans, but become such.

According to Uljens (2004), the process of becoming human goes through at least three births. The first one is naturally the biological birth. This is normally followed by birth or socialization into a culture. While this phase of the process equips us with fundamental human traits such as language, thinking, and an ordered view of reality, it also turns us into more or less predictable products and bearers of the particular culture we have grown up in. The full potential of our human becoming has not yet been realized. For that to happen, we must undergo a third birth, to autonomous rational and ethical personhood by exerting our power of independent thinking. Only then we achieve truly authentic humanity, having ourselves explored reality and arrived at a worldview as a result of

personal critical thinking. The third birth enables us, thus, to emancipate ourselves from any culturally imposed shackles.

A very similar notion of human becoming was put forth decades earlier by Fromm (1955), who saw that humans have, by virtue of their self-awareness, left irretrievably behind the animal condition and the easy certainty of instinctual steering. Instead they have to be born into their distinctive humanity, and create a truly human world. For Fromm, the aim of history is the full birth of man, her full humanization. Uljens and Fromm converge also on the issue of the importance of independent human thinking. Fromm refers to this unique human faculty as human *reason* which he differentiates from *intelligence* that man shares with animals. Fromm considers reason to be man's instrument for arriving at the truth, while intelligence is her instrument for manipulating the world more successfully.

We can now return to the dilemma of how educators can educate without indoctrinating, how they can guide the younger generation, while leaving it free to develop its own novel views. Brameld (1956) referred to this process as that of "defensible partiality". The most important task of the educator becomes to foster the *process* of ethical reasoning, primarily by exemplifying it. She is to clearly demonstrate to the learners the reasoning behind the statements she is making. But she has to also show what counter-arguments to hers exist or can exist. Learners should be always encouraged and provided with opportunities to question as well as to find new vantage points, generate new conceptualizations, and formulate new arguments. In such an open dialogue the roles of a teacher and a learner can become disassociated from specific persons into changing modalities within everyone participating in the inquiry process.

There are a number of decisive points for globally good educational leadership that can be deducted from the model of human nature that is presented by Fromm and Uljens. These points underscore the fundamental differences between the currently dominant managerial approach to educational leadership, based on the supremacy of economic considerations, and the alternative reconstructive perspective, predicated upon a holistic view of what is in keeping with the fullest human potential. One of these is the central significance of nurturing human thinking, rationality or reason. It is this capacity that distinguishes humanity, and offers a key to a fuller realization of its potentialities.

The human power of reason is inseparable from her ability to embrace ethics. In Frommian terms, it is rational ethics that replaces the rule of instincts. As Habermas (1984) has argued, ethical human rationality is also a prerequisite for the kind of dialogue that can lead to the creation of a new cosmopolitan culture referred to above. Fostering the human capacity to reason ethically, in a dialogical mode, becomes thus a core purpose and content of all educational endeavours, including educational leadership. For globally good educational leaders this becomes a directive for the kind of culture they set out to create in the educational organization they are leading.

The above postulates about human nature lead us to see that our humanity is defined by the potential to act as ethically conscious constructors and reconstructors of our world and our future, rather than succumbing to the passive role of cultural reproducers. In such a light, democracy, in its deepest meaning, can be viewed as the realization of a central feature of humanity. Far from being a mere societal instrumentality, democracy, in this sense of the realization of human agency through active, ethically reasoned citizenship, becomes a core value and purpose in itself. It can be, furthermore, seen that, aside from obvious socio-political parameters, deep democracy requires what can be termed inner power, manifested in Uljens' "third birth", and the consequent commitment to act on one's internalized understandings.

An understanding of our common human nature as potential (re)constructors of the world leads also to a confirmation of the adjective "globally good". If we all as human beings have the essential potential to become creators of the world we inhabit, we are by definition co-creators of a shared world. Our supreme challenge and task is to identify or create together the ethical themes that can harmonize our diversity into a workable developmental scheme. We are, by our nature, not meant to be soloists but members of a global orchestra. What this entails, in very tangible ways, is that our personal wellbeing and that of our particular reference group is dependent upon the wellbeing of the entire humanity. For educational leaders this means that their leadership for their particular organization is pointless, arguably even dangerous, if not brought into the context of what kind of leadership or what leadership goals would benefit the global society.

Globally reconstructive educational leadership and the institutional mandate of schools

A fuller appreciation of educational leadership will obviously benefit from some reflections on the central purpose for operating schools in a society, as the role of educational leaders is dependent on the kind of educational rationale they are appointed to promote. I would like to briefly sketch here a simplified taxonomy of three modes within which schools as social institutions are or can be designed to operate, in relation to the society they are embedded in (Namdar, 2012). The first one can be metaphorically referred to as the "copying machine" mode. Here, the main concern is to reproduce, in the main, the existing societal conditions. This has been, and still is, the most common mandate for schools the world over. In recent decades, however, it has become increasingly problematic due to the ever increasing rapidity and intensity of social change. The original is outdated by the time the first few copies have been written out.

More progressive educationalists have come to the conclusion that in our fast changing world, it is impossible to foresee the future. Thus, it will be difficult to determine what the young generation will need to learn today so as to be able to live and work in the world of their adult years. It follows that schools need to prepare their students by training them in generic knowledge and skills that can later on be applied in any future societal setting. The pivot of such an approach is the idea of adaptation; hence I would call this the "chameleon" mode of operating schools. At the first sight, the chameleonic mandate sounds radically different from the copying machine one. Yet, at closer inspection, they both share the basic notion of adaptation: one to the existing societal order, the other to any future regime. Thus, they both imply a view of the future as something that happens to us, and that we only can or have to adjust ourselves to.

From the point of view of what has been earlier been referred to in terms of a cosmopolitan culture and of global societal reconstruction, these two modes of educational institutions do not provide an adequate or relevant rationale. What mandate could then be given to schools that would be in keeping with a transformative, rather than an adaptive, approach? I have already referred to it in the passing as the idea of schools operating as "spearheads towards the future". In more recent times, Singh (2005) talks about the necessity of transformative curricula that would "enable students' transformative engagement", thus guarding them against

"complacency, nostalgia, and resentment" (p. 132). Fischman and McLaren (2005) envision schools as sites for reinventing democracy, as "centers of possibility" and "utopic-heterotopic spaces". We can call this last category the "transformative arena" mode.

A critical issue that arises here is how educational leaders can carry out their role in an ethical-rational manner when the main emphasis of the mandates for public schools everywhere is on the "copying machine" mode, and there are very few schools of any kind even aiming to operate in the "transformative arena" mode. Two factors would seem to be important in answering this key question: the will and the way. By the will, I am referring to the necessity of an understanding of the significance of a transformative response to globalization and of the consequent role of the globally good educational leader that will lead to a moral commitment and to practical action. It is, above all, this vision that needs to be formed into the core of a new alternative discourse on educational leadership.

Once the transformative perspective has been adopted, it becomes a matter of strategy to be able to implement it in one's leadership. Here, Berg's (2006) "scope for action" model comes handy. It takes as its starting point the fact that the policy documents prepared to direct the operation of schools as institutions delineate a relatively broad field of possible arrangements and actions whose range benefits from the fact that these instructions are usually open to interpretation. No one school, as an individual organization, has ever implemented all the possibilities contained in or not specifically forbidden by the documents(s) regulating its operation. Each educational leader can, hence, find a more or less open space for action within her school to promote what she regards important. Naturally, official local or national policy documents need to be followed, and their purposes can usually be achieved while attending to a transformative agenda that contains them and placing them in a new framework.

To elucidate this last point, we can take an internationally typical example of learning objectives set by policy documents for each subject and school year. As the achievement of these objectives is usually measured by various tests, and in many cases publicized, teachers and educational leaders alike are under certain pressure to assure that the indicated goals are met. From the kind of globally transformative perspective that I have sought to develop in this paper, such a system makes little sense. The way

school subjects are most often taught, they atomize knowledge into unconnected puzzle pieces that learners seldom manage to put together into a holistic view of reality. Even worse, the portrayal of knowledge, as packaged in school subject form, makes it usually inapplicable or of little relevance to real life needs and aspirations of young learners. So, a globally good educational leader would endeavour to have curricula reformulated in thematic entities corresponding to socially transformative action to be engaged in by the students. While this kind of an arrangement would not be called for by the policy document(s) she is directed by, such an approach would assure the achievement of subject-specific learning objectives in the process.

Under the leadership of a globally good educational leader, the school would turn into a centre of social experimentation and transformation. Instead of being like a medieval feudal castle, segregated from its environs, it would open up and go out to the community it is embedded in. Here are some examples of what this could entail: The various cultural groups of the local community could meet each other and the students at the school or at events organized by the school. Students, in small groups, would engage in developmental projects in their local community, as a core of their school studies. Later down the process, these projects could be pursued in collaboration with students in other schools and in other countries. NGOs represented in the community or otherwise accessible would be sought out as partners in various undertakings and for student internships. Politicians and business people would be invited to the school to hear the students' ideas about how their way of dealing with things could be radically changed for the benefit of the global society and to respond to these.

A close-up profile of globally good educational leaders

In the light of the above discussions, we can now focus our lens more exactly on the globally good educational leaders and identify three key aspects of their role identity. Globally good educational leaders are *inspirers* energizing and encouraging those they lead to reach for commonly agreed upon ideals. This aspect of their leadership could be termed *ideal-based leadership* which connotes an approach to education where instead of the learner, the instructor, knowledge, etc., *ideals* that have been arrived at through a process of dialogical ethical reasoning are placed in the center.

Agreement on common ideals that set standards for relationships, provide a compass for transformative action, and serve as building blocks of worldviews calls also for an ability to detect positive potential, in stark contrast to the tendency to identify problems.

Globally good educational leaders are also metaphorical *orchestra conductors* who enable the diverse body of learners and teachers synergize their multiformity into a functional and sustainable entity. They recognize that the organization they lead is like a miniature model of the global society they ultimately want to impact. Therefore, they set out to create and develop a cosmopolitan culture and appropriate democratic structures in the school they are leading. The relative autonomy that schools enjoy becomes an important asset in this context. Even though globally good educational leaders cannot immediately bring about radical changes on the global scale, they are conscious of their great influence on how their own schools operate. Through their leadership, globally good educational leaders help those they lead to form a learning community dedicated to learning collaboratively about societal reconstruction in a global context.

Finally, globally good educational leaders act as captains of an explorative expedition. Through their personal example and their support, they help their crews remember what they knew as children: that good questions are even more important than and keys to good answers. In the expedition they lead, one needs not be afraid or ashamed of making mistakes. In fact, all exploration, even those excursions that lead to dead ends or casualties of sorts, is regarded as a learning experience. By encouraging and maintaining regular reciprocity of action and reflection, globally good educational leaders provide for the transmutation of experience into knowledge. Their schools are not false bastions of ready-made adults' answers that only need to be assimilated by the young, but rather adventurous spaces for questioning even the most fundamental beliefs, principles, and institutions in a constant quest for transformative learning opportunities.

Globally good educational leaders demonstrate their transformative aspirations and abilities by developing schools where two basic, interrelated assumptions are turned around. Firstly, their schools are not trying to catch up with societal advancements, but operate as spearheads of community development. Secondly, the students are not fostered and regarded as followers or as future actors, but as leaders of societal

transformation - here and now. Globally good educational leaders exercise their leadership as identifiers and nurturers of globally beneficial potential. As the young people embody the greatest such potential, globally good educational leaders use their leadership to pass it on to the young. Their signal of success is a student standing up and claiming: "A better world starts at my school, with me, my friends, and my teachers!"

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Local and global values dilemma in educational leadership: inferences for future

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Abstract

The term value can be asserted to be both locally and globally sensitive. The question is whether global and local necessarily oppose one another or are supporting processes. The answer to this question in the mind of a leader is vital because it is likely to affect his/her reasoning and behaviour. There is a common agreement in the related literature that values of the leaders are affected by many variables such as family, friends, religion, education, the media, geographic roots, technology, and current events and on the other hand, their values have a strong affect on their perceptions of situations, the solutions generated regarding problems, interpersonal relationships, perceptions of individual and organizational successes, perception of ethical and unethical behaviours, their attitude towards organizational pressures and goals and their managerial performance. So to say, values have the potential and the power to affect the perceptions of appropriate ends, but also the perceptions of the appropriate means to those ends. The purpose of this article is to examine the existing literature regarding the dilemma between local and global values in leadership and further, to draw outcomes for future of educational leaders.

Key words: Educational leadership, leadership values, globalization, decentralization, leadership in the future

Introduction

Buchko (2007) asserts that to the extent that values are present within the organization, and that people understand and share a set of core values, these will certainly affect how people think and act within the organization. Recognizing the importance of values in shaping behaviours, it is no surprise that many management theorists, consultants, and writers have centred on the importance of core organization values as a basis for achieving high performance. Russell (2001) contends that ultimately, values serve as the foundational essence of leadership. On the other hand, Kaiser and Overfield (2010) wrote that leaders play a decisive role in the fate of

organizations. As a result of these two widely shared propositions about values and leadership in the literature an important question should be raised to understand why and how schools are lead as they are today and to estimate future direction of school leadership. The question is: What is the essence of values that shaped leadership phenomena in schools. The answer to this question might be hidden in various debates carried on by various scientific fields. Edgeman (1998) notes this fact saying "leadership is too big to be stayed in the hands of a select few". Today there is a fact that, as in the words of Morrison (2000), "the imperative to globalize is accelerating." On the other hand, debates on local, localization or somewhat decentralization issue as the opposing term to "global" with its social, political, geographical, economical and cultural meanings also have been highlighted at the same time. In trying to answer the highlighted question above, this paper focuses on the local and global aspects of values and their possible effects on leadership behaviours as they reflect a dilemma character on the debates of the issue in the literature.

In the first section of this article, I will define the term "value" and try to show its consequences on behaviour and leadership in educational organizations. The second section discusses globalization and tries to clarify global and local contradiction or vice versa by means of values and leadership. The third section discusses the relationship between globalisation and education focusing on values and leadership. The following section concentrates on the relationship between localization or decentralisation and education. In the final section, I will discuss the findings and conclude with some inferences for future.

Values

Work values and organization values

Buchko (2007) defines values as the "glue" that binds people together into organizations. When a group of people share a set of beliefs about the goals that need to be achieved and the means to be used to attain those goals, there is a basis for organization. In fact, without some common beliefs or values, organizations could not exist; people need a common set of beliefs to come together and create social organizations. Bowden (1997) on the other hand, asserts that the application of values in organizations must entail an awareness of the "dynamic complexity and diversity of specific situations, and the particular needs, desires, intellectual and

emotional habits of the persons participating in them. Prilleltensky (2000) suggests three sets of values to guide individual and organizational behaviour: (a) values for personal wellness (e.g., self-determination, autonomy, health, and personal growth), (b) values for collective wellness (e.g., social justice, support for community structures), and (c) values for relational wellness (e.g., respect for human diversity, collaboration, and democratic participation). Wellness is defined as a satisfactory state of affairs brought about by the fulfilment of basic needs. Ros et al. (1999) and Schwartz (1999) point to four broad types of work values which they view as conceptually parallel to three of the higher-order basic human values these are: intrinsic (personal growth, autonomy, interest, and creativity), extrinsic (pay and security), social (contact with people and contribution to society), power or prestige (prestige, authority, influence). Ros et al. (1999) differentiates between work values and individual values. They asserted that like basic values, work values are beliefs pertaining to desirable end-states (e.g. high pay) or behaviour (e.g. working with people). Because work values refer only to goals in the work setting, they are more specific than basic individual values. But the work values usually studied are still quite broad: they refer to what a person wants out of work in general, rather than to the narrowly defined outcomes of particular jobs. Finally, work values, like basic values, are verbal representations of individual, group, and interaction requirements.

Sources of values

According to Bruno and Lay (2008), there are five types of value orientation. These are: 1) The economic man is primarily oriented toward what is useful. Such a person is typically "practical" and fits well the stereotype of the businessman. 2) The theoretical man is primarily interested in the discovery of truth, in the systematic ordering of his knowledge. In pursuing this goal he typically takes a "cognitive" approach, looking for identities and differences, with relative disregard for the beauty or utility of objects, seeking only to observe and to reason. His interests are empirical, critical, and rational. 3) The political man is oriented toward power, not necessarily in politics, but in whatever area he works. 4) The aesthetic man finds his main interest in the artistic aspects of life, although he need not be a creative artist. He values form and harmony. 5) The social man is primarily oriented toward the well-being of the people. His essential value is love of people. The social man values people as ends, and tends to

be kind, sympathetic, and unselfish. Massey (1979) identified some major factors at first hand that is likely to affect personal values, such as family, friends, religion, education, the media, geographic roots, technology and current events. Kuczmarski and Kuczmarski (1995) specified four factors that create values: 1) family and childhood experiences, 2) conflict events which evoke self-discovery, 3) major life changes and experiential learning and 4) personal relationships with ``important'' individuals. Buchko (2007) emphasized additionally, attitudes such as commitment, satisfaction and basic human needs. Schwartz (1994) identified ten motivationally distinct types of values as 1) power: social status and prestige, control or dominance over people and resources; 2) achievement: personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards; 3) hedonism: pleasure and sensuous gratification for oneself; 4) stimulation: excitement, novelty, and challenge in life; 5) self-direction: independent thought and action—choosing, creating, exploring; 6) universalism: understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protection for the welfare of all people and for nature; 7) benevolence: preservation and enhancement of the welfare of people with whom one is in frequent personal contact; 8) tradition: respect, commitment, and acceptance of the customs and ideas that traditional culture or religion provide; 9) conformity: restraint of actions, inclinations, and impulses likely to upset or harm others and violate social expectations or norms; 10) security: safety, harmony, and stability of society, of relationships, and of self. The diversity in the sources of values is the proof of the complexity of the phenomenon in a way. It also shows the difficulty in satisfying our curiosity about how we form and shape our personal and organizational values.

Values and leadership

Are we, as Woodward (1994) asserted, experiencing a leadership crisis because many leaders are motivated by self-interest? What does self-interest mean by means of values issue? Do these questions lead us again to the questions of how leaders undertake values and what values lead and shape this self-interest; Local? or Global? According to Taffinder (2006) in fact leadership value is *generally* and *specifically* about purpose. In the general sense this is because, for leaders to be successful, they must offer people (their followers) a goal to pursue, a task to accomplish, a greater ambition to achieve. We can infer from this proposition that if the leadership values are in relation to a purpose generated by a leader, the

sources of the purpose determine value formation. The question is: what are the sources of the purpose; local? global? or both? Edgeman (1998) defines the situation which seems inextricable as "leadership is at the least both burden and privilege, humbling and empowering, costly and rewarding. According to Russell (2001) personal values affect moral reasoning, behaviour, and leadership style. The most critical values of good leaders are honesty and integrity. Values also profoundly influence personal and organizational decision-making. The values of leaders ultimately permeate the organizations they lead. Leaders primarily shape the cultures of their organizations through modelling important values. Day et al. (2001) demonstrated that effective leadership is defined and driven by individual value systems, rather than instrumental managerial concerns. Woodward (1994) asserted that leaders lead from their values and beliefs. England and Lee (1974) identified seven ways in which values affect leaders: 1) Values affect leaders' perceptions of situations. 2) Leaders' values affect the solutions they generate regarding problems. 3) Values play a role in interpersonal relationships. 4) Values influence perceptions of individual and organizational successes. 5) Values provide a basis for differentiating between ethical and unethical behaviour. 6) Values affect the extent to which leaders accept or reject organizational pressures and goals. 7) Personal values may also affect managerial performance.

Values and culture

Buchko (2007) notes that organization values and organization culture are not one and the same thing. While the values are the beliefs, the culture is the outward representation or manifestation of certain key underlying beliefs. Culture consists of the myths and legends, stories, rites and rituals, symbols, and unique language that define a social group. As such, the culture reflects the underlying values. Culture demonstrates the values to members of the organization and to outsiders in very visible ways. Gannon and Pillai (2010) state that what the majority of people value in culture tends to become enshrined in norms or expected standards of behaviour. They also claim that once an education system is established, it reflects the values of its leaders and documents. Lumby and Foskett (2008) explain that culture is the set of beliefs, values and behaviours, both explicit and implicit, which underpin an organisation and provide the basis of action and decision-making, and is neatly summarised as 'the way we do things around here. According to Schwartz (1994; 1999) cultural values represent

the implicitly or explicitly shared abstract ideas about what is good, right, and desirable in a society. These cultural values (e.g. freedom, prosperity, security) are the bases for the specific norms that tell people what is appropriate in various situations. The ways that societal institutions (e.g. the family, education, economic, political, religious systems) function, their goals and their modes of operation, express cultural value priorities. According to Mayton, et al. (1994) and Rokeach (1973) values may be defined as enduring prescriptive or proscriptive beliefs that a specific mode of conduct (instrumental value) or end state of existence (terminal value) is preferred to another mode of conduct or end state. Fein et al. (2011) view values as standards that determine behaviour across a wide range of situations and they assert also that values are best conceived as belief structures that are also connected to particular categories of needs. Lord and Brown (2001) point out to two important functions of values as first because they are enduring and transcend situations, values can provide coherence and a sense of purpose to an individuals' behaviours. Second, because they are normative standards values are bases for generating behaviours that conform to the needs of groups or larger social units. Schwartz (1999) also made a practical definition of values for leadership discussions as conceptions of the desirable that guide the way social actors (c.g. organisational leaders, policy-makers and individual persons) select actions, evaluate people and events, and explain their actions and evaluations. The question is: because a value is subjected to preference and selection out of various choices, what forces are leading in this selection, evaluation and explanation processes; local? global? or both?

Lumby and Foskett (2008) asserted that we might argue that the culture of every educational institution is unique, derived from the context in which the school operates and the values of those who have led or been part of the organisation over time. This unique culture will reveal itself through a number of institutional characteristics: a) conceptually, through the ideas that are valued and promoted, b) verbally, through the language, terminology and discourses in use, c) behaviourally, through the activities, social interactions and rituals that occur, d) visually, through the designs and styles adopted by the organisation in its physical and material components. Buchko (2007) speaks of "some inherent values" in all social organizations which he explains as "publicly stated beliefs which form the core of the organization and are central to the organization's existence. This discussion leads us to think that values as one of the major composers of

the culture concept show also a unique character the same as it is defined in organizational culture. In this case, the diversity in values brings into mind a conflict in leadership behaviour as such can there be common values, shared by school leaders dispersed all over a country and/or by leaders in various cultures and countries at the same time? This question leads us to think about values in global perspective and values in social life locally. It seems like a dilemma in that whether globalizing has an assimilating and dissolving effect on the local values or it has protective, encapsulating and enriching effect on them. In the first case, the debate on leadership is likely to include a conflict or somewhat a chaotic, harmless process, in other words, contentious character. This perspective is likely to be represented and advocated by these who define globalization accordingly. In the second case, school leadership literature is more likely to show a rapid progress and develop in a linear way in globalization perspective. Briefly to say, the answer to the dilemma "conflict or congruity in values" lies under how globalization is defined and how the relation of the "global" to the "local" is considered.

Globalization

Reich (1998) asserts that there is not only disagreement on the definition of globalization; there is also no clear consensus on whether the term 'globalization' is employed as a historical epoch, a process, a theory, or as a new paradigm. Its meaning remained unspecified. The term is often distinguished more by what it is not, rather than what it is. Bottery (2004) differentiates globalization in two perspectives: 1) some interpretations suggest that globalization is essentially a force for good that through opening up new markets, extending competition, and bringing nations into a world order, globalization increases the prosperity of all involved. 2) Other interpretations view globalization in much more negative terms. For these writers, the unfettered free markets of economic globalization have already been seen at the national level, and have produced social dislocation, led to a neglect of the public and civic good, increased inequalities between rich and poor, and produced a poorer quality of life for all within communities. According to Rosenau (1997), globalization is a term that directly implies change and thus differentiates the phenomenon as a process rather that a prevailing condition or a desirable end state. Morrison (2000) views globalization as all about overcoming national differences and embracing the best practices from around the world.

According to Waters (1995), globalization is the direct consequence of expansion of European culture across the planet via settlement, colonization and cultural mimesis. However, it does not imply that every corner of the planet must become westernized and capitalist but rather that every set of social arrangements must establish its position in relation to capitalist west. Globalization is not the same as globalism, which points to aspirations for an end state of affairs wherein values are shared by or pertinent to the entire world's five billion people, their environment, their roles as citizens, consumers or producers with an interest in collective action designed to solve common problems. Nor is it universalism—values which embrace all humanity, hypothetically or actually (Rosenau, 1996). Scholte (2008) discusses globalisation as internationalisation, liberalisation, universalisation, westernisation and transplanetary connections.1) Internationalisation: The term refers to a growth of transactions and interdependence between countries. From this perspective, a more global world is one where more messages, ideas, merchandise, money, investments, pollutants and people cross borders between national-state-territorial units. 2) Liberalisation: On this understanding, globalisation occurs as authorities reduce or abolish regulatory measures like trade barriers, foreign-exchange restrictions, capital controls and visa requirements. Using this definition, the study of globalisation is a debate about contemporary so-called 'neoliberal' macroeconomic policies. On the other side, critics in the so-called 'anti-globalisation' movement have opposed neoliberal policies, contending that a laissez-faire world economy produces greater poverty, inequality, social conflict, cultural destruction, ecological damage and democratic deficits. 3) Universalisation: In this case, globalisation is taken to describe a process of dispersing various objects and experiences to people at all inhabited parts of the earth. On these lines, 'global' means 'worldwide' and 'everywhere'. Frequently globalisation as universalisation is assumed to entail homogenisation with worldwide cultural, economic, legal and political convergence. 4) Westernisation: As such, globalisation is regarded as a particular type of universalisation, one in which social structures of Western modernity (capitalism, industrialism, rationalism, urbanism, etc.) are spread across all of humanity, in the process destroying pre-existent cultures and local self-determination. Globalisation understood in this way is often interpreted as colonisation, Americanisation and westoxification. 5) Important new insight into historically relatively new conditions is available from a fifth conception.

This approach identifies globalisation as the spread of transplanetary – and in recent times also more particularly supraterritorial – connections between people. From this perspective, globalisation involves reductions in barriers to transworld social contacts. People become more able – physically, legally, linguistically, culturally and psychologically – to engage with each other wherever on earth they might be. To clarify the vocabulary, in the approach adopted here, the words 'global', 'transplanetary' and 'transworld' are treated as synonyms. According to Carnoy (1998), the argument against the globalisation thesis is based on two major assertions: the first is that transnational corporations are not transnational but multinational. Transnational means that they transcend any national space. Multinational means that they have offices in many different countries but retain a very high fraction of their assets in their home base economy. The second argument against globalisation is that national economic regulation is still the main form of public economic intervention and control. This is so because a high fraction of a nation's economic activities remain almost entirely domestic and distinctly unglobalised (health, construction, education, retail and wholesale, restaurant, bar, and many other services). Bottery (2004) asserts that cultural globalization is a curious phenomenon, capable of being conceived in two totally opposed ways. First, there is a globalization of cultural variety. Paradoxically, given the possibility of cultural variety suggested above, another candidate for cultural globalization is precisely the opposite – the globalization of cultural standardization, which operates through the imposition of a one-window view of the world. Pieterse (2004) argues that the intervening variable of globalization and culture in most accounts is modernity. Three vectors consisting globalization, modernity and culture come together in a package with modernization as the deciding variable.

Globalizing dynamics

According to Rosenau (1997), globalizing dynamics derive from peoples' need to enlarge the scope of their self-created orders so as to increase the goods, services and ideas available for their well-being. The agricultural revolution, followed by the industrial and post-industrial transformations, is among the major sources that have sustained globalization. Eventually, that is the dynamics of globalization are expected to serve as the bases around which the course of events is organized. Gannon and Pillai (2010) state that changes occur over time because of globalization by the

mechanisms such as the free movement of goods, services, talents, ideas, knowledge, capital, communications across boundaries, the creation of new technologies such as internet. Foster (2004) stresses on technologies of thought used in globalizing process. One is the control of numeracy, then of information, and, finally, of language. With the control of numeracy, one has to refer to the collection of statistics and numbers about things and about how these are used to develop and influence policy. Here, politicians earn reputations and press by showing how poorly students perform compared to, say, Japan, England, Germany, the Scandinavian countries, and so forth. It is common also to rank school systems and their students by achievement test scores. Computers are themselves a significant source of control-oriented mechanisms in today's classrooms. Who programs them, and for what purposes? As Web-based courses become more and more popular, these questions become more and more important. The final technology of thought that can be addressed here is language itself, both as a mechanism for conveying thought and as a means for legitimizing relations of power. And this relates well to any comments we have regarding leadership, because leadership is a language used subtly in power to persuade.

Global / local

Scholte (2008) asserted that the interrelatedness of dimensions of social space suggests that it is mistaken to set up oppositions between the global and the local. Such a binary resurrects in new form the misguided domestic/international dichotomy of old. Typically, local / global polarisations have depicted the local as 'here', immediate and intimate, and the global as 'there', distant and isolating. The local is concrete, grounded, authentic and meaningful, whereas the global is abstract, unconnected, artificial and meaningless. The local purportedly provides security and community, while the global houses danger and violence. The local is innocent, the global manipulative. The local is the arena for autonomy and empowerment, the global the realm of dependence and domination. After all, people can have very immediate and intimate relationships with each other via jet travel, telephone and Internet. In contrast, many next-door neighbours in contemporary cities do not even know each other's names.

On the other hand, although the local phenomenon has been considered by means of nation-states or societies in the literature they are also classified in the globalization phenomenon in that having similar political,

cultural, economical forms. For example Spring (2008) states that global educational processes are analyzed in the framework of societies in contrast to nation-states. This framework makes it possible to talk about a global society or societies. The term "societies" is meant to encompass something broader than a nation-state by including economic and political organizations, civil society, and culture. In this definition, the nation-state does not disappear but becomes a subset of societies. In other words, particular societies might be identified as having similar political forms such as democratic and totalitarian, similar economic organizations such as market-driven and planned, or similar religions such as Islamic, Christian, and Hindu societies. In the same conceptualization again Inglehart (2006) speaks of cultural zones and states that cross-cultural variation is surprisingly coherent, and a wide range of attitudes (reflecting people's beliefs and values in such different life domains as the family, work, religion, environment, politics and sexual behaviour) reflect just two major underlying dimensions: one that taps the polarization between traditional values and secular-rational values, and a second dimension that taps the polarization between survival values and self-expression values. The world's societies cluster into relatively homogenous cultural zones, reflecting their historical heritage, and these cultural zones persist robustly over time. Schwartz (1999) points to what kind of values suit to various cultures. He states that the pursuit of power values is likely to be more acceptable in cultures where hierarchy and mastery values are emphasised. The pursuit of intrinsic work values is likely to be seen as desirable and justified where Autonomy values are emphasised in a society. People who seek personal growth or opportunities for creativity and autonomy in their work are therefore more likely to find a welcoming cultural climate. In contrast, where conservatism values are emphasised, people are more likely to be discouraged from pursuing these individuating goals in their work. In like vein, managers are more likely to utilise intrinsic rewards such as opportunities for personal growth, creativity and autonomy in societies where Autonomy values prevail than in societies characterised by an emphasis on Conservatism values. Moreover, managers are more likely to be effective in motivating workers through appeals to intrinsic work goals in the former than in the latter societies. In societies where individual ambition and success are highly valued, the organisation of the economic and legal systems is likely to be competitive (e.g. capitalist markets and adversarial legal proceedings). In contrast, a cultural emphasis on group well-being is likely to be expressed in more cooperative economic and legal systems (e.g. socialism and mediation). Smith (2008) contended that

although there are universal factors that account for leadership effectiveness, the effects of culture-dependent variables cannot be ignored. There are several specific ways that individuals' receptivity to transformational and transactional leadership may be moderated by cultural context. For example, it seems likely that the transactional style is preferred more than is the transformational in collectivistic cultures, when compared to individualistic cultures. We feel that this is likely because collectivistic cultures generally promote respect for authority and obedience of communal rules. However, there is also evidence that the positive relationship between transformational leadership and desired attitudes is strongest for employees from cultures with collective values. An emphasis on extrinsic work values is hypothesised to be compatible with Conservatism and Hierarchy culture values and to conflict with Intellectual Autonomy values. Hartog et al. (1999) reported that culture profiles as derived from yield many hypotheses regarding cross-cultural differences in leadership. They stress on the speculation that transformational leadership emerges more easily and is more effective in collectivistic cultures than in individualistic cultures. They further contend that the centrality of work in life and the high level of group orientation among followers should promote transformational leadership and the high respect for authority and the obedience in collectivistic cultures should enhance transformational processes. High uncertainty avoidance cultures, with the resulting emphasis on rules, procedures and traditions may place demands on leaders not expected in low uncertainty avoidance cultures. More innovative behaviours may therefore be expected in low uncertainty avoidance cultures. Also, more masculine cultures are probably more tolerant of strong, directive leaders than feminine cultures, where a preference for more consultative, considerate leaders seems likely.

Education and globalism

Spring (2008) argues that the language of globalization has quickly entered discourses about schooling. Government and business groups talk about the necessity of schools meeting the needs of the global economy. As a consequence, educational discourses around the world often refer to human capital, lifelong learning for improving job skills, and economic development. Also, the global economy is sparking a mass migration of workers, resulting in global discussions about multicultural education. Intergovernmental organizations (IGOs), such as the United Nations, the

OECD, and the World Bank, are promoting global educational agendas that reflect educational discourses about human capital, economic development, and multiculturalism. Information and communication technology is speeding the global flow of information and creating a library of world knowledge. Global nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), in particular those concerned with human rights and environmentalism, are trying to influence school curricula throughout the world. Multinational corporations, in particular those involved in publishing, information, testing, for-profit schooling, and computers, are marketing their products to governments, schools, and parents around the world. According to Welch (2001) evidently, globalisation processes are having substantial effects on education; indeed, it is becoming increasingly difficult to understand education without reference to such processes. He pointed to two trends the first consists of the rise of non-school influences, notably in television and the internet, upon the formation of values, and social and political engagement of, especially, the younger generations. The second trend is the increasing role of mass communications technology in contemporary education, notably in the swiftly increasing trend towards distance higher education, particularly via the Internet. Bottery (2004) claims that the level of comparison should no longer be the national and cultural, but the 'global', and that such globalization will begin to determine the nature of schools everywhere. According to Carnoy and Rhoten (2002), one of ways globalization has a major impact on education is that the quality of national educational systems is increasingly being compared internationally. On the other hand, information technology is gradually being introduced into educational systems and globalized information networks mean transformation of world culture. But it also means many groups will have to struggle against the globalized economy by asserting their cultural values. Spring (2008) states that currently, there are four major interpretations of the process of educational globalization. The first is an interpretation that posits the existence of a world culture that contains western ideals of mass schooling, which serves as a model for national school systems. The other three interpretive models are sometimes overlapping, in particular with regard to analysis of world knowledge and power. The world systems approach sees the globe as integrated but with two major unequal zones. Postcolonial analysis sees globalization as an effort to impose particular economic and political agendas on the global society that benefit wealthy and rich nations at the expense of the world's

poor. The last interpretation emphasizes cultural variations and the borrowing and lending of educational ideas within a global context. Carnoy (1998) argues that globalisation is having a major impact on education in three major ways: 1) In financial terms, most governments are under pressure to reduce the growth of public spending on education and to find other sources of funding for the expected expansion of their educational systems. 2) Governments are also under increased pressure to attract foreign capital, and this means a ready supply of highly-skilled labour. This, in turn, places increased pressure on governments to expand their higher education, and, correspondingly, to increase the number of secondary school graduates ready to attend post-secondary schools. 3) In educational terms, the quality of national educational systems is increasingly being compared internationally. This has placed increased emphasis on mathematics and science curriculum, standards, testing, and on meeting standards by changing the way education is delivered.

Foster (2004) thinks that local initiatives to develop cultural leadership are inhibited by rules, regulations, and state controls. These technologies of thought (the control of numeracy, then of information, and, finally, of language), developed through an increasing and now global network of administrative control over schools and the educational process, affect the exercise of leadership in a local setting: setting standards of performance, culpability, and responsibility that limit any exercise of leadership over a schooling culture. According to Morrison (2000) although globalization is not a new phenomenon, global leadership is a nascent field of endeavour and has received much less attention than domestic leadership. One of the lessons coming from the cross-cultural management literature is that global leadership is quite different from domestic leadership. What works in China does not always work in Canada or India. An important reason why global leadership is different is the role culture plays on norms and values. Welch (2001) asks whether the story of globalisation is always written at the local level. In the case of globalisation, moreover, while there might be general consent that it is about the dialectic of the local and the global, or about the simultaneous particularisation of universalism and the universalisation of particularism, there are substantial arguments that concentrate on somewhat different aspects of the phenomenon, whether cultural, technological, economic, or political. Lauglo (1995) asserts that education has a degree of autonomy. Over time, it may even be a source of change in the power relations among groups in society. It certainly has its

own instrumentalities. But it is also socially embedded in a variety of ways and thought about education is conditioned by more general ideas about society and its institutions. Thought and tradition relating to political legitimacy in a given society are likely to serve as a global framework which conditions ideas about how authority should be distributed in a wide range of institutions- including education.

Education and localization / decentralization

Rosenau (1997) claims that localizing dynamics derive from peoples' need for the psychic comfort of close-at-hand, reliable support-for the family and neighbourhood, for local cultural practices, for a sense of "us" that is distinguished form "them". Localization derives from all those pressures that lead individuals groups and institutions to narrow their horizons, participate in dissimilar forms of behaviour to withdraw to less encompassing processes, organizations or systems. In other words any technological, psychological, social, economic or political developments that foster the expansion of interests and practices beyond established boundaries are both sources and expressions of processes of globalization just any developments in this realms that limit or reduce interests are both sources and expressions of localizing processes. There are two opposing views on the effect of localisation or decentralisation framework. According to Lauglo (1995), to decentralise means to disperse objects away from a central point. In current usage, the term decentralisation refers not only to that process but also to the condition of objects being located remote from a centre-though it might have been useful to adopt `decentralism' in order to denote a structural condition as distinct from a process. A representative of positive framework can be seen in the words of Carnoy (1998). He states that the main argument for decentralisation is that if municipalities and, in some places, schools, are given greater educational decision-making autonomy, this will devolve local control over curriculum and teaching methods to local communities and the teachers and principals of the schools themselves. The assumption is that increased flexibility and control allows for a better fit between educational methods and the clientele served, as well as greater accountability for educational results. Decentralisation is therefore cast as a reform that increases productivity in education and hence contributes significantly to improving the quality of a nations human resources—largely through bringing educational decision-making closer to parents' needs and giving local authorities greater

educational decision-making autonomy. Carnoy and Rhoten (2002) stated that the power of the national state is diminished by globalization, a) because increasing global economic competition makes the nation state focus on economic policies that improve global competitiveness at the expense of policies that stabilize the current configuration of the domestic political economy and/or possibly social cohesion, b) because the nation-state is compelled to make the national economy attractive for the mass of the capital that moves globally. But they also accepted that nation states still influence the territorial and temporal space in which capital has to invest and where most people acquire their capacity to operate globally. Lauglo (1995) also thinks that "decentralisation" is far more problematic than "centralised" authority. Indeed, in current usage `decentralisation' refers to a variety of organisational forms which differ in their rationales and in their implications for the distribution of authority on different agencies, groups and stake holders. A representative of negative framework can be traced in the words of Foster (2004). He speaks of the decline of the local. He asserts that there has occurred in our societies a decline of the local—a movement away from community input into the conduct of our lives and to the regulations of the state through standards, high-stakes testing, funding, and so on. How should we respond if this is an important issue? The decline of the local in the conduct of the affairs of institutions such as schools is a decline in the promise of a truly democratic regime. Although a balance certainly has to be sought between the demands of the life world (driven by norms of community, affiliation, and mutual interaction) and the rules of the system world (driven by standards of productivity, economics, consumerism, and technology), it appears to many that the system world is driving out the ability of the local to develop virtuous citizens who care about their children and the environment in which they are raised. On the other hand, Spring (2008) thinks that local populations adapt educational practices to local needs and culture, and therefore, rather than uniformity, there is developing hybrid educational practices combining the local and the global. Bottery (2004), on the other hand, points to thinking global to understand and value the local. He says we may also recognize that our treatment could lead to our own extinction. As educators, we may then feel compelled to reflect, and help others to reflect, upon our practices and values, our obligations to others, human and non-human, with whom we currently share the planet, and with those generations still to come. Ultimately, we may reflect upon ourselves, upon

the meaning of our existence, and on our mortality, the sense of our smallness and fragility, situated on this small ball whirling through a vast and infinite space. Thinking at the global level can facilitate such thought, broaden our understanding and experience of others, and allow us to situate our experiences of life in new and remarkable ways.

Discussion

Rosenau (1997) sees the tensions between the dynamics of globalization and localization as the core of world affairs. Moreover the two sets of dynamics are causally linked almost as if every increment of globalization gives rise to an increment of localization, and vice versa. These various dynamics operate in all realms of human activity, from the cultural and social to the economic and political. It must be stressed that the dynamics unfolding in all these realms are long-term processes. Scholte (2008) states that both the local and the global have enabling and disabling potentials. Indeed, as already stressed, the two qualities are inseparable in social practice; so terming one circumstance 'local' and another 'global' is actually arbitrary and confusing. A social condition is not positive or negative according to whether it is local as against global, since the situation is generally both local and global at the same time. It is the particular blend of local and global that matters, not locality versus globality. Welch (2001) wrote that neither the literature on globalisation, including those interested in civilising global capital, nor post-modern interventions, any longer presupposes collective forms of social action and engagement at the national level. While one principally operates at the global level, the other operates more at the level of the individual subject.

The first basic issue confronting all societies is to define the nature of the relation between the individual and the group. Contrast such as individualism collectivism; individualism-communalism; independence-interdependence; autonomy-relatedness, and separateness-interdependence include two major themes: (1) Whose interests should take precedence, the individual's or the group's? (2) To what extent are persons autonomous vs. embedded in their groups? Additionally, 3) Who has a legitimate right (and duty) to decide or to take part in decisions of different kinds? The fundamental issue here is that to the extent that persons are truly embedded in their groups, conflict of interest is not experienced. The second basic issue that confronts all societies is to guarantee responsible

behaviour that will preserve the social fabric. The third basic issue that confronts all societies is the relation of humankind to the natural and social world (Lauglo, 1995; Schwartz, 1999).

According to Gannon and Pillai (2010), as globalization proceeds we can expect to see some increased cross cultural conflicts. However globalization's success may lead to a world in which individuals from different cultures not only increases their understanding of other cultures but also begin to change their own values, norms and behaviours making them more consistent across cultures. Scholte 2008) states that the global, the regional, the national, the provincial, the local and the household aspects of social space can intertwine in innumerable different combinations. Indeed, by injecting a further dimension into the geographical spectrum-thereby adding to its complexity-globalisation could just as well increase cultural pluralism. Crossley (2000) anticipated that the geopolitical relations of the 21st century will require the forging of more equal partnerships between all systems and personnel engaged in international educational development. These must be partnerships that recognise the importance of cultural differences, and the need for improved mediation between the global and the local, if successful educational innovation is to be achieved**.** Lauglo (1995) states that arguments concerning political legitimacy, whether explicitly formulated as theories or ideologies or implicit in a country's political tradition, address the question `Who has a legitimate right (and duty) to decide or to take part in decisions of different kinds?

Foster (2004) argues that in a postmodernist perspective much of our social reality is constructed through established narratives. As for the narrative of standards, we create school systems that produce effective workers who can compete in a global economy. This is tied into a narrative of global competitiveness, economic dominance, and nationalistic pride. In his view, school actions and potential of leaders have become limited; the localism that leadership demands has been constrained by the drive for economic dominance. Spring (2008) speaks about the knowledge economy which focuses on the necessity of educating students with skills for the global workplace. In this regard, technology plays a double role. First, students are to be educated so that they can continually adapt to a work world where technological innovations are occurring almost daily. In this regard, school leaders are compelled to adopt given values by the system in

which they confront with a conflict of choice as to be a mediator of the given "good" or what they believe to be "right". Morrison (2000) also asserts that national leadership models generally work well as long as the leaders deal primarily with individuals from the same culture. As companies become exposed to global markets, however, national leadership models no longer work as well.

We need to ask how this ideological package affects education. Of course answer to this question varies according to the spectacles of the commentator. This is, a little bit, discouraging in that it means that it won't allow us to estimate the possible results of this ideologies on educational leadership as well. In some views, such as Carnoy and Rhoten (2002), indeed, educational reforms associated with globalization, the decentralization of educational administration and finance seems to have little or no effect on educational delivery in classrooms, despite its implementations. One of its reasons is likely to be the global/local dilemma in that the minds of the administrators are confused with the value-formation processes. Another reason might be that educational change is reluctant in catching the spirit of the time in nature. Indeed, is it extreme to consider that education seems to be led more than leading its time and similarly leaders of education are not leading but they are led? Or is it also extreme to propose that education is an irresistibly attractive domain which is captured by the political spokesmen of the unlimited desire of "profit"?

Conclusion

Consequently in the debate of estimating how the future school leadership will be concerning local and global phenomena the "view" seems to be "foggy" consisting of various interrelated variables along the following lines:

- ✓ In the case of local/global distinction and explanation issues there are various perspectives which enable us to come to a unique conclusion and propose a precise inference. Moreover, because it seems that it is impossible to estimate how "globalization" and localization processes will evolve, so the term "value" is?

- ✓ Leadership is a term on which there has still not been common agreement on the issues such as Who and How Speculative

discussions based on speculative evidence of a local/global dilemma are likely to cause more and more speculative estimations about the future of leadership.

✓ Because national and international debates and system changes in education and uncertainty in the possible interrelations mediated through ideologies and technological developments it is hard to have an idea of how a school leader will be in the future.

✓ On the other hand, the term value imposes meanings starting the experiences from the childhood to further stages of life which in nature can be said to be unique in many aspects because of human psychology. This uniqueness also a preventer cause to make precise estimations about the future of human being affairs.

✓ Moreover economical, societal, political crisis experienced in the local, national or global level, lately and possibly in the near future, make our estimations candidate to a crisis in the mind.

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Students' views concerning the educational administration and supervision program

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Abstract

The aim of this study was to specify students' views concerning the Educational Administration and Supervision Program and thus to evaluate and improve the program and contribute to growth in influential administrators, leaders and supervisors in Turkey, thanks to feedback obtained from graduates and those who quit the program.

Both qualitative and quantitative methods were included in the study. The study consisted of students who registered for the program in the last ten years. In order to collect data first an open-ended questionnaire and secondly was used and secondly documents were reviewed The data were analyzed using content and descriptive analysis techniques. In the analysis percentage and frequency were calculated. Some of the results obtained from the study were as follows: Some chose the program because they hoped to be appointed in Antalya. Some chose the program for personal development, to have an academic career or to become an administrator or inspector.

Key words: *leadership, administration, students' perception, masters degree*

Introduction

The education system is one of the most important factors affecting the development of nations. It is therefore crucial to administrate educational system in order to satisfy needs. Successful administration depends on an education administrator who can adopt himself to the progress of rapid change and play allotted roles suitably well (Çelik, 1996). The wisest route to follow in this case is to train educational administrators professionally in the fields of administration and leadership. Taking into consideration the historical development of educational administrators' training programs from the 1820s in the world, it is possible to reach the following conclusions. (1). Education administration has been developed aside from

the need to administer schools using practical and theoretical managerial skills. (2) As a requirement of education organizations' becoming bureaucratic, educational leaders, too, administrating them are in need of expertise, professional knowledge and skills. (3) The academic, scientific and theoretical basis of educational administrators provide educational leaders and educational organizations with advanced tools, a structural framework and contemporary theoretical knowledge (Berry & Beach, 2007; cited in Balcı, 2008).

Today's structures of education systems have emerged through scientific, technological, economic and political changes mostly in the USA and partly in Europe. The practical, vocational and academic knowledge resulting from this process constitutes the basis of educational administration (Balcı, 2008).

In the last few years, the name of educational administration programs has changed into educational leadership in the USA, but in Turkey, the understanding of training of education administrators has not been constructed on scientific bases. Effective coordination for training education administrators has not formed between the universities and the Ministry of Education (MEB). The idea of 'There is no school for education administrators,' is still dominant and education administration is not accepted as a profession (Kaya, 1993; Balcı, 2008). One of the results of this is that there is no legal regulation aimed at training education administration in Turkey (Balcı, 1999; Turan and Şişman, 2000, cited in Işık, 2003; Kaya, 1993) and training has not been constructed on a scientific basis (Çelik, 2002).

Training educational administrators in Turkey

In 1928, the Department of Pedagogy was constituted under Gazi Education Institute and it took over the responsibility for training education administrators and teachers. Subsequently, with the foundation of the Turkish Middle East Public Administration (TODAİE) with the support of United Nations Organization, attention to public administration expertise started in 1953. The aim of the program was not directly training education administrators (Çelik, 2003; Kaya, 1993). This program addressed public administrators and it was a pioneer for education administrators (Kaya, 1993).

In 1962, Central Government Organization Research Project (MEHTAP) was prepared which foresaw the opening of education faculties or departments at universities, aiming at training education administrators needed by the Ministry of Education. In 1965, an education faculty was founded at Ankara University and one year later, Education faculty of Hacettepe University was constituted (Kaya, 1999). This was followed by other education faculties within different universities. These universities continued until the decision made by Higher Education Institute in 1997. According to this new regulation, degree programs training education administrators were closed (Cemaloğlu, 2005). Instead of these closed programs, graduate programs were opened. According to new regulations put in order by the Ministry of Education in 1998, the appointment and rotation of education administrators and school headmasters were based on a two-phased-exam. After passing the written exam, they had to complete a 120-hour-course to become education administrators. Surprisingly, having a master or a doctorate degree in this field was just a matter of preference. It is also remarkable that lately, among criteria for the appointment of education administrators, only experience, general knowledge and knowledge of legislation have been taken into consideration (Örücü & Şimşek, 2011).

Administration and leadership

A school administrator has to be a public administrator, a policy determiner, a domain expert, a professional educator and an active member of society (Taymaz, 2000). As instructive leaders, school administrators have a lot of roles (Çelik, 1999) such as having vision, creating an environment for positive learning and teaching at school, giving importance to vocational development, improving interpersonal communication and cooperation to make the school work as a team, building good relations with the local community, having the capacity for strategic planning, seeing the big picture and making the school a part of the lifelong learning process (Balcı, 2002). The policy of training educational administrators of developed countries focuses on educational leadership rather than improving the classical administrator role. Although training programs differ from country to country, the understanding of training education leaders rather than training education administrators has been dominant for the last few years (Çelik, 2002.). While the leader leads the group, he is also directed by the group. A leader, different from an

administrator, is far from the daily crisis, has a long-term vision, deals with far bigger realities, has the power to affect others far from his own boundaries and decisions, has political abilities to overcome conflicts and is open to new ideas (Aslanargun, 2007).

Some of the latest orientations force schools to change and renew themselves. These so called trends also carry important results for school leaders (Sergiovanni, 1996; Dawson, 1997 cited in Şişman, 2002). In this context, new outlooks have improved the training of education leaders. It can be said that scientific research is ongoing for the reconstruction of education organizations and the training of education leaders, yet its concrete findings are still new for Turkish Education System (Balcı, 2008). Developing new outlooks is under the responsibility of all education institutions and faculties.

Akdeniz University Social Sciences Institute, one of the institutes responsible for training education leaders and administrators in the field of educational administration and supervision, started its academic life in 1998. In 2001, the master's degree program on Education Administration and Supervision was constituted and the following year the program without thesis was opened. In the last ten years, 110 students have graduated from both programs.

The purpose of this study was to find out the views of the students who studied or left the Educational Administration and Supervision Program with or without thesis, at the Institute of Social Sciences, Akdeniz University in the last ten years and thus according to the feedback obtained from the students to evaluate and develop the program and to contribute to the field of training education administrators in Turkey.

Problem Statement

The problem of the research was defined as: "What are the views of the students who graduated or left the program, Educational Administration and Supervision, at Akdeniz University?"

The following sub-questions were also addressed to define the effectiveness, sources, and the state of the program today and in the future of the program,

1. What are the aims of the students pursuing a master program in this field?

2. To what extend does the program satisfy students' expectations?

3. What contribution does the program make to the students' lives in vocational, personal and social terms?

4. What are the problems that students faced during their education?

5. What are the reasons for the students who discontinued their education?

Methodology

To put forth the views, thoughts, observations and perceptions of the students who studied or left Educational Administration and Supervision Program at Akdeniz University, the research was designed as a descriptive study using both quantitative and qualitative methods in a holistic way.

The population of the study consisted of 206 students who enrolled in the graduate programs with and without thesis at Akdeniz University, the Department of Educational Administration and Supervision in last ten years (2001-2011 academic years). The study group of the research consisted of 34 students who either completed or left the programs with or without thesis by May 2012. They were interviewed both face to face and via the internet. The demographic features of the participants were given in table 1.

Table1.

Demographic features of the participants

Participants	Thesis	Without thesis	General
Female	13	11	24
Male	8	2	10
Total	21	13	34

Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used. In order to get more comprehensive information, semi-structured interview which is a qualitative data collecting technique, was used in the study. The main advantage of a semi-structured technique for the researcher is that it provides a more systematic and comparable information depending on its predisposed protocol (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2005). So, an interview form consisting of open-ended questions was also used to obtain data. The documents were also reviewed to obtain quantitative data about the students.

Content analysis technique was used to analyze the data. to analyze the sub questions. Percentage and frequency were calculated.

Data collecting and analysis process

The students who graduated in the 2011-2012 spring semester were interviewed by the researcher face to face and each interview lasted approximately 30 minutes. Interviews were completed in April/ May 2012. Students who dropped out were connected through e-mail. Literature in relation to the field of the study was scanned and making use of the Internet site of YÖK (General Directorate of Higher Education) and opinions of the experts in the field, the questions to be asked to the participants were determined. The interviews with graduated students were first voice recorded and then scripted and analyzed.

A screening was done in order to predict the comprehensibility of the expressions in the data collection instrument. After giving preliminary information to the students graduated from Akdeniz University Educational Administration and Supervision Graduate Program, the questions formed by screening were asked. Questions related to identity information were also asked. During the interview, depending on the flow of the interview, additional questions were asked to obtain more detailed answers from the participants.

The answers of the graduate students were classified. In relation to the classification, the frequency and percentage of the answers were provided in the charts and the data was associated accordingly. Finally, the opinions of the participants were directly quoted. The opinions of the interviewers were coded according to whether the program was with or without thesis, whether the interviewee was a graduate or was discharged, and were allocated a unique number. Thus, **TD1** stood for the first student who was discharged from the masters with thesis, **WTD1** was the first student who was discharged from the masters without thesis, **TG1** was the first student who graduated from the masters with thesis and **WTG1** was the first student who graduated from the masters without thesis. Demographic features of the participants are shown in Table1.

Findings

First sub-problem

Frequencies and percentages related to this sub-problem are presented in Table 2. These are some of the statements of the participants clarifying their goals when enrolling in the Educational Administration and Supervision Masters' Program. Participant TD3: "When I started my masters' degree my goal was to have an academic career and do more effective studies in the professional field and self- improvement."

Participant WTD10: "I only enrolled in this program so I could apply to be appointed."

Participant TD6: "I enrolled in this program because I am a teacher and I am interested in school administration and I believe that school administrators are inefficient in their field, therefore my goal when applying to this program was to improve myself in this field."

Table 2

Students' aims in pursuing a masters degree in educational administration and supervision

	Thesis		Without thesis	
Aims	f	%	f	%
Delaying obligatory service	1	5	1	7.1
Being able to be appointed	2	10	4	28.6
Desire not to move somewhere else	2	10	2	14.3
Personal development	11	55	7	50.0
Increasing job opportunities	-	-	1	7.1
Desire to be a better teacher	3	15	1	7.1
Gaining more knowledge about School/ Education Administration	4	20	2	14.3
Desire to be a school/ education administrator	2	10	2	14.3
Pursuing an academic career	11	55	1	7.1

Participant TG10: "I enrolled in this program for self-improvement. My goal was to improve myself in the profession and become a better teacher. I also took into account the fact that I could have an academic career after

completing my masters' degree. That's why I proceeded to a PhD program."

Participant TG3: "For self improvement, to become a professional in the field, to become an educational administrator, and to have an academic career."

Participant TG7: "I believe that without personal development, one cannot achieve professional development and one should not become an academician without having both. For these reasons, my priority was personal development. I believed that in this way, I could also develop professionally."

Second sub-problem

Frequencies and percentages related to this sub-problem are presented in Table 3. The students who indicated their expectations were not satisfied in this program claim that the reasons for this are: the course content is not standardized and the lessons focus on theory rather than practice; the lessons are taught with presentations only instead of both presentation and student discussion; a counseling inefficiency; the criteria for administrator appointment are different from the program criteria and doesn't require the candidates to complete the program; the program does not meet students' academic expectations; and finally the program is verbal, but the students come from a math background.

The students who claimed the program satisfied their needs argue that the program helped them to develop professionally, they learned about education history and it taught them to develop critical thinking concerning school administrators and inspectors and apply administration approaches to their lives. One of the participants expressed his opinion as follows:

able 3

Students' expectations

Expectations	Thesis		Without thesis	
	f	%	f	%
Supplied	3	25	3	33.3
Partially supplied	6	50	4	44.4
Not supplied	3	25	2	22.2

Participant WTG5: "I cannot say this program satisfied my needs thoroughly, some lessons were not at masters' degree level, they were like those at high school. However, this program taught me how to prepare a questionnaire, and a presentation. It also helped me to develop my presentation techniques and have a different perspective about how the school system works and it has taught me a number of administration techniques that I did not know but would like to apply myself."

Third sub-problem

As shown in Table 4, while 60% (f=12) of the graduate students with thesis program say that the program has made personal contributions for them, 45% (f=5) say that it has vocational contributions. As to the graduate students without thesis program, 77.8 % (f=7) of them say that they benefitted from the program in vocational terms and all say that it has both personal and social effects on them.

Table 4

Contributions made to the participants

Contributions	Thesis		Without thesis	
	F	%	F	%
Professional / Bureaucratic	5	41.7	3	33.3
Personal	4	33.3	9	100
Social	6	50	4	44.4

Participants indicating the program has vocational benefits on them listed these benefits as applying management approaches and learning organizational behavior while those saying it affected them personally and socially mention it has positive effects on their personality and they have the chance to make new friends.

One of the opinions is as follows:

Participant WTG1 "During the 1-2 years of working as a vice-president, this program has brought me numerous benefits from human relations to planning in administration process, from coordination, leadership, leadership roles to inspection roles. In a social context, with this program the number of people I know has increased and in a personal context, with the completion of this program, my educational status has changed from undergraduate to postgraduate degree."

Fourth sub-problem

Table 5

The problems confronted by the students

Problems	Thesis		Without Thesis	
	F	%	F	%
Attendance	-	-	2	22.2
Homework's deviation from the aim	3	27.3	1	11.1
Extension of the thesis writing term	2	18.2	-	-
Not being able to fix the programme	6	54.5	1	11.1
Not being able to achieve a work- life- study balance	4	36.4	3	33.3
The canteen's being closed in the evening	-	-	1	11.1
Financial problems	1	8.3	2	22.2
Transportation	1	8.3	2	22.2

As can be seen from the table, the most important two problems of the students are not being able to arrange their lesson programs and achieve a work- life- study balance.

Fifth sub-problem

As it is clear from the Table 6, rotation because of the first appointment and finding the program insufficient and personal disinterest are the first two reasons for the students who attended the graduate program with thesis to leave. As for the students who attended the graduate program without thesis, the main reason is transportation.

Table 6

Students' leave-taking reasons

	Thesis		Without thesis	
	f	%	f	%
Obligatory service	-	-	2	22.2
Rotation because of first appointment	3	25	-	-
Workload and lesson programs	1	8.3	1	11.1
Uncertainty about thesis topic	1	8.3	-	-
Finding the program insufficient and personal disinterest	3	25	1	11.1
Personal matters	2	16.6	-	-
Financial problems	-	-	1	11.1
Transportation	1	8.3	3	33.3

Discussion and results

In countries where education administration is accepted as a profession, pre-professional school administration training programs has a history of more than one hundred years (Kayıkçı, 2001). While in developed countries, education administration is seen as a profession, one of the important structural problems in Turkey is that education administration is not accepted as an area of expertise. The ideas: 'Teaching is prior to management' and 'There is no school for administration' (Peker, 1989) still dominant in Turkish education system are not only damaging to concepts like hierarchy, status and roles in systems and institutions but also negatively affect attempts to train qualified school administrators. (Bursalıoğlu, 1994). As a result of this, the Ministry of Education still has not made legal regulations which will make it easy for its staff to pursue graduate studies. The ministry is even making the situation difficult for students and the staff instead of encouraging them. Graduate programs are in danger of being closed down.

Pursuing an academic career and personal development are the two main reasons given by the students for joining the programs. This can be interpreted as the students choosing this program not because they would like to become education administrators and are really interested in this field but because they see it as a means of pursuing a masters degree and personal development. Foreign language teachers are more likely to pass the language barrier to be accepted to the program and thus they constitute the largest group in the field. Those who would like to be education administrators and improve themselves in this field constitute the minority. However, the main foundation purpose of this program is to train education administrators and supervisors who are urgently required by the field as well as to train experts who can contribute to the field and the science.

It is also interesting that some also chose this program in order to leave or delay their compulsory service and to be appointed to a post. Some teachers use the program to eliminate bureaucratic obstacles.

While six out of 21 students say that the program satisfied their needs, five of them say that it did not. The rest say that the program satisfied their needs partially. The shortcomings are listed as the courses lacking a practical orientation and the courses not satisfying standards in general. When the contents of the lessons in the field of education administrations are investigated, it can be said that there is no unity between the programs except for some lessons like education statistics and the methods of scientific research and the lessons are said to be shaped in the direction of the instructors' field of expertise (Celep, 2008).

Some of the problems specified by the participants are listed as appointment criteria not corresponding to the content of the program and not requiring a graduate degree from this program; not having the opportunity to use what they have learnt at the program in their profession; and the lessons being based on power point presentations rather than discussions.

A balance between theoretical knowledge and practice in training education administrators has not developed. Harmony among education administration programs at the national level has not been constructed (Tekışık, 1993). Participants state that the most important problem is that their degree diploma is not applicable for promotion in the profession or for being transferred to being an administrator or supervisor. Consequently, it is not surprising that only a few teachers who graduated from this program have become education administrators, which means

that being a teacher is still most important for the Turkish Ministry of Education, rather than being an education administrator (Balcı, 1999).

Being an administrator is still not accepted as a profession in Turkey and while appointing, training and promoting administrators, scientific norms have not been taken into consideration adequately.

Until 1970, 90% of the administrators who worked for central and provincial organizations were graduates of the pedagogy departments, but after that year, criteria such as skill, success and experience were replaced by political preferences (Tekışık, 1993). According to the latest appointment regulations, students are not appointed to places where they can continue their education life. Because there is no serious and proper cooperation between the universities and the Ministry of Education on this issue (Işık, 2003; Korkmaz, 2005; Ada & Gümüş, 2012), it is difficult for teachers who work for the Ministry of Education to pursue their graduate studies. Scientific research and theory do not have an adequate place in practice, theoretical knowledge is required in education, and thus administration graduate programs do not rise in value adequately. Some students claimed that the program satisfied their needs in personal, vocational and professional terms. They stated that they improved themselves especially in conceptual terms, socially in academic environments and gaining an academic identity. They also say that they have become more open to learning and started to use a common language among themselves. Moreover, some say that when they are appointed as education administrators, they can undergo this task more confidently and they believe that they can be successful. Some of them also say that they have become more objective concerning education administration issues. They think that they obtain prestige with the help of this program and become reliable consultants in this field. Likewise, they are more likely to be selected for total quality management projects and the others.

The participants list the problems they face during their education as follows. The content of the lessons are not satisfying enough. The lessons are far from practical application and they focus on theory and there are not enough applied studies. Thesis writing terms are prolonged. The lessons programs intersect and they cannot make a balance between work, education and private life. There is no café service for those who attend evening education and they also suffer from transportation difficulties because of the distance between the university and their home.

Participants who discharged their education mention that they departed the program because of compulsory service or having been appointed to another city, not being able to arrange the work and program schedule, and

the program not satisfying their needs. Especially without-thesis program students left the program because of the tuition. Transportation requiring time and money is another reason for leaving the program for some of the students.

Content analysis must be done to the educational administration graduate programs in Turkey and these programs should be reconstructed according to the expectations and needs of our country in the light of contemporary developments. The theoretical basis of the academic studies on educational administration in Turkey has to be examined seriously and the contribution of these studies on developing the educational administration theory and application has to be specified. Selection and employment of staff, as well as experience in the education field, having a master or doctorate degree on educational administration must all be a prerequisite (Şişman & Turan, 2003).

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Organizational learning in Czech schools explored

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Abstract

This paper presents an advanced stage of Processes of Organizational Learning in Schools and their Leadership, which is an empirical research funded by the Czech Science Foundation (#P407/10/1197). The aim of the research is to find answers to questions of how organizational learning in schools is pursued, what is specific about organizational learning in schools, and how it is managed and led. The paper focuses on the methodological procedure from the qualitative stage of the survey to the quantitative as a crucial phase of the research, showing its logic and some of its difficulties.

Key words: *school, organizational learning, management, leadership*

Introduction

This paper presents a partial stage of a research on processes of organizational learning in schools and their leadership. The goal of our efforts was to contribute to knowledge of the theory and practice of organizational learning in schools and to knowledge of ways in which it is led and managed, extending thus theoretical knowledge in this field by empirical evidence. Within the project we look for answers to questions of how organizational learning in schools proceeds, what is specific about organizational learning in schools, and how it is led and supported. Our research procedure uses a mixed research design. The quest for answers to the above questions takes place in two different stages of empirical research. The first represents a quality-oriented survey while the second is based on a representative quantity-oriented survey. For the qualitative survey we worked with three in-depth case studies leading to the identification of key subjects of organizational learning in schools and the main factors which play supporting or inhibiting roles for organizational

learning. The topics and factors identified became the starting point for a representative quantity-oriented survey aiming at the verification and quantification of results of the previous stage of the project.

On the basis of our empirical research we show who is involved in organizational learning in today's Czech basic schools, and in which groupings, what this learning is related to, how it is pursued, and how it is led and supported. In some parts of the paper we refer to previous articles in order to define theoretically the processes of organizational learning and describe and interpret more precisely the results of the opening stage of the research. Mainly, however, this paper presents the procedure of the use of qualitative data for the design of the quantitative stage of the research and for the construction of a questionnaire as a research tool of the second stage of our research. Not only do we present the partial results of both stages, but we also try to reflect the methodological rigour of our technique.

Theoretical framework

We discussed the delimitation of organizational learning in an earlier outcome of the project. In a study by Lazarová et al. (2012) we reached a quite widely accepted delimitation based on analysis of approaches to the definition of organizational learning. Backed by selected authors (eg. Bapuji & Crossan, 2004), we explained organizational learning as exogenous and endogenous processes causing cognitive and behavioural changes at the level of whole organizations or their substantial parts. Such processes may be under methodological leadership but have a dimension of spontaneity as well. They can be developed either gradually or very rapidly (cf. Koenig, 2006) and have a decisive impact on the performance of the organization. The crux of the processes of organizational learning is creation, interpretation and integration of knowledge (Argyris & Schön, 1996; Goh, Cousins, Elliott, 2006; and others). Organizational learning so defined is thus the topic of our research.

However, specifically for the purpose of this research we have used the interpretive scheme of Verbiest et al (2005), presented by these authors as the Matrix Professional Learning Community. According to this scheme, processes of organizational learning are made up of three dimensions. Dimension one is broadening, which means the extent of collaboration and share among people across the organization. In concrete terms, this can be imagined as a range from very isolated actions of teachers to intense

communication and collaboration across the whole school. Another dimension is deepening, in other words the depth to which collaboration, share and mutual learning penetrate. Here the range can be imagined as reaching from random share of teachers' partial classroom experience to systematic work reflecting on teachers' experience. The third and final dimension is anchoring, which is the extent of embedding knowledge in organizations by means of support and management of organizational learning.

For the purpose of our research we have transformed Verbiest et al's (2005) three dimensions into three research questions:

✓ What is the content of organizational learning in today's schools (deepening)?

✓ In which groupings does organizational learning in schools take place (broadening)?

✓ How are the processes of organizational learning managed and what stimuli and barriers do they have in schools (anchoring)?

On methodology

Our research followed the logic of mixed research design, with the outcome of the opening (quantitative) stage as the starting point for the qualitative survey. The qualitative stage of the research comprised work on three case studies of basic schools. The criteria for the selection of cases and the description of data collection and analysis are summarized in one of our previous articles (Sedláček et al, 2012). Briefly, the main technique of data collection was in-depth interviews with adult actors in school life, specifically head-teachers, their deputies, teachers and other educators. For data triangulation we used the analysis of school documents and field notes acquired during visits to schools. The interviews were recorded on a voice recorder and transcribed. All the data material was then processed in ATLAS.ti software with techniques of open coding, constant comparison and contrasting (cf. Šeďová, 2007). The result was the identification of key categories, which we began to process descriptively, in connection with our research questions. In the analysis we focused on (1) impulses for organizational learning; (2) subjects; (3) leadership strategies; and (4) supportive factors of and barriers to organizational learning in schools.

The operationalization of the topics of organizational learning and its supportive factors and barriers was almost exclusively carried out on the basis of the outcome of the case studies. For the quantitative stage of the research, mainly results concerning two of the above-mentioned points were used: subjects of organizational learning and supportive factors of / barriers to organizational learning. How the outcome of the qualitative stage was transformed into a research tool for the quantitative stage will be described in the following section.

The method of collection of quantitative data was questionnaire survey in a representative sample of full basic schools in two Regions of the Czech Republic (*Jihomoravský kraj* and *Kraj Vysočina*). The sample, consisting of 52 schools, was created by probability sampling. The returnability is estimated at 40 % of schools addressed and subsequently 85 % of teachers addressed in these schools. The questionnaire was distributed in two forms, one of them designed for teachers, the other for school leaders (head-teachers and head-teacher deputies). A total of 1,120 questionnaires were accepted for further processing, 1,003 of them from teachers and 117 from head-teachers and their deputies.

Transformation of qualitative data for the purpose of a questionnaire

For the creation of the questionnaire for the quantitative part of the survey, the basic source was two listings resulting from the analysis of the case studies (for more detailed explanation see Sedláček et al, 2012). Listing One represents an inventory of nine subjects of organizational learning as they were identified in schools. The subjects of organizational learning stand for the work of the school, (in concrete terms for teachers' action in schools). Listing Two is an enumeration of six supportive factors of and barriers to organizational learning.

From the viewpoint of methodology, these listings have limited significance and cannot claim to present an exhaustive image of the subjects of organizational learning and its supportive factors because the research design applied does not allow for such a conclusion. Nevertheless, these listings can be used as a tool to discover links between organizational learning and other characteristics of schools, which is what the quantitative stage of the research strives to achieve.

Content of organizational learning as identified in case studies of schools

As mentioned, the following nine subjects of organizational learning were identified in our case studies:

- ✓ School Education Programme
- ✓ Choice and use of teaching methods
- ✓ Teaching of children with special educational needs
- ✓ Risk-inducing behaviour of pupils
- ✓ Pupils' educational results
- ✓ Cooperation with parents
- ✓ Use of information and communication technologies
- ✓ Choice and use of textbooks
- ✓ Use of in-service training experience

For the operationalization of aspects of the processes of organizational learning, we decided not to work explicitly with the term organizational learning in the questionnaire. As the indicator of organizational learning we opted to use the respondents' statements about the systematicity of the work with given subjects. A determined set of subjects makes it possible to answer the following questions: How systematically do people in schools engage in the subjects of organizational learning? In which groupings (at which organizational levels) do people most frequently engage in the subjects of organizational learning? How systematic is the management of the work with the subjects of organizational learning? The wording of specific items can be illustrated with two examples, as follows:

Example of items:

Teachers in your school engage in modifications of the School Education Programme

systematically   1   2   3   4   5   6   randomly;   0 cannot judge

Modifications of the School Education Programme are managed by the leaders of your school

systematically   1   2   3   4   5   6   randomly;   0 cannot judge

---

Figure 1. Item examples.

For the purpose of initial analyses we created two summation indices. One of them is the total score in learning, expressing the overall degree of systematicity of the work with all subjects. The other is the total score in management, expressing the degree of systematicity of management of the work with all subjects.

Supportive factors and barriers as identified in case studies

Also, six supportive factors of and barriers to organizational learning were identified in our case studies. All of the enumerated factors may be either supportive factors of or barriers to organizational learning, depending on whether their current situation is positive or negative. We have named these six factors as follows:

- ✓ school leadership
- ✓ collaborative culture
- ✓ shared vision
- ✓ material and organizational capacity
- ✓ external support
- ✓ individual capacity

A battery of items was created for each factor, expressed in the form of the Likert Scale. The wording of specific items was based on the statements of informants as collected during the case studies. In some instances, though, the source material did not provide sufficient backing, so some statements were completed from relevant specialist literature. A summation index was then created for each supportive factor. Summation indices consist of four to seven items; each index was verified using Cronbach's alpha coefficient.

Initial analyses

The initial analyses below presented were carried out in order to check the descriptive and explanative power of the quantitative data we had obtained from the questionnaire survey. A few subjects were chosen for this purpose. First of all we will try to detect differences in the perception of the processes of organizational learning between teachers and school leaders (head-teachers and deputies), specifically differences in the perception of:

- ✓ systematicity of solutions to subjects of organizational learning
- ✓ systematicity of management of the work with subjects of organizational learning

    ✓ decisive levels for solutions of subjects of organizational learning (individual, formal and informal in groups, or at the level of the whole school)

Then we will look for a relation between the perception of supportive factors / barriers and the intensity of the processes of organizational learning in schools.

Differences in the perception of the systematicity of solutions to subjects of organizational learning

All the actors of school life under observation, i.e. both teachers and head-teachers / deputies, perceive the situation of the work with key subjects of organizational learning as very positive. Statistically significant differences in the perception of the processes of organizational learning between teachers and school leaders (factual significance of these differences being subject to further discussion) were found in the perception of the extent of systematicity of solutions to subjects of organizational learning in the fields of the School Education Programme, cooperation with parents, and in-service training experience (see Table 1). On the other hand, differences were not found in the perception of the systematicity of management of the work with subjects of organizational learning.

Table 1

Differences between teachers and school leaders in their perception of the systematicity of the work with subjects of organizational learning

Extent of systematicity of work with subjects of organizational learning	N	Average (Teachers)	SD	N	Average Leaders)	SD	F	p	t	p
School Education Programme	978	**2.01**	1,13	117	**2.33**	1.10	1.05	0.76	2.95	0.00
Cooperation with parents	1000	**1.65**	0.82	116	**1.88**	0.79	1.06	0.70	2.90	0.00
Use of in-service teacher training experience	967	**2.02**	0.98	117	**2.25**	0.98	1.00	1.00	2.36	0.02

Differences in the perception of decisive levels for solutions to subjects of organizational learning

Between the respondent groups, i.e. teachers and school leaders, significant differences (including statistical significance) can be found in what they indicate as the decisive level of solutions to subjects of organizational learning. While teachers perceive the individual or collegial (usually informal) level as decisive, school leaders more often say that the level of the whole school or the formal collegial level is decisive. Examples of different responses to the question of which groupings address subjects of organizational learning are shown in Figures 2 and 3.
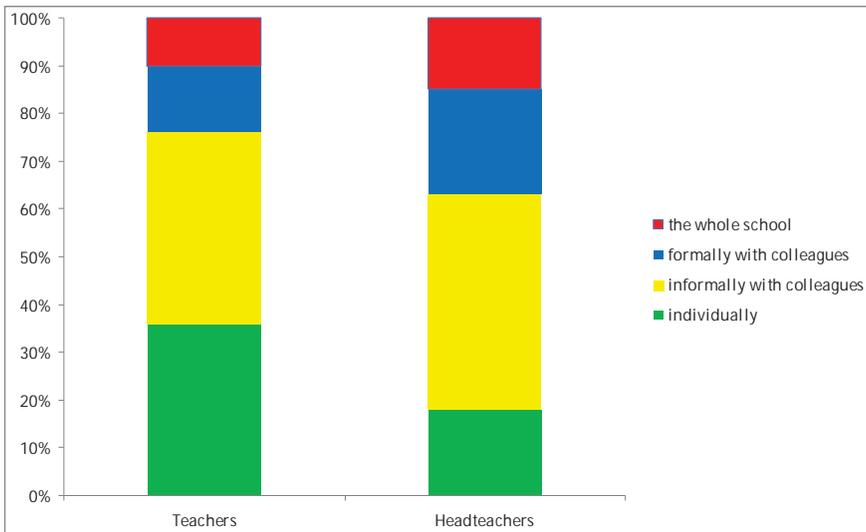
Figure 2. Differences in the perception of decisive levels for solutions to subjects of organizational learning in schools; choice and use of teaching methods as example subject.
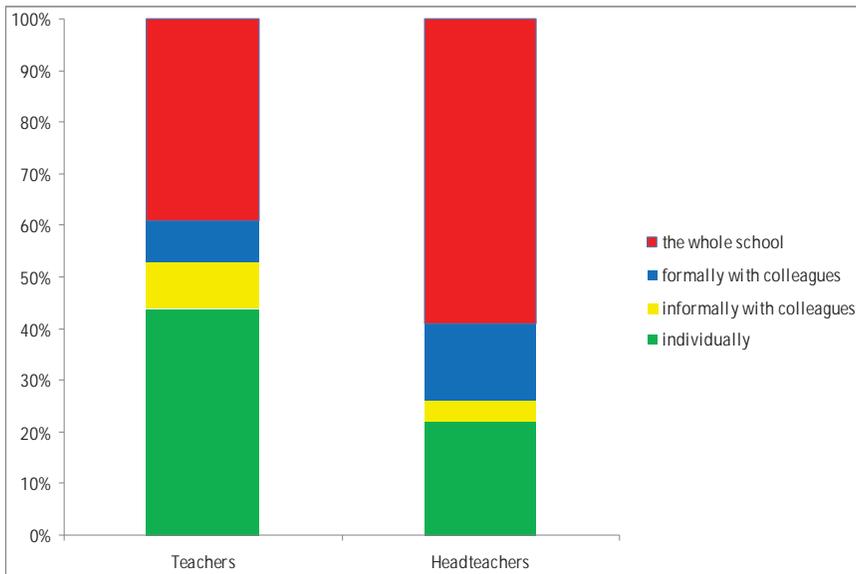
Figure 3. Differences in the perception of decisive levels for solutions to subjects of organizational learning in schools; cooperation with parents as example subject.2

Relation between the perception of supportive factors/barriers and the perception of processes of organizational learning

Also, data of the survey make it possible to follow the relation between the supportive factors / barriers and the perception of the processes of organizational learning. Table 2 shows the summation indices of supportive factors in mutual correlations, then the total score for organizational learning (the summation index of systematicity of the work with all subjects) and the total score for leadership in organizational learning (the summation index of systematicity of leadership in the work with subjects of organizational learning). The differences in correlation coefficients show that the characteristics of leadership (especially the power of leadership) and the school (power of vision) are unequivocally supportive of organizational learning, while teachers' individual capacity is rather insignificant.

Table 2

Correlation between perceived situation of supportive factors / barriers and the perception of the processes of organizational learning

	Index of LEAD	Index of CULT	Index of VISION	Index of ORG_CAP	Index of EXT_SUP P	Index of IND_CA P	Total score LEARN	Total score LEAD
Index of LEADERSHIP	1.00	0.45	0.71	0.50	0.44	0.00	0.42	0.63
Index of CULTURE		1.00	0.52	0.39	0.30	0.12	0.28	0.26
Index of VISION			1.00	0.42	0.59	0.08	0.48	0.55
Index of ORG_CAPACITY				1.00	0.30	0.04	0.26	0.30
Index of EXT_SUPPORT					1.00	0.12	0.38	0.39
Index of IND_CAPACITY						1.00	0.16	0.10
Total score LEARNING							1.00	0.83
Total score LEADERSHIP								1.00

Conclusion

Our opinion is that initial quantitative analyses have proved the potential of our methodological procedure. The mixed research design enables us to identify various aspects of organizational learning as a complex phenomenon in a broad context (qualitative stage) and measure relations among them (quantitative stage). The outcome of the qualitative stage of the research, which is the identified structure of subjects of organizational learning and the structure of supportive factors / barriers, turns out to be a useful tool for the structuring of the content and course of organizational learning in schools. Also, it constitutes a suitable basis for our quantitative survey. And no matter how ambiguous the link often is between the systematicity of work with the subjects of school work and other characteristics (supportive factors / barriers) in the processes of organizational learning as a whole, it is possible to prove empirically a lot

of statements about the reality of organizational learning. It is therefore possible to comment on the power of "soft" (or, in simplified terms**,** psychosocial) factors to support learning processes such as the share of vision in support of organizational learning.

The initial analyses presented in this paper are somewhat limited and there is an evident need for further analyses. More empirical conclusions will be drawn from a more detailed structuring of the sample, with respondents divided into more than just teachers and school leaders. The level of the particular school at which teachers work will be taken into consideration in order to strengthen the conclusions about the power of supportive factors and barriers for the support or reduction of organizational learning. These analyses will also be published.

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ENIRDELM CONFERENCE ANTALYA, TURKEY
27-29 SEPTEMBER 2012

Conference Venue and Full Accommodation: Hotel Porto Bello (Konyaaltı-Antalya)

Date: 27 September 2012 – Thursday

Time	Activity	Place
10.00 – 12.00	Registration	Lobby
	Board meeting	Olimpos
	Pre-conference for doctoral students in Aspendos Hall (Exchanging experiences on research process) Prof. Dr. Jaroslav Kalous and Prof. Dr. Hasan Şimşek	Aspendos
12.00 – 13.00	Lunch	Restaurant
13.00 - 15.00	Registration –continued Field visit: 1. Mehmet Akif Ersoy Pre-primary School (4-6 age) 2. Private TED College (K-12) 3. Antalya Technical and Vocational High School 4. University-Educational Leadership Programme	Lobby
15.30 – 16.00	Opening session	Pamfilya 2
16.00 - 16.30	Coffee break	Fuaye
16.30 – 17.30	Keynote 1: Prof. Dr. Jaroslav Kalous	Pamfilya 2
17.30 – 18.00	Round table session: Questions and reflections on the ke speech	Pamfilya 2, Aspendos, Perge and Olimpos
18.00 – 18.15	Plenary answers and discussion	Pamfilya 2
18.15 – 19.00	Welcome reception	Sailors
19.30	Dinner	Restaurant

Date: 28 September 2012 – Friday

Time	Activity	Place
09.00 – 10.30	Workshops (Four workshops- all workshops repeated on Saturday)	Pamfilya 2, Aspendos, Perge and Olimpos
10.30 – 11.00	Coffee break	Fuaye
11.00 -13.00	Parallel Session 1(Paper Presentation)	Pamfilya 2, Aspendos, Perge and Olimpos
13.00 – 14.00	Lunch	Restaurant
14.00 -16.00	Parallel Session 2 (Paper Presentation)	Pamfilya 2, Aspendos, Perge and Olimpos
16.00 – 16.30	Coffee break	Fuaye
16.30	Poster Presentations	Fuaye
17.00	Free program/networking	
19.30	Dinner	Restaurant

Date: 29 September 2012 – Saturday

Time	Activity	Venue
09.00 - 10.00	Keynote 2: Prof. Dr. Hasan Şimşek	Pamfilya 2
10.00- 10.30	Plenary: Questions and discussions on the keynote	Pamfilya 2
10.30 – 11.00	Coffee break	Fuaye
11.00 -13.00	Parallel Session 3 (Paper Presentation)	Pamfilya 2, Aspendos, Perge and Olimpos
13.00 – 14.00	Lunch	Restaurant
14.00 -15.30	Workshops (repeated from Friday)	Pamfilya 2, Aspendos, Perge and Olimpos
15.30-16.00	Coffee break	Fuaye
16.00- 16.45	National round tables: a) Experiences, key learning outcomes, evaluation – what do we take with us? b) reflection and suggestion on the ENIRDELM strategy	Pamfilya 2, Aspendos, Perge and Olimpos
16.45 – 17.15	Closing of Conference • Chairperson's speech • Election of new board • Next Conference ENIRDELM 2013	Pamfilya 2
17.15	Board meeting	Olimpos
19.30	Gala Dinner	Columbus