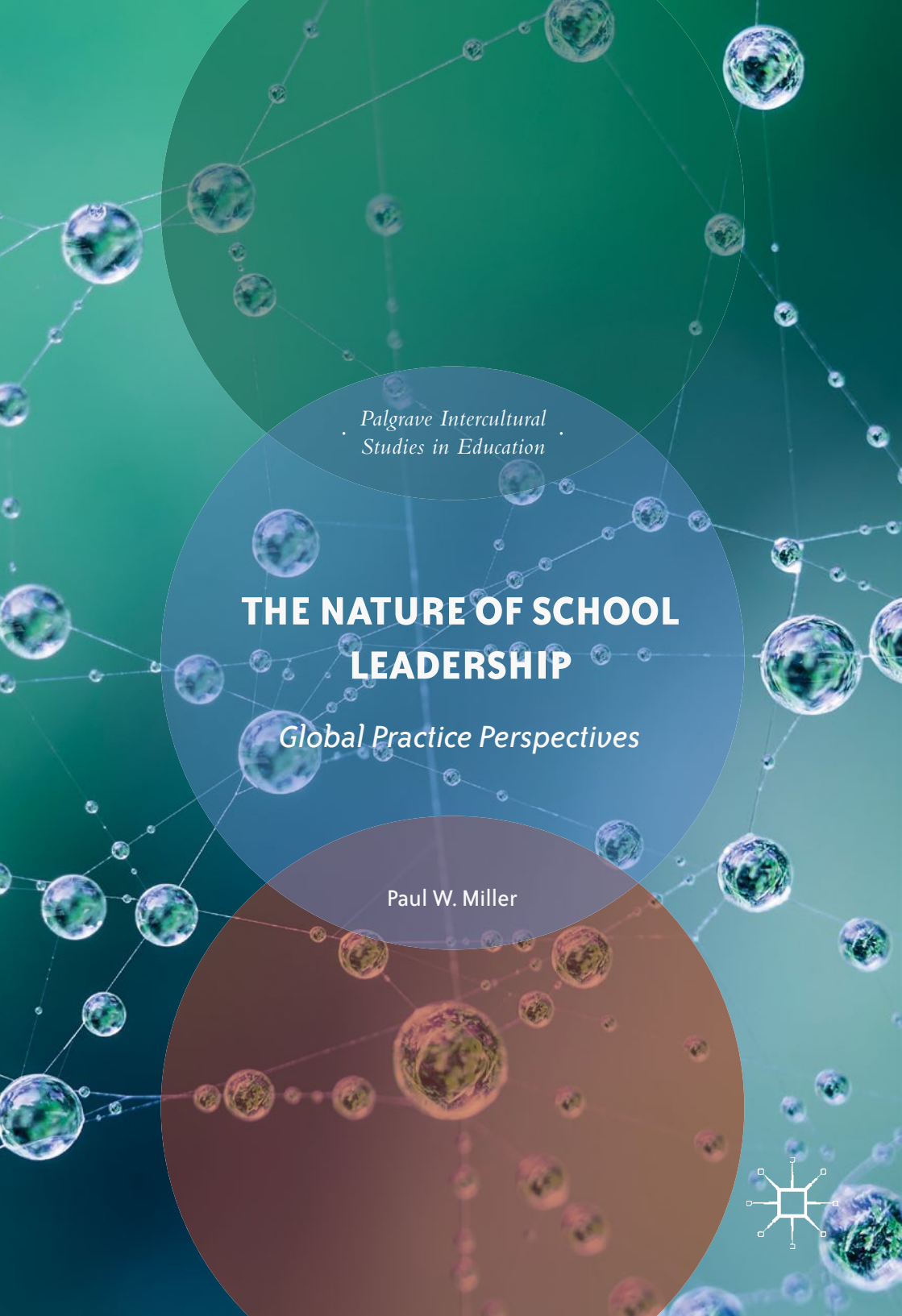
Palgrave Intercultural Studies in Education
THE NATURE OF SCHOOL LEADERSHIP
Global Practice Perspectives
Paul W. Miller

Intercultural Studies in Education

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The book series takes as its starting point the interrelationship between people in different places and the potential for overlap in the experiences and practices of peoples and the need for education to play a larger role in expanding these discourses. This proposed book series is therefore concerned with assessing and arriving at an understanding of educational practices in multiple settings (countries), using the same methods of data collection and analysis for each country level analysis contained in each chapter, thereby leading to the production of "Cultures" [of understanding] on different topics. "Cultures"of understanding results from and leads to a deeper appreciation and recognition of educational practices, issues and challenges (a) within a country, (b) between and among countries and (c) between and among traditions and other specificities within and between countries.

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Policy-makers, parents and teachers in many parts of the world hold a strong belief that 'school leadership makes a difference'. Consistent with this belief, scholars have, over the past half-century, made progress in identifying leadership practices that contribute to successful schooling. Yet, until recently, our understanding of the practice of school leadership was drawn from research conducted in a limited set of developed, English-speaking societies. While successful leadership practices identified in societies such as the USA, Canada and the UK are certainly of interest, their applicability in societies that differ substantially in terms of cultural, political and economic features cannot be taken for granted. The *Nature of School Leadership* represents one of the first efforts to bring together grounded descriptions of school leadership practices from a diverse set of societies. In this volume, Paul W. Miller has summarised, refined and extended our understanding of school practices. The uniqueness of this book lies in Miller's sensitivity to describing how the success of leadership practices is linked to the 'context' of the schools in which they are enacted. Rather than providing readers with a menu, Miller offers a set of lenses through which leadership practices can be examined and understood. This book will be of interest to both school practitioners and scholars who wish to delve deeper into the ways in which the 'meaning' of successful school leadership varies with the context in which it is practised.

—Philip Hallinger, *TSDF Chair Professor of Leadership, Mahidol University, Thailand, and Distinguished Visiting Professor, University of Johannesburg, South Africa*

What a pleasure it is to read a book that discusses leaders and leadership within the context of the human and natural environments that shape them. Adopting a pragmatic approach, and one thoroughly grounded in research, Paul W. Miller navigates us through the life and lives that school leaders live across 16 countries. *The Nature of School Leadership* is an inspiring and indispensable book, one which helps us to appreciate how school leaders conceptualise and support a leadership that can make a difference in the personal and collectives lives of others doing so by taking us through the various themes that impact the practice of leadership wherever they may come from.

—Professor Christopher Bezzina, *University of Malta and Uppsala University*

Paul W. Miller

The Nature of School Leadership

Global Practice Perspectives

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About the Author

Paul W. Miller has taught in secondary schools in Jamaica and England and has worked closely with schools and supported school leaders in both countries. He is President of the Institute for Educational Administration & Leadership – Jamaica (IEAL-J); a member of Council of the British Educational Leadership Management Administration Society (BELMAS); and a member of the board of the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration & Management (CCEAM). He is also a member of the Caribbean Community's (CARICOM) Technical Working Group on Educational Leadership & Teaching Innovation. He has written and published widely in the field of school leadership. Recent authored/edited books include: *School Leadership in the Caribbean: Perceptions, Practices, Paradigms*; *Exploring School Leadership in England and the Caribbean: New Insights from a Comparative Approach*; and *Cultures of Educational Leadership: Global and Intercultural Perspectives*. He is Principal Fellow of the Higher Education Academy and Fellow of the Academy of Social Sciences.

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The Global Imperative of Quality School Leadership

Introduction

Globally, school leadership has become a renewed area of focus in education policy agendas over the past two decades. There may be many reasons for this, including competition between national education systems, competition within national education systems and the deepening of performativity cultures. Furthermore, the introduction or strengthening of education accountability mechanisms, the introduction of leadership preparation and development agencies, and the increased recognition of the role played by school leaders and schools in connecting schools and students to the 'real world' have all contributed to this renewed focus. The shifting socio-political, economic, technological and cultural landscape within which school leaders, globally and in national contexts, do their jobs reveals a complexity associated with the practice of school leadership, a complexity that underlines the need for ongoing improvement to the quality of education, both for individual growth and for economic prosperity for national societies (UNESCO, 2016).

School leadership is arguably the second most important element in the success or failure of schools. As a fundamental link between the

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classroom, a school and a nation's education system, school leaders and school leadership are positioned as having a vital role in improving school level efficiency and in transforming the fortunes of national education systems through schooling. Increasingly, school leaders and schooling are positioned as custodians and drivers of social and economic change in society through education. Not only does this positioning highlight the need for quality school leaders to be in place, it also highlights the need for the work of existing school leaders to be evaluated and understood—as the nature and type of demands currently placed on them are expected to intensify. As the role of a school leader evolves "from a traditional managerial role to a performance-based distributed leadership role" (Mancinelli & Acker-Hocevar, 2017, p. 9), it is to be expected that there will be far more and greater pressures and demands associated with their role, thus requiring them to be more reflective, relational, contextual, socially and environmentally aware and entrepreneurial. These themes will be developed and discussed throughout the book.

School leaders do not work in fixed educational policy contexts. Rather, they operate in dynamic educational environments that require them to lead change at the school level and to connect their schools with opportunities in the wider environment within which they are located and operate. In doing so, school leaders execute a mediating function between an improvement framework operating at the level of a school and wider educational reforms directed externally from government and elsewhere. This mediating function, and its importance, was highlighted by Acker-Hocevar, Hyle, Ivory and McClellan (2015) who noted, "School leadership is not simply putting prescribed solutions into action, but a constant encounter with quandaries that demand thinking and problem solving, responding, and adjusting to the situations at hand" (p. 5). This observation is quite apt and prompts us to consider the role school leaders occupy in an era of relentless change underpinned by performativity agendas. School leaders are also operating in an evolving context of simultaneous and significant life changing events, many of which are outside their control and many of which have the potential to shape or determine their own performance as well as the performance

of their schools. The changing external environment of schools is characterised by:

- increased global competition among educational systems
- social, political and civil unrest
- multiple and competing policies requiring simultaneous implementation
- frameworks for increased accountability
- frameworks for increased and improved performance
- the quality and adequacy of infrastructure and resources
- the threat and impact of natural disasters
- growing national/international economic uncertainty

Added to these are changes associated with the internal environment of schooling, such as the quality and availability of teachers and aspiring school leaders, the quality of teaching and learning, pupil behaviour, the quality of support received from and by parents, the location and size of a school, the size and gender make-up of staff and student bodies as well as the degree of support/challenge received from the school board. One realises therefore that a school leader is a vital bridge that links a school's internal with its external environment as well as a conduit that mediates issues in these environments.

No two schools are identical, no matter how alike or how closely located they may be or how many broad characteristics they may have in common. Importantly, no two school leaders are the same, no matter the similarity of their job roles and/or experiences. What works in one context, therefore, may not work in another; or what works for a leader in one context may not work for the same leader in another context. As a practice, however, school leadership—whether enacted in small or large schools; religious or secular schools; state funded or privately funded schools; or whether enacted in religious or secular countries; or in developed or developing countries—will have some shared characteristics, and school leaders, regardless of gender, school location or degree of engagement with policy development and implementation, will have some shared understandings of these characteristics.

For national education systems across the world to flourish and deliver the promised benefits of education, they need school leaders who possess a strong degree of personal agency as well as an acute awareness of multiple contexts and how these (can) impact and influence schools and educational outcomes. Leaders who are aware of what is happening both inside and outside their schools, locally and internationally, are more likely to be proactive in seizing opportunities and in providing staff and students with the knowledge and equipping them with the skills necessary for this and future decades. Furthermore, a school leader's sense of self, their personal and professional limitations, and their purpose and that of their school are equally important.

Schools are central to any country achieving or fulfilling national development goals, and school leaders, policy-makers and parents are well aware of this. The role of education in contributing to individual social mobility and national economic prosperity is an important one, heralded by political actors, driven or led by school leaders, and delivered by teachers. The relationship between school leaders and teachers is an crucial one, to which we will return in due course. Suffice it to say that for education to yield benefits to society and individuals, "effective leadership from governments, from school principals and from all other sectors of an educational system must be in place, and in sync" (Miller, 2016, p. 1).

As national governments continue to seek out and pursue ways to develop their education systems, and to make education more responsive to the needs of citizens and to the demands of society, expectations for schools, school leaders and school leadership have also intensified. Globally, as education continues its steady move up political agendas, more and more it is being heralded as a major factor, if not the most important factor, in unlocking social and economic prosperity. Based on this new thrust, the school leader has enormous responsibility for the success of individuals and for a national society, as both they and their work have come to symbolise individual, social and national economic change. Concomitantly, school leaders across the world must assert themselves as "role-makers" and "innovators" (Mancinelli & Acker-Hocevar, 2017, p. 10), being equipped with new skills necessary for their own flourishing and for deepening and strengthening their leadership in educational

environments which have become largely characterised by competition, compliance, command, control and change. This is important since the work of school leaders is crucial for meeting the learning needs of students, harnessing economies of scale from limited educational resources, building communities of practice and partnerships, building capacity in teachers, and bringing innovation to schools, classrooms and beyond.

As pointed out earlier, expectations surrounding what school leaders are to achieve have changed. Nevertheless, the distribution of tasks, along with the level and type of training, the quality and type of support available and the kinds of incentives received, has not always changed to reflect this. In nearly all countries, although in some more than others, school leaders have been on the receiving end of much criticism from politicians and state agencies, as well as impatience from staff, parents and pupils. Miller (2016) noted that "not all principals are excellent or even good" (p. 1), a view supported by the reports of several education inspectorates which, in both developed and developing countries, as well as in the results of international surveys and studies such as the Global Monitoring Report of Education for All, and the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). Not only does this raise concerns about the quality of education in several countries, it also presents a significant challenge for national education systems. The Global Monitoring Report of Education for All (2005) reported that leadership and management is an area of weakness in several countries, and in many cases, students were not properly equipped. UNESCO (2016) underscores the problems for education systems associated with poor school leadership, whilst also acknowledging there are factors, some outside the control of school leaders, affecting the practice of school leadership. As a result, "Urgent and concerted action to address this challenge … The search for new levers to improve school performance and education quality becomes particularly critical in a context of increasing global competition and tight fiscal constraint" (p. 12).

Lack of appropriate training and lack of targeted ongoing professional development are seen as contributing factors, with some school leaders identifying increasing workload and job demands as contributing factors for any perceived weakness in their performance. Furthermore, school leaders are also affected by an apparent lack of clarity about their role and

responsibilities, the result of which has contributed to ill-informed expectations and judgements and a seeming lack of public understanding in relation to challenges faced by school leaders in doing their jobs. Public shaming of school leaders, rather than public scrutiny, also contributes to demotivation among some school leaders, which carries with it the potential to influence the decision of those aspiring to school leadership roles. The impact of the blame culture on existing and potential school leaders requires further research. Nevertheless, the blame culture has the potential for the public to overlook the "street realities" of headship (Ball, 1987, p. 8). DeVita (2005) notes,

> More than ever, in today's climate of heightened expectations, principals are in the hot seat to improve teaching and learning. They need to be educational visionaries, instructional and curriculum leaders, assessment experts, disciplinarians, community builders, public relations experts, budget analysts, facility managers, special programs administrators, and expert overseers of legal, contractual, and policy mandates and initiatives. They are expected to broker the often-conflicting interests of parents, teachers, students, district office officials, unions, and state and federal agencies, and they need to be sensitive to the widening range of student needs. (p. 1)

Educational policy has not always reflected changes in national educational contexts, in particular by accounting for major challenges which have arisen, such as technological advances, economic recession and migration, which have impacted school leadership within the past two decades. Thus, despite the very exacting demands placed on schools and school leaders by governments,

> There is a growing concern that the role of school principal designed for the industrial age has not changed enough to deal with the complex challenges schools are facing in the 21st century. (Pont, Nusche & Moorman, 2008, p. 16)

This observation highlights a major tension between government policy agendas and school leadership. Having adequate numbers of potential school leaders available who are of good enough quality is important for securing ongoing school improvement and for delivering education's

promise to a national society. And this is the responsibility of national governments who must create the frameworks, environment and context within which school leadership is seen as a respected and desired profession and not one where blame and shame comes easily and is to be shunned. Furthermore, globally, there are fears that an ageing teaching workforce and leadership teams could threaten national progress in education and in schooling, and these fears are exacerbated by high turnover of school leaders in some countries and teacher migration. Thus, national education systems need to invest in growing new and developing existing school leaders and in making school leadership an attractive option for existing and soon-to-be recruited teachers.

Towards a Definition of Leadership

There are well over 200 definitions and over 70 classifications of the term 'leadership', with each purporting its own insights into what leadership is and how leadership is practised/achieved. For example, leadership has been described as **the focus of group processes**, where the leader is regarded as central to the overall function of what a group is trying to achieve. Leadership has also been viewed as an individual activity that is heavily influenced by a leader's personal traits or characteristics, which they can use to get others to do things. Leadership has also been viewed as a **skill**, where the leader's knowledge and technical skills underpin their success. Leadership has also been described as an act or **behaviour**—that is, what leaders do to bring about change. Leadership has also been defined in terms of **power relations**. This view holds that leaders use their power to get others to change/comply. Leadership has also been viewed as a **transformational process** that inspires followers to achieve more than is required or even expected of them.

Despite the array of definitions and characterisations, Northouse (2016) identified four central components associated with leadership:

- leadership is a process—can impact both leader and followers
- leadership involves influence—the degree to which leaders can move individuals to achieve or even surpass their goals

- leadership occurs in groups—there need to be followers for there to be leadership
- leadership involves common goals—focus on individuals/activities that have a mutual purpose. (p. 6)

In trying to appreciate and understand the nature of leadership, the components identified by Northouse are important for this book. Furthermore, Hoy and Miskel (2005), citing Yukl (2002), define leadership as

> a social process in which a member or members of a group or an organization influence the interpretation of internal and external events, the choice of goals or desired outcomes, organization of work activities, individual motivation and abilities, power relations and shared orientations. (p. 377)

The use of the term influence is important, as leadership is based on articulated goals or outcomes where, through a process, one person supports another towards achieving it. This definition also acknowledges the importance of the leader in helping followers to understand the complexity and contradictions of the external and internal environments of an organisation, and the extent to which those factors are believed to be central to their performance.

The term school leadership is used, in some education systems across the world, to mean the same thing as school management and school administration. While there is a degree of overlap, there are subtle differences. Although acknowledging that the responsibilities of school leaders involve management and administration, Dimmock (1999) distinguishes between school leadership, management and administration:

> Irrespective of how these terms are defined, school leaders experience difficulty in deciding the balance between higher order tasks designed to improve staff, student and school performance (leadership), routine maintenance of present operations (management) and lower order duties (administration). (p. 442)

Schools, no matter which country they are located in, need an appropriate balance between leadership, management and administration in

order to be successful and achieve their goals. Consequently, in this book, I use the term 'school leadership' to mean a **social process** that produces commitment, alignment and direction, where the two most important elements of this social process are

- School leaders: the individuals in charge of the process of producing commitment, alignment and direction; and
- Leadership practices: the decisions and actions taken to produce commitment, alignment and direction (McCauley et al., 2008).

By focusing on these two aspects, I am arguing that the individual school leader as well as his/her practice are significant elements in our understanding of how they, firstly, understand and, secondly, enact leadership. This stance is grounded in a need to offer more criticality to existing debates about how school leaders view leadership, and since some of the current literature is "too abstract and detached from practice or too narrow and disengaged from person and context, and therefore, of little use to those in schools" (Bolman & Heller, 1995, p. 342). This stance therefore underlines the three fundamental questions around which this book is based. The first question, "What is school leadership?", required school leaders to demonstrate an understanding of actions and activities they associate with being a school leader. The second question, "How do you do school leadership?", required school leaders to identify and examine the strategies used, both on a daily basis and more strategically, to support a school's mission and vision. The third question, "What underpins your leadership?", required school leaders to establish a context, an anchor point for what grounds and shapes their practice.

Cross-Cultural Research in Educational Leadership

The Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) Project (House, Hanges, Javindan, Dorfman & Gupta, 2004) is widely regarded as a major project in cross-cultural research in educational leadership spanning 60 countries and involving over 180

researchers. The central focus of the work was leadership in organisations, in particular the relationship between leadership, societal culture and organisational culture. The publication of *Cultures of Educational Leadership* (Miller, 2017), however, marked a significant turn in the field of educational leadership in that, for the first time, a single book presented research evidence and theory on issues in school leadership practice across six continents.

Before the publication of *Cultures of Educational Leadership*, several high profile "international" or "comparative" studies in educational leadership were published. Whereas these publications did not use the cross-cultural approach, they contributed to a progressive opening up of the field of educational leadership to accommodate and introduce "other voices" from outside the developed English-speaking world, thus making research and knowledge generation in the field of educational leadership more inclusive. A special issue of the *Journal of the University College of the Cayman Islands* was published on *The Changing Nature of Educational Leadership: Caribbean and International Perspectives.* The aim of this publication was to contribute to our understanding of educational leadership within, across and beyond the Caribbean region (Miller, 2012). *School Leadership in the Caribbean: Perceptions, Practices and Paradigms* (Miller, 2013) provides insights into the practice of school leadership in different English-speaking Caribbean countries through religious, cultural, social and historical lenses.

Multidimensional Perspectives on Principal Leadership Effectiveness (Beycioglu & Pashiardis, 2014) explores, inter alia, the challenges faced by principals in multiple contexts, as well as the impact of new managerialism. *Building Cultural Community through Global Educational Leadership* (Harris & Mixon, 2014) examines the impact of globalisation on the practice of educational leaders and leadership—in particular, in being successful in a time of complex social, political, economic and social justice concerns. The publication *Exploring School Leadership in England and the Caribbean: New Insights from a Comparative Approach* (Miller, 2016) used a common design and methodological frame between countries involved in the study to examine how school leaders engage with and navigate the changing educational policy and practice landscapes. *Successful School Leadership: International Perspectives* (Pashiardis

& Johansson, 2016) adopts a geographical regional approach to the organisation and presentation of data, focusing on two central themes: developing and practising successful and effective school leadership.

This growing body of "international" and "comparative" work in educational leadership was preceded by *Educational Leadership: Culture and Diversity* (Dimmock & Walker, 2005), which highlighted differences between societies, leadership practices associated with multicultural schools, and cultural and contextual factors influencing teaching and learning in Anglo-American and Asian schooling systems. It is widely held that Dimmock and Walker's work is the catalyst for much of the recent large-scale "comparative" research in educational leadership and management.

School Leadership Research from School Leaders' Viewpoint

Until very recently, much of the literature and research on school leadership did not give primacy to the voice of school leaders. That is, although school leaders were the subject of intense research, they were often spoken for in published accounts of their working and/or working lives. The relative absence of the voice of school leaders has meant their lived realities and experiences are not always prioritised in the educational leadership literature and research (Hughes, 1976), and there was thus "…a general failure to come to grips with the "street realities" of headship" (Ball, 1987, p. 8). Wolcott (1973) in his classic "The Man in the Principal's Office" highlighted that there is much benefit to be derived from capturing the accounts of what school leaders do and what they experience during the course of their duties, versus what it is felt school leaders should do. His points were elaborated by Bolman and Heller (1995), who argue that much of the literature on leadership is irrelevant to school leaders as it is "too abstract and detached from practice or too narrow and disengaged from person and context, and therefore, of little use to those in schools" (p. 342).

The accounts of school leaders in this book are drawn from 16 different countries across the world. Blackmore (2009) notes, "The challenge for any transnational dialogue is understanding the new global terrain

beyond national borders" (p. 4) and Hall (1993) acknowledges, "we write and speak from a particular place and time, from a history and a culture, which is specific" (p. 222). Presented in the form of an integrated analysis, these accounts attempt to broaden and deepen our understanding of the practice of school leadership through "descriptions of leaders in action … and detailed descriptions of them at work" (Southworth, 1993, p. 79). Furthermore, these accounts provide evidence and insights into the "little stuff of everyday life" (Blasé & Anderson, 1995, p. 25) related to "the nitty gritty" (Miller, 2016, p. 1) and "street realities" (Ball, 1987, p. 8) of a school leader's work and role.

Design and Methodology

There have been intense debates in the literature about the approach to and potential impact of cross-cultural research. Although it is important to recognise the existence of these debates, resolving them is beyond the scope of this book. For the purposes of this book, it is acknowledged that cross-cultural research allows us to study issues simultaneously in different cultural settings and/or geographical environments. For example, cross-cultural research allows us to compare different practices in different cultures and subcultures, for example the leadership style of female school leaders in small rural schools in South Africa, Pakistan and England; principal engagement with policy development and policy implementation in Guyana, the USA and Jamaica; and the professional development and autonomy of teachers in Turkey, Israel, Cyprus and Antigua. In *Culture's Consequences* (1980), Hofstede states that in deciding to undertake cross-cultural research, consideration should be given to the following three questions:

- What are we comparing?
- Are nations suitable units for this comparison?
- Are the phenomena we look at functionally equivalent?

In settling on the design of this book, these questions were considered important in trying to develop a body of research evidence that examines

the different issues faced by school leaders or the approach to school leadership adopted by school leaders in multiple country contexts. This approach adopts the view that the focus of cross-cultural research is on comparability (Graen, Hui, Wakabayashi & Wang, 1997). Furthermore, this book recognises the importance of 'emics' (things that are unique to a culture) and 'etics' (things that are universal to all cultures) to an understanding of the practice of school leadership in the countries represented herein, whilst also acknowledging that, by definition, it is not possible to compare emics across cultures/contexts.

This book is one in a series of books on "Intercultural Studies in Education" by Palgrave Macmillan. The design of the book and all the books in the series is grounded in the clear need to publish outputs that have the potential to help us make greater sense of the world in which we live, through research that simultaneously involves countries that have different social, cultural and/or political ideologies. The specific design of this book and others in the series, whether single authored, jointly authored or edited, adheres to the following four specifications:

- Each chapter must include research on at least three countries;
- Countries in each chapter must be located in at least two continents;
- Of the minimum three countries, at least one must be a developing country;
- Data collection instruments must be the same across all countries per chapter (or book).

Data collection for this book was undertaken in the following 16 countries: *Anguilla*, *Antigua*, *Brazil*, *Canada*, *Cyprus*, *Guyana*, *Israel*, *Jamaica*, *Montserrat*, *Mozambique*, *Pakistan*, *South Africa*, *St Maarten*, *Turkey*, *the UK* (*England*), *the USA*.

The Themes of the Book

From a review of recent and current research on the practice of school leadership, school leaders were provided with seven statements (or themes) that "define" or "describe" the practice of school leadership.

In the section "Introduction", principals were asked to rank each statement (or theme) on a scale of 1–10 (10 being the highest). In the section "Towards a Definition of Leadership", participants were asked to provide a narrative answer that supports or explains the numerical score given in the section "Introduction". The seven themes generated from the literature are that "School leadership is":

- Personal and internally motivated
- Policy driven and mediated
- Change oriented
- Teacher dependent
- Enterprising and entrepreneurial
- Context dependent
- Partnership dependent

Analytical Approach

Quantitative and qualitative data have contributed to this book. Correlational and regression analyses were conducted on the quantitative data to establish patterns of dependence and/or correlation. Qualitative data constituted the larger of the two data sets and these were analysed using narrative post-structuralism. By using this approach, I am choosing to focus on discourse and narratives provided by school leaders in relation to social institutions (e.g. schools) and cultural products (e.g. a national education system). According to Foucault (1981), "Discourse transmits and produces power; it reinforces it, but also undermines and exposes it, renders it fragile and makes it possible to thwart it" (p. 101). Discourse is therefore a useful tool in understanding practice, since narratives constructed by actors are often subsumed into actions that comprise their practice.

Harvey (1990) notes that critical social research is "not bounded by a single (grand) theoretical perspective" (p. 8), and Ball (1994) advises the critical analyst to avoid the trap of "analytical closure", to "take risks" and "use imagination" since their primary concern "is with the task rather than with theoretical prism or conceptual niceties" (p. 4). I have therefore incorporated the methods and procedures of ethnography in this analytical

frame, in order to generate critical insights from school leaders in relation to their practice in their national, local and cultural settings. Ethnography allows the researcher to access events, discourses and tactics within local settings and/or cultural spaces which may not be adequately captured by quantitative methods. According to Thomas (1993), critical ethnography applies "a subversive worldview to the conventional logic of cultural inquiry" and "offers a more direct style of thinking about relationships among knowledge, society and political action" where the "central premise is that one can be both scientific and critical, and that ethnographic descriptions offer a powerful means of critiquing culture and the role of research within it" (1993, p. vii).

Ethnography is a tool for engaging critically with, and developing interpretations of, the real (Ball, 1994). Within this multiple nations study, an ethnographic data analysis frame is also to be seen as a tool aimed at giving voice to the unheard (primarily smaller and developing countries), as well as zeroing in on how school leaders manage shifting educational policy agendas in different national, local and cultural settings. The quotations presented from interviews with school leaders are therefore meant to illustrate and enable our analysis of discourses and 'events' in the different settings in which participants are based.

Structure of This Book

This book has nine chapters including this introductory chapter. The Introduction provides the context for this book, as well as details of the methodology and participants. Chapters 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8 provide the main discussion and research evidence around each theme identified above, and around which this book is organised. Chapters 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8 are presented in four parts as follows:

- The issue in context—the literature base around the topic/issue
- The research evidence—the data/evidence from the research for the book
- Making sense of it all—discussing the evidence in the context of the literature
- Evidence summary—summary of key chapter findings and ideas

Chapter 9, The Nature of School Leadership, provides practical and conceptual insights of the meaning and implications of the practice of school leadership, globally, and for the field of educational leadership and management. In organising the book in this way, it was felt that the reader could better appreciate the research evidence as part of wider discourses on school leadership.

Participants

Sixty-one school leaders from 16 countries were involved in this study. Each is currently a principal or headteacher in their country's national education system. All participants work in public schools or schools run by their country's national education ministry or education department. There were 24 males and 37 females in total. Forty-six are in charge of schools in urban and/or inner-city areas and 15 work in rural and/or remote areas. Thirty-six are primary school leaders whereas 25 are secondary school leaders. Their combined teaching experience in years is 370 or an average of 6 years. Their combined years of school leadership experience in years is 145.5 or an average of 2.3 years. Male school leaders' combined years of experience in teaching was 256, or 10.6 years on average, whereas their combined years of leadership experience was 106, or 4.4 years on average. Female school leaders' combined years of experience in teaching was 248, or 6.7 years on average, whereas their combined years of leadership experience was 85, or 2.2 years on average. See Appendix for a full description of participant characteristics.

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2

School Leadership Is Personal and Internally Motivated

Introduction

School leadership is a collective endeavour, delivered by an individual in conjunction with others. Yet, there can be no process of leadership without a leader, for whilst acknowledging that school leadership is a social process concerned with influence, it is also to be noted that someone must be having responsibility for the process of leading. Nevertheless, inasmuch as school leadership is a collective endeavour, influenced or constrained by a range of different factors, it is significantly about an individual leader, their actions and their decisions. Such a proposition does not seek to diminish the influence and impact of the external regulatory environment in the enactment of leadership; rather it seeks to bring to the surface the

Some do leadership, others talk about leadership. Some are leaders because they feel they have earned the right and others choose to lead because they feel it is their vocation. Leadership isn't for everyone. (England, 5F)

There is no doubt that effective and successful school's leadership begins with an individual's internal motivation. A Principal has to inspire others whether they were teachers or students, thus to inspire others requires him to have an individual motivation. In this way he can lead teachers and all those surrounding him to success and effectiveness. Internal motivation leads to an investment in the work and effort in order to satisfy this inner need. This way the school not only achieves good results and success but also this motivation has to influence and inspire others. (Israel, 3F)

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important role played by an individual leader in the exercise of leadership.

Policies and rules exist to establish the overall context of an education system and to provide a framework within and through which school leaders perform their duties. Schools do not exist independent of an external policy environment, since it is the external policy environment that sets the parameters for their functioning and, by extension, for the actions of school leaders. Similarly, a school's internal (policy) environment helps to shape practices within an individual school and, in many ways, assist with the delivery and fulfilment of national external policy obligations. The external and internal policy environments, and how events in these environments interact, are therefore essential to how a school leader constructs, interprets and does their job.

Underlining the importance of the policy environment in the exercise of school leadership, Miller (2016) describes educational policies as providing schools a "roadmap" (p. 144) that provides focus and direction to an education system and to each educational institution within that system. Put differently, the internal and external policy environments of schools combine to provide them with direction and strategies for achieving aims and objectives. Despite policies and regulations being in place, however, a school leader will determine the tactics or lead the way he or she believes is best. This will usually be the result of several factors, including their social class; gender; personal, religious, cultural and other values; school location and size; the improvement context of a school; the availability and quality of teachers; the availability and reliability of technology; the national and international educational policy environments; and a country's overarching social, cultural, economic and political contexts.

Together, these and other factors have the potential to significantly influence and shape an individual leader's approach to school leadership. That is to say, the practice of school leadership is a deeply personal activity underpinned by and derived from within the scope of an individual school leader's understanding, abilities and experiences. Hutton (2014) highlights that the degree to which school leaders engage and successfully navigate factors in their personal and their school's internal and external environments leads to quality leadership. He also describes the process of engaging and successfully navigating environmental factors as *the intensity*

of leadership, suggesting that not all school leadership endeavours are intense or successful. Nevertheless, he identifies personal factors as crucial to successful school leadership—a position that is in concert with the key proposition of this chapter.

The Issue in Context: Leadership, Beliefs and Values

School leadership is a form of personal leadership connected to an individual's "inner" self as defined by their skills, and personal factors such as beliefs, values and philosophy of education. Ashby and Krug (1998) argue, "your philosophy involves values so dear that they guide your life and can never be comprised. These values are so much a part of your life that they are obvious in your actions, both at home and at work" (p. 54). Speck (1998) also argues, "as a principal, you must remember that your core beliefs must guide your actions. Commitment to these beliefs will sustain your efforts to improve the school" (p. 3). A school leader's inner self and how this inner self influences their approach to leadership is central to this chapter. As discussed earlier, school leaders come to leadership having been influenced by several factors. Arguably, the combined effect of these factors contributes to the shaping of the professional identity the school leader adopts, perhaps most noticeable in their decision-making and daily actions.

Scouller (2011) sees a leader's effectiveness as having to do with a leader's self-awareness, progress towards self-mastery and technical competence, and sense of connection with followers. These suggestions confirm the importance of a school leader's self-awareness, supported by a developed understanding of the skills they lack as well as the skills they possess, and how they can combine this awareness to move followers towards achieving personal and organisational goals. Miller and Hutton note:

> Because values and beliefs are personal, they are not often talked about in relation to the practice of school leadership, although they play a significant part in terms of behaviour and results. (Miller & Hutton, 2014, p. 71)

Ongoing changes in a school's internal and external environments require school leaders to find new ways of doing leadership. For example, the intensifying pace of global migration, changes in global and national economic conditions, a flurry of educational policies, safeguarding and child protection issues, external monitoring and accountability frameworks, and increased demands and expectations by parents have challenged schools and how school leaders enact successful leadership. Similarly, changes in the internal and external schooling environments have provided opportunities for school leaders to re-interpret and re-imagine their leadership in ways that are more relatable, creative, focused and strategic. Whether or not an issue in a school's internal or external environment is considered by school leaders to be an opportunity or a threat, how they engage and navigate such issues vis-à-vis how they "do" leadership is heavily influenced by several personal and professional factors including background, beliefs and values held and experiences outside and within education.

Values and Leadership

Values, according to Raths, Harmin, and Simon (1966), are "beliefs, attitudes or feelings that an individual is proud of, is willing to publicly affirm, has [sic] been chosen thoughtfully from alternatives without persuasion, and is [sic] acted on repeatedly" (p. 28). Fraenkel (1977) regards values as "both emotional commitments and ideas about worth" (p. 11). Beck (1990) states that values "are those things (objects, activities, experiences, etc.) which on balance promote human wellbeing" (p. 2). Halstead (1996) sees values as "principles, fundamental convictions, standards or life stances which act as general guides to behaviour or as points of reference in decision-making or the evaluation of beliefs or action and which are closely connected to personal integrity and personal identity" (p. 5). These definitions are all open to criticism. But so is all leadership practice. Each school leader has values and beliefs that can benefit a school when they are clearly defined and understood. Similarly, values and beliefs that are not clearly defined by school leaders

and understood by followers can cause problems for a school and those who study and work therein. A school leader's beliefs and values help to shape a school's ethos, define the range and type of activities students may be allowed to participate in, and determine working practices for staff. Used in this book, I consider the term values to mean *a set of regulatory codes, implicit and explicit, that sets the tone for an organisation and provides agency to an individual school leader and checks and balances to their actions*. From what we know about school leadership, effectiveness is borne out of and driven by values that:

- guide a leader's decision-making
- strengthen a leader's ability to influence
- create clarity
- reduce stress and
- guide a leader's actions

Hodgkinson (1991) proposes that school leaders "must know two things: where the values are and where the power lies" (1991, p. 6), suggesting tension can arise between the values held by school leaders and their position. Starratt (2003) alludes to this by suggesting a leader should "Recognise that most of the time you do not know what you are doing, and that you are probably, however unwittingly, often doing some harm or hurt to somebody. Be assured that there is always someone in the community who does not appreciate or benefit from your leadership" (p. 29). Notwithstanding this tension, the values held by school leaders influence how they do leadership and how they expect or hope others will experience their leadership. Grisewood (2013) notes that successful leadership is essential for influencing the outcomes of students, the motivation of staff, and the school environment and climate. This view asserts the critical role of the school leader in building relationships and in creating an ethos that others value and recognise as relevant in moving a school towards achieving its objectives.

Although available research evidence suggests school leaders rarely spend time investigating their feelings (Grisewood, 2013), the degree to which they show self-awareness and emotional intelligence is essential to

their personal success and to the success of the school they lead. To be effective, a school leader's exercise of self-awareness and emotional intelligence should be underpinned by critical personal qualities such as:

- Vision
- Courage
- Passion
- Judgement
- Resilience
- Persuasion
- Curiosity

As discussed earlier, and as we already know, the success of a school leader, and therefore school leadership, is heavily influenced by, for example, factors in a school's national, social, religious, cultural, regulatory/legal, technological and economic contexts. The degree to which a leader encounters and successfully engages with these factors, however, is personal, and it helps to determine whether these factors are to be treated as opportunities and/or constraints. Thus, suggesting that although broad contextual factors may be similar or in some cases the same, no two school leaders will engage and therefore "do" leadership in exactly the same way. Consequently, being flexible, exercising judgement, being considerate and/or adopting a particular approach to leadership, for example, will be different for each school and for each leader, and they will be related to how each leader understands and makes meaning of the factors impacting their followers and their own practice as leaders.

Each school leader has his/her own unique experiences and personal values that contribute significantly to how they engage and interpret events in a school's external and/or internal environments. The experiences school leaders bring to their role and how these experiences combine to assist and enable them to interpret and make sense of environmental factors are essential in determining how school leaders approach and fulfil their roles. Miller and Hutton (2014) assert:

> [O]ne person's interpretation of the strictures, structures and processes may be very different to someone else's given, for example, their background and current social class, understanding of and engagement with educational

> policies, size and location of a school and philosophy of education. Due to the personal nature of qualities, we also propose that qualities are contested, recognising that the practice of leadership, although influenced by several factors, is equally a deeply personal enterprise, situated within the sum or parts of a series of critical incidents or individual's experiences. (p. 71)

Values are ideas believed to be desirable that motivate individuals and groups to act in particular ways to achieve certain ends (Begley, 2001). Values reflect an individual's basic motivations, and provide insights into their actions. It is well known that the culture of a school is heavily influenced by the values and beliefs of its leader, since school leaders usually promote their values and beliefs among staff and students. According to Begley (2001), "all leaders consciously or unconsciously employ values as guides in interpreting situations and suggesting appropriate administrative action, which is the artistry of leadership" (p. 364).

The relationship between school leadership and personal values is therefore an important one. In the United Kingdom, Gold, Evans, Earley, Halpin and Callarbone (2003) described school leaders as "[P]rincipled individuals with a strong commitment to their 'mission', determined to do the best for their schools, particularly for the pupils and students within them…" (p. 136). Based on studies in Australia, Branson (2005) highlights that the histories, beliefs and values of school leaders influence how they do leadership. Similarly, with reference to studies in Virginia, USA, Russell (2001) proposes that values significantly influence leadership behaviour, leadership style and moral reasoning. Russell also contends that leaders shape the cultures of their organisations through modelling the values they deem important to them. Thus, the personal values of school leaders are foundation stones in how they do leadership.

Situating Leadership

As I discussed in the Introduction, leadership is a contested term which has been defined as influence (Bush, 2010), styles or approach (Collinson & Grint, 2005), behaviours (Thomas, 2003), or as a process (Northouse,

2016). I have also clarified earlier in this chapter that the exercise or practice of leadership is influenced by multiple factors that exist both outside and within a school organisation, as well as factors personal to a leader. Internal factors relate to a school's internal environment. These could include the size and location of a school, the degree of support and/or challenge from the school board, the age, experience and quality of staff, the background of students, the curriculum pursued by students, the amount and quality of resources and space available. Personal factors relate only to an individual leader and could include philosophy of education, values and beliefs, and qualities. External factors exist outside the control of a school/leader, are not specific to a single organisation and could include a change of government, changes in government policies and regulations, and changes in a community's or country's social order.

To be an effective leader, each school leader, using personal factors, must successfully engage with such internal and external factors, whether privately or publicly, in "doing" leadership. School leadership is a deeply personal activity, and to be effective, a school leader must successfully integrate factors in their internal environment into a manageable fit that combines with, and navigates changes in, the fluidity of the external environment. Regardless of which country a school leader is located in, or their position within a national education system, across the world, school leaders are involved in an intense struggle for personal agency and organisational effectiveness as they constantly engage, and combine internal and external factors, and as they negotiate and navigate changes in a school's environments. In their theory of "Situated Leadership", Miller and Hutton (2014, p. 88) describe both the process and outcome of this struggle for personal agency and organisational effectiveness as being "situated" within an individual school leader but emerging from their ability to engage, manage, negotiate and navigate internal and external environmental factors. They apply the formula L = f(Ef + If), where:

- L = doing leadership or the practice of leadership
- f = a function of/or constraints in the environment
- Ef = external factors
- If = internal factors

Miller and Hutton also propose that whereas external and internal environmental factors establish the context for the practice of leadership, it is a school leader's commitment, values and beliefs that engage, interpret and deconstruct these factors, in a way that is personal and in a way that is directed towards achieving the objectives of the school they lead. According to Hutton (2014), intensity is an important personal quality (to be) possessed by each school leader since it is the degree of intensity shown in "doing" leadership that determines the quality of (their) leadership success.

The Evidence

Evidence from this 16 country study confirms what the existing literature says about the practice and source of leadership. As discussed previously in this chapter, the practice of school leadership is a factor of several influences within a school's internal and external environment. Together, these factors create a framework for the enactment of school leadership, simultaneously influencing and directing the choice of particular approaches to leadership used by a school leader at any given point in time. School leadership is therefore a boundaried activity, influenced, shaped and regulated by environmental factors, which themselves serve as levers, on how leadership is understood and practised.

Nevertheless, the "individual" or the "person" in the "leader" is not to be under-estimated in the practice of leadership. Usually, the individual's actions and/or job role are studied and not the "individual" or "person" behind the role and activities. Although influenced and restrained by several factors over which they may have limited or no control, the way school leaders interpret and navigate the boundaries of school leadership is a deeply personal matter—which speaks to the-person-in-the-leader. Used here, the-person-in-the-leader means being aware that each school leader possesses personal factors, values, experiences and beliefs that can and will influence their ability and the approach they take to fulfilling their leadership role.

Personal Factors

The role of personal factors in "doing" leadership has been highlighted by Miller and Hutton (2014), who argue that personal factors, such as a "competitive spirit", "passion", "determination", "decisiveness" and "personal drive", are central to school leadership success. Each individual possesses personal factors, thus making personal factors inseparable from each leader's personality. The quality of leadership provided by principals is therefore a personal activity, very much dependent on their ability to tackle events and factors in a school's internal and external environments. Put differently, a school leader is very much sandwiched between school factors and government priorities, delivered in an overarching context where their own success and that of their school cannot be divorced from their sense and exercise of personal agency.

> *Leadership is heavily dependent on the individual: outlook, talent, goals, influence. The successful principal must have a strong belief in self and in her ability to achieve organizational goals, despite the odds*. (Jamaica, 1F)

A high degree of intrinsic motivation is another key personal factor in the exercise of successful school leadership. Personal motivation affirms a school leader's identity and guides their commitment. This is especially important in light of incessant changes in a school's external environment as well as due to constraints placed on schools due to the relative lack of financial, human and other resources. One school leader proposed that "to lead a school is to be internally motivated" (Jamaica, 7M)—acknowledging the primary role played by motivation in leadership. The observation by this school leader also conferred upon "motivation" two important attributes. As a quality, motivation is (to be) possessed by each school leader and is interwoven with the leader's sense of personal agency. As an activity, motivation is a daily endeavour that makes manifest the leader's values and beliefs.

> *Internal motivation is essential, as without it, you will never be able to keep doing what needs to be done, particularly if you have to make difficult decisions that aren't welcomed by everyone*. (England, 2M)

As a personal factor, motivation is therefore foundational to the practice of successful school leadership. School leaders repeatedly highlighted the role and value of personal motivation in doing their jobs. Motivation among school leaders was linked to the opportunity to bring "change" to individuals and to communities or to "give back", this notwithstanding "low pay" (a factor cited by school leaders from mostly smaller and developing countries) and "increased job stress" (a factor cited by school leaders from all countries).

External motivators such as more recognition for their worth and work, increased autonomy, improved work terms and benefits, improvements to salaries and more support from education departments and ministries were (and are) important to school leaders. However, although these were not always available, their relative lack or absence did not detract from their commitment to their job functions. At a time of reduced individual autonomy and increased legislative directives within national education systems (Bottery, 2004), it is significant that the motivation of school leaders towards their job is (much) more closely aligned to what they feel they can contribute to a national education system compared with any perceived personal gain associated with their job role.

Personal Values/Purpose

The role of values in leadership cannot be overstated, and school leaders underpin many of their decisions with values they hold (Crawford, 2014). Values may not always be visible to followers or critics, but they are an ever present and potent source upon which rests many of a school leader's actions. Although each school leader is unique in terms of age, gender, abilities, ethnicity/race, social background, sexual orientation and religious beliefs, it is arguable that their values, as school leaders, will be much more closely aligned than any behavioural and/or physical differences. For example, it is well known that a value to be possessed by leaders is "leading by example", which means doing the right thing for the right reasons. As Rue (2001) points out:

> Values are the essence of who we are as human beings. Our values get us out of bed every morning, help us select the work we do, the company we

> keep, the relationships we build, and ultimately, the groups and organizations that we lead. Our values influence every decision and move we make, even to the point of how we choose to make our decisions. (p. 12)

Moral purpose was an overriding value among school leaders. Despite differences in race/ethnicity, gender or social background, school size, school location, school type and school budget, and despite their role in helping to bring about change for individuals, communities and society, school leaders very much saw themselves as mere instruments in the delivery of purpose, which was far greater than their own sense of self. In other words, the job of a school leader is not for their own personal benefit but for the "the greater good"—a "greater good" which carries benefits for students, families and society as a whole.

School leaders reflect on how personal values influence their leadership:

> *Many of us are driven by a sense of moral purpose, particularly those of us who may have had challenging backgrounds ourselves and for whom education opened doors and want to be able to influence the life chances of other young people. I consider myself to be one of those leaders*. (England, 8F)

Remaining true to their purpose is believed to be a value position associated with "principled" school leaders. Gold et al. (2003) suggest these leaders "[E]ndeavoured to mediate the many externally driven directives to ensure, as far as it was possible, that their take-up was consistent with what the school was trying to achieve" (p. 136). Put differently, the values held by school leaders can help them make difficult decisions, even when and if it is unpopular to do so (Coleman & Glover, 2010). Furthermore, values can serve as buffers to mediate a demanding, and increasingly conflictual, policy environment as school leaders pursue available opportunities and the best outcomes possible for their students and schools.

> *My approach to leadership is driven by moral purpose which provides the core vision and buy-in necessary for others to follow. External motivations (money, external view of status) have little bearing. The success of school leadership relies on having a set of principles which are internally centred. These are the principles which are your non-negotiables as a school leader and tend to be absolutely centred on the students*. (England, 1F)

School leaders today, regardless of the countries in which they are located, face more pressure than school leaders who were in post two or three decades ago. Furthermore, fewer school leaders are presently in post, and the queues for those wishing to take over are only getting shorter. Despite the pressures, however, there is evidence (Gold et al., 2003; Miller, 2016) that school leaders do not sacrifice their values to achieve short-term ends or to appease governments. Rather, they stick to their values, leading their schools through moral conflicts, doing what they believe to be in the best interest of their school/students.

> *Throughout my years in education the many challenges that I have faced were overcome due to personally feeling a sense of obligation towards the students. Being driven by the fact that I only would like to see them receive the best education and care*. (St Maarten, 1F)

The commitment of school leaders to their students and what helps to shape that commitment is clear. Not only could school leaders identify with students in terms of socio-economic backgrounds issues, they simply wanted to do all they could to secure the best outcomes for them. Steve Jobs (citing Koteinikov, 2008) once asserted that "The only thing that works is management by values. Find people who are competent and really bright, but more importantly, people who care exactly about the same thing you care about". Jobs' observation locates values squarely at the heart of leadership practice—not only in terms of values held, but also in terms of values "done".

Linking personal agency with the formation and demonstration of values in school leadership, one school leader extends Jobs' assertion. She notes:

> *I have worked with some great leaders, and my own 'style' (or range of styles) draws on their example but also on my own personality and values shaped by my experiences in school, and as a parent. Having worked for the Local Authority (LA) in a consultancy role, I felt strongly that I needed a 'job with a heart' and that only school leadership offered that satisfactorily*. (England, 10F)

The notion of leadership being a "job with a heart" was mentioned repeatedly by English school leaders who felt they were constantly having to push back swathes of government policies that sometimes significantly

challenged their ability to remain true to their moral purpose. Paradoxically, whereas some suggested the current political climate and approach to educational policy in England made it difficult for them to remain true to their moral purpose and values, others proposed that the current political state and approach to educational policy in England made it all the more important for them to be true to their moral purpose and values. Resolving this policy–practice dilemma within England's educational system is beyond the scope of this book. However, such a dilemma is consistent with current tensions in other national education systems globally.

The Greater Good

As discussed in the previous section, the work of school leaders is not towards their own ends but towards securing the best possible outcomes for learners, communities and society as a whole. This understanding alerts us to an important relationship between the role of a school leader and society as a whole. Forsyth and Hoyt (2011) provide a useful starting point for our understanding of the relationship between the "the individual and the collective". They argue:

> Healthy adult human … must balance their personal needs and desires against the demands and requirements of their groups. (p. 1)

This point is supported by a school leader who asserts:

> You cannot successfully lead a school unless you have a personal desire to improve outcomes for **all students and their families**. (England, 2M, original emphasis)

Such an assertion gives weight to the fact that the practice of school leadership is not directed towards school leaders, but towards others in ways that attempt to respond to the hopes and aspirations of individual students and to the needs and ambitions of a national society. As Forsyth and Hoyt propose:

> Some people "*…put the collective's interest before their own personal needs, sacrificing personal gains for what is often called 'the greater good*'." (ibid., my emphasis)

Putting the interests of students above their own and putting the interests of a national society above their own are things school leaders do on a daily basis. Although it may be necessary at different times to assert one's individuality, school leaders, in the main, are anything but individualistic. In prioritising and pursuing the greater good, they show they understand and accept the fundamental change role associated with their leadership position and their leadership practice.

> *To be an effective school principal, one needs to have that internal motivation, that internal drive to* ***want to make a difference for all the stakeholders****. One must always be focussed on student success, even when that success may not be immediately apparent*. (Canada, 1F)

School leaders have a key role to play in how the values of a school are transmitted and embodied by a range of stakeholders (Crawford, 2014). Thus, school leadership that is concerned with "the greater good" starts with a school leader and ends with society receiving from schools: students who are equipped with the appropriate knowledge and skills needed to contribute to or to be able to contribute to the good of society. In other words, successful school leadership starts with a motivated school leader and ends with highly motivated and successful students who are adequately equipped and appropriately prepared to chart their path in and contribute to society. The practice of successful school leaders is therefore very much guided by clear objectives and a purpose that promotes and prioritises the best possible outcomes of students, which is also the primary function of their role and that of schooling in general.

Personal but a Collective Endeavour

The major argument of this chapter is that school leadership is an individual activity. However, as a practice, school leadership is doomed without buy-in, support from and input from others. As Northouse (2016) notes, "leadership occurs in group" (p. 6). In addition, McCrimmon (2010) notes that the days of the charismatic, goal-scoring heroic leader are past, thus making way for a kind of leader who is a team player and who gets others involved in problem-solving and decision-making.

Although there may be several factors that influence the approach to leadership adopted by a school leader, deciding to approach school leadership as a collective endeavour, instead of as a heroic activity, is a value position. For example, the increasing and multiple demands faced by school leaders have the potential to undermine leadership effectiveness. Furthermore, as equality issues become more embedded in school leadership debates, a school leader's initial engagement with such issues may be as much related to the broad educational policy environment as to their personal values. Whatever the precise reason or reasons, school leaders who consider themselves post-heroic leaders value others and their inclusion in the generation and development of solutions.

> *As a school leader, I view myself first as an individual—which constitutes a singular form. However, one of the main tasks of my leadership is to influence or get the work done through the joint efforts of my staff. While it is the case that I will ultimately have responsibility for the final decisions, I always solicit the input of others—which therefore makes leadership a plural activity*. (Montserrat, 1M)

School leadership is about getting the people you lead to move towards achieving your vision. It is about talent maximisation for the overall benefit of a school. This requires the individual school leader to share their vision with others and to get buy-in; to trust others to bring ideas to the table and to trust in those ideas; and to work collaboratively with multiple stakeholders, and being seen as a facilitator and co-constructor of difference actions and outcomes, and not as the sole owner of a solution or a course of action.

Evidence Summary

With respect to school leadership being "personal and internally motivated":

- Both female and male school leaders regarded school leadership as a uniquely personal activity.
- Female school leaders appear more internally motivated than male school leaders (*men were motivated by the prospect of winning; women were motivated by the prospect of serving*).

- School leaders faced with resource constraints showed greater signs of internal motivation, suggesting they are motivated by their desire to improve or change things, as well as by challenges in their environment. This was especially noticeable among school leaders in Pakistan, Turkey, South Africa, Mozambique and the Caribbean.
- There were no discernible differences in patterns of motivation among school leaders–based school factors such as size, school type and school location in a country (e.g.: rural/ remote, urban, inner-city, etc).

Characteristics of personal and internally motivated school leadership include:

perseverance, determination
passion, drive
commitment, purpose
social change, community
values, integrity
personal agency, vision
teamwork, self-awareness

Making Sense of It All

McClelland's (1961) theory of human motivation is an important point of departure. In this theory, McClelland asserts that regardless of differences in, for example, culture, gender, religious beliefs and age, humans are usually motivated by three things, namely, a need for achievement, a need for affiliation and a need for power. McClelland also asserts that individuals are motivated by risk-taking, setting and achieving challenging objectives, working collaboratively and a strong need to control and influence others.

Significant factors driving an individual's motivation, according to McClelland, are an individual's culture and life experiences. The 61 school leaders involved in this study are from five continents, located in 16 countries that are very different in terms of national, religious, ethnic, social, political and other cultural attributes. Despite these differences, school leaders, both male and female, whether from smaller or larger

countries, whether from religious or secular countries, and whether from developed or developing countries, all possess a vast array of leadership experiences in schools with very different climates and cultures.

By design, the work of school leaders involves risks and increased competition, broadly associated with performativity cultures in education. School leaders showed no desire to control the people and/or resources available to them. Instead, school leaders showed a strong desire to engage leadership as a collective endeavour and to manage the resources available to them in ways that were responsible and fair. For although the "buck of school leadership" stops with a school leader, school leadership was constructed and approached as teamwork and collaboration, drawing in and on other voices in agenda settings, as task delivery and in the development of accountability frameworks.

The personal factors, the beliefs and values held by a school leader, are anchored in a moral purpose in which each student is (to be) afforded the best educational opportunities possible. Although in most cases it is not the individual school leader who determines the content of the education the student receives, he or she nonetheless has a significant role in determining the quality and type of learning experience each student receives. It was quite clear that school leaders are not afraid of taking risks, nor are they afraid of setting demandingly high targets for themselves and for their schools, targets which reflect an awareness and an understanding of their schools' contexts. For inasmuch as "the most tenacious and successful leaders have high innate and individual motivation" (England, 9M), those involved in this study were guided by a purpose greater than themselves, and the absence of external motivators did nothing to demotivate them or detract from their vision.

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3

School Leadership Is Policy Driven and Mediated

Introduction

A policy is a statement of intent concerning an activity that aims to provide standardisation, uniformity and confidence to stakeholders. In other words, policies can be thought of as actual parameters or as shaping the parameters for actions and behaviours of individuals and groups within a system. In the context of this book, edcational policies exist for creating order within an education system as well as in individual schools. In doing so, policies establish frameworks and constraints in areas such as staffing, curriculum, safeguarding and protecting students and the welfare of staff. As I mentioned in Chap. 1, educational policies guide and

Without policies and procedures, a school can be like a rudderless ship. It is important to have guidelines, collective agreements etc. to help focus us as an organisation. At the school level, it is important to have clarity, which leads to consistency—allowing staff to do their jobs without ambiguity. However, "Policy" needs to be tempered with common sense. (Canada, 1F)

The school does not exist in a vacuum or in an empty space; it is affected and driven by many factors, and one of these factors is education policy. Usually a general education policy allows some flexibility. Principals can take advantage of this flexibility to be somewhat autonomous. This need for autonomy highlighted especially when the education policy ignores the uniqueness of minorities (nationality, culture, history, traditions) and does not respond to their needs. (Israel, 3F)

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shape the work of school leaders and what goes on in schools. They also provide school leaders an essential framework through which to exercise and emancipate their leadership.

Both the constraints and benefits of educational policies have been well articulated in the available literature. Globally, school leaders have come to regard educational policies as problematic, not only because their implementation sometimes competes for limited resources in the implementation of other policies, but also because the content of policies can be vague and conflicting. Former UK Schools Minister Ed Miliband argues, "…the government and school leaders can be described at some point in time as either the motor of progress or its handbrake" (Miliband, 2003), highlighting that the pace of policy development and the content of educational policies carry potential implementation risks and conflicts for schools/school leaders. School leaders have a vital role to play in nation building and in the social transformation of nation states. They also have an important role to play in the economic transformation of nation states through education and schooling, and therefore through their work. Globally, national educational policies are being refocused on national economic imperatives, thus simultaneously repositioning school leaders, schools and the work of schools as leaders and agents of socio-economic transformation and development. The repositioning of a school's work mostly around national economic imperatives is part of a broader market culture that has infiltrated the field of education. According to Grace (1989), this market culture "…*puts market before community … maximizes strategies for individual profit and advantage; which conceptualizes the world in terms of consumers rather than citizens and which marginalizes issues to do with morality and ethics…*" (p. 134).

By embedding economic transformation into educational policy deliverables, national governments have thus placed schools at the centre of national economic development and school leaders as custodians of a nation's economic fortunes. Such a position is problematic for two main reasons. First, the primary responsibility of school leaders is the social, cultural and moral development of an individual student and not the economic fortunes of society. If, however, due to the skills learnt, qualities developed and qualifications obtained during their time at school, an

individual student can contribute to the national economic development of the country in which they live, this is an important outcome and honourable duty to which they each should aspire. Second, the social, personal and moral purposes of education, as set out in international law vis-à-vis the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC), appear either to be overlooked by governments or overtaken by the need to increase national economic fortunes through schooling. The reality of the market culture therefore presents a challenge to school leaders, in many cases, from a position of reduced government investment in education, greater levels of scrutiny and a plethora of policy interventions. This is the same for both developing and developed countries.

The Issue in Context: An Emergent Policy Context

Educational policy-making and implementation are high priorities for governments across the world. As a process, policy-making and implementation in education have become fraught, arguably a victim of political interests and expediency. Pressures in the global economic environment, as well as political disagreements at national levels, have sometimes led to confusion and tension about the value of education (and the role of educational leaders), within a nation state. As discussed earlier, increasingly, international and national educational policies have tended to focus more on the potential economic gains to society associated with schooling/education. Consequently, education is being positioned as a golden ticket to individual and national prosperity and a hedge against social displacement, since through education students should be in a better position to assess and develop their talents and to produce goods and services that are more highly valued and more useful to society. A further consequence of this policy shift is that schools and school leaders are finding themselves in the crossfire between differing political interests and dictates as they try to deliver on their primary commitment to students and their secondary commitment to the national state.

The repositioning of educational policies in political agendas, as well as changes to their content and focus, is more common than unique. Olssen, Codd and O'Neill (2004) note,

> There was a time when educational policy as policy was taken for granted … Clearly that is no longer the case. Today, educational policies are the focus of considerable controversy and public contestation … Educational policy-making has become highly politicised. (pp. 2–3)

Politicians and policy-makers do not always understand how educational policies impact schools (Bell & Stevenson, 2006). This lack of understanding contributes to "relatively fragmented approaches" to educational policy-making which "often fail to provide a cogent account of the policy process" and as a result make it difficult "for those working in schools that are subject to educational policies to make sense of the policy contexts within which they have to operate" (p. 2). This state of affairs, associated with the market culture, has seen a shift in educational priorities, as well as the determining and development of educational priorities by actors outside the field of education, although it is the duty of those working in education to deliver and achieve them. Shilling (1993) surmises that the current state of affairs has to do with modernity and "whether education systems have the capacity either to be fully controlled, or to accomplish planned social change with any degree of accuracy" (p. 108).

My intention in this chapter is not to resolve the tensions in how educational policies are made or implemented in a nation state; nor is it my intention to surface the several contradictions in educational policy content. Rather, my intention is to show that educational policies have become increasingly dominant forces in every aspect of schooling, which in turn is having a significant impact on how school leaders lead and manage. I should point out, however, that although school leaders are under pressure to deliver national educational policy objectives, they are not "merely passive receivers and implementers of policy decisions made elsewhere" (Bell & Stevenson, 2006, p. 2). I will return to how school leaders use their agency and positional authority to countenance educational policy implementation later in this chapter.

The Global Policy Environment

The global policy environment of schooling is concerned with those issues that impact or can impact the quality and delivery of education in all countries. In the main, events in the global educational policy environment have prompted important educational reforms in both developed and developing countries at the national level. The global policy environment includes, for example, binding laws such as the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC), as well as non-binding declarations such as the Education for All (EFA) action framework.

Miller (2016) notes, "The external policy environment of a school consists of two discrete but interrelated contexts: the supranational and the national" (p. 81). He further argues that the degree of overlap between the supranational and national policy environments will vary from country to country and will depend on the international policies/laws to which a country subscribes. For example, although the USA is a strong advocate for children's rights within and outside education, as evidenced by the raft of national and state specific laws/policies, the USA remains only one of two countries in the world that have not ratified the UNCRC. Similarly, although Tonga, Iran, Sudan and Somalia encourage the participation of girls in education, they have not signed the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW, 1979), which provides for the protection of the rights of women and girls, in particular their economic and social rights in areas such as employment, health and education.

There are several policy agendas being developed at any one time by supranational organisations—with the aim of shaping and/or influencing what goes on in national educational systems. Described as externalisation (Luhmann & Schorr, 1979), this process involves the development and dissemination of a global level education philosophy. This nuanced approach to externalisation connects the supranational with the national, which increases the likelihood of buy-in from national governments, leading Verger, Novelli and Altinyelken (2012) to assert that "Education reforms are thus today embedded in a universalized web of ideas about development and social problems" (p. 10).

Schriewer (2000) has described global level educational policies as "a web of reciprocal references …. moving, reinforcing and dynamizing the worldwide universalisation of educational ideas, models, standards, and options of reform" (p. 334). Carney (2009) describes them as "standardizing the flow of educational ideas internationally and changing fundamentally what education is and can be" (p. 68). In different countries, these effects are noticeable in terms of, for example, policy agendas and ambitions concerning management practices, the function of education and the role of the state in education.

National Policy Environment

Educational policy-making is a dynamic process that involves a national government exerting its power in seeking to enforce or deliver its mandate or ambitions. Within a nation state, it is the responsibility of a government to establish the context within which education/schooling is provided to citizens. However, national educational policy environments will vary significantly depending on a range of factors including:

- The international laws/policies to which they subscribe
- Influence of/changes in the global educational policy environment
- The government/political party in power
- Influence of/changes in the national social, cultural, political, technological and economic context of education/schooling

The nature of the relationship between these factors may change over time to reflect the realities of a nation state or in line with events in the global socio-political environments. An example of this is whether a nation state should provide education free of charge to students up to the age of 16. Although the UNCRC stipulates that all children, everywhere, have a right to an education provided by the state and that education should be free to children up to age 16, economic realities in several developing countries have meant that "free education" up to the age of 16 or in some cases at any age is impossible. Where delivery of free

education is not possible, many nation states have instead opted for a cost-sharing model where parents and governments (taxpayers) contribute to the overall costs of schooling.

Like some international laws/policies, national policies can also be aspirational. That is, through a policy statement a government may be acknowledging that it needs to do more (or better) in a particular area. "No Child Left Behind" (USA), "Every Child Matters" (United Kingdom) and "Every Child Can Learn, Every Child Must Learn" (Jamaica) are examples of this. Despite the ambitions of nation states and governments, the economic, political and social realities of a country can delay or defer the realisation of some policy intents. I should highlight that whether aspirational or not, or whether policy intents are delayed or deferred, schools and school leaders retain an important role in working towards their realisation.

Policies as Roadmap and Fuel

From the above discussion, one notes that the global and national policy contexts combine to provide direction to an education system and to the schools operating therein. Educational policies, according to Miller (2016), "are the fuel on which education/schooling is run, simultaneously establishing parameters and providing direction" (p. 142). Examples of this include whether an education system should be centralised, decentralised or part centralised/part decentralised (as in England), or the introduction of different types of schools within an existing national education system (such as Free Schools in England).

Miller (2016) also notes that "Educational policies give shape and structure to an education system and can lead to both coherence and mayhem for those who must enforce, deliver or otherwise experience them" (ibid.). Such a position highlights an important characteristic of educational policies. That is, despite their intent, educational policies are not foolproof and, as such, they carry a degree of risk that can lead to mishaps or failure. It is therefore perhaps not improbable that some school leaders and other education professionals may already be of the view that education in their nation state is already in disarray or is at

severe risk of mayhem due to ongoing changes in the structure, philosophy and perceived value of education. It is also worth noting that the deepening of business logic in the education sector/schooling is leading to the creation of multiple challenges in how school leaders understand, practice and experience school leadership.

Policy Overload and Filtering

I return to the earlier point that school leaders are not merely passive receivers and implementers of a government's policies. In both developing and developed countries, the educational policy rhetoric is unrelenting, and well-thought out policy agendas appear to have given way to on-the-spot, off-the-cuff policy pronouncements. This reifies notions that those responsible for educational policy-making are out of touch with the "on the ground realities" (Ball, Maguire, Braun & Hoskins, 2011, p. 629) of schooling.

Few would disagree that school leaders can experience some degree of stress and anxiety when confronted with the delivery of another set of policy objectives, although the implementation of the previous set is still to be realised. Although they may be out of touch with the 'on the ground realities' of schooling, politicians and policy-makers appear to fully appreciate that the policy-making/policy implementation process can cause upheaval and frustration among school leaders. Former UK Schools Minister David Miliband notes, "nothing [is] more infuriating for professionals in the field than the feeling that the latest set of ministerial priorities will soon be superceded by a new set" (Miliband, 2003). Bell and Stevenson (2006) argue that governments tend to want policy implementation to be seen as done, reported as done and accounted for. Arguably, at the root of this need of governments is a much bigger concern where policy-making and policy implementation sometimes appear to be rolled into one and where successive policies are believed to be able to fix (or mask) any mishaps or failures associated with previous ones. In response to what I describe here as "overnight policy delivery", school leaders exercise personal agency by filtering their approach to national

policy implementation, by focusing "on what their school is capable of doing, what would work in their school and how, and whether they had the human and material capacity and resources to deliver in ways that were practical and reasonable" (Miller, 2016, p. 86).

The Evidence

Based on evidence from 61 school leaders located in 16 countries on 5 continents, there is overwhelming agreement that events in the global and national educational policy environments are having a significant influence on what goes on in schools as well as how school leaders approach leadership.

Educational policies exist for the smooth running and good order of an education system and the schools operating therein. Educational policies therefore provide direction and focus to the work undertaken by schools, school leaders and other professionals within a national education system. Providing direction and focus is an important state-owned role since a fundamental duty of a nation state is to provide education to citizens in a manner that is consistent with its ability to do so and in ways that are responsive to national/local needs. Governments did not always consult school leaders in policy-making decisions. Nonetheless, school leaders acknowledge that policies exist to protect all who study and work in schools and that schools, like an education system, cannot exist without policies.

Necessity of Policies: Providing Guidance and Direction

As discussed above, educational policies are crucial to the effective functioning of a national education system. As we already know, educational policies help to provide direction and focus, in addition to helping to establish the character and the tone of an education system. According to school leaders in this study, educational policies assist with establishing

accountability and consistency, developing and maintaining standards, reducing discretion, focusing and refocusing vision, defining and clarifying purpose.

> *School leadership is hinged on policies. Stakeholders would be better able to get accountability from leaders once there are clearly laid down policies which guide their actions*. (Antigua, 2F)
>
> *Educational policies serve as a guide in meeting targets and maintaining standards. They also help with strategic resource decisions and the monitoring of performance/progress*. (Jamaica, 2F)

School leaders have to make sense of and interpret educational policies, seen as useful for clarifying expectations and for helping them to define the priorities of a school. Top-down policy-making was a feature in both developing and developed countries in the study, and although school leaders very much resented this approach to policy-making, they nonetheless regarded educational policies as essential tools for helping them to structure their practice and for thinking through different approaches for working within specific contexts. Educational policies were also regarded as essential points of reference and mechanisms for clarifying expectations, reducing discretion and working collaboratively towards achieving efficiency within a national education system.

> *There must be guidelines, etc that inform everyone involved about how things are done and what is expected. When policies inform everyone of how things are done, with clear understanding, expectations and governance, the chances of achieving the mission and vision increase significantly*. (Antigua, 1F)
>
> *In order for schools to function in a structured manner, policies are extremely necessary. The absence of policies tends to cause chaos and misinterpretations of what procedures should be followed*. (St Maarten, 1F)

Two important observations are possible from the above views. First, policies have a vital standardising function that guides school leaders to exhibit confidence in their own leadership. This agentic function is useful for school leaders who are new to leadership and to those who want to toe the line. Second, policies help to provide a framework that guides but

does not dictate actions. A juxtaposition, however, is that when the "how things are done" of policy implementation is conflated with the "what things are to be done" there is a serious risk that a school leader's confidence and agency may be severely undermined.

Policy Filtering and Mediation

There is no denying that many challenges faced by school leaders are the result of a national educational policy environment that is in conflict with itself due to multiple policies requiring simultaneous implementation, policy directives that compete with each other for resources and implementation, and/or policies that do not sufficiently address local or other context specific issues or circumstances. Grace (1995) warns that the study of school leadership effectiveness should be placed within the "wider political, cultural, economic and ideological movements in society" (p. 5) in order to make sense of how school leaders "do" leadership. School leaders in this study felt they were being driven instead of being led by policies. Being driven by policies derives from and is the result of a policy context where policy-making is rapid and ad hoc, the favoured approach to policy implementation is short-termist, and those required to implement policy are not provided with adequate time or resources to do so (effectively).

> *The policy environment poses new challenges for school leaders … we are sometimes unclear about the content and purpose of policies we are expected to deliver*. (Turkey, 1M)

Some school leaders, particularly those in developing countries, described walking a tightrope, where failure to adhere to or implement policies as set out by governments resulted in a threat and risk of punishment for non-compliance.

> *[H]eadteachers must adhere to policy or face punishment. A school is policy driven because you are threatened to follow them*. (Guyana, 1M)

Grace (1995) notes that a reductionist approach to school leadership is problematic since such an approach emphasises quasi-scientific management solutions that do not take sufficient account of context specific issues and factors. This disconnect arising, however, in a market culture, competition, blaming and the need to be seen to be doing something (Bell & Stevenson, 2006) have become commonplace. Gunter (2012) describes this situation as a "game … where those outside of schools … controlled the leadership of schools" (p. 18) and where "the interplay between the agency of the headteacher and the structures that enable and prevent that agency" (Gunter, 2005, p. 172) are almost always at a crossroads.

> *Leaders must follow guidelines. These are tested and tried and are usually aimed at achieving national goals. However, these must be tweaked, and fitted to the organisation*. (Jamaica, 1F)

Educational policies do not make space for the "on the ground realities" (Ball et al., 2011, p. 629) of schools or the peculiarities of a school's context. As a result, school leaders, some more than others, refused to allow themselves to be boxed in by the threat of sanction associated with non-compliance, choosing instead to be engaged in a filtered or localised approach to policy implementation.

> *It may be necessary to circumvent a policy to facilitate mitigating circumstances*. (South Africa, 1M)

School leaders from Cyprus sustained the counter-narrative of resistance to policy implementation for the sake of being compliant. Resistance to policy implementation that could potentially jeopardise their own position or thwart a school's objectives was a more realistic alternative for school leaders than simply carrying out the dictates for the sake of it. As proposed by Giddens (1984), at one point or another, it will become necessary for people to assert their agency against both the rules (structures) and the systems.

> *I am more independent in making decisions. I do not always rely on policies*. (Cyprus, 7M)

Objective decisions should be made, but the experience of school leaders and others on the ground should be included. (Cyprus, 6M)

I have never been fond of working within the limits of policies. Rules are OK but not on their own. (Cyprus, 4M)

We follow policies, but with our character. (Cyprus, 1M)

Miller (2016) reported that Jamaican and English school principals reinterpreted the rules of policy implementation by opting to account for context specific factors, as well as choosing to leverage the weight of their experience in deciding what and how to implement. Arguably, they were approaching policy implementation with their character as well as with their heads. An important paradox is that complying with policy dictates simply for the sake of compliance risks undermining outcomes for schools and school leaders' sense of agency, although filtering policy implementation is itself an exercise in personal agency.

Political Environment and Educational Policy

As discussed above, those tasked with developing educational policies and those tasked with implementing them do not always see eye to eye. Miliband (2003) described policy-makers and school leaders as the motor of progress or its handbrake. Bell and Stevenson (2006, p. 44) point out that "[T]he tools of policy are of course not value neutral, and the way in which particular policies are enacted in particular contexts is intensely political … policies cannot be disconnected from the socio-political environment within which they are framed". These arguments highlight several tensions in the relationship between policy-makers and policy implementers. First, events in the international and national political environments underpin educational policy development. Second, the motivation for a policy, its aims and content, may not (always) be clear to those tasked with implementing it. Third, successful policy implementation requires trust between policy-makers and policy implementers. Bell and Stevenson (2006, p. 44) ask, "How does state policy manifest itself?" The answer to this important question is not straightforward. However, the view that political actors can and do

make leadership challenging for schools and school leaders, through educational policy content and objectives, was sustained by several school leaders in this study.

> *There is the negative or downside to policy where power and politics often determine the dominant voice(s) to be heard as well as how the policy should be enacted. This rhetoric I often observe is not based on adequate philosophical assessment or empirical data hence frequently produce some undesired outcomes*. (Montserrat, 1M)

The nature and process of policy are essential structures that guide the practice of school leadership. These are there not only to guide but also to help school leaders develop their own leadership effectiveness. To increase the likelihood of buy-in from school leaders, educational policies must not appear to undermine the purpose of education or take for granted those who are tasked with implementing them. As national economic goals become more centrally located within educational policies, the smaller and more immediate goals of schools ought not be overlooked. The accounts provided by school leaders highlight "theoretical and perspectival and ethical challenges" that need further consideration, as well as "the values and commitments of organisations and actors" (Ball et al., 2011, p. 52). Furthermore, as Eacott (2011) has so aptly characterised, the current educational policy context is steadily leading to "the cultural re-engineering of school leadership and the embedding of performativity in the leaders' soul" (p. 47).

> *It would be naïve to say that policy has no effect on what we do as leaders, but essentially the issues faced day to day in school are to do with the government and its handling of education*. (England, 10F)
>
> *Policy drives too much … which wouldn't matter if they didn't constantly change and if they were grounded in moral values. Current policies around accountability measures and the curriculum are particularly challenging*. (England, 7F)

The external policy environment of a school is important for its effectiveness, productivity and accountability. Educational policies can go a

long way in guiding a school towards achieving its objectives and towards contributing to national imperatives. Furthermore, as policies are not value neutral, they bring into sharp focus tensions that occur between school leaders and policy objectives, as well as how these tensions can and do impact the practice of school leadership. School leaders in England describe how a changing national educational policy environment has taken them in directions they would not have otherwise gone, and how managing conflicting policy agendas has become part of their daily lives. School leaders also describe as distracting the pressures placed upon them due to events in the national educational policy environment.

> *The policy environment of schools cannot be ignored. Currently in the English system, the push for increased standards with the threat of academisation has pushed many headteachers in a direction they may otherwise not have taken had it not been for the prevailing governmental policy*. (England, 3M)
>
> *There has been a move through 'academisation' in England to give schools 'freedoms'; however these freedoms are few and far between. Central government and, to an extent, OFSTED policies severely impact what you need to do in schools. The current 'high stakes' system in England means that central policy drives an awful lot that happens in schools at the moment*. (England, 2M)
>
> *School leaders continually tread the balance between policy dictates and remaining true to their own and generally accepted educational philosophy. Change through policy is a daily reality in the current target led educational context, a pressing reality for leaders*. (England, 9M)

As discussed elsewhere in this chapter, increasingly the primary goal of national educational policy is economic transformation. In making economic outcomes the primary objective of schooling/education, the authority of the national state is legitimised, as well as the market as a regulatory mechanism, leading to a disregard of the authority of school leaders. Although Habermas (1976) portrays increasing state intervention as necessary to mitigate the contradictions inherent within capitalist modes of thinking, the precise nature of such interventions is a matter for government, in whose gift is the power to deploy a range of

strategies in attempting to secure compliance and/or change (Simmons & Smyth, 2016). School leaders are united in their concern that government intervention in education has become much more pronounced, too economically focused and increasingly unclear, as policy-makers having seemingly reduced schooling/education to a mostly economic function, and school leadership to "a purely instrumental, tactical, administrative exercise" (Plant, 1982, p. 348). It appears, however, that existing approaches to policy-making by national governments are leading to and can lead to motivational crises among school leaders, which can place schools at risk of not achieving important objectives.

Evidence Summary

With respect to school leadership being "policy driven and mediated":

- School leaders felt that at times they were being "driven" instead of being "led" by policies, where being "driven" by policies is about having to implement several, often conflicting, policies simultaneously;
- Although all school leaders, at times, challenged the content and implementation of policies, male school leaders were more likely to challenge;
- Female school leaders were more likely to implement policies without challenge as they saw that as important to building or nurturing relationships (confirming earlier research by Eagly and Koenig (2006) that female school leaders tend to exemplify more communal qualities);
- School leaders in Europe, especially in Cyprus, showed a greater degree of agency (resistance) in mediating policies, and school leaders in England showed the highest degree of frustration with educational policies (perhaps due to ongoing events in the national economic and political environments);
- School leaders in developing countries were more likely to adopt a filtered approach to policy implementation.

Characteristics of policy driven and mediated school leadership include:

consistency, standards
direction, focus
accountability, transparency
objectivity, fairness
confusion, conflicts
environmental awareness
economic and social transformation

Making Sense of It All

Schools are at the core of ongoing changes initiated and led by events in the supranational and national educational policy environments. As a result, the approach to leadership and how school leaders experience leadership are shaped decisively by events well beyond their schools. Although national educational policy dictates are influenced by and can be overturned by events in the supranational environment, national educational policy agendas often, although not exclusively, emanate from supranational policies. This interlocking relationship underlines "a web of reciprocal references … the worldwide universalisation of educational ideas, models, standards, and options of reform" (Schriewer, 2000, p. 334). The reality of this interlocking relationship where events in the supranational influence and direct events in the national confirms that the policy-making process is dynamic, based on "an ever-evolving pattern of relationships … between constituent parts" (Bell & Stevenson, 2006, p. 4).

How can school leaders become more effective? How can school leaders become more accountable? How can school leaders improve outcomes for students? Although reductionist, these are some of the questions which have dominated recent and ongoing debates on school leadership and educational policy. Nevertheless, these are only a few of the questions that school leaders grapple with regularly in trying to provide students with the knowledge and skills they need for their

flourishing. Schools operate in two broad policy environments, the internal and the external, "both of which can be as volatile as they are unpredictable" (Miller, 2016, p. 81). Educational policies are both products and processes (Taylor, Rizvi, Lingard & Henry, 1997), and therefore, by nature, neither policy-making nor policy implementation is straightforward. Consequently, privileging of policy-making over policy implementation risks alienating school leaders who have responsibility for implementing educational policies, thus *leading* national economic and social transformation.

A national educational policy environment has the potential to force individual school leaders towards site-based interpretation and policy implementation. Although school leaders are to be commended for exercising personal agency and filtering policies in ways that reflect the ability of their school context to cope and to deliver associated directives, the continued exercise of discretion could undermine the ability of school leaders to exercise sound judgement—a salient ingredient in successful leadership. As educational policies are shaped and reshaped until the point of implementation (Bowe et al., 1992), to ameliorate this risk, national governments could draw on the experience and field expertise of school leaders in policy-making, and provide greater support to schools at policy implementation, in particular those schools that have special characteristics and circumstances.

Bell and Stevenson (2006) argue that those working in schools should be able make sense of their national policy context since policy agendas demand they are able to respond to and implement policy directives. School leaders, in particular, have a particular responsibility since they are a buffer between a school's internal policy environment and its external policy environment (comprising the national and supranational).

School leaders are responsible for making key decisions related to the interpretation and implementation of external policy agendas at the school level, and these decisions are usually influenced by a "complex mix of factors including personal values, available resources and stakeholder power and perceptions" (Bell & Stevenson, 2006, p. 8). Being able to anticipate and understand events in a school's external policy environment, the meaning, purpose and resource requirement of these events is an important leadership quality. Drawing on Tooley (1993), this chapter

concludes that "education is an (impure) public good, in the economist's sense, but that conclusion alone does not tell us whether or not markets, internal or free, are appropriate mechanisms for educational provision" (p. 121).

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4

School Leadership Is Change Oriented

Introduction

Globally, nation states have become more competitive as they jostle to reach or attain a higher position in international league tables and arguably to demonstrate to other nations that their citizens are prospering and/or enjoy a good standard of living. Similarly, national education systems, globally, have also become more competitive due, primarily, to the fact that as new countries enter international league tables, old players will fall off or have fallen off, leading to increased demands upon schools and

The purpose of education is to educate people to be better, and in this way the community and the whole society gets better. Education which doesn't have its impact on people and changes in society as a whole is not a successful one. We always have to move on, to make a difference at school and to the community we belong. The change starts with the first circle, as an individual then heads to the second level, as a community and then the whole society. (Israel, 3F)

Leadership is change. In the constant search for excellence we use research evidence and good practice found locally and internationally to help shape our practice in school. Even when we have things running smoothly, we challenge ourselves to see what can be changed to make things even better. Of course in school we also have the demands of the changing cohorts of children—what works for one year/period of time may not work in a similar way due to the change of pupils. In inner city schools, where the makeup of the students can change quickly, there is a greater requirement to be agile and responsive to the community. (England, 3M)

P. W. Miller, *The Nature of School Leadership*, Intercultural Studies in Education,
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those who study and work in them. Furthermore, with the failure of national governments, education and schools, when they are not being blamed for these failures, they are (being) elevated to the status of panacea to political failures and restorers of national economic fortunes.

Competitive forces operating at supranational and national levels have positioned schools and school leaders at the forefront and at the centre of global and national change agendas. Greater demands and expectations are being placed on schools and school leaders, and never before in modern history has education and schooling been required to play such an important role in transforming the fortunes of individual nation states. Furthermore, never before in modern history has education and schooling been perceived as having such significance in national change agendas.

Education is about change and transformation, for individuals and society. Individuals cannot survive without society and nor can society thrive without individuals. The relationship between the individual and society is characterised by a high degree of interdependence, and is a relationship controlled by a national state. A national state determines the content of teacher education, the subjects of which make up a national or an agreed curriculum, the context for schooling in a country, the context for business and industry, and therefore what skills are to be acquired by students. As suggested by Lawton (2004), education "refers to those activities that promote the kind of learning that is picked out by society as worthwhile" (p. 56). The actions of national governments are therefore very much related to the role they perceive education plays and can play, for individuals and national societies, and in particular for helping national societies to (be more likely to) achieve competitive advantage in an increasingly globalised space.

Education, schooling and school leadership are about change. And never before in the modern history of humanity has the responsibility for individual, community and societal change been more firmly placed in the hands of so few: school leaders. Put differently, school leaders are important in assisting and supporting governments and nation states in achieving change agendas within and outside education. As a result, schools have become sites of change for the individual learner, communities and national societies. This important interlocking relationship starts at school, with teachers and school leaders, who have responsibility for

providing students with knowledge and supporting their skills development, as determined by a national government.

The Issue in Context: The Role and Purpose of Education

To better understand and appreciate the function of education in individual, community and societal change agendas, it makes sense for us to consider the role of education as set out in international law. Articles 28 and 29 of the UN Convention of the Rights of the Child (UNCRC, 1989) speak to the right to education. Whereas Article 28 requires "States Parties [to] recognise the right of the child to education", Article 29 describes the aims, objectives, type and quality of education a child should receive. According to Article 29, States Parties agree that education shall be directed towards the:

- development of the child's personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential;
- development of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, and for the principles enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations;
- development of respect for the child's parents, his or her own cultural identity, language and values, for the national values of the country in which the child is living, the country from which he or she may originate, and for civilisations different from his or her own;
- preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes, and friendship among all peoples, ethnic, national and religious groups and persons of indigenous origin;
- development of respect for the natural environment.

Since, however, it is the responsibility and purview of each nation state to determine if, how, in what ways and in what order these rights can be guaranteed, governments will usually deploy context specific interpretations of the meanings of and how best to guarantee these

rights. A fundamental premise of education, however, is change. That is, through education, individuals can and should change, the outcomes of which should be towards the overall good of a national society. I draw attention to the fact that, as set out in international law, the provision of education to citizens has no explicit link with achieving national economic fortunes. This link, however, has been made by national governments all over the world and has become a guiding philosophy for many. Papadopoulous (1998) describes the purpose of education as all-embracing, and having multiple purposes, including the promotion of:

- Economic prosperity
- Employment
- Scientific and technological progress
- Cultural validity
- Social progress and equality
- Democratic principles, and
- Individual success

Gregory (2002) states that the purpose of education is to equip minds to make sense of the physical, social and cultural worlds. Peters (1996) notes that the term 'education' denotes an "intention to transmit", in a "morally acceptable" way, something considered useful. Additionally, Hirst (1965) suggests that education has value for an individual because it fulfils the mind rather than utilitarian needs. Wittgenstein (1953) conceptualises education as developing expertise in various "language-games", underlining the fact that "to engage education is indeed to be involved in a social process of meaning making" (Sewell & Newman, 2007, p. 7).

Education/Schooling-Transforming Individuals

Education has a fundamental and functional role to play in any national society. It is a vehicle for trade, economic cooperation, social transformation, and the promotion of national and culturally accepted values. Education also has a role in the lives of individuals, equipping them with

knowledge, skills and attributes for their functioning in society. As such, national governments have tended to regard education as a tool that has a dual role of promoting social mobility and driving economic growth. Although not explicit, Brighouse (2006) suggests education has an economic role to play for individuals, arguing, "the central purpose of education is to promote human flourishing" (p. 42). An outcome of this implied economic role of education produces a situation where the entire work of schools and school leaders revolves around how they can best prepare and equip students to contribute to economic transformation and not how they prepare students to function, broadly, in society. However, the view that promotes education as a tool for economic growth has been strongly criticised. Woolf (2000) argues, "our preoccupation with education as an engine of growth has … narrowed—dismally and progressively—our vision of education itself" (p. 254). Highlighting how national economic agendas have steadily dominated curricula and other educational reforms, Fink (2001) argues, "There is … not a great deal of room in most of the test-driven reform agendas internationally for pupils to construct knowledge, and to demonstrate their creativity, imagination and innovativeness" (p. 232).

Two former British prime ministers in separate speeches have provided insights into their views on the role of education, with Gordon Brown proposing, "It is education which provides the rungs on the ladder of social mobility" (Brown, 2010) and David Cameron proposing, "Without good education there can be no social justice" (Cameron, 2007). These views bring into sharp focus the role of education in reducing inequality, although as Brighouse (2006) cautions, schools "should orient themselves to the needs of the children who will have to deal with the economy, and not to the needs of the economy itself" (p. 28). Brighouse also states that the education provided to students should enable them to:

- become "autonomous, self-governing adults" (p. 131);
- become economically self-reliant;
- "lead flourishing lives" (p. 42);
- become "responsible, deliberative citizens who are capable of accepting the demands of justice and abiding by the norm of reciprocity" (p. 131).

Whether or not we agree with the economic focus that has dominated global and national educational policy agendas, there is recognition that the role of education and schooling in transforming individuals is central to human flourishing and to their leading autonomous self-governing lives. This underlines the critical role of school leaders in ensuring that students, regardless of gender, race/ethnicity, social class and/or any other characteristics, are given the best educational experience possible, as well as the best possible opportunities to succeed and to fulfil their potential.

Education/Schooling-Transforming National Development

As discussed above, education has an important role to play in national economic and social development. As we already know, education is a public good, which should be made accessible to everyone in a country in equal measure and with the same rights and privileges. Education is also a merit good, which means its role and value does not end with schooling. Rather the knowledge gained through schooling has a role to play in advancing society through crime and unemployment reduction, revenue generation and increasing a country's gross domestic product (GDP).

The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) has provided evidence that effective school leadership is essential to improving the overall efficiency and quality of education provided by schools and contributing to national economic development (OECD, 2005). Further, the World Bank also states that "Education is critical for economic growth and poverty reduction" and that "[i]nvestment in education contributes to the accumulation of human capital, which is essential for higher incomes and sustained economic growth" (1995, p. 1). Lucas (1993) also argues that "[t]he main engine of growth is the accumulation of human capital—of knowledge—and the main source of differences in living standards among nations is differences in human capital" (p. 270). Furthermore, recent studies (see, for example, Bosworth & Collins, 2003; Rivera-Batiz, 2007) have found a positive relationship between increased educational attainment and economic growth—a

relationship that national governments are trying to exploit through schooling—especially in light of ongoing competition in the global economic and educational environments. The focus of supranational agencies and national governments on education as a primary solution to ongoing economic problems prompted Miller (2016) to argue that "the road to national economic development starts at the gate of a school" (p. 147).

The Value of Education

In his **economic-motor model of schooling**, Miller (2016) states that education may be characterised as the engine that enables individuals and societies to thrive, as well as the tools used by individuals and society in their thriving. This view of education regards education as a process and as a product. As a process, education is an activity to be engaged in, and as a product, education is the outcome derived from engaging in the process of education. This suggests that education is not an end in itself, but rather a means by which and through individuals, communities and societies may transform and be transformed.

Professionals, including accountants, scientists, engineers, lawyers, nurses and teachers, are the products of an educational system. To maintain international competitiveness and to deliver services such as healthcare and teaching, it is the responsibility of national governments to ensure education is available in good supply and at the desired level of quality. This is especially important since the more skilled individuals there are available to a workforce, the more productive a country is likely to be, if the available skills are appropriately utilised. Furthermore, as Lee (1999) states, "Human capital is considered one of the major factors in explaining … economic growth" (p. 16). National governments are therefore very much interested in students receiving an education since this increases their chances of individual success, simultaneously reducing the likelihood of dependency on the state, which also increases the likelihood of greater contribution to national economic development through direct employment and taxation (Schultz, 1963).

The Evidence

There is an interlocking relationship between the aims, objectives and outcomes of education in relation to individuals, communities and societies. This relationship asserts that, *ceteris paribus*, an individual who receives education will in turn share this education and its benefits with persons in his/her family and local community, who will in turn share the knowledge, skills and benefits onwards, thus creating a multiplier effect for society.

No reasonable person would disagree with these assumptions, for education provides an individual with the power of knowledge to lead and create change. This is true both of individuals and of societies, since the more educated the citizens of a country are, the less likely they are to depend on a national state for financial support and the more likely they are to contribute to national economic fortunes. Put differently, education is a tool that brings change to the behaviour and fortunes of individuals and societies.

This view of education is an instrumental one, forged in the context of a market culture where education is a means to an end and not an end in itself. Davies and Edwards (2001) suggest "the overwhelming imperative [of government] is to recast education primarily, if not exclusively, as an instrumental means of ensuring economic success in an increasingly competitive global market" (p. 104) where students are seen less as social agents and more as economic agents. This instrumental view of education that dominates international and national educational policy agendas has fuelled recent and current constructions of the role of schools and schooling.

Change Starts with Schools

Before schools can lead change, it may be necessary for them to, as appropriate, change processes, design, curricula, staffing structures and so on. The work of schools is as dynamic as it is complex and, through self and external evaluation, changes are necessary for them to improve operations

and fulfil their purpose. Schools and schooling are essentially about change, and schools cannot lead successful change unless they first recognise their own need for change and engage in change. A school that considers itself to be static or "beyond change" has arguably failed or is at significant risk of failure. However, schools that embrace their transformative roles are those that will change structures and processes, in response to environmental factors, as a means to increasing the likelihood that they will be in a better position to prepare students for life through skills development and knowledge acquisition.

> *Even the most successful school cannot stand still if it is to continue to be successful*. (England, 10F)
>
> *There can be no growth if there is no change*. (South Africa, 6F)
>
> *Change is an essential part of school improvement*. (England, 9M)

The link between meeting the needs of students and improvements to processes and systems at the school level is an important one. Before schools can lead successful change they must prepare themselves to lead this change, and in preparing to lead this change, it may be necessary for them to change, for example, staffing, curricula, timetabling and class scheduling, extra-curricular and enrichment activities, relationship with parents and the local community, and the approach to leadership. This is not an exhaustive list.

> *A school is a community. No community remains static. Teaching strategies, community engagement, and teaching resources—all need to be constantly under review so that the best practices are in place to meet the constantly changing needs of our students*. (Canada, 1F)
>
> *The school must be relevant to the community it serves. We should adapt the curriculum to teach 21st century skills that will better prepare our students for life in society*. (Antigua, 1F)

Different social, political and cultural groups directly and indirectly influence the work of schools. Furthermore, schools reflect the values of those groups which support and/or those agencies that control education. These constraints and levers once more highlight the fact that school

leadership is a boundaried activity, whilst also playing a major role in shaping the work of schools. Independently, and with support from education inspectorates, education ministries and departments, and other responsible agencies of the state, schools engage in self-assessment, self-regulation and benchmarking activities in trying to improve processes and increase outcomes for students.

Change at the Level of an Individual

The most important job of a school is changing the lives of students, and one of the guiding principles of school leadership is bringing about change in each member of a school community. Although there are different ways of measuring how education may change an individual student, it is understood and accepted that schools which take students closer towards achieving (and in some cases surpassing) national and personal learning goals have, arguably, fulfilled their most important objective.

> *There is no point having school without directing our efforts towards improving the lives of students*. (South Africa, 1F)
>
> *The primary purpose of schools and schooling is change. What would be the point of schools and schooling if students did not leave school more equipped, more aware, in a better overall position than when they came in?* (Guyana, 2M)

"Broadening the horizon of students", "developing capacity in students", "providing students with good conditions for learning" and "contributing to moulding lives" were particular aims that school leaders associated with their role and with schooling. Patil (2012) describes education as a tool for creating social change, which underlines the fact that education is a key socialising agent, which is necessary for equipping individuals with knowledge and skills. This observation also acknowledges that school leaders are in a fiduciary relationship with each individual student and a national state—in which decisions made or actions taken can have serious benefits or consequences.

Change at the Level of Community/Society

Change at the individual level is not the only change schools are expected and required to lead. According to Fullan (2001), there is a "need to put education at the heart of a wider approach to social and economic renewal" (p. 235). Once more, this highlights the important role of schools/schooling in leading transformation that extends beyond individual students/schools. This interlocking and complex relationship is characterised by school leaders.

> *Schools have an important role in society as they have to work with the children who will be the leaders of tomorrow*. (Cyprus, 2F)

The importance of preparing a local school community for change by involving and including them in school change agendas was also reinforced. There were strategic and pragmatic reasons for this. First, involving a community in school change agendas was seen as a strategic decision towards long-term alliance and partnership building/maintenance (see Chap. 7). Second, practical benefits were also believed to be associated with involving school communities in change agendas, such as leveraging "immediate support", reducing the likelihood of resistance and increasing the likelihood of buy-in/support.

Bell and Stevenson (2006) suggest that those who work in schools need to be aware of events in the external policy environment in order to be able to respond to changes to the structure of schooling brought on by these events. This view underpins the fact that, to be successful, school leadership is about service to the many and not the few, and the fact that the provision or the content of education does not arise as a response to the needs of individuals, but rather as a response to the needs of a society (of which the individual is a member). Attention is once more drawn to the fact that education provides knowledge and skills, increases individual and collective capacities, and is at the centre of social and economic transformation. The relationship between levels of education, income and health is well documented, and with this has come increased global and national interest in the role of education and schooling in improving the fortunes of society and the quality of life for individuals.

Change and Resistance

Leadership has been described as change, and the very essence of school leadership is change. Yet, leading change is among the least straightforward tasks of leadership, for although school leaders exert substantial influence over staff and students, leading successful change can be an emotionally and physically taxing experience. By necessity, change requires some degree of caution and leading successful change is not a quick fix. For, despite the "palpable energy, enthusiasm, and hope" (Fullan, 2002, p. 17) among school leaders, there was also a palpable awareness and a gritty consciousness that successful change at school is not likely without the psychological readiness of their school, nor without material, financial, human resources and other forms of support from key stakeholders, in particular governments, parents, teachers and students.

Change is a process, it's not an event, a one off. (England, 6M)

Achieving change is hard work, especially when there are opposers. (Guyana, 1M)

To achieve change, the leader has to inspire; sell their vision and get buy-in. Inclusivity of stakeholder is crucial to change happening. (South Africa, 5M)

Collins (2001) describes an effective leader as one who "catalyzes commitment to a compelling vision and higher performance standards", and who, by going beyond performance standards, "builds enduring greatness" (p. 20). Fullan (2002) emphasises that school leaders who lead successful change are attuned to the big picture, are sophisticated conceptual thinkers, and transform their school through people and teams. There is no denying these are important characteristics. However, change agendas that do not take sufficient notice of local, contextual institutional realities risk ending in failure. Those responsible for leading change agendas therefore need to communicate, in clear and specific terms, change intents and likely benefits to those expected to implement and experience such changes, recognising that resistance may not simply be a micro-political activity but also an opportunity to closely re-examine the actual content of change agendas.

Change and the Policy Environment

At some point or another, the failure of many change agendas in education has been blamed on what goes on in schools. Constant changes in a national policy environment will affect each school/school leader differently, and their ability to respond to these changes will be influenced by a variety of factors, including a school's short- or long-term objectives, resource issues or an overall sense of (under) preparedness.

> *Change is good and I believe in constantly reflecting on practice which leads to 'tweaking' and revising practice for the benefit of the students. However, constant, imposed change, where the implications are not thought through, is severely testing for leaders in schools*. (England, 7F)
>
> *Change should not take place for change's sake but because it is necessary. Change should be managed carefully in order for transition from one way of working to another to be seamless in the community*. (England, 4F)

Constantly imposed change, and change agendas that did not appear to support how schools operate or their preparedness to deliver change agendas, was particularly frustrating for school leaders. To be clear, school leaders were in no doubt that the primary function of their role is leading change for the good of individuals and societies. However, school leaders were anxious that externally imposed change agendas could compromise their work and that of their schools. School leaders in England felt particularly concerned that the current educational policy environment was a major distraction, requiring them, almost daily, to use what Suchman called 'workarounds' (1995, p. 575) in order to balance externally imposed demands against the objectives of their schools and remain true to their moral purpose.

This situation presents a real conundrum. The change school leaders want to bring about for students and school communities can be put at risk by the actions of those operating in a national educational policy environment—the very environment that has regulatory and support responsibilities for their roles. Bell and Stevenson (2006) point out that educational policies are not value neutral. This presents

another dilemma for school leaders who must act in the interest of students and their families, in line with the dictates of a national state. A fundamental question arises from this dilemma: "In whose interests are government change agendas in education developed?" Cynics may suggest these agendas are developed and designed with governments in mind, aimed at protecting their legacies and diverting attention from previous or existing shortcomings. Others may be less certain, for whereas they can assume in whose interests (students) educational policy agendas should be developed, this has not always been proven to be the case.

> *As a Headteacher you need to build a school environment that you think is the best for your students. If you take over a school in difficulty then there will need to be significant change. As a result of constant 'changes' from central government there is also the need to manage change regularly (new examinations/accountability measures etc.). This can be very distracting.* (England, 2M)
>
> *Much of what school leaders do is dependent on change and transformation. Again, this can be in response to a set of external factors, which is prevalent in the UK at the moment. However, if changes within schools are to meet the needs of students the external changes need to slow down.* (England, 1F)

Schools are sites of change, and despite challenges foisted upon them by events in a national policy environment, schools will always attempt to fulfil their purpose. Events in a national educational policy context can challenge a school's ability to deliver its objectives to students and families, and can create confusion, divide resources and time, increase pressure and lead to distraction. School leaders from England sustained this view. There was a sense that due to significant and ongoing educational policy changes, some existing interventions are under threat of derailment due to the pace and speed of policy-making and implementation. School leaders asserted that a national educational policy environment can bring national education to "mayhem" instead of (the) coherence and clarity (it needs to thrive).

Evidence Summary

With respect to school leadership is "change oriented":

- All school leaders very much valued and treated education/schooling as a tool for change;
- Both male and female school leaders also showed a strong degree of personal and internal motivation towards change;
- Female school leaders focused more on change to individuals and institutions whereas male school leaders appear to focus more on changes at system level;
- School leaders in England, Jamaica and Israel expressed frustration with the speed of policy-making and implementation, which they felt was having a negative effect on their work and the ambitions they have for their schools.

Characteristics of change oriented school leadership include:

dynamism, openness
adaptability, flexibility
environmental awareness
focus, purpose
commitment, clarity of purpose
emotional intelligence
political savvy
grit, determination
student centredness

Making Sense of It All

Students are at the heart of school leadership, and school leadership is change. Schools are set up to lead change in society through the provision of an education to students. Northouse's (2016) and Bush's (2010) definitions of leadership as influence underline this fact. Furthermore, in his economic-motor model of schooling, Miller (2016) highlights the fundamental duty of school leaders to lead change. There is a direct

relationship between the policies of government, change required/demanded and the different "parts" of an education system. Miller (2016, p. 147) notes:

- economic growth (or development), the primary outcome of education;
- education, the engine (or tool) of economic growth;
- government, the owner and narrator of educational policies;
- technocrats and policy officials are policy dispensers;
- educational policies are fuel and/or a roadmap;
- school principals are drivers;
- teachers are mechanics; and
- students are the parts of a vehicle (in need of/being provided an education).

Although primarily focused on how education is used as a tool for national economic development, at the heart of Miller's model is what schools and schooling are about: change. That is, through a process of education, students are provided with an array of knowledge and develop a range of skills that enable them to lead successful lives and contribute to the overall development of society. All this is made possible by a national government that guides the work of teachers and school leaders through policies it develops. This important relationship between national economic outcomes, school leadership schools, teachers and students is at the crux of the educational enterprise, reconfirming the role of education as a transformative tool and agent of change.

This important relationship is also visible in the fact that the educational system of a national society is directly related to its total social system. In other words, an education system is a sub-system that performs certain functions for the effective function of the larger national social system. The goals and needs of the wider national social system are reflected in the functions it lays down for an educational system and in how the educational system is structured and resourced to fulfil the functions required of it. In a static society, the main function of an educational system may be to transmit cultural values to children and youth.

However, in a changing society, the functions of an education system change from generation to generation and the educational system in such a society must not only transmit cultural values, but also assist with the preparation and development of children and youth for successful integration into society. This recognition underpins the practice and consciousness of school leaders, which is manifested in their own willingness to change, as well as their commitment to changing processes, policies and systems at school as necessary in order to more effectively lead and deliver school-wide change. However, schools sometimes struggle with the complexity of change brought on by events in their external environment. This is not a new occurrence. Moore (1974) observed, "The proportion of change that is either planned or issues from the secondary consequences of deliberate innovations is much higher than in former times" (p. 2).

Globally, national governments have a great interest in achieving more from education, whilst acknowledging that education is a major factor in a nation's competitiveness. This issue is common to both developed and developing countries regardless of their stage of development. Thus, education and schooling have an additional function of helping a nation to establish its identity. The relationship between education, an education system and society is therefore a mutual one where, sometimes, society prompts changes in education/an education system, although at other times, education/an education system can prompt changes in the society.

One should, however, exercise great caution in how the relationship between those required to "drive" change (school leaders), those who dispense policies (technocrats) and those who are owners of national policy agendas (governments) is construed. Torrington and Weightman (1989) note that the "extraordinary centrality" and "almost universal focus" on the job of a school leader is evidenced "in the continuing statements of politicians" (p. 135), which have often included blaming and shaming (MacGilchrist, 2003). Tyack and Cuban (1995, p. 14) also caution that schools and school leaders can easily shift "from panacea to scapegoat", a point accentuated by Menter et al. (1995, p. 311), who suggest school leaders sometimes "carry the can", as they are "sometimes the … Aunt Sally, a scapegoat" (Jones, 1987, p. 152).

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5

School Leadership Is Teacher Dependent

Introduction

School leadership is a collective endeavour, and no two partners are more crucial to the success of students than teachers and school leaders. School leaders, no matter who they are, no matter their experience, motivation or skill level, cannot deliver the national or a school's objectives for education without teachers. Teachers are the lifeblood of an education system, without whom nearly all the educational aims and objectives for society and for individuals would not be realised. Student learning is influenced by a variety of factors, including, for example, students' skills, expectations, motivation and attitudes; family circumstances; support available; peer group skills, school context, resources and climate; curriculum structure and content; and teacher skills, knowledge, attitudes and practices. Schools and classrooms are complex, dynamic environments, and identifying the effects of these varied factors, and how they influence and relate

Teachers are the wheel of a school. Without them, it is not possible to run a school. (Pakistan, 4F)

Teachers are the most valuable resource we have. What they do in the classroom, day after day, is to be marvelled at and respected. The best teachers are again those with strong moral purpose—fortunately this is most. (England, 7F)

P. W. Miller, *The Nature of School Leadership*, Intercultural Studies in Education,
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to each other—for different types of students and different types of learning—remains a major theme in educational research (OECD, 2005).

There is broad consensus that teachers are the single most important school factor influencing student learning. Second to the role of teachers is that of school leaders and what they to do to create and shape the context for learning and teaching. The important partnership between teachers and school leaders has been researched and debated for centuries, and is arguably the most essential partnership in the entire educational enterprise—built on a shared understanding of what education and schooling are about, and the part they each have to play in fulfilling this purpose. In his economic-motor model of schooling, Miller (2016) describes school leaders as the "drivers" of an education system, and teachers as the "mechanics" (p. 147). This metaphor alerts us to an essential and interdependent partnership between school leaders and teachers, where school leaders are responsible for crafting a school's overall strategy in meeting its/national objectives and where teachers are responsible for the delivery of the actual strategy through their day-to-day work with students.

Especially over the past two decades, the demands on schools and teachers have become more complex and exacting. Schools must deal with the multiple backgrounds of and languages spoken by students, show sensitivity to gender and cultural differences, promote tolerance and social cohesion, respond effectively to disadvantaged students and students with learning or behavioural needs, use new technologies, and keep up with rapid developments in educational knowledge, practice and policy. Teachers therefore have to be available in good quality and appropriate numbers to prepare students for contributing to a national society and economy (OECD, 2005) and beyond through skills and talent development and knowledge acquisition. The relationship between teacher supply, teacher quality and school outcomes is an important issue that affects countries in very different ways and at different times, and in the main, national governments attempt to address these issues in trying to secure education's promise to students and to society.

Performativity agendas have become much more firmly embedded in national education systems, and with this has come county-to-country and school-to-school competition. As a result, teachers' work in schools

has ballooned with teachers taking on several additional roles and tasks. Although not always acknowledged for their role outside the classroom, and although often criticised for their role inside the classroom, teachers play a significant role in the success of schools, and not just in the classroom, and they are foundational to the provision of education as well as to the stability and continuity of that provision. Despite this, however, Hargreaves (2003) found that many teachers were feeling "demeaned", "degraded", "unfairly criticised", and "sick and tired" of being asked to justify their existence, of "constant government put downs" of suggestions they were "poisoning young minds" and of government mandates to "slander and deprofessionalise" them.

The Issue in Context: The Work of Teachers

Although leadership practices differ significantly between cultures and national education systems, there is increased recognition that school leadership, as a shared activity or collective endeavour, is a necessary response to external pressures and internal organisational needs. Teachers do and can provide important scaffolding for school leaders and custodianship of teaching and learning. With more schools leveraging the experience and skills of teachers to increase their overall performance and therefore outcomes for students, the important role played by teachers both within and outside the classroom has taken on greater significance. Until recently, there was a tendency to see a teacher's work as essentially and primarily classroom based. This erroneous and limiting view did not sufficiently account for the myriad of non-classroom-based roles and activities teachers perform daily in order to keep their schools afloat.

Schools are sites of learning and change, and the work of teachers is essential in any national society in helping to secure broad social and/or economic transformation. Teachers are responsible for providing students with the tools (knowledge) and helping them develop the skills they need to lead independent and successful lives and to contribute to national development. The knowledge and skills teachers must provide and the skills they must help students develop are, in many cases, determined by a national government and reflect a strong relationship with a country's

future development ambitions. These demands position teachers and their work as central to national economic and social transformation agendas, underlining Miller's (2016) description of teachers as "mechanics"—not only possessing the ability to "fix things" but also possessing skills, knowledge and experience to build and develop.

Teachers work in partnership with each other and with other professionals within and outside schools/education to support students and to increase the likelihood of more appropriately and more adequately responding to the unique and varied needs of students. Harrison and Killion (2007) identify ten roles performed by teachers in supporting school leaders, and in supporting a school's overall objectives and mission:

- Resource provider—develops and shares instructional resources and materials with students and other colleagues.
- Instructional specialist—helps other colleagues implement effective teaching and classroom strategies such as ideas for differentiating instruction or lesson planning.
- Curriculum specialist—understands content standards and the different parts of a work together; uses the curriculum in planning instruction and in assessment and leads to implement the adopted curriculum properly.
- Learning mentor—helps teachers implement new ideas, often by demonstrating a lesson, co-teaching, observing and/or providing feedback.
- Learning facilitator—facilitates professional learning opportunities through targeted opportunities and sharing practice.
- Mentor—provides role modelling for teachers, especially newly qualified teachers; and provides advice for teachers about instruction, curriculum, procedure, practices and school culture.
- School leader—serves on and contributes to school committees; acts in suitable roles that may come available; leads and supports school initiatives or represents the school in community or national events.
- Data coach—uses data to drive classroom instruction; engages colleagues in analysing and using data in teaching and learning.

- Catalyst for change—demonstrates a strong personal and professional commitment to improvement to their practice through personal learning and challenge.
- Learner—demonstrates a commitment to continuing professional development and the role that can play in supporting the learning of students.

This is not a complete list, for the work of a teacher is not reducible to a mere list. Teachers bring different levels of expertise and capacity to their work, and support school leaders and therefore school leadership in multiple ways. This chapter makes no distinction between types of work undertaken by teachers, whether classroom or non-classroom based. Rather, this chapter asserts that all work undertaken by teachers goes some way in supporting school leaders in fulfilling the aims, objectives and purpose of a school.

Teachers: Agents of Change

Teachers are agents of change. In many countries across the world, teachers are very highly regarded and respected and are viewed as having the power to change others or at least to influence change in others. Teachers pass on content or subject knowledge to students, but they also inspire and motivate them in other day-to-day interactions. In some countries, in particular small and developing countries, teachers occupy a highly regarded social role and are sometimes "more influential than textbooks as the primary source of information for students" (Kirkwood-Tucker, 1990, p. 111). This transformative role is at the heart of a teacher's work, and all teachers have an ability to contribute to the shaping of the lives of students in very powerful ways. Teachers are known to occupy multiple roles and have been described as facilitator, coach, consultant, counsellor as well as "the helper, the person or group who is attempting to effect change" (Bennis, Benn, Chin & Corey, 1976). Other suggestions concerning a teacher's roles in being a change agent include:

- conveyor of ideas and information
- consultant to students

- trainer in specific skills
- leader of a group of change agents
- innovator of new ideas and practices
- knowledge builder
- practitioner adopting new skills and practices
- knowledge user (Bolam, 1975).

These roles overlap, and a teacher is expected to occupy multiple roles at any one time. This not only points to the current explosion in work intensification within schools, but also to the relative importance of teachers within and outside a classroom setting. Globally, and up to two decades ago, teaching was regarded as more than just another profession or job and the role of teachers was not generally limited to knowledge production and knowledge transmission. Teachers are also seen as "vision creators" who inspire confidence and a positive world-view in students. This is hardly a surprise since a vital part of a teacher's role is challenging students to think and dream big, to pursue their ambitions and to envision a successful future. I draw attention to the fact that in some countries and in some educational contexts, by default, responsibility for helping students to dream big and for helping students to envision a successful future is entirely that of schools/teachers.

At different times during the course of their career, a teacher will provide leadership through spearheading, facilitating, implementing and/or communicating change outcomes or agendas within and outside school (Badley, 1986). These roles have corresponding requirements for teachers to be competent in certain skills in leadership, facilitation and communication, including:

- identifying and isolating problems and tasks
- setting priorities and standards
- making plans and adjusting plans
- allocating work and resources
- deciding appropriate methods
- evaluating performance and assessing change by results
- building team spirit and consulting
- encouraging, motivating, praising, recognising

- listening and summarising
- writing reports and making oral presentations
- suggesting questions rather than answers
- taking risks and going out on a limb
- providing time for discussion
- counselling (not threatening)
- retraining
- changing from the bottom-up (Adair, 1973).

In reality, only few teachers possess all the skills they need to be agents or managers of change. Furthermore, only a limited number of teachers will pursue or receive opportunities to use all the skills they possess. Nevertheless, as described by Hansen (2011), teaching is a "moral practice" (p. 4) and it is this "ethic of care" (Smith, 2011, p. 529) that sets teachers apart from other professionals. As Fullan (1993) states, "scratch a good teacher and you will find a moral purpose" (p. 2). Fullan also describes teachers as individuals with the "skills of change agentry" (p. 2). Teachers have an important responsibility and duty to engage students in various activities directed towards their total development, and they do so by applying critical understandings of education and the process of education. Thus, teachers across the world use the "skills of change agentry" on a daily basis in seeking to contribute to and/or in trying to respond to national change agendas within and outside education.

Distributing Leadership: Teachers Matter

Teachers matter! And as school leaders try to cope with the increasing demands of their day jobs, much more is being demanded of teachers in terms of supporting and complementing the work of school leaders. As global and national societies change due to globalisation, schools also have to change in order to accommodate and serve students from multiple religious, cultural and social backgrounds. Teachers are expected to be aware of and be sensitive to language, gender and sexuality issues; to promote tolerance towards students with learning needs or behavioural problems; and to promote social and community cohesion. These are

some of the current realities of twenty-first-century schooling whether in developed or developing countries, and for many schools, these realities have come to mean that to be effective, approaches to leadership must draw upon the collective capacity of others in order to be in the best position to support all students. Invariably, this means relying less on *only* the formally appointed leader and spreading responsibility for the objectives and missions of a school. Such an approach, according to Harris (2014), involves mobilising leadership expertise at all levels within a school to create more opportunities for change and to build capacity. Furthermore, such an approach promotes *interdependence over independence*, underlining the benefits school leaders can gain by working collaboratively with teachers (and others).

Harris' notion of interdependence over independence is consistent with the primary focus of this chapter. That is, school leadership is a collective endeavour that draws upon and makes use of all available talents and skills in order to produce the best outcomes for students and for schools. Viewed as a collective endeavour, school leadership shuns notions of solo or hero leadership, where school leaders believe themselves to be all-knowing and, on their own, make (all the) decisions for others to follow. Moving from solo or heroic leadership to collaborative or shared leadership is not straightforward or easy. Harris notes that to be effective, shared leadership must:

- be deliberate and planned,
- be based on trust and transparency, and
- recognise expertise over role or years of service/experience.

Sharing leadership or assigning responsibility for tasks based on years of experience/service and/or status and not primarily on expertise is not smart human resource or talent management. This is an area of concern in both developed and developing countries, with research evidence from England and Jamaica confirming that the most appropriately qualified teacher for a job is not always the one who gets it (Miller, 2014). Resolving this issue is beyond the scope of this chapter. Suffice it to say, however, that by sticking to a narrow pool of experience, expertise and skills, school leaders can limit the quality and type of support available, and

therefore the ability of their schools to meet the range of needs of their students.

The evidence for distributed leadership in schools is mixed. However, Harris (2014) argues that a positive relationship exists between distributed leadership, school improvement and student achievement. From his study of Jamaican and English school leaders, Miller (2016) found only limited evidence of genuine distributed leadership by school leaders. For example, he observed that Jamaican school leaders were less likely to distribute leadership, attributable mostly to socio-cultural models of leadership, where the school principal is "the person in charge". On the other hand, English school leaders delegated responsibility for areas of their work they didn't like or that they didn't find interesting, while retaining "tight control" (p. 148). Resolving these particular tensions is beyond the scope of this chapter. However, it is to be expected that where school leadership is approached as a collective endeavour, where school leaders draw on the most appropriate and broadest skill set available to them, there is great potential for this to positively influence outcomes for students and for schools.

Distributing leadership or approaching leadership as a collective endeavour is not a cure for any weakness in a school's external or internal environment. Rather, it is and should be seen as a symbiotic and "joint activity, in which two or more people interact and influence one another" (Hargreaves, 2012, p. 9). Successful school leadership therefore goes beyond a single heroic leader and involves teachers (and others) in decision-making and problem solving and is practised in an environment that combines high levels of personal and professional accountability and integrity, with horizontal and vertical collaboration, and capacity building among teachers and others, at all levels.

The Evidence

Evidence from this 16 nation study of 61 school leaders confirms what the available literature says about the partnership between teachers and school leaders. As discussed earlier in this chapter, and elsewhere in this book, a school leader's approach to leadership is influenced by several

factors in a school's environment. Within a school's internal environment, the partnership between school leaders and teachers is easily the most important and most essential partnership. Furthermore, this partnership is foundational to how schools are able to approach and fulfil their obligations. Put differently, the partnership between a school leader and teachers is a pivotal cornerstone upon which successful schools are led and managed.

School leaders cannot work in isolation from teachers and nor can teachers work in isolation from school leaders. Teachers provide leadership and support to schools/school leaders in several areas of on the ground activities and are the eyes and ears of a school leader at school and in local school communities. Whether focused on activities inside or outside the classroom, the partnership and relationship between school leaders and teachers is based on a shared understanding of the objectives a national state or government state has set for schools and for students, and of the strategies to be used in taking on and delivering these objectives. This interdependent relationship recognises that leadership is a collective endeavour built on trust and ongoing communication between teachers and school leaders through mutual engagement that opens up and shares practices (Hargreaves et al., 2006).

Teachers as Partners

The central role of teachers in education and schooling is sometimes suppressed in discourses about teaching or school effectiveness. Teachers inspire, challenge and motivate students to think, to be critical, and to pursue knowledge and skills that can help them achieve their dreams and lead independent and successful lives. They are accountable to students and their families, school leaders and society. They work independently and with other professionals to fulfil their obligations to their students. In essence, the work of teachers sustains a school and a national education system. School leaders have provided accounts and examples of how teachers take on leadership responsibilities, and how the work of teachers supports them in their role as leaders.

We always believe in partnership between teachers and principal. (Pakistan, 6F)

I lead with my staff every day. (Pakistan, 1F)

I rely on the views of my teachers…. (Cyprus, 7M)

Teachers can either make you or break you…. (Jamaica, 9F)

Research consistently shows that schools are more effective when school leaders and staff work together towards achieving the aims and values of the school, and when school leaders are collaborative in their decision-making and approach to leadership (Sammons, Hillman & Mortimore, 1995). When school leaders rely on and account for the views of staff in decision-making, this shows trust in those views and in the staff. This is both important and practical since school leaders depend on the support of staff to push through their plans and agendas at school on a daily basis. Showing genuine appreciation for the voice and views of teachers and pursuing these views is both pragmatic and strategic, for "[i]t is through the dialectic of human agency and social structure that relations of co-operation, consent, or coercion are actively constructed" (Angus, 1993, p. 87).

School leaders articulate the importance of the partnership between themselves and teachers. Although a school leader is ultimately in charge of a school's decisions and therefore its success or failure, the partnership between school leaders and teachers is one that has an equalising effect on mission, values and purpose. School leadership is conceptualised and actualised as a collective endeavour in which teachers' views matter as much as the views of school leaders in decision-making and in other areas.

Teachers are the ones who have the day-to-day experience with the students. Therefore, we rely upon teachers for vital information in order for us to manage and lead effectively. (Jamaica, 2F)

Working in partnership with teachers is fundamental for the success of school leadership. (Brazil, 1F)

School leadership does not start with school leaders and end with teachers; and school leaders, on their own, cannot provide strong and stable leadership. School leadership is about harnessing the energy, skills

and capacity of teachers and others, and it is in harnessing this use of other voices that schools are likely to find strong and stable leadership, despite events in the external environment.

> *Without cooperation and buy-in from teachers, all your well-crafted plans as a principal will fail.…* (Antigua, 1F)
>
> *It is difficult to run a school as a one man band. It is therefore critical to have the support of staff as they are needed to implement many of the plans developed …. Although there may be dissention among staff, if the majority buys in to a vision, the actions and views of the minority can be kept in check by holding each person accountable and by meticulous documentation whilst continuing to appeal to the minority*. (Jamaica, 4F)

A school is not a one-person band, and as a result, school leadership is not the purview of a single person. As discussed earlier, although school leaders have overall responsibility for a school's strategy and decision-making, school leadership is a collective endeavour among school leaders, teachers and other individuals. Although disagreements between staff and school leaders are not uncommon, and although these can sometimes be viewed as healthy, getting teachers on the leader's side is essential if schools are to benefit from their vast expertise and experience. As Hutton (2014) notes, intensity improves the quality of leadership provided by school leaders. Dissent may therefore have its purpose in strengthening the quality of the partnership between school leaders and teachers since, if carefully managed, this can lead to better and higher quality outcomes for all.

Teachers as Leaders

Constant educational policy changes and increasing demands from national governments have led to work intensification for school leaders. Changes in the supranational and national policy contexts have brought changes to the structure of schools and schooling and to how schools are led and managed. Furthermore, events in the global and national environments such as forced migration are contributing to changes in

how schools are led and managed. The result of these and other changes and demands are contributing to a dismantling of heroic leadership tendencies. Grace (1989) notes, "the culture of individual school leadership, as practised by the individual headteacher is breaking" (p. 203), which, according to Gronn (2003, p. 2), has led to "…distributed forms of leadership practices in schools".

> *Teachers are middle management leaders. Therefore, leaders have to recognise that they play a pivotal part in the success of the school. Leaders who ignore this do so to their detriment, and neglect what is most likely the school's greatest asset*. (Jamaica, 1F)
>
> *Teachers are probably the most important partners of the principal in managing and leading the school through the challenges of change*. (South Africa, 6F)

A key characteristic of leadership is giving recognition to the role and value of others. This means recognising that as a school leader, it is imperative that you will depend on others. We discussed earlier that events in the external environment of schools have led to teachers taking on leadership roles once held by school leaders. I argue here that teachers not only take on leadership roles because of changes in the external environment of schooling but also because, increasingly, school leaders are recognising their own limitations in understanding and responding to issues in a school's internal environment and, as a result, they are reaching out to and tapping into the skills and capacities of teachers. Furthermore, school leaders are welcoming change to their own leadership when confronted by research evidence that solo or heroic leadership approaches are counterproductive to successful school leadership. It is important to clarify, however, that some school leaders share leadership with teachers because they believe it is the right thing to do and not because of events in a school's external environment.

> *Teachers by virtue of their work and position are leaders themselves. There are many benefits to be derived from the school leader drawing on the collective resources that teachers possess, thus resulting in the sharing of responsibilities and accountability across all aspects of the school. The dynamic nature of schools today makes it difficult or even discourages school leaders to operate as*

'heroes'. It is important for me as a leader to identify the skills of teachers and harness their energies so as to positively engage the whole school in learning. (Montserrat, 1M)

The reflections provided by school leaders are poignant affirmations of the fact that teachers matter in school leadership. They also point to school leaders who are interrogating their practice and who are willing to involve staff in decision-making, ideation, solutions generation and strategy development. Recognising teachers as leaders in education and in school leadership is not only practical, but a necessary juxtaposition that pushes back against heroic or solo leadership approaches.

Teachers as Learning Leaders

Teaching is "an ethic of care" (Smith, 2011, p. 529), and the primary role of teachers is to demonstrate this ethic through providing students with the knowledge and skills suitable and necessary for them to lead independent lives. The central role of teachers in teaching and learning has been noted by Miller (2016), who describes teachers as "mechanics" tasked with making an education system and schools work "through delivering the agreed or prescribed curriculum in line with other national and/or international policy guidelines" (p. 147).

The biggest change agents within a school are the teachers themselves. Teaching and learning, the essence of what goes on in the classroom is where change starts. School leadership relies entirely on the teaching body: to work in line with policies, to ensure that students learn etc.—all policies are made real at this point. (England, 1F)

Teachers anchor the delivery of a school's objectives and mission and through their work they engineer the delivery and achievement of agreed upon programmes. They are guided by national and international change agendas and by the goals school leaders set for schools, and in taking on the role of teachers they support students, school leaders and society in contributing to the building of individuals and nations.

> *The right teacher for the right student makes all the difference in the world. Principals may 'run' the school but the teacher is the MASTER/MISTRESS in the classroom. The classroom is the place where relationships are formed. When a child knows that his/her teacher has his/her best interest at heart—the sky is the limit in terms of that child's ability to achieve at his/her potential.* (Canada, 1F)

Schools are changing due to the changing nature of the external schooling environment, and in some cases due to schools engaging in self-evaluation and self-reflection. Although school leaders conceptualise outcomes for schools, teachers are the ones who usually deliver these, often in their classrooms, through daily interactions with students. Teachers are the wheel of a school. They inspire and motivate students, daring them to dream, preparing them and helping them to visualise how their dreams can be realised. They keep schools turning over, moving closer to their objectives and mission. In effect, teachers are not merely masters/mistresses of their classrooms. Alongside school leaders, they are equally the masters/mistresses of the fortunes and future of national societies.

Evidence Summary

With respect to the finding that school leadership is "teacher dependent":

- Both male and female school leaders believe school leadership is teacher dependent, although female school leaders show a greater orientation towards this.
- Female school leaders constructed their partnership with teachers as an essential partnership that needed to be nurtured and protected.
- Male school leaders, although they recognised that teachers are important to their work, tend to see teachers as doing a job for which they are being paid and as such they did not necessarily have to "depend" on them.
- School leaders in developed countries tend to view teachers as simply "doing their jobs", whereas school leaders in developing countries tend to view teachers as important partners without whom their jobs would be impossible.

Characteristics of teacher dependent school leadership include:

trust, relationships
collaboration, teamwork
support for professional and personal aspirations
shared purpose, shared understandings
shared decision-making, shared leadership
opportunities for professional development
interdependence, emotional intelligence
student focus

Making Sense of It All

Teachers are the eyes, ears and wheel of a school. As noted by Harris (2014), "distributed leadership is … shared influence that can contribute to positive organizational improvement and change" (p. 13). Schools cannot function without teachers and they cannot function effectively without quality teachers. Increasingly, teachers are occupying and expected to occupy roles that extend beyond teaching and learning to developing community and other networks. Teachers are taking on more leadership roles in response to work intensification associated with the work of school leaders, and in response to school self-assessment and self-reflection exercises and research evidence on the benefits of shared approaches to leadership. Spillane and Diamond (2007) note that by necessity, as school leadership becomes more fluid, teachers take on shifting roles without institutional role designations. Furthermore, due to changes in the structure of schools, teachers are assuming greater responsibility for "[m]anagement and shared leadership, providing professional advice to parents and building community partnerships for learning" (OECD, 2005, p. 3).

> *A manager or the management are primarily responsible for the overall success of the school/institution. However, all policies put in place by management will need the support and the acceptance of the staff. This is extremely important for the efficient & effective manner in which the school is run its daily processes. No principal can bring about change in isolation of staff. A successful principal is dependent on his/her staff.* (St Maarten, 1F)

To be successful, school leaders must draw on the skills, expertise and experience of teachers, and demonstrate trust in them and in their attributes. The centrality of the role of teachers in school leadership is being shaped and reshaped by forces greater and stronger than an individual school leader, and these forces sit outside of schools, and carry the potential for further change as national education systems come to grips with changes in the global educational environment. This central role is highlighted by Cochran-Smith and Lytle (2009) who argue that "the central role of teachers and practitioners in shaping the life of schools" is "as agents in transforming the work of schools" (p. 53). School leaders depend on teachers. This is a challenging aspect of school leadership, or perhaps even the central heart of it. The quality of the partnership between teachers and school leaders is highly dependent on the atmosphere the leader creates. Therefore, it is unsurprising that school leaders in this study suggested that "teachers are the core of teaching and learning", "teachers are our biggest resources", "a leader must utilise the ideas of his team" and "shared leadership is best".

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6

School Leadership Is Enterprising and Entrepreneurial

Introduction

Whereas an enterprising individual is a person who shows creativity, imagination and resourcefulness, an entrepreneur is a person who organises and manages an enterprise, usually with considerable initiative and risk (*Webster's Dictionary*, in Leisey & Lavaroni, 2000). From these definitions, one surmises that although there is a huge degree of overlap between what counts as enterprising and entrepreneurial, an individual

Schools are in the business of learning, and the global and more specifically the economic environment in which they operate affect schools today. Consequently, they must have the capacity to be enterprising and entrepreneurial in order to respond to both the internal and external factors. As a result, a school must be innovative, resourceful, creative, adventurous, business-like and willing to take risks as it attempts to address the challenges that emerge daily. When the leader incorporates these elements into the school's operation it gradually establishes an enterprising and entrepreneurial culture. (Montserrat, 1M)

School leaders have to be increasingly enterprising. Budgets are being cut and we have to provide a service that continues to improve standards. Recent government policies … mean that schools are having to operate within largely unknown contexts …. This requires school leaders to operate in new ways. The trend for executive headteachers working in collaboration with associate headteachers requires a new way of thinking around autonomy, collective responsibility, shared vision, sharing identities amongst clusters of schools. (England, 1F)

P. W. Miller, *The Nature of School Leadership*, Intercultural Studies in Education,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-70105-9_6

who is enterprising may not necessarily be entrepreneurial. It is perhaps safe to assume that all school leaders are enterprising, and enterprising school leaders engage resources and strategies that are aimed at ensuring the internal operations of a school are not compromised. For example, they develop a range of policies aimed at promoting and ensuring smooth operations, work closely with parents and teachers, provide students with a varied curriculum and several enrichment or co-curricular activities, prioritise homework, and promote flexibility in teaching and learning. These are inward facing strategies. On the other hand, entrepreneurial school leaders engage strategies aimed at giving public visibility to their school, take risks, promote partnership working, and leverage the power of networks for their schools. These are outward facing strategies. Although the distinction between an enterprising and an entrepreneurial school leader is not a binary one, Hentschke (2009) made two important observations. First, until recently, entrepreneurial attributes were not featured in school leadership debates or preparation. Second, school leaders, in particular those in developed countries, tended to focus more attention on procedural compliance, inclusiveness, discharge of system responsibilities, management of competing political demands, and upholding professional norms and their stewardship of public resources. I will return to these distinctions in the final section of this chapter. Suffice it to say, however, that this book uses the terms "enterprising" and "entrepreneurial" as complementary and not oppositional terms.

The combination of a range of mostly external factors, globalisation, economic austerity, increased competition within and between national educational systems, and a more discerning consumer, by necessity, requires school leaders in both developed and developing countries to develop and exhibit "corporate mindsets" (Miller, 2016, p. 120). This means only being aware of events in a school's external environment and how these could impact schools and being able to combine data from within a school's internal and external environments to make decisions, pursue opportunities and build alliances that align to provide their school an advantage in the marketplace for schools for the foreseeable future.

Eacott (2008) argues that, increasingly, education is being seen as a game which is characteristic of a market culture and neo-liberal values. School leaders, however, understand that, rather involuntarily, they are caught in this game in which they did not set the rules, nor do they have control over the rules. Being able to keep a school open may not simply mean being able to ensure that students remain at school and teachers retain a job; in some countries and in some communities, a school is the single site for social interaction for an entire community. Yet, as countries continue to grapple with reduced government funding for education, many schools are being closed or merged and others are under threat of closure. These circumstances and threats combine to unify school leaders across the world in a potent state of professional vulnerability, fuelled in part by changes to how schools are funded, the proliferation of accountability and performance league tables, greater public interest in education/schooling, and the continuing rhetoric of governments towards education.

Despite feelings of vulnerability, and given the tide of events described above, school leaders are likely to have to embed entrepreneurial leadership into every day instead of leaving it at the fringes of daily leadership practices (Miller, 2016). Being able to engage internal and external school factors with a corporate mindset is therefore not only an important quality, but also a necessary one for school leaders to possess and deploy.

The Issue in Context: Identifying Entrepreneurial School Leadership

Although it is easy to assume entrepreneurial school leadership is a new or different type of leadership, it is important to note that it is not. Rather, it is an aspect of leadership more fully engaged by some school leaders than others (context and personal factors dependent), but an aspect that has increasingly moved up the list of attributes and skills required for existing and aspiring school leaders in both developing and developed countries. This is because the market culture in education is here to stay and school leaders, like it or not, need to be able to manage and lead successfully in

this culture. Hentschke (2009) notes, "Schools are more like businesses and their leaders are more like business leaders—for better or worse" and "Entrepreneurial leadership in education sits at the nexus of a relatively old, established topic (entrepreneurial leadership) applied to a relatively novel setting (compulsory education)" (p. 149). Woods, Woods and Gunter (2007) define entrepreneurial leadership as

> [T]he predisposition to and practice of achieving valued ends by creating, taking or pursuing opportunities for change and innovation and finding new resources or utilising in new ways existing resources (financial, material and human). (p. 237)

From looking at this definition, some important qualities come to mind that a school leader or anyone involved in 'doing' entrepreneurial leadership needs to possess and to be able to demonstrate. For example,

- Having a clear vision and being able to articulate it
- Showing innovation
- Problem solving
- Creativity and flexibility
- Building and being part of different networks
- Resourcefulness
- Knowledgeable about events and issues in different educational environments

Based on their research on Academy Schools in England, Woods et al. (2007, 2009) identified four types of entrepreneurialism:

- Business entrepreneurialism—innovation and competition; success defined in terms of a business culture;
- Social entrepreneurialism—innovation and social change; success defined in terms of tackling social exclusion, poverty and disadvantage;
- Public entrepreneurialism—innovation and community-focused change; success defined in terms of promoting democratic values such as social justice, accountability, equality, tolerance and respect;

- Cultural entrepreneurialism—innovation and social action; success defined in terms of promoting ideas that challenge individuals to examine their own and societal values and their role and value in society.

The framework provided by Woods et al. is a very useful position from which to start considering the range of entrepreneurial roles that a school leader is expected to fulfil, and the attendant challenges that could be faced in trying to ensure that all aspects are adequately included or addressed. I will return to this framework later in this chapter. Nevertheless, in trying to fulfil varying roles, and in trying to meet the demands of different publics, a school leader, by necessity, needs to engage in external networks and resources in trying to move a school forward, towards achieving its objectives. From their study of primary school leaders, Cyprus, Pashiardis and Savvides (2011) concluded that instructional and entrepreneurial are the two "domains of practice for successful school leadership" (p. 424). They also asserted that entrepreneurial school leadership involves parents in school activities, involves the community and other stakeholders in the school, includes projecting the school and involves acquiring resources (e.g. funding for infrastructure). A six nation EU funded project on "Leadership Improvement for Student Achievement" (LISA) also described entrepreneurial school leadership as follows:

> [E]ncouraging relations between the school and the community and parents, promoting cooperation with other organisations and businesses, discussing school goals with relevant stakeholders, utilizing appropriate and effective techniques for community and parental involvement, promoting two-way communication between the school and the community, projecting a positive image to the community, building trust within the local community, communicating the school vision to the external community. (European Union-LISA, 2009, pp. 11–12)

Research on school leadership in England and Jamaica found that school leaders showed evidence of having a "corporate mindset" (Miller, 2016, p. 120)—which means having the 'presence of mind' to engage

internal and external factors in pursuit of new and different opportunities or ways to realise a school's mission, notwithstanding events or ongoing changes in the environment.

Drivers of Entrepreneurial School Leadership

As discussed above, and elsewhere in this book, education is currently delivered in an overarching context of consumption—where, according to Coffey (2001), "schools are supplied and consumed" (p. 21). In the education marketplace there are different stakeholders, including, for example, consumers, clients and providers. As a result, there are clear implications for how school leaders 'sell' schools, and how they include the views of consumers in decision-making. The consumption of education, according to Coffey, involves choice and risk and, although education is a public good, as a market good or commodity its very provision by schools is an act of competition. This global cultural shift in education requires school leaders to acquire and demonstrate entrepreneurial skills in order to stand a chance in a highly competitive marketplace. This is especially important since, as schools are engaged in various marketing strategies to attract and secure consumers (Gewirtz, Ball & Bowe, 1995), parents are also engaged in making individualised choices (Beck, 1992). Coffey (2001) thus argues that "Both provider (schools) and consumers (parents) are engaged in a risky business: schools in making the 'perfect' pitch to encourage consumers to apply, parents in undertaking to choose the 'best school' for their children" (p. 27). Responding to these global and cultural shifts brought about by market forces outside of education, the Thematic Working Group on Entrepreneurial Education (2014) states that

> For Europe to compete globally, we need future generations to have the mind-set and skills to be entrepreneurial in society. Europe needs citizens who are creative, socially responsible, can spot opportunities, understand and take risks, and can work in teams and solve problems. (p. 7)

The salience of the above statement is not confined to Europe and is relevant for countries across the world regardless of their religious, social, cultural, economic or political orientation. Hentschke and Caldwell (2007) state that

> conditions of compulsory schooling have changed in ways that are encouraging more entrepreneurs to enter the field and to behave entrepreneurially. (p. 146)

Such a view is consistent with the entry and embedding of private companies and firms in the delivery of schooling and in the management of schools—such as the use of private companies and firms in the Academy and Free Schools in England. The use and impact of private firms in education is a matter of significant debate in the UK (see e.g. Miller, 2011: *Free Schools, Free Choice and the Academisation of Education in England*), and will not be entered into in this book.

There are several reasons school leaders should develop entrepreneurial skills:

- Environmental change—change is constant, and school leaders need to be able to manage uncertainty and complexity since "paradox, ambiguity and uncertainty are becoming the new norm" (European Union-LISA, 2009, p. 9).
- Increased accountability and choice—in both developed and developing countries, there is "increasing global emphasis on accountability" (Walker, Bryant & Moosung, 2013, p. 407) and choice in education. School leaders are increasingly more accountable to a range of internal and external stakeholders—students, parents, school boards, the community and governments.
- Performance ranking—some countries, such as the UK (England), publish school performance league tables which compare schools' performance on key national and international examinations. Currie, Humphreys, Ucbasaran and McManus (2008) have described the OECD's PISA tests, used to rank educational performance internationally, as "a quasi-market framed by performance indicators" (p. 988).

- Decentralisation—governments are giving more decision-making powers to school leaders in areas such as budgets and staffing. This shift has placed increased demands and expectations on school leaders, with Fromm, Hentschke and Kern (2003) arguing that school leadership now requires "increased sophistication" to understand and use the "business model" as well as the "education model" (p. 302).
- Improvements in teaching and learning—the quality of teaching and learning is a key driver for entrepreneurial school leadership since it creates a "citizenry with a capacity to compete successfully in the global village" (Scott & Webber, 2015, p. 113).
- Supporting economic growth—the EU Commission (2008) states that the overarching objective of a school system is to be able to "respond to the need to promote equity, to respond to cultural diversity and to reduce early school leaving" and to "contribute to supporting long-term sustainable economic growth…" (p. 4).

This list is not exhaustive, although based on these drivers, school leaders are operating in global and national educational contexts where the rules of the what and how of their jobs are increasingly determined by individuals and forces outside education.

Entrepreneurial School Leadership: Key Attributes

Leisey and Lavaroni (2000) suggest entrepreneurial school leaders are "tenacious, optimistic, creative, courageous, persistent, willing to take risks, resourceful, independent, opportunistic, and thoughtful" (p. 28). However, Roomi and Harrison (2011) invite us to "look at entrepreneurial leadership not as a collection of traits (e.g. who one is) but as a set of behaviours (i.e. what one does)" (p. 5). Consequently, Eggers and Leahy (1995) argue that successful entrepreneurial school leaders prioritise:

- Financial management—developing and selling a business plan; raising funds and spending it wisely;

- Communication—being able to share the vision, mission, and strategies with staff, students, parents and other stakeholders in a way that inspires actions and confidence;
- Motivation—having a can do attitude; helping others find their 'can do' attitude.

Some key behaviours have also been associated with entrepreneurial leadership:

- Strategic vision opportunity spotting—be clear about what they are about; see opportunities in challenges and setbacks
- Forward looking—access and use information from different environments to drive decision-making
- Corporate mindset—have the 'presence of mind' to realise the mission notwithstanding environmental factors
- Risk taking—measured and balanced; be willing to leap forward
- Innovation—provide new ways of seeing old problems; make a difference
- Time management—use time wisely; invest time in potential opportunities
- Creativity—be able to overcome bureaucratic structures
- Astute awareness—understand the social, cultural and political landscape

These attributes are consistent with those shown by entrepreneurs in industry, underlining Hentschke's view that "schools are like businesses and their leaders are like business leaders—for better or worse" (2009, p. 149).

The Evidence

Evidence from this 16 nation study confirms what the growing literature on entrepreneurial leadership says about school leaders. As discussed in earlier chapters, the practice of school leadership is being shaped and reshaped by factors in the external environment of schools, the result of

which is that school leaders are having to acquire and demonstrate new approaches and attitudes to school leadership. Kourilsky and Hentschke (2003) and Davies and Hentschke (2002) describe these factors as demand increasing and supply increasing. Demand-increasing factors are related to the quality (or not) of schooling, measured by parents in terms of student outcomes and levels of satisfaction with the quality of provision. Supply-increasing factors are related to increasing revenue through multiple sources, for example, donations, gifts and investments since governments are either unwilling or unable to fund education entirely from taxes.

The combination of these factors has meant school leaders have to work with education ministries, school communities, local businesses, parents, staff and students in very different ways in order to "project their schools" (Pashiardis & Savvides, 2011) and in order for them to remain viable, or at least an option, for students and parents. These factors therefore look set to embed "Business entrepreneurialism" (Woods et al. 2007, 2009) much more firmly into the everyday practice of school leadership. Schools leaders in developed and developing countries have to engage in revenue-increasing strategies to make up for the shortfall in government spending on education. Furthermore, the risks associated with job losses and school closures are also fuelling survival instincts in school leaders who must now commit greater time, effort and resources to "selling" their schools as a viable alternative to the one next door in a competitive education market.

Market Conditions: Being Entrepreneurial

There is evidence that schools are being organised along business lines with strict performance targets and exacting accountability requirements. No matter in which part of the world a school is located, there is no escaping these demands. School leaders are therefore required to show "business thinking". Used here, "business thinking" means applying a corporate mindset or being aware of environmental factors influencing schools, and being able to deploy strategies to mitigate organisational risk and/or turn these factors into opportunities. This is especially important

since the infiltration of business practices in schools is a product of a market culture that continues to recalibrate the role of school leaders.

Reduction in budgetary allocations or the inability of a national government to adequately fund school activities is part of the current reality of school leadership, and schools are at an increasing risk of not being able to deliver their provision due to lack of funding. Although this is becoming more common across developing and developed countries, school leaders in developing countries more acutely felt the reduction in budgetary allocations to schools. Jamaican school leaders sustain this point.

> *School Leaders should aim to position their schools to be self reliant as far as possible in these austere times. Marketing has now become the business of the school and leaders should be open to new business ideas to promote their school.* (Jamaica, 3F)
>
> *The enterprising or entrepreneurial leader will devise ways to ensure that projects can be financed supplementally as public funds are limited to certain projects and all aspects of school life must be fostered/catered to*. (Jamaica, 4F)
>
> *School leaders have to be entrepreneurial and enterprising because the Ministry of Education does not provide enough funds to sustain the school.* (Jamaica, 6F)
>
> *School achievements and improvement depends on how well leadership is able to implement and execute fundraising activities*. (Jamaica, 9F)

There was a settled view among school leaders that they have to raise funds to make up for the shortfall in government funding to schools. Some school leaders saw this as a novelty (mainly school leaders in developed countries) whereas for some school leaders this was the norm (mainly school leaders in developing countries). Despite the dichotomy of experience among school leaders, global economic times unified their experiences and outlook into a common narrative about entrepreneurialism and school leadership. The experience of school leaders can be understood using Woods et al.'s (2007, 2009) "business entrepreneurialism", where, as a response to market conditions, school leaders demonstrated innovative and creative approaches to leadership.

Although school leaders were clear about the national and/or contextual factors in relation to why they had to engage in fundraising or marketing activities, this was also found to be a distraction from their core function of managing instructional leadership. The apparent paradox here is that, although school leaders understood why they had to take on more leadership of entrepreneurial activities, they did not necessarily welcome it.

> *Schools need to find resources to subsidize annual budget. I don't think this should be the school's responsibility to finance its activities, and we currently fund several.…* (Antigua, 1F)

These views are consistent with those of school leaders in Cyprus (Pashiardis & Savvides, 2011) engaged in marketing and fundraising activities for infrastructural projects because they have to do it and not because they want to. Furthermore, whereas the primary concern of a business organisation will usually be the amount of profit it can make, the primary interest of a school will always be preparing students for life in society.

> *Having enough funds to meet the needs of the school and even go beyond is always a bonus. However, most schools in my area of work are provided with funds to meet the basic needs. In my opinion, a school principal should not need to be an accountant or money manager. Being the accountant and entrepreneur takes away from time/energy that is required in school to support staff and students*. (Canada, 1F)

Global market conditions are demanding new and different skills, and a different approach to leadership from school leaders. Not all school leaders are affected or influenced by current market conditions in the same way, and as yet, only some school leaders, whether by force (context) or volunteerism, actively engage in "business entrepreneurialism". This notwithstanding, all school leaders must engage "business thinking" in order for them to have a chance of success in national contexts where the market for education is one of (increased) competition.

Marketing Schools

Entrepreneurial school leadership, according to the European Union-LISA (2009) project, means "utilizing appropriate and effective technique" to interact with the community: students, prospective students, parents, businesses, other stakeholders. Gewirtz et al. (1995), Woods, Bagley and Glatter (1998) and Miller (2016) provide examples and accounts of techniques used by school leaders to interact with members of a school's local community, and in trying to attract parents and students. Strategies are deployed as necessary and teachers' qualifications and experience, a school's safety record, physical environment and appearance, location and participation in community events, pastoral records and examination results are regularly used in school marketing activities. As discussed elsewhere in this book, school leaders are "caught in a game" that appear to be steadily leading to "the cultural re-engineering of school leadership…" (Eacott, 2011, p. 47), where schools are like businesses and "…their leaders are like business leaders—for better or worse" (2009, p. 149).

> *We are very much involved in promoting what we do and making sure our "brand" is seen and marketed*. (Anguilla, 2F)
>
> *As an entrepreneurial and enterprising principal, I execute these skills in order to make my school marketable and viable*. (Jamaica, 2F)

Press advertising and partnerships with feeder schools and other schools and staff were common. In some cases, students were assigned the role of "ambassadors"—with responsibility for generating goodwill towards their school. School leaders themselves had become au fait with the terminology and techniques of marketing and had become very skilled in producing convincing narratives and documentation to "sell" their brand. Whether by necessity or pragma, however, Coffey highlights that the marketing or selling of a school has become a necessary part of the current educational landscape, and this has been beneficial for schools. For example, she states, "Schools have had to address their infrastructure, buildings, discipline and pastoral records, as well as measurable academic

standards as part of their marketing strategies. The particular focus on academic achievement records has led schools to address academic weaknesses and capitalise on strengths" (Coffey, 2001, pp. 33–34).

> *When I became part of a team/school that has poor support and negative feedback in the community, I decided to "sell" all the positive aspects regarding the students and believed that the rest would eventually follow. It began with social media and the community started to state they never knew all this good came out of the school. The positive aspects did not begin when I walked through the gates. It began before, but no one previously "sold" it. No one placed a price tag on the school's work or on the students' crafts…*. (St Maarten, 1F)

This is an example of what Gewirtz et al. (1995) described as the glossification of schools, where schools increasingly (re)produce themselves in "glossy" imagery using well-established marketing strategies. Hall and Southworth (1997) proposed that "[a]n issue for school leaders now is whether they interpret their role as managerialist or emancipatory and how they can most effectively contribute to successful schooling" (p. 151). Coffey (2001) argues, "things that schools always did, such as making links with primary schools, organising parental visits, etc. have taken on new importance, and hence activities have become better oragnised [sic], with clearer structures and objectives" (pp. 33–34). Schools are therefore much more in 'touch' with the needs of parents, students and local communities. This is quite apt since school systems no longer require nor can they afford school leaders who will simply engage in procedural compliance, faithful stewardship of resources and adherence to political dictates (Hentschke, 2009) at the expense of emancipatory practices that deliver greater and better benefits for schools and an education system as a whole.

Creativity: Being Enterprising

As noted earlier in the chapter, being enterprising means being creative, imaginative and resourceful. "Public Entrepreneurialism", according to Woods et al. (2007, 2009), involves innovation and change that is focused towards a community, where success is measured in terms of

the promotion of democratic values. Like an invisible hand, the market culture guides much of what school leaders do, how they do it, when they do it and why. The market culture in education aside, schools do not and cannot exist in isolation from their local community, which is made up of several different stakeholders. A school's relationship with and service to a community is important since local communities support schools financially, and students often live within a local school community.

Working closely with a local community or providing the local community with service may not, however, be strictly about public entrepreneurialism, but rather about pragma. Since schools cannot fund many of their activities on their own, their engagement with a local community is underpinned by a shrewdness that acknowledges their public interest role, but they are also driven by a consciousness and a reality that says, we serve you and you serve us. This quid pro quo relationship between schools and a local community is connected to "Business entrepreneurialism" (Woods et al., 2007) and "corporate mindsets" in education (Miller, 2016, p. 120).

> *Leadership uses unique and creative ways to fund the "other programs" that fall outside the parameters of the specified curriculum to create student interest in various school programs*. (Antigua, 1F)
>
> *You need to be creative with your resources and think outside the structures and policy [in order] to get what is best for your organisation*. (England, 5F)

School leadership has to be creative in its responses to changes and pressures in the environment. In creatively responding to these changes, however, one realises that school leaders are changing. They were seeking and pursuing opportunities for finding the "best way". They were trying different ways and taking risks. They were trying new approaches to leadership as they sought to keep staff and students motivated and as a recognition and response that the school leadership landscape had fundamentally changed.

> *Being a good administrator means being a good entrepreneur, and this means learning to how to run the school in a good way. For example, I organise many*

interdisciplinary projects with students. Some of these focus on students' agency, personal growth, oral and communicative skills, besides scientific knowledge. (Brazil, 1F)

To be an enterprising principal you have to invest a lot of thoughts, effort and work. When the main goal is to succeed and this means to be creative and to think of a way to promote the school. An enterprising principal creates something out of nothing or upgrades what they had in the first place. (Israel, 3F)

Creativity is a key characteristic of leadership and is not a trait specifically associated with school leadership or entrepreneurial school leadership. School leaders applied entrepreneurial leadership as a holistic tool in areas such as flexible decision-making, fundraising, teaching and learning, organising enrichment activities for students, staff development, school promotion and marketing, and in "selling" their schools as a high achieving, tolerance promoting, socially inclusive learning environment.

The Political Dichotomy of Entrepreneurial School Leadership

The global and national policy environments and their impact and influence on schools and school leaders is an important theme in this chapter, no doubt due to the crosscutting and overlapping nature of educational policies. Increased focus on school performance; marketisation and choice for parents and students; decentralisation; reduced national spending on education; reduced budgetary allocations to schools; and increased competition within and between education systems are among the primary policy issues influencing the degree to which school leaders engage in entrepreneurial school leadership.

As a Headteacher I have certainly embarked on projects I didn't think at the start I would be able to achieve, and I have, at times, acted on instinct, very much flying by the seat of my pants! I suspect this aspect of school leadership will grow … but I wonder if sometimes it will take Headteachers away from their central role of ensuring children's learning is supported as well as it can be. (England, 10F)

To a certain extent school leadership is entrepreneurial, but this area of leadership should not become a substitute to compensate for reduced central funding. Some aspect of current educational policy in England may be breeding an unhealthy set of enterprising and entrepreneurial leaders. (England, 9F)

School leadership in the current political landscape has great scope for being enterprising and entrepreneurial. The government has insisted on trying to improve the system by giving headteachers greater 'freedoms'. Clever and astute headteachers can use these freedoms to create a unique and responsive approach to learning in their school. However, these freedoms have also been abused by some leaders and care should be taken when exercising 'freedoms'; as without moral purpose, an enterprising headteacher quickly becomes a self-centred empire builder—taking advantage of the system in personal self-interest and not in the best interest of the learners. (England, 3M)

The potential for misdeeds to occur due to a school leader's engagement in entrepreneurial leadership is problematic, whether based on inexperience or deliberate deceit or some other grey area. Eacott (2011) argues that changes in the educational policy environments have led to "the cultural re-engineering of school leadership". Similarly, I argue here that the market culture in education has achieved or is achieving this very outcome. School leaders have provided examples and accounts of how they have embraced and used entrepreneurial leadership, and how entrepreneurial leadership has benefited their schools. They have also warned of the potential dangers to teaching and learning and other aspects of schooling, as well as the potential for impropriety associated with the unchecked practice of entrepreneurial leadership in schools. Hentschke (2009) supports this view by noting that "While it may sound desirable, even fashionable, for education leaders to be 'entrepreneurial', it is more likely the case that entrepreneurial leadership in education has value only to the degree that the education sector of society provides conditions where entrepreneurial behaviour can flourish" (pp. 156–157). Furthermore, Brown and Cornwall warn that, as a result of education being (becoming) so market-oriented, "most distinctions between the roles of public school, private school, and proprietary school leaders will disappear" (p. 4). Furthermore, Hentschke (2009) notes, "[e]ntrepreneurial individuals seek out entrepreneurial settings, and the growth of those settings attracts entrepreneurs. Each feeds the others" (p. 150).

Evidence Summary

With respect to school leadership being "enterprising and entrepreneurial":

- Female school leaders are more likely to be engaged in activities considered enterprising or entrepreneurial
- Female school leaders are more likely to be engaged in inward facing enterprising (to do with the curriculum and teaching and learning) and less likely to be engaged in external facing entrepreneurial activities (to do with the school's image and networking), which was the opposite for male school leaders.
- All school leaders, however, as appropriate used a mix of inward facing enterprising and outward facing entrepreneurial strategies when required.
- The more "change oriented" a school leader was, a greater likelihood existed that they would be engaged in "enterprising and entrepreneurial" activities
- The more "teacher dependent" a school leader was, the greater likelihood existed that they would be "enterprising and entrepreneurial".
- Although school leaders in both developed and developing countries were engaged in various fundraising activities, school leaders from Brazil, Cyprus, Jamaica, Mozambique and South Africa were far more engaged in fundraising efforts
- School leaders in smaller countries, in particular, Guyana, Anguilla, Antigua and Montserrat, were most likely to be engaged in directly marketing school activities, not necessarily to increase student numbers but as a means of showcasing what was happening at school.
- English school leaders saw entrepreneurial activities as a major distraction and viewed being able to navigate the fast changing UK educational policy environment as itself an act of enterprising and entrepreneurial leadership.
- English school leaders appear to prefer inward facing enterprising strategies such as changes to curricula, changes to teaching and learning, providing enrichment activities for students, and rules around discipline and homework (mirroring earlier research of findings from Hentschke (2009) who found that school leaders from developed

countries are likely to be engaged in procedural compliance, inclusiveness, managing competing political demands, upholding professional norms and their stewardship of public resources and are less likely to be engaged in entrepreneurial activities).
- All school leaders appeared internally motivated towards entrepreneurial school leadership—although some by economic necessity associated with context and others by their natural inclination.

Characteristics of entrepreneurial school leadership include:

teamworking, collaboration
improving/enhancing processes
environmental awareness, partnerships
responsiveness to market forces, opportunity spotting
risk taking, innovation
purpose led, shrewdness
expediency, pragmatic

Making Sense of It All

There is no denying that, globally, school leaders are required, more and more, to show enterprising and entrepreneurial leadership. The degree to which this is associated with improvements in instructional leadership (teaching and learning) or related to "business thinking" is debateable. Good schools engage in deep and critical self-reflection, community partnerships, and creative and context responsive teaching and learning. They also promote democratic values, meet or exceed expectations for achievement and have leadership that is prepared to show innovation and take risks. Not all schools can be considered "good" based on the criteria set by national education ministries or departments. Similarly, not all school leaders can be considered "good" based on the judgements of education inspectorates. Due to overall reduced spending on education by national governments and due to reduced budgetary allocations to schools, school leaders are having to vigorously pursue opportunities with the local community and with industry to boost their ability to be able to deliver an acceptable standard of education to students. This is a

double-edged sword, where one could assume a school leader is in charge, except, in reality, he or she is caught in a vicious cycle of long-term thinking but short-term acting due mostly to financial constraints.

Like school performativity measures, entrepreneurial leadership is not about to disappear anytime soon from schooling agendas. Rather, it is more likely to become more firmly embedded into the daily work of school leaders, regardless of country of location, school size or type, and regardless of school leaders' natural ability towards or forced compliance with entrepreneurialism. Miller (2012) notes,

> Much less is being spent on education in real terms by many governments, when more is being demanded; fewer teachers are being employed at a time when some systems are experiencing growth in pupil numbers and class sizes; and education institutions are struggling to respond in a timely manner to changes in their environment brought about by the impact of information and communications technology. That said, educational leadership in these unpredictable and swiftly changing times requires an approach that is neither top-down nor bottom-up, but that is encompassing, synergistic, innovative, and practical. (p. 9)

The reality of school leadership and the kind of leadership required of school leaders nowadays are thus laid bare. A school, in essence, is a business and students and parents are customers, and teachers and school leaders make academic outputs. To ignore school leadership that is enterprising and entrepreneurial is therefore problematic, especially in national and/or community contexts where resources are scarce to non-existent. The accounts and examples provided by school leaders show a poignant realisation and an understanding that belies an awareness of a changing global educational context that is changing the way leadership is practised in schools. Nearly all school leaders used short-term tactics to improve a school's image and chances of survival, which could be described as "gaming". Many short-term tactics did not lead to sustained improvements. However, some school leaders also used strategic approaches to marketing their schools, including developing marketing plans and using research data coupled with targeted school networking within and beyond a cluster in order to enable them to be

better placed to achieve their objectives. School leaders who adopted strategic approaches to marketing showed a greater degree of "corporate mindset" and a more firmly developed understanding of the power of context. They surmised that working in partnership was better than going it alone, although the choice of partners was often careful and deliberate.

Entrepreneurial and enterprising leadership can be restricted by fearsome accountability. But, if unchecked and not carefully managed, entrepreneurial leadership can lead to a loss of focus on teaching and learning, and could also lead to (accusations of) impropriety. School leadership requires accountability, but entrepreneurial leadership requires trust, support and intelligent accountability in order to support the overall objectives of a school. Entrepreneurial leadership is an important aspect of school leadership from which it is clear that there is now no going back.

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7

School Leadership Is Context Dependent

Introduction

School context is a complex and important topic and judgements on the practice of school leadership cannot be "one size fits all". Each education system has its own peculiarities, and each school within an education system has its own peculiarities. School leaders, despite years of teaching or leadership experience, cannot simply transfer what worked from one school into another one, no matter how well these may have worked elsewhere (or in the past). Inasmuch as the practice of school leadership is heavily influenced by external, internal and personal factors, school

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We cannot separate the school from the cultural, social and moral context which surrounds it. A school is not an isolated island. The school influences and is influenced by the context that surrounds it. School leadership must adapt itself to this context in order to be efficient and effective. Each school has unique characteristics so the school principal must take these into consideration when he chooses the appropriate leadership style. (Israel, 3F)

Context defines everything. Each school has its own specific context which determines every course of action. This is made very clear when school leaders move from one context to another. When trying to implement tried and tested policies, they can only work if tweaked to reflect the context of the current school. Context is not only important between schools, but within schools themselves. As a school culture changes, so the context changes—what served a purpose once needs to be redefined in order for school improvement to continue and to avoid stagnation. (England, 1F)

P. W. Miller, *The Nature of School Leadership*, Intercultural Studies in Education,
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leadership is also heavily influenced by time, place and space. In other words, the practice of school leadership is heavily influenced by context, within which there are also layers of contexts or multiple contexts.

Following the publication of Bridges (1977), *The Nature of Leadership*, 'context' as an issue in leadership was picked up on by several researchers. Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan and Lee (1982), for example, identified the school district, the community and the school leader him/herself as relevant "contexts" for leadership. They also distinguished between "person-specific" and "widely-shared contexts". Person specific context is made up of the job related knowledge, skills, attitudes and experience possessed by a school leader. Additionally, a school leader's prior experiences and personal resources act as prisms through which information, problems, opportunities and situations arising from the external environment are mediated and filtered (Goldring, Huff, May & Camburn, 2008).

Widely-shared contexts are made up of features of the broader institutional and environmental setting within which a school and its leader are based (Goldring et al., 2008). For example, the school "district context" focuses on the goals, size, structure, complexity, rules and regulations. Similarly, the focus of the school "community context" is on the socio-economic standing of parents, parental and community involvement and engagement, as well as a school's location (e.g. urban/inner-city/rural/remote). Responding to these two broad areas of context, Bossert et al. (1982) proposed two things. First, the peculiarities of context shape the behaviour of school leaders. Second, successful school leaders adapt their leadership to the needs, opportunities and constraints present within their own work contexts. Context is therefore a two-way street, influencing and being influenced by a school leader.

The Issue in Context: Identifying Context

Institutional Context

The institutional context of school leadership/schooling is made up of factors internal to a school as well as those factors outside a school that have a direct bearing of what goes on inside. As stated by Bossert et al.

(1982), the aims, structure, initiatives, size and norms of a school district (or regional educational zone or local [education] authorities) come together to form a work context for school leaders. For example, although support structures that organise and direct the work of school leaders may differ widely across school districts (local authorities, regions), directives and frameworks that guide the work of school leaders are usually determined centrally or regionally. Although important, the school "district context" represents only a single component of a much broader "institutional context".

The structure of a national education system has a very potent impact and influence on the practice of school leadership (Buchmann & Dalton, 2002). Lee and Hallinger (2012) propose that institutional structures contribute to what school leaders do, and how they do it. Drawing on examples of how school leaders in Kuwait and Canada divided their time between instructional leadership and other activities, they found that system-level aims and structures shape the degree to which school leaders are able to allocate time to instructional leadership, administration and community interaction, concluding that "principals in more structured education systems reportedly allocated less of their time for administration" (2012, p. 17).

The degree of centralisation within a national education system is another factor that influences how school leaders do their jobs. For example, school leaders in highly centralised systems may not be able to recruit and select their teachers (e.g. in Cyprus) and must "make do" with the teachers assigned by the central education ministry, compared with systems in other countries that are not as highly centralised (e.g. in Jamaica) where school leaders directly recruit and select teachers.

Ongoing debates and changes in the global policy environment have also influenced the work of school leaders in institutional contexts, evidenced by the range of system-level quality and accountability frameworks that have dominated the last two decades in both developed and developing countries across the world. In 1992, Bridges reported that teacher evaluation practices in the USA were arbitrary, ritualistic, seldom led to improvements in teacher capacity and did not contribute to weaker teachers being discharged. This led to widespread reforms to teacher evaluation practices in many countries, resulting in teachers who failed to

meet annual performance targets/expectations being discharged. Despite progress in this area, it should be noted that annual teacher evaluation/performance review is not a formalised activity in several countries, particularly in developing and smaller countries where they do not have either the capacity or available support structures in place. Within the last decade, however, teacher evaluation systems have dominated in countries with strong accountability mechanisms, in particular, in developed countries.

Community Context

The community context of school leadership/schooling is made up of factors in the immediate local environs of a school which have the potential to be brought into school or which can have a direct bearing on what goes on inside. From their study on leadership in instructionally effective elementary schools in poor and well-off communities, Hallinger and Murphy (1986) found differences in leadership practices to support teaching and learning and in how school leaders engaged (with) parents and local school communities. Follow up work a decade later by Hallinger, Bickam and Davis (1996) concluded,

> The nature of principals' instructional leadership differed systematically in relation to student socioeconomic composition in the schools. The direction of the effect indicates that principals in higher-SES schools exercised more active instructional leadership of the type measured in this study than their counterparts in schools serving students of lower SES. The finding supports the notion that principals adapt their instructional leadership to the community context in which they work. (p. 542)

Another element of a school's community context relates to whether the school is located in a remote, rural, urban or inner-city community. As gaps in achievement widen and as debates about social mobility intensifying concerns about school location have highlighted, issues such as the suitability and adequacy of resources and material, the physical conditions of school sites, security and safety for staff and students, the

willingness and availability of staff to work in certain locations (in particular for remote and inner-city schools), and access issues due to poor and unsafe road conditions.

Miller (2015) found that small primary schools in rural and remote Jamaica were at risk of not meeting achievement targets for students due to scarcity of resources and the unwillingness and unavailability of quality teachers to accept jobs in remote/rural communities. In a later study, Miller (2016) found that schools in some inner-city communities in Jamaica were also at risk of not meeting achievement targets due to social upheaval and gang related violence that (often) disrupt schooling. Faced with these location or community-based issues, school leaders reassessed and redefined priorities towards meeting benchmark standards and towards the security and safety of staff and students, thus aligning school development initiatives with "developing school-community initiatives that enhanced school security and curricular needs … [and which] built relationships and reinforced the importance of school-community engagement" (Brooks & Sungtong, 2015, p. 24).

Other aspects of the community context that continue to shape and reshape the role and behaviours of school leaders include more ethnically diverse staff and student populations, schools in "challenging contexts" such as being surrounded by community violence or conflict, and disruptions due to natural or other disasters and hazards. These issues of context not only shape the role of leadership, but also raise the stakes for providing quality leadership since leadership quality improves and intensifies (Hutton, 2014) and assumes greater importance in challenging circumstances (Day, 2005; Leithwood, Mascall & Strauss, 2009).

National Cultural Context

The national cultural context of school leadership/schooling comprises factors found within a society as a whole, which are part of a pattern of group identity or socialisation. These factors have great potential to be brought into a school, and to influence what goes on in a school, since no member of a school community is exempt from their impact. Hofstede's (1980) typology of national culture has featured widely in evaluations of

how differences in "power distance" and "collectivism" shape school leadership in different national contexts, leading researchers to argue that in order to achieve their desired outcomes, leadership styles used by school leaders must align with the values and norms identifiable in different socio-cultural contexts. In their cross-national comparative study of school leadership, Lee and Hallinger (2012) found, for example, that socio-cultural factors provided explanations of differences observed in school leaders' use of time. They especially noted:

- Principals from less hierarchically organized societies tended to allocate more time for instructional leadership than principals from societies with higher Power Distance Index (PDI)
- Principals in higher PDI countries may assume a more "traditional head of school" role and delegate instructional leadership activities to others
- Principals in less hierarchical societies appear to allocate more time for interacting with parents and community
- Parents in low PDI societies may experience fewer barriers between the school and its community and interact with the school administration accordingly (Lee & Hallinger, 2012, p. 17).

School related cultural issues may include:

- Organisation of schooling: for example, schools are held on particular days of the week in Western countries and on different days in Muslim countries; female and male students are taught in separate classes in many Muslim countries;
- Scheduling of school day/year: for example, a school day may be between 7 am and 5 pm in one country, between 9 am and 3 pm in another country, and between 7 am and 1 pm in yet another country; the academic school year may be between January and November/December in some counties, but between September and June/July in other countries;
- Out-of-school contact between staff and students: for example, school leaders and teachers may be allowed to visit students at their homes under certain conditions whereas in other countries this is strictly forbidden;

- Arrangements for staffing: for example, school leaders may be able to recruit and select teachers through direct advertising in some countries, whereas in other countries teachers are recruited and assigned by the education ministry/department.

School leadership is experiencing "a multiplicity of economic, emotional and social challenges" (Harris & Thomson, 2006, p. 1) that are important to our understanding of how the cultural context of schooling influences schools/school leadership. In addition to a school's cultural context, there are national cultural factors that combine to shape the work of school leaders at the school level. These factors may include technological factors—the availability and use of information and communications technology (ICT) in education; economic factors—whether education is free or subsidised; social conditions—girls' access to education; the age at which compulsory schooling ends; the likelihood of civil unrest and upheaval; political factors—stability of a national government and/or the coherence of educational policies; environmental factors—likelihood or experience of natural disasters and their impact on schooling. An understanding, if not an appreciation, of these factors is a vital part of the sense and meaning making of the practice of school leadership—in context.

Economic Context

The economic context of school leadership/schooling comprises factors in the economic environment of a country or nation, and is concerned with government spending on education, including capital investments, spending on material and resources for teaching and learning, and staffing. Factors in a school's economic environment, such as teacher quality, class size, expenditure per student, education level of parents, parental involvement in schooling, and size and quality of the school library and access to technology, can have a direct bearing on the ability of the school/school leaders to deliver (quality) education.

Miller (2016) found that economic conditions between Jamaican and English schools were in stark contrast to each other. He also found that each school system comprised very different opportunities, resources, needs

and challenges. For example, several Jamaican schools did not have access to ICT, and where there was access, this was sometimes limited in scope and quality. English schools on the other hand had regular quality access to ICT, which was widely used in nearly all areas of a school's operations—from teaching to procurement. Despite this difference, however, Jamaican school leaders showed greater creativity (entrepreneurial leadership) in how they went about partnering with local communities and industry to acquire funds to purchase ICT equipment and resources for schools.

Lee and Hallinger (2012) examined the potential impact of a nation's level of economic development on the practice of school leaders in 39 high, moderate and low GDP countries. They found that although school leaders in countries with higher GDP spent more time at work, they allocated less time to instructional leadership, compared with school leaders from developing countries.

Political Context

The political context of school leadership/schooling comprises factors in a country's national environment, and is concerned with political structures, educational policy-making and implementation, and the power structures and relationships between educationalists and governments. Factors in a national political environment, for example educational policy agendas, can significantly affect the ability of schools/school leaders to deliver quality education.

Recent research on educational leadership in the UK (Ball, Maguire, Braun & Hoskins, 2011), Vietnam (Hallinger & Truong, 2014; Truong, Hallinger & Sanga, 2016) and Jamaica (Miller, 2014) identified explicit ways in which national political context shapes normative practices within education. In the UK, performativity has become a main feature in the everyday practice of school leaders, and implementing policy at the school level is at best a fraught exercise. In Vietnam, political structures are integrated into schooling and, as a result, school leaders report to both the Ministry of Education and Training and the Communist Party. In Jamaica, although not established in the education regulations,

it is common practice for Members of Parliament to select the chair of a school board, and it is the job of a school board to appoint school leaders. In Jamaica and Vietnam, one may argue that school officials and school leaders appointed by political actors both represent and facilitate the directives of government at the school level. Thus, in Vietnam as in Jamaica, one could argue that the 'voice' of the school leader is simultaneously the 'voice' of the ruling party (politics) and the 'voice' of the state (government). Recognising (and understanding) the role played by a national state in education in a country is therefore a vital component in assessing the practice of school leadership.

The Evidence

Evidence from this 16 nation study is consistent with the available literature on school leadership and context. Context matters in school leadership and leadership matters in context. The context has been viewed as a constraint (Gronn & Ribbins, 1996) and a lever (Hallinger, 2016) in the practice of school leadership, which intensifies and contributes to the overall quality of school leadership. Context is independent of a leader, and whereas school leaders contribute to the shaping of institutional and community contexts, these contexts also contribute to the shaping of school leaders. This two-way effect of context acknowledges "environments" and associated factors and how these may influence leadership practice, as well as a school leader's personal agency and how this may influence "environments".

Locating a School's Context: Place, People, System

Context is everything! It is also an essential element in any attempt to understand the practice and impact of educational/school leadership. As established above, context is a multiple pronged lever that shapes, if not defines, leadership. Clarke and Wildy (2016) identify "place, people,

system and self" (p. 45) as four focal points for understanding school leadership. Where applicable, I draw on different parts of this framework in presenting key findings within this chapter.

Place

Having a knowledge of place means school leaders are able to read the complexities of their context, especially the people, the problems and issues, as well as the culture of the school and the community in which a school is located. Having this knowledge puts the school leader in a better position to deploy suitable strategies and interventions. The (then) UK's National College for School Leadership (NCSL, 2007) describes having this knowledge as being "contextually literate":

> *School leadership is most definitely context dependent. In a changing educational market, the best leaders need to be able to analyse and quickly work with the contextual setting of schools. It is key to rapid improvement. One size does not fit all. Leaders need to get 'under the skin' of school context.* (England, 9M)
>
> *All leadership must respond to the context. It is not possible to mindlessly utilise ideas and solutions from other contexts as the risk is that they will not work or—even worse—create a bigger problem than the one started with.* (England, 3M)

Getting under the skin of context means being contextually literate or showing awareness of the isms and particularities of place, such as institutional structure, culture, policies, clients, employees and stakeholders (e.g. community and parents). Isms and particularities are a powerful force that have a direct impact on which activities are undertaken and how these activities are undertaken. Context thus plays an important role in setting the tone of a school by providing direction, meaning and an identity to those who study and work in it. Furthermore, as each school has its own isms and particularities, school leaders must carefully consider these in their own approach to, for example, relationship building, strategy development, community engagement and staff development. This crucial point is sustained by school leaders who identify improvements in teaching and learning or in the quality of leadership

practice without a good understanding of place. They warn against parachuting in solutions used elsewhere without first considering the specific needs and/or the isms and particularities of context, or without giving thought to tweaking interventions developed in another context.

> *Every location and school has its own culture about how things are done, so what works in one school may not work in another school.* (Antigua, 1F)
>
> *Context is a huge factor of school leadership; everything must be done within the context in which it operates.* (Jamaica, 7M)

Schools are dynamic and getting under the skin of a school's context is a necessary first step towards successful leadership. According to Clarke and Wildy (2016), this involves using data to make decisions and develop strategies and action plans, and being able to read into and ahead of situations. Being able to read into and ahead of situations is a skill associated with foresighting, an area of business concerned with predicting or sensing future (market) trends. Put differently,

> *School leaders have to be savvy. They have to be intuitive and be able to see trends in education and capitalise on these trends. The leader 'goes with the flow' but like a stockmarket broker, is alert to changes in atmosphere, all aimed at maximising achievements.* (Jamaica, 1F)

Lovett, Dempster and Fluckgier (2014) thus argue that school leaders' consideration of place must not be limited only to the micro-context of a school but should also encompass events in the macro-context. In particular, they argue that school leaders need to be au fait with events and trends in the international and national policy environments and how these (may) impact curriculum and other arrangements at the school level.

People

To get under the skin of a school's context requires leadership that understands and values people. As one Jamaican school leader noted in Chap. 4, "Teachers can either make you or break you". More widely applied, "people can either make you or break you". Thus, school leaders should

have the knowledge, understanding and skills to manage complex interactions with staff and multiple stakeholders (e.g. officials in the education ministry/department, parents and community groups), since "these interactions highlight the importance of the interpersonal, political and ethical dimensions of the school leaders' role" (Clarke & Wildy, 2016, p. 46).

The two-way relationship between school leaders and context is an important one, and one that is currently under-researched. For, as much as school leaders shape (school) context, context (e.g. school, community) also contributes to their moulding. In other words, the views expressed and actions and attitudes held by staff, students, parents, community members and other stakeholders contribute to shaping a school's context and therefore the practice of leadership.

> *School leaders are shaped by context and school leaders help to shape context. It is a two-way street*. (Pakistan, 1M)
>
> *I do not function in isolation of the skills, attitudes, beliefs and values that students, teachers, leaders and other stakeholders bring on board. These attributes jointly shape or create the context in which I work. This ultimately makes school leadership a highly contextual practice that is dependent on others*. (Montserrat, 1M)

If appropriately managed, the relationship between a school leader and school context can be an essential capacity-building tool for the school leader and others within the context as a leader draws upon the skills, talents and experience of others within a school community and beyond, to better anticipate and respond to current and foreseeable challenges and opportunities.

System

Events in society can positively and/or negatively affect all areas of schooling. This is an area of agreement among school leaders and researchers on school leadership. Clarke and Wildy (2016) argue that "school leaders do not simply descend into implementing the policies and values of the system, but are also able to question or to adapt system imperatives" (p. 47). This view is supported by evidence from studies of school leaders in

England (Riley, Dockings & Rowles, 2000) and Jamaica (Miller, 2016) where it was found that school leaders engaged in "rule breaking" and "policy filtering" in order to cope with the content and volume of policy implementation required of them. Lovett et al. (2014) point out that the plethora of regulatory requirements in an education system is directed at securing "compliance". As a result, Clarke and Wildy argue, "dealing with the system, therefore, takes not only functional knowledge, understanding and contending with matters of compliance, but also confidence, determination and political sophistication" (p. 47). Political sophistication, they argue, is grounded in the ability to adapt and align external policy dictates to suit a school's internal capabilities and purposes. This argument is sustained by findings from this research.

> *Schools are constantly responding to national and local pressures. It is for schools to have the integrity and courage to respond appropriately to the different contexts in which they find themselves*. (England, 7F)
>
> *The political environment here in Mozambique makes it very hard for school leaders to see the fruits of their work, as almost weekly there are changes and new demands*. (Mozambique, 1M)

Harris and Thomson (2006) remind us that school leadership is experiencing "a multiplicity of economic, emotional and social challenges" (p. 21). The ability of school leaders to manage multiple complexities of people, place and system is crucial to their own success as well as to the success of their schools. On the one hand, school leaders must deliver truth to purpose. On the other hand, they must successfully navigate complex institutional, social, interpersonal, economic and other environmental factors in trying to secure an advantage for their school.

Context and Leadership Practice

School leadership is hard work, and, as discussed above, the context in which a school/school leader operates can make or break them. That is, is a school a high performing school? Is it a coasting school? Is it a low performing school? Is it an improving school? Where a school is at in the improvement cycle and how it sees itself are important factors in

establishing its internal culture (Hallinger, 2016). Furthermore, as Clarke and Wildy (2004) note, "[u]nderstanding the impact of contextual factors can contribute to the principal's ability to work in the particular setting" (p. 556).

Day and Leithwood (2007) also found evidence that school leaders adjust their leadership practices in response to changes in a school's capacity and performance over time. Specifically, they found that in trying to turn schools around, successful school leaders prioritised safety, behaviour management, teaching and learning, performance objectives and management. School leaders also provide a positive learning culture, professional development opportunities for staff and, where appropriate, shared leadership.

> An effective leader is about individuals, circumstances and surroundings and is willing to adjust their approach to leadership as is needed. (St Maarten, 1F)
>
> Challenging contexts bring additional difficulties- an schools in leafy affluent areas have their own challenges. The culture of a challenging context with families suffering can lead to low aspirations for students, and breaking down these barriers makes the work of a school leader much harder. (England, 4F)

This important juxtaposition underlines the importance of the relationship between outcomes for students and school context. School leaders do not operate in a vacuum and, largely, their actions depend not only on the context in which they work but also on how they perceive this context (Bredeson, Klar & Johannson, 2011). Familial structures and the wider community context influence leadership practice and success. Being able to read one's environment thus allows school leaders to devise strategies and interventions grounded in a clear purpose and that can help them "deal with the problems, issues and challenges they encounter in their work" (Southworth, 2002, p. 86). This purpose is primarily the success of students.

> *I read and hear a lot about the moral purpose of working in areas of deprivation and I don't dispute this, but all teaching has a moral purpose. For all children this is their one chance, whether they live in a leafy, lovely village such as mine, or not, and so I feel pupil achievement is non-negotiable no matter where a school is located.* (England, 10F)

Continuing, she also highlights:

> *Nevertheless, I have certainly ended up in a 'niche' very different to my first school, and have not applied for headships because the context of the school was not 'in my skill set'. Different contexts bring very different challenges. For example, in particular, parental concerns are expressed very different here, compared to the school where I began my teaching career*. (England, 10F)

No two schools are the same, and each school offers a leader varying degrees of opportunities and challenges for learning and personal growth. Southworth (2002) found that the most important learning for school leaders occurred "on the job". Clarke (2003) also found that the most significant learning for school leaders occurred on the job through trial and error. Schon (1983) describes this as "knowing-in-action" (p. 43).

Context and Purpose

No two school contexts are the same, and interventions and strategies that work in one context may not work in another. As noted above, however, all leadership is purpose driven. This means that, as a factor in leadership, purpose is non-negotiable regardless of school location or environmental constraints. Put another way, although factors related to the purpose of schooling may change, such as school leaders or strategies used by school leaders, the purpose of schools and schooling does not change. Purpose therefore transcends other factors associated with leadership and may be seen as a central force in leadership practice and an aspiration.

> *This is my second school as Headteacher. The contexts of both schools are very different so it is impossible to just try and repeat what I did in my first school. It just won't work. There are some fundamental things that work regardless of context: strong behaviour systems, high expectations etc, but you need to understand the context of your school in order to be a successful school leader*. (England, 2M)
>
> *School leadership is contextual and a different leadership style may be needed in different locations or circumstances. However, the nature and purpose of leadership shines through regardless of the context. A school leader's relationship*

with individuals (students, staff, parents, wider community) is dependent on his/her values, not necessarily the size of the school, the location of the school or the economic standing of the school environment. (Canada, 1F)

Context shapes purpose and purpose shapes context. As discussed elsewhere in this chapter, a school's context comprises several factors that present themselves as levers and/or constraints. Although having potential to significantly influence the realisation a school's purpose, environmental factors cannot in and of themselves detract from the purpose of schooling, nor do they detract from a school's mission and vision. This paradox acknowledges two important things. First, the purpose of schools and schooling is an independent variable that has an enduring quality. Second, achieving the purpose of schools/schooling is dependent of contextual factors. Bossert et al. (1982) support this proposition by arguing that the peculiarities of context shape the behaviour of school leaders, and successful school leaders adapt their leadership to the needs, opportunities and constraints present within their own work contexts.

Moreover, for schools to achieve or exceed their aims and objectives, school leaders must have a vision for what they want their school to achieve, and when and under what conditions achieving these will be likely. Pashiardis and Johansson (2016) propose that "context is a bridge between success and effectiveness" (p.9). This important proposition recognises an important relationship between context and leadership whilst simultaneously highlighting that context is (only) one of several factors constraining and/or energising leadership. Beyond and within context there must therefore be a strategy and plan for how leadership is to be done and how targets can be realised.

Leadership is all about the school context, understanding where we are now and having a collective sense of where we want to be in 3 to 5 years. The journey being mapped out and not being knocked of course by national initiatives, do we know our school and what our children need now, are we looking to the future needs of our children and community. (England, 6M)

Ideally, school leaders will not mindlessly try to import ideas and solutions one context to another without first assessing the isms and

particularities between different contexts. These could include the capacity of a new context, and any associated conditions related to the success of particular ideas and interventions. Leadership purpose and the purpose of schooling are sustained over time and between spaces and are non-derogable, but context is fluid and has a direct impact on schools/leaders fulfilling their purpose. It is this fluidity that makes context such an important factor in school leadership.

Evidence Summary

With respect to school leadership is "context dependent":

- Both male and female school leaders regard context as an important element in the success or failure of leadership, although female school leaders scored more highly. This suggests that female school leaders believe more strongly that leadership effectiveness is context dependent.
- Female leaders showed a stronger correlation between "entrepreneurial and enterprising leadership" and "context dependent leadership".
- "Personal and internally motivated leadership" is strongly correlated with "context dependent leadership". This suggests that a strong relationship exists between a leader's personal agency, the quality of their leadership and the context in which they work.
- There were significant correlations between "teacher dependent leadership" and "context dependent leadership" among both female and male school leaders.
- All school leaders were influenced by a combination of events in their national social, cultural, political and economic environments, although some more than others. In Pakistan, school leadership is more likely to be influenced by events in the cultural and social environments. In Jamaica, Mozambique, South Africa, Cyprus and Turkey, school leadership is more likely to be influenced by events in the economic and social environments. In the USA, Canada and England, school leadership is more likely to be influenced by events in the economic and political environments.

Characteristics of context dependent school leadership include:

environmental awareness
accountability mechanisms, performance targets
improvement orientation, purpose led
multiple approaches to leadership, directional conflicts
adding value, flexibility
motivation, agency
vision, people

Making Sense of It All

Context matters in leadership, and context is a significant factor in determining leadership effectiveness and success. Events and conditions in the international context, national context and institutional context have an impact on the ability of a school to achieve its goals at a particular point in time. Furthermore, the social, cultural, geographic, economic, technological and, where applicable, religious contexts of a school combine to influence its likely direction, short- to mid-term aims and objectives, and the approach to leadership provided by school leaders. Pont, Nusche and Moorman (2008) assert:

> [T]here is no single model of leadership that could be easily transferred across different school-level and system-level contexts. The specific contexts in which schools operate may limit a school leader's room for maneuvering, or provide opportunities for different types of leadership. Depending on the school contexts in which they work, school leaders face very different sets of challenges. (p. 31)

In this study, school leaders from developing countries are working in contexts where financing education is problematic, leading to schools and school leaders having to make do or simply do without. This is not the case for school leaders in developed countries, in particular in England, who are working in a context where there are frequent changes to school curriculum and to the structure of schooling. Among all 16 countries in the study, there is increased national focus on schools contributing more

to, if not leading, economic renewal. There is also increased focus on more and better outcomes for students, performance targets and external accountability matrices. The education policy context in all countries also appeared to be somewhat ad hoc and conflictful. Nevertheless, the purpose of schools does not itself waiver or change with context. As one school leader states, "*the context makes the school; the school is what the leader makes it; but the purpose is the purpose*" (South Africa, 6M). This observation acknowledges the interlocking of leadership practice, context and purpose. How, when and what a leader does are therefore important factors in their leadership, in "getting under the skin" of context and in avoiding "mindless actions". One school leader articulates this important point thus:

> *Effective leadership has to take advantage of education in a variety of contexts both inside and outside the school environment. Leaders have to be able to see through complexity and find clear direction. They have to be able to put the right resources and people in the right place at the right time*. (Jamaica, 2F)

Arguably, this is the nub of context dependent leadership. That is, school leadership takes account of events in a school's environments; uses available resources appropriately; and combines these with judgement, vision and purpose to make decisions about a school's capacity to achieve its goals.

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8

School Leadership Is Partnership Dependent

Introduction

Schools cannot and do not operate in silos, and nor can or do school leaders. Schools rely heavily on a range of partners/partnerships in order to carry out their functions and to be successful. Partners may be internal to a school (e.g. parents or teachers) or they may be external (e.g. industry). There are also different types of partnership, for example, school-to-school; school-to-industry and school-to-community. School-to-school partnerships may be local or international. Regardless of how they are structured, school partnerships are especially important to schools and to their abilities to deliver to students a "qualitatively different educational experience" (Miller, 2016, p. 106).

Schools are established to provide education services within particular communities. When I forge partnerships both internally (various school clubs/groups, e.g. PTA's) and externally (government and NGO's) it widens the human and resource capital which I can tap into to initiate and facilitate school improvement. Each type of partnership will have something different to offer regarding support. It is here that such partnerships can become useful to me as a leader for promoting enterprising and entrepreneurial cultures within the school. (Montserrat, 1M)

I think that the extent to which leaders network and draw on the expertise of others is crucial to their effectiveness. Particularly those with leadership experience and competence both within education and business. (England, 5F)

P. W. Miller, *The Nature of School Leadership*, Intercultural Studies in Education,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-70105-9_8

Globally, competition between national education systems and competition within national education systems have contributed to some school leaders shying away from engaging in partnership working unless they feel there is a definite and tangible benefit to be gained for their school. Drawing on evidence from his study of Jamaican and English school leaders, Miller (2016) quotes one school leader as saying,

> We partner with local businesses so our students can get a 'head start' on what may be required of them in the real world of work, through a period of work experience. This is the only kind of partnership we feel we can take on as a school as the other kinds of partnership engagements would simply distract us and create extra work for everyone. (p. 131)

Miller describes this approach to partnership working as an "inverted view of systems leadership" (p. 131). In his view, Miller asserts that such an approach ignores the bigger issues at the expense of short-term goals that are singular to an institution. Miller notes that inasmuch as school leaders conclude that their choice of school partners was underpinned by the needs of their students and in line with the trajectory of their schools, by applying a restricted criterion school leaders may not have (always) provided their schools and therefore their students with the best opportunities available. Notwithstanding Miller's view, it is hard to disagree with those who would argue that applying a restricted criterion to partnership working is a necessary evil, since partnerships can lead to a drain on resources and can demand more of some schools within a partnership than others. Moreover, all partners, regardless of the precise form a partnership takes, contribute from a position of strength whilst building capacity in other areas from partnership members.

Commenting on school partnerships and what he felt are advantages associated with them, the UK's former Schools Minister, David Miliband (2003), suggested they "expand the horizons of young people, and ensure that their progress inside the classroom is supported outside it". He also noted, "Partnerships are challenging but they are also exciting. They require brokerage, planning and critical review" (p. 3). More broadly, he suggested that partnerships could contribute to teaching that is more effective, and lead teachers and learners to become more knowledgeable

and more aware. If conceptualised and managed properly, partnership working can provide real opportunities for schools to become involved in cross-institutional working and in some cases cross-cultural learning and literacy.

The Issue in Context: Educational Partnerships

Education should prepare students to live independent lives and to contribute to national development through skills and knowledge gained. In many national education systems, however, despite the hard work of school leaders, teachers and many other professionals, there is no guarantee that schools, working on their own, are able to provide students the type of education to enable them and society to reap the best possible rewards. Successful schools, successful businesses and successful communities go hand-in-hand and, in order to meet individual and national developmental objectives, there is need for better links between local businesses and schools (Manchester City Council, 2006). Put differently, businesses must provide support to schools by helping them reinforce the relevance of learning through the development of industry-relevant programmes and courses, through offering apprenticeship and other placement opportunities, as well as through scholarship opportunities and/or direct funding.

Not all partnerships will or can include industry, and not all partnership will be about funding or access to funding opportunities. School-to-school partnerships are important for developing both staff and students and can provide significant opportunities for personal growth. Rod Mackinnon and Anne Burrell, two school leaders in England, writing in *The Telegraph* (2014), describe the partnership between both their schools as a "meeting of minds, rather than money, and the sharing of excellent practice".

There is no single definition of educational partnerships, and different forms of educational cooperation have been described as partnership. For example, educational "link", educational "collaboration" and educational "partnership" have all been used interchangeably. Moreover, the term "partnership" has been used as an umbrella term to cover a broad range

of working arrangements that involve multiple actors (e.g. agencies, groups and/or individuals) working together to achieve common or agreed goals or purposes.

Partnerships can be short term or long term, and may be process oriented (e.g. focused on how things are done in a particular way, such as an approach to teaching), or they could be product oriented (e.g. focused on specific or intended outcomes). Partnerships can arise out of a school's desire to focus on community involvement, a desire to secure opportunities (mainly funding or gifts) for its activities, or a desire to provide students and staff with new and different experiences and opportunities to teach and learn. Partnerships are varied and the benefits for schools, school leaders, teachers, students as well as others involved can be significant. Partnerships, however, are not all the same, nor do they all have the same weight. Some partnerships are therefore purely pragmatic and others are strategic.

Partnership Drivers

A school's decision to enter a partnership can be influenced by an individual school or may be part of a wider scheme, developed for schools by governments in line with national agendas. Changes in a school's environment continue to lead national governments and school leaders to "do education differently" (Miller, 2012, p. 9). In particular, changes in the international and national environments have meant, increasingly, that schools are under pressure to produce different kinds of results, to be innovative and to stand out. Being innovative and achieving the best outcomes for students is, after all, what schools are and should be about. Nevertheless, levels of change demanded by supranational and national agencies appear to be a key driver in how schools and school leaders can and will (be able to) exercise leadership. As Miller (2016) forewarns, "as the policy landscape continues to experience rapid changes, nationally and internationally, schools …. will become involved in partnership working rather than attempting to go it alone" (p. 14).

In the UK, the educational policy environment has been and continues to be a key driver for school partnership working. For example, the

post-16 White Paper *Learning to Succeed* is "based on partnership and co-operation between individuals, businesses and communities, as well as institutions" (DfEE, 1999, p. 4). The White Paper *Schools Achieving Success* promotes partnerships for improving schools "with other successful schools, the voluntary sector, faith groups and the private sector" (DfES, 2001, p. 44). The Five Year Strategy for Children and Learners considers partnership working essential to securing improvements in schools, with partner schools having "responsibility for school improvement across the partnership … flexible sharing of resources across the partnership and freedom about where and what support services to access" (DfES, 2004, p. 42). The Education White Paper *The Importance of Teaching* (DfE, 2010) describes partnership working as follows: "[s]chools working together leads to better results" where "[a]long with our best schools, we will encourage strong and experienced sponsors to play a leadership role in driving the improvement of the whole school system…" (DfE, 2010, p. 60).

Another driver for partnership working identified by Briggs (2010) is the "the shared resolve between organisations to work together for the collective benefit of the learners within (usually) a cohesive geographical region" (p. 7). Although Briggs' definition restricts potential partnerships to geographical regions, key elements of successful partnerships such as shared commitment and a social benefit are well established.

Benefits of Partnership Working

The overall impact of school-to-school collaboration on student outcomes has been mixed, and the evidence for indirect impacts of school-to-school collaboration on student outcomes is more extensive. For example, many studies report improvements in areas such as innovation and best practice; approach to professional development; career development and opportunities; improved use of school leaders' time; and greater efficiencies and waste reduction (Armstrong, 2015; Woods, Armstrong & Pearson, 2013).

The benefits of partnership working for students is also much debated. Briggs (2010) identifies the "collective" benefit for students in terms of

raising aspiration, and increasing educational outcomes for groups of students, which should contribute to increased employment and social mobility. Briggs (2010, p. 12) also identified a range of potential benefits to the individual student from school level partnership working:

- Mixing with other learners
- Individualised provision
- Increased learner autonomy
- Improved self-image
- Increased independence
- Social benefits of learning
- Improved teacher/learner relationship
- Increased stimulation
- Increased aspiration
- Variety of specialist facilities and learning locations
- Range of learning cultures
- Increased curriculum range
- Increased chance of relevance
- Better match of learner to provision
- Improved engagement
- Improved achievement

A number of potential benefits for staff have also been identified from school-to-school partnership working whether organised nationally (Ainscow, Muijs & West, 2006; Hadfield & Chapman, 2009; Stoll, 2015) or internationally (Miller et al., 2015). These include:

- Joint problem solving and lesson planning
- Sharing of resources, practice and expertise
- Solidarity in responses to negative circumstances
- Increased/improved staff expectations of learners
- Renewed focus and professionalism
- Increased professional dialogue
- Shared curriculum development
- Shared strategy development for responding to needs of learners.

Similar benefits to staff are apparent in engagement with professional learning communities, which may operate within individual organisations, but may also extend beyond them. School-to-school partnerships (can) also provide opportunities for leadership training and development as schools seek to develop leadership capacity to compensate for and accommodate the additional workload that accompanies partnership work. In the main, schools are generally very positive about partnership, and many school leaders maintain that they can and do see a range of benefits of engaging in such partnerships that are carefully conceptualised and managed.

International School Partnerships

Globally, school-to-school partnerships as a means of improvement have also become more prevalent in recent years, with examples of school-to-school collaboration across a number of countries, for example, the USA, Canada, Finland, Scotland, Belgium, Spain, India, Northern Ireland and Malta. Furthermore, OECD-commissioned research has also identified examples of several school-to-school partnership activities occurring in several different education systems (Pont, Nusche & Moorman, 2008). In the UK, for example, there has been renewed interest in encouraging educational institutions to engage in international partnerships. The White Paper *Putting the World into World Class Education* (DfES, 2004) acknowledges the global implications of national educational systems. The Crisp Report (2007) also highlights ways organisations can encourage, foster, promote and benefit from global partnerships. UK based schools engage in partnership working with non-UK based schools for a number of reasons, for example:

- Engaging with the global dimension in education
- Leveraging opportunities for UK staff to work in and/or collaborate with others in new and different socio-political and cultural environments
- Leveraging opportunities for students to visit and/or collaborate with others in new and different socio-political and cultural environments

The benefits of partnership working to staff and students in other countries, in particular developing countries, may be similar to those identified for staff and students based in England. Individual, interpersonal and organisational capacity development can be accrued to individuals and schools from carefully planned and delivered collaborative activities. From their Teacher Continuing Professional Development across borders project, which included school leaders and teachers from Jamaica and England spending time in educational settings both in England and Jamaica, school leaders described these international school-to-school partnership activities as "life changing" and "beneficial to entire school communities, not only those who participated directly" (Miller et al., 2015).

The Evidence

There are several different types of partnership in education, and a school by necessity will be engaged in some form of partnership working at different times during its lifetime. Partnerships provide schools several benefits, from work placement opportunities for students, to sharing good practice for teachers and school leaders. The type of partnership a school engages in will be based on their perceived needs and the phase of development and improvement they are at. Partnerships may be for pragmatic or strategic reasons such as fundraising, research and for sharing of resources and practice.

> *Educational leadership depends on partnership cooperation between the school principal and teachers, also between the school and the community outside. Students are customers of the school and it is better to manage positive relationships with them and with their parents. The school's success depends on partnership with various factors, but principals working in partnership with teachers is the most important one. Partnership with them will lead to success. Partnerships strengthen a school provide opportunities for new resources.* (Israel, 3F)

Partnerships can enable schools to enrich and extend learning opportunities provided to students (Hadfield & Chapman, 2009) as well as leverage the expertise and support of community interests, parents and staff (Ainscow et al., 2006).

Home-School Partnerships

A Parent-Teacher Association (PTA) (also called: Parent-Teacher-Student Association, Parent-Teacher and Friends Association, Home-School Association) is a formal entity within a school's structure, composed of parents, teachers and staff. The primary intent of a PTA is to encourage and facilitate closer links between home and school. However, over time, PTAs have developed a reputation for spearheading a school's fundraising activities and for contributing to their social agendas. They provide extensive support to schools in areas of policy development and improving school community relations, and it is customary for the leader of the PTA to be co-opted to serve on a school board, which, according to Miller (2016), "may be thought of as a group of 'agents' or 'middle men' (sic) with important internal and external accountability functions" (p. 111).

> *Successful school leaders rely heavily upon a strong and functioning parent-teacher organisation and other alliances*. (Guyana, 1M)
>
> *Parent and guardian support is integral to the success of students. The most important part of this partnership is the joint appreciation for the value of education. Parents do not need to visit the school daily or even provide the school with financial support. Some parents are unable to assist their children with homework assignments etc. However, instilling that value for education and the respect for the individuals who are working with their children is paramount. Without the support of parents/guardians it is almost impossible for teachers to be effective in their roles*. (Canada, 1F)

Although not all home-school partnerships will automatically lead to increased funding or scholarship opportunities becoming available to schools, home-school partnerships are among the most essential and important partnerships for a school. Students and their families are customers and schools are set up to serve students and their families, and when parents understand, embrace and transmit what schools are trying to achieve for students, there is a greater likelihood that students will be much more focused and more responsive to the process of schooling. Moreover, when home-school partnerships are based on an awareness of the role and value of education, underpinned by a

school's vision and objectives, activities undertaken by parents and staff involved in these partnerships will be more targeted and therefore more meaningful.

School Based Partnerships

A school is a community where webs of partnerships involving school leaders, teachers, staff and students hold members together by a shared purpose and a shared understanding of that purpose. This shared understanding allows each member to connect with the school and with its mission, and partnership webs are underpinned by teamwork and by respect for what each partner must do in order for a school to advance or achieve its goals.

No school leader is an island. As discussed in Chap. 4 (School Leadership is Teacher Dependent), no matter the age, years of teaching/leadership experience and/or the qualifications of school leaders, they cannot do leadership on their own. As also discussed in Chaps. 1 and 3, school leadership is a collective endeavour, where, within a common or shared understanding of purpose, each member plays a role in making a school's vision a reality.

> *Principals today are expected to be visionaries (instilling a sense of purpose in their staff) and competent managers (maintaining the physical plant, submitting documents on time), as well as instructional leaders (coaching teachers in the nuances of classroom practice). Under such pressure from a range of sources, many administrators simply cannot devote enough time and energy to school improvement. Therefore, principals have to form an excellent relationship with academic and ancillary staff in delegating duties. This helps to reduce stress and better avoid burnout … Being able to introduce new ideas and approaches in their school with greater receptivity.* (Jamaica, 2F)

Schools wishing to be successful often have to look beyond the boundaries of their own school. Schools are increasingly dependent on school-to-school support and collaboration. Schools cannot afford to remain isolated, for not only would this lead to stagnation, it also risks closure. The current educational landscape in several national education systems

means school leaders have to tread a fine line between collaboration and competition—and collaboration can only work if there is trust between all stakeholders, a shared moral purpose and a commitment to system leadership that transcends the immediate boundaries of an individual school.

There is an obvious pragmatic issue regarding school partnerships. In order for schools to be successful, those who study and work in them must work together, being guided by the same values and expectations. Successful teaching and working within a school community is therefore entirely dependent on the whole school community working together—where school leaders, staff and students work in tandem for the overall success of their school.

School-Community Partnerships

School-community partnerships is a major area of interest and energy for schools. For some schools, entering into partnership with the community is pragmatic whereas for others it's strategic. Used here, pragmatic partnerships are short term and focus on the achievement of specific (mostly one off) opportunities. Pragmatic partnerships may be described as opportunistic and may at times be ad hoc. Strategic partnerships are longer term and are associated with more sustainable outcomes. To be effective, these require commitment and investment from all members, and they are highly structured. It is, however, the responsibility of a school to determine the nature and type of partnership it enters into with its local community and business organisations. However, from what we know, school leaders tend to enter into a combination of short-term partnerships that can provide (usually funding) opportunities for students as well as providing students and staff opportunities that can contribute to broadening their horizons (Miliband, 2003).

> *The community helps the leader in achieving the vison and mission of the school.* (South Africa, 6F)
>
> *Community partnerships allow for additional resources—e.g. role models, apprenticeship, career exploration opportunities, financial support.* (Canada, 1F)

School community relationship is critical in today's society and it is imperative that as a school leader I try to forge meaningful partnerships with the community in an effort to aid student learning and help in the realization of the vision of the school. (Antigua, 2F)

There is an interdependent relationship between a school and a community. Although the interdependent nature of this partnership has not always been recognised, schools leverage significant resources and other benefits from a community, whilst also providing for the community—in different ways, both in the short and longer term.

Schools must lead community success as all values learned at school are indirectly related to what pupils will face in community in the future. (Israel, 1F)

School leaders depend on the community and the community depends on schools. (Jamaica, 1F)

The importance and relevance of school-community partnerships cannot be overstated. Faced with continuing cuts to school funding, school leaders in developed and developing countries are turning to public-private sector companies for financial and other forms of assistance. Although this is a feature commonly associated with schooling in developing countries, school leaders in developed countries are also extending the degree of entrepreneurial leadership to partnerships geared around sourcing (extra) funds for schools. Moreover, school-community partnerships provide (community) members opportunities to better understand and appreciate current educational, social, economic and cultural demands on schools, students and families.

Partnership Benefits

A number of benefits are associated with members of a school community working in partnership with each other as well as schools working in partnership with each other and/or with other agencies/individuals: sharing resources, practice and expertise (Ainscow et al., 2006), coordinated responses to negative circumstances (Hill & Matthews, 2010),

improved staff expectations of learners (Hadfield & Chapman, 2009), renewed professionalism and focus (Miller et al., 2015), increased professional dialogue and shared strategy for curriculum development and responding to needs of learners (Stoll, 2015).

School-to-school partnerships can (and do) provide several opportunities for school leaders to share and receive feedback on ideas and strategy, and for staff to share ideas and co-construct solutions to challenges associated with their practice. In other words, school partnerships are useful for improving pedagogical practice and leadership practice. This strongly held view among school leaders in this study mirrors earlier research by Woods et al. (2013) that found that school partnerships can (and do) lead to innovation and sharing best practice, waste reduction and improved efficiencies, opportunities for staff development and better use of time for school leaders.

> Schools can do more when they work in partnership with each other and with other agencies and institutions. As resources are scare, *economies of scale, developing and sharing good practice, and raising and moderating standards and raising standards are best realised through partnerships that are built on trust and a shared moral purpose*. (England, 6M)
>
> In order to develop best practices, it is important to be aware of and learn from what is happening in different educational environments. (England, 4F)
>
> *Strong school leadership works in partnerships—learning from others, sharing ideas and resources and (hopefully) creating solutions that benefit others*. (England, 3M)

Perhaps the most obvious reason for schools entering into partnership with community interests, in particular businesses and wealthy or well-connected individuals, is the hope of sourcing or securing (additional) funding for school. As discussed earlier, some school leaders are very pragmatic about the type of partnerships they engage in and some are unlikely to engage in partnerships that do not provide an associated financial gain. This approach to school-community partnerships is more commonly associated with schools/leaders in developing countries.

> *Partnerships for this school have proven very effective. It has been established that the greater the partnership the greater the achievements. Partnering with individuals, institutions and organisations in line with the institutional needs*

can be mutually beneficial. Our school has benefited from partnerships educationally and socially and this has had a positive impact on academic growth and students and teacher morale. (Jamaica, 4F)

We have allowed several community businesses and influential persons to sponsor and/or to contribute heavily to supplement the regular curricula as well as extra curricula activities. (Anguilla, 1F)

The school cannot do it alone. Partnerships will help keep the school accountable, provide additional resources both financial and human to help alleviate limitations. Also when students realize how involved their parents are their performance will improve. (Antigua, 1F)

Schools cannot, on their own, transform the fortunes of society. No school is an island. To be successful or to stand a chance of being successful, school leaders must forge purposeful partnerships with several stakeholders and the wider community. It is the responsibility of each school/leader to determine the precise approach to partnership working that is suited to their needs and appropriate to their circumstances that best enables them to leverage any likely benefit. The NCSL (2013) found that school leaders benefit from the mutual support they receive from working in partnership since collaboration provided access to different ways of tackling problems. Furthermore, it was also stated that partnership working helps to develop and deepen systems leadership practices and thinking among school leaders through working with education related agencies, businesses and community organisations.

Partnership Drivers and Enablers

Two main drivers appear to be at the heart of school partnerships: the national educational policy context and the need for financial assistance. Both were previously identified as contributing to the formation of school-community partnerships—in particular pragmatic partnerships driven by an expected (or likely) financial outcome. Miller (2016) notes that changes in the international and national environments of schools mean that, by necessity, school leaders have to "do education differently"

(Miller, 2012, p. 9). This is both as a response to events within a school's environments and as a means of surviving since, increasingly, events outside of school are shaping what schools/leaders do and this can be expected to continue well into the foreseeable future.

> *The principal is entirely dependent on partnerships to help with the school plant as sometimes the ministry seems to forget rural schools and the myriad of challenges they face. These schools are underfunded and the grants sent by the ministry on a termly basis is never enough to take care of the needs of the school.* (Jamaica, 8F)

Whatever the driver, the primary objective of school leaders remains constant: achieving the best (possible) outcomes for students. Schools cannot be isolated from the community, for to be isolated would be at their own peril. Instead, schools are choosing to leverage economies of scale and other forms of assistance from various interests, including businesses, PTAs, religious and other organisations and past student associations in order to increase the likelihood of meeting their governments' and their own performance targets for students.

Sustaining Partnerships

Partnership working is hard work. Research suggests that some school leaders shy away from partnership working because of the volume of work involved in setting up and sustaining them (NCSL, 2013). Former UK Schools Minister David Miliband warns that partnerships are challenging and therefore require planning and critical review. Deciding the focus of partnerships and therefore planning for their longevity is not only smart human resource management but also common sense.

> *Partnerships are key for schools to be the best they can be—whether it is with business, parents/carers, local authorities/trusts, Higher Education, etc. However, it is important that schools have the capacity to manage those partnerships and not become overwhelmed by them.* (England, 7F)

Partnership arrangements require careful negotiation and joint planning. School based schemes require a great deal of flexibility and a willingness to adapt to changing circumstances (Frost, Durrant, Head & Holden, 2000, p. 157). Successful schools, argue Hillman and Stoll (1994), "depend on people … understanding the school's culture and developing it in such a way that supports the process of change" (p. 3).

> *My local partnership of schools is small, diverse and if I am honest fairly dysfunctional. I have come from a much larger, powerful partnership where there was a great deal of activity on a collective level—joint conferences, networks etc. I do seek networks to work within, for example a recent peer review programme organised by the teaching schools alliance, but I think the power of these networks is mostly on a personal professional level for me, rather than having a wider impact on my school. The opportunity for teachers to see different schools at work is very valuable, but hard to arrange regularly unless there is a partnership available.* (England, 10F)

Where partnership goals are clearly established, they increase the likelihood of success and of making desired impacts. Moreover, when partners have a shared understanding of what a partnership is about and their role in it, they are more likely to be successful. Becoming overly involved in external partnership arrangements can be distracting and can result in loss of focus for a school and/or a school leader (Miller, 2016). Schools need to maximise every opportunity to work collaboratively with other schools and other agencies in their environment, albeit not at the expense of students and the quality of their education. Similarly, schools that work in silos should understand that doing so is also at a cost to students.

Evidence Summary

With respect to school leadership is "partnership dependent":

- Both male and female school leaders scored highly for partnership dependent leadership, although female school leaders scored higher than males—which means female school leaders are more likely to enact leadership through partnerships compared with male school

leaders. This confirms earlier research by Eagly and Koenig (2006) that female leaders are more communal and put more energy into relationship building.
- "Personal and internally motivated leadership" correlates strongly with "partnership dependent leadership", confirming earlier findings that although school leadership is a personal activity it is also a collective endeavour.
- School leaders in both developing and developed countries entered into partnerships for pragmatic and strategic reasons. For example, school leaders in developing countries are more likely to enter into partnership arrangements for practical and mostly short-term reasons such as to raise funds for a specific venture, whereas school leaders in developed countries were more likely to enter into partnership arrangements for both strategic and pragmatic reasons.

Characteristics of partnership dependent schools include:

alliances
symbiotic relationships
cooperation, trust
multiple stakeholders
strategic, openness, conflicts
pragmatic and strategic choices
capacity building, change
sustainability

Making Sense of It All

The activities of schools are supported by and delivered through a series of partnerships—some of which are internal to a school, although some are not. Some examples of partnerships include school-to-school, school-to-community, school-to-industry as well as the PTA working with a school or on behalf of a school. Arguably, partnerships are the lifeblood of a school without which schools would not be able to achieve their goals and maximise their potential.

Schools enter into partnerships for different reasons. In several countries, school-to-school partnerships are sometimes mandated or strongly encouraged by education ministries/departments through the creation of education action zones (also called networked learning communities, education learning zones). In these partnerships, school leaders share problems, strategies and solutions in an attempt to improve the provisions of all schools within a cluster or zone. Moreover, in education action zones, the focus is very much on the development of "the system" through improving schools that are geographically clustered, or schools that share certain characteristics likely to enhance the value of the overall partnership and for each participating school. These are examples of strategic partnerships—built on and held together by a common purpose for each participating school, for the community and for society as a whole. Strategic partnerships, I should clarify, do not only include school-to-school partnerships or those directed by an education ministry/department, but can also include partnerships established between schools and other organisations/groups to achieve longer-term objectives. Home-school partnerships are therefore good examples of strategic partnerships.

As we have also seen, partnerships can be entered into for pragmatic reasons. School leaders often choose which schools or which business or other group or organisation with which to partner as they seek to achieve short-term outcomes for schools/students. This pragmatic view of partnership working is quite common and is perhaps the norm. Miller (2016) described this approach to partnership working as "an inverted view of systems leadership" (p. 131). At a time of high stakes testing, increased class sizes, increased performativity, compliance and accountability measures, schools can scarcely run the risk of being distracted when school leaders and teachers already agree that there aren't enough hours in the day for them to cover core activities such as completing curriculum and assessing and planning extra-curricular activities.

Although an area not as developed, international school partnerships are a growing focus. Students and staff and therefore schools benefit directly from the trickle-down effect of increased cultural awareness and from new or improved intercultural and cross-cultural understandings

(Miller & Potter, 2017), engaging with the global dimension in education and leveraging opportunities for staff and students to work, study, visit or otherwise collaborate with others in new and different socio-political and cultural environments (Crisp, 2007). Whatever form a partnership takes, whether internal to a school or external, partnerships are crucial to a school's success and sustainability. Partnerships provide schools with a range of benefits acknowledged by school leaders, and without which a school would be somewhat poorer and somewhat further away from achieving its objectives.

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9

The Nature of School Leadership

Introduction

Research for this book was conducted among school leaders (headteachers, principals) in 16 countries and was guided by three questions:

- What is school leadership?
- How do you do school leadership?
- What underpins your leadership?

Educational leadership is widely recognised as complex and challenging. Educational leaders are expected to develop learning communities, build the professional capacity of teachers, take advice from parents, engage in collaborative and consultative decision making, resolve conflicts, engage in educative instructional leadership, and attend respectfully, immediately, and appropriately to the needs and requests of families with diverse cultural, ethnic, and socioeconomic backgrounds. Increasingly, educational leaders are faced with tremendous pressure to demonstrate that every child for whom they are responsible is achieving success. (Shields, 2004, p. 109)

[E]ducational leadership can no longer be seen as delivering outcomes for a national state but rather for a globalised economy, although in the process one might expect the exercise of leadership to increase a nation's competiveness. Educational leadership therefore may be thought of as both a lock and a key, to be used to secure and safeguard and to release and reassure. (Miller, 2017, p. 8)

P. W. Miller, *The Nature of School Leadership*, Intercultural Studies in Education,
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As discussed in the Introduction, my reason for asking these questions was not to "test" school leaders' knowledge of leadership theory and/or practice. Rather, it was to understand from school leaders, first, how they conceptualise leadership, second, to identify and articulate strategies used in their job role to secure short- and long-term objectives, and third, to identify and ascertain driving forces behind their approach to leadership. School leaders were asked the same set of questions, regardless of country, gender, school type, leadership experience or any other category. This was especially important since the primary aim of the research was to derive insights from the accounts and experiences of school leaders in different global contexts as well as to generate theoretical and perspectival insights from these accounts and experiences. It was thus my belief that this approach would contribute to our understanding of school leadership as a field of practice from the perspective of practitioners, and as a body of theory within and across different national and cultural spaces, thus enabling us to make more authoritative judgements about the nature of school leadership globally (beyond national borders).

Asserting the Nature of School Leadership

School leadership has many dimensions and is the second most important factor, behind teaching, in the success of schools/students (Seashore Louis, Wahlstrom, Leithwood & Anderson, 2004). School leaders contribute to creating a school's culture through prioritising teaching and learning, simplifying operations and processes, acquiring and providing resources, building relationships within and outside schools, working collaboratively with others, developing and articulating a clear vision, and acting with the highest level of integrity. These varied roles and functions help us to (better) understand and appreciate the evolving nature of school leadership, described as "a more contentious, complex, situated and dynamic phenomenon than previously thought" (Dinham, 2011, p. 4). Based on the school leaders' responses to the question "What is school leadership?" I assert that school leadership is a practice derived from four unique yet interrelated dimensions (see Fig. 9.1). I discuss each of these dimensions below.

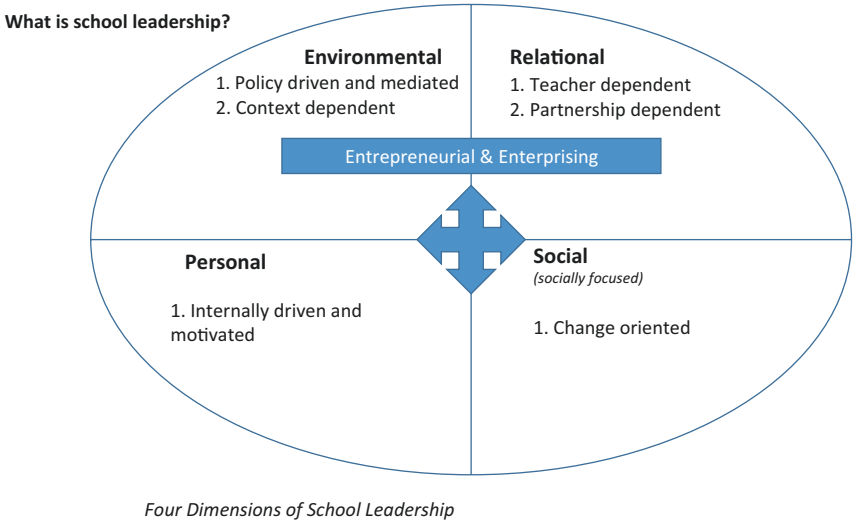

Fig. 9.1 Dimensions of school leadership

Personal

As discussed in Chap. 1, school leadership is a uniquely personal activity. Although taking into account environmental factors, school leaders chart their own path and shape their practice. Although embedded within national education systems that are continually evolving and which create "a more complex picture for understanding how individuals think, feel, and behave in response to changing events" (Dinh et al., 2014, p. 45), school leaders rely on personal values, beliefs and factors (Miller & Hutton, 2014) to plan and coordinate change for the individual student and for a school (Reeves, 2006). Papaku Malasa (2007) argues that "[i]n establishing a set of values and beliefs, an effective school leader not only has to demonstrate … and espouse the values themselves, but also to communicate these to staff and students as well" (p. 23). This underlines the personal nature of school leadership whilst also acknowledging that the "most reliable guide at the principal's disposal may be the 'moral compass' upon which the individual has learned to rely" (Larsen & Derrington, 2012, p. 2).

Social (Socially Focused)

The primary work of schooling is change, and education is one of the main guarantors of social freedom for individuals and a national society. The United Nations and other supranational agencies have described education as a passport to human development, and as a key to reducing poverty, opening doors and expanding opportunities and freedom. But how do schools/leaders achieve change for students and society? They work with several actors, internal and external to a school, to fulfil individual and national objectives. At a minimum, school leaders provide "resources and professional development to teachers in order to enhance classroom instruction and student achievement" (Clabo, 2010, p. 227).

The partnership between school leaders and teachers is the single most important relationship in individual and national societal transformation. Miller (2016) describes teachers as "mechanics" and school leaders as "drivers", each with very closely connected responsibilities for equipping a "vehicle" (students) with the education (tools) directed by a national state to be able to contribute to national economic development. Affirming the importance of teachers and the important role they play, school leaders in this study described them as the eyes, ears, hub and wheel of a school. This is in concert with Lipsky's (1980) view of teachers as "street-level bureaucrats". As the eyes, ears, hub and wheel of a school and as street-level bureaucrats, teachers in their various school roles are pivotal to the success of schools/school leaders.

Grissom and Loeb (2011) note that school leaders work in multiple ways to influence outcomes for students. For example, they suggest that management tasks such as budgeting, procurement and facilities management (maintaining the school plant) are equal in importance to instructional leadership. Thus, school leaders commit significant effort "combining an understanding of the instructional needs of the school with an ability to target resources where they are needed, hire the best available teachers, and keep the school running smoothly" (Grissom & Loeb, 2011, p. 1119). School leaders also work closely with a range of other actors and agencies, for example, parents and industry, to leverage resources and opportunities needed by the school in order to provide students with what Miller (2016) calls "a qualitatively different educa-

tional experience, directed towards their personal, social, emotional, economic and spiritual development…" (p. 106) and to provide them with the knowledge and skills necessary for their successful functioning in national societies. As noted by Sidhu and Fook (2009), "education reform has created an urgent need for a strong emphasis on development of instructional leadership skills to promote effective teaching and high-level learning. Moreover, educational leaders must recognize and assume a shared responsibility not only for students' intellectual and educational development, but also for their personal, social, emotional, and physical development" (pp. 106–107).

Relational

As discussed throughout this book, although a uniquely personal activity, by necessity, the practice of school leadership is also a collaborative endeavour or a joint enterprise—built on and delivered through partnership working. That is, for school leadership to be effective, school leaders cannot lead in isolation of others. Dinh et al. (2014) invite us to "consider how processes change and evolve as they are influenced by context as well as by leadership occurring from multiple sources within organizations, leadership theory can move closer to the outcomes we seek to explain" (p. 55). The inclusion of students, parents, the community, industry and others in school leadership is therefore a fundamental component of successful school leadership.

As discussed above, the partnership between school leaders and teachers is the single most important relationship in individual and national transformation. Clabo (2010) urges school leaders to "focus on teachers, be visible, minimize disruptions, share/delegate leadership, and motivate students" (p. 253). In some national societies, home-school partnerships have evolved from being largely rooted in academic concerns, and concerns about financial assistance (Knusden, 2009). A school's partnership with a community and with industry may be considered a cultural necessity. Globally, as national governments reduce spending on education, developed countries (in this study, for example Cyprus and England) join developing countries (in this study, and elsewhere) in actively pursuing funding

and other opportunities for schools/students. Communities and industry play a significant role in schools/schooling and much of the support that communities and industry actors provide to a school is based on a school's reputation and/or the degree of association an individual or business feels towards a school and/or its mission. Thus a significant part of a school leader's work is relationship building and relationship management, acknowledging that "[t]he new work of school leaders is a mixture of technical and adaptive work" (Fullan, 2005, p. 53).

Environmental

Context matters, and context matters in school leadership. Context influences leadership and leadership influences context. An experienced and successful school leader who has achieved much in one context may achieve only limited success in another school. Adjusting for personal factors, contextual factors that may influence a school leader's performance in a new context could include school size, location, staffing, availability of material and resources, "adequacy" of funding, improvement trajectory, parental support and involvement of community. These are but a few factors in a school's environment that can have a direct influence on school leadership and school outcomes. In addition to context dependent factors, national changes to school funding arrangements continue to challenge school leaders' ability to deliver education's promise to students, families and national societies. As Gorard (1997) points out, "An education market is a zero-sum game. As one school wins, another loses, and so schools put more and more into marketing, they may, like Alice in Wonderland, find themselves running faster and faster just to keep up" (p. 254). Lumby and Coleman (2017) argue that "School leaders and teachers are at the centre of this messy process" (p. 17), where, for their survival, marketing and fundraising initiatives have become routine and central to attracting students and in some cases to keeping schools afloat.

Furthermore, ongoing changes in the global and national policy environments continue to have direct and indirect impacts on how school leaders lead. As a result, school leaders work harder to make sense of their role and the role of education in national societies, repurposed along strict economic lines. Thus, Sidhu and Fook (2009) argue that "the

evolving nature of school environments has placed high demands on educational leaders … where knowledge of school management, finance, legal issues, and state mandates … the primary focus … of school leaders…" (pp. 106–107).

Identifying the Nature of School Leadership

As discussed throughout this book, the practice of school leadership is influenced by several factors, namely personal and environmental factors. As I have discussed in Chap. 1, personal factors relate only to an individual leader and could include their philosophy of education, values, beliefs and personal qualities. As I have also noted, a school operates in two broad environments—an internal environment and an external one. Factors in a school's internal environment (e.g. experience and quality of staff, school size and location) relate only to a particular school, whereas factors in the external environment (e.g. change of government, change of policy direction and content) have the potential to influence several if not all schools. As a school leader is sandwiched between internal and external factors, Miller and Hutton (2014) argue that leadership is "situated"—meaning that true leadership emerges from a school leader's ability to navigate environmental/contextual factors. As also noted by Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm and McKee (2014), effectiveness as school leader is not the result of programmes, workshops or seminars, but the "white space" between their practice and such events (Day et al., 2014, p. 80). Arguably, the "street realities" (Ball, 1987, p. 8) of school leadership are to be found in these "white spaces", thus pushing school leaders to dig deeper within themselves to find answers to questions and solutions to problems. It is therefore to be understood that school leaders' personal agency is a major factor in being able to confidently and successfully navigate environmental factors to lead and achieve change for students, their families and national societies. But how do school leaders do leadership? From interviews with school leaders, four areas of "doing" (practice) school leadership emerged: leading change, entrepreneurialism, partnership building and maintenance, and policy implementation. I discuss each of these four areas of practice below.

Leading Change

School leadership is about change. As discussed in Chap. 3, the primary purpose of education is preparing individuals to contribute to national societies through their skills and talents. National societies need to be and remain competitive, advance scientific discoveries, and contribute to and solve problems within and outside national borders, and to be able to do this, they need individuals who have appropriate skills and knowledge. Through a process of schooling, it is the duty of school leaders to ensure students are provided the education prescribed by a national government, thus developing their skills and knowledge base, in order to increase their chances of leading independent lives as well as contributing to the ambitions and aspirations of a nation state. This interlocking relationship highlights the transformative power and nature of education at the level of the individual (personal) and at the level of a national society (social), and school leadership. Furthermore, it underlines Papadopoulous' (1998) view that education has multiple purposes, including the promotion of, inter alia, economic prosperity and individual success. National societies need skilled and qualified professionals, and economic renewal (more so than social renewal) is (now) at the heart of education. Globally, in the face of ongoing political failure, it appears that national governments have come to regard education as the last great hope of a nation and school leaders the custodians of that hope.

Entrepreneurialism

Hentschke argues that "schools are like businesses and their leaders are like business leaders—for better or worse" (2009, p. 149). Changes in how schools are funded means that schools/school leaders are finding it increasingly difficult to make ends meet. Further, naming and shaming of schools as well as strict accountability measures have led to school closures or the threat of closure, with some schools losing students and staff rapidly. Both these outcomes are the result of education markets—in which the ability of a school to engage in transformation, and its very survival, is linked to fundraising, expedient partnership arrangements

and intense marketing "in order to compete effectively and secure their funding in the volatile and fluid education market place" (Coffey, 2001, p. 33). Schools/school leaders are engaged in environmental scanning (Woods, Bagley & Glatter, 1998) as they 'assess' the community opinion of, and thus the market for, their schools through a combination of school based activities (parents' evenings, open days) and surveying parents and residents of the local school community.

Although Waslander and Thrupp (1997) highlight that by focusing too much on marketing, other important aspects of schooling may be placed in jeopardy, Miller (2016) notes that school leaders have no choice but to "sell" their schools through several means using, for example, staff qualification and experience, school safety record, location, class sizes, examination results and so on. Miller (2012) also notes that much more is being demanded from schooling/school leaders, although much less is being spent on education by national governments. Despite this apparent paradox, school leaders cannot shirk their duties. Instead, as Miller suggests, "[t]hese unpredictable and swiftly changing times require an approach [to leadership] that is neither top-down nor bottom-up, but that is encompassing, synergistic, innovative, and practical" (p. 9). It is this practical and innovative approach to school leadership that guides many school partnerships, and in particular, the large numbers that are underpinned by pragmatism, such as for securing funding, placement opportunities and gifts for staff and students.

Partnership Building and Management

A significant part of a school leader's work involved partnership working. No school is an island, and it is not possible to fully understand the practice of leadership without considering the role of others involved in the leadership process. The operations of a school are based on a range of partnerships, including internal collaboration between school leaders and teachers around a shared understanding of what education is and a shared purpose of schooling. Schools also invest in partnerships with parents since, in addition to helping to manage concerns related to teaching and learning and behaviour management, school leaders/schools from time to

time leverage the expertise of parents in trying to raise funds, deliver projects or otherwise contribute to a school's development. Furthermore, schools work in partnership with local communities that provide opportunities for staff and students. These relationships are vital to a school leader's ability to manage effectively, in particular, in contexts where resources are scarce, there is a shortage of staff, student behaviour is a problem or opportunities are not readily available. Inasmuch as a school leader contributes to building the internal and external school community, the internal and external school community also contributes to the building of a school and to the success of school leadership. School leadership is thus a collective endeavour, practised by multiple sources within and outside a school, for the overall good of that school.

Policy Implementation

As discussed in Chap. 2, the supranational and national educational policy contexts combine to provide the overall regulatory framework for actions undertaken by schools within a national education system. Miller (2016) described educational policies as the "fuel" and "roadmap" of an education system. As the fuel, they sustain an education system, and as a roadmap, they establish parameters and provide direction (p. 142). Each nation state has certain expectations of schools and schooling, and globally, education has become a priority issue for governments, linked much more closely to national development outcomes for "economic prosperity and social citizenship" (Bell & Stevenson, 2006, p. i).

As schools do not exist independently of an educational policy context, school leaders have an obligation to implement national policies at the school level. This, in national educational and school contexts where "the latest set of ministerial priorities will [soon] be superceded by a new set" (Miliband, 2003), and where "in some respects, many headteachers are more like branch managers … handed down expectations, targets, new initiatives … all of which may or may not be manageable in their context" (Lewis & Murphy, 2008, pp. 135–136). Nevertheless, school leaders have no choice but to implement national policies at the school level since "[t]he experience of each individual learner is

therefore decisively shaped by the wider policy environment" (Bell & Stevenson, 2006, p. i). Furthermore, as different "policy actors" at the school level are positioned differently in respect of each policy, how policies are therefore perceived by actors can lead to resistance or support, thus influencing the degree of successful implementation (Ball, Maguire, Braun & Hoskins, 2011). Nevertheless, a significant part of school leaders' role is policy implementation.

What Underpins Your Leadership?

The third question posed to school leaders was "What underpins your leadership?" The purpose of this question was to identify and examine the factors that "drive", "shape" and "influence" how school leaders approach their job. From interviews with school leaders, four key practice shapers, influencers, drivers and enablers emerged: educational policies, teachers, schooling/education context and personal factors/motivation. I summarise the main findings in Fig. 9.2 below.

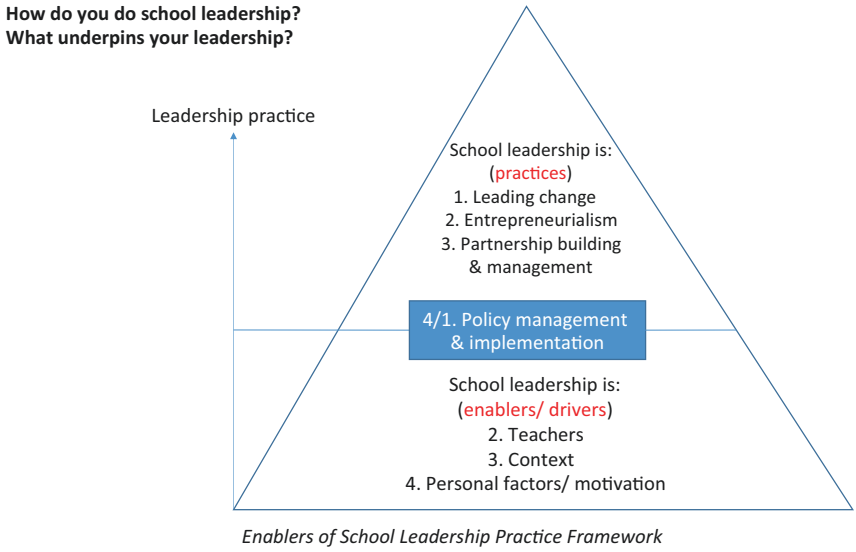

Fig. 9.2 Enablers of school leadership practice framework

Educational Policies

As discussed above, an education system cannot function without educational policies. Although it is understood that school leaders are generally overwhelmed by the changes in a school's policy environment (Murphy, 1994), it is also understood that policies provide guidance and support to all those who study and work within an education system, in particular school leaders. Ball found that school educational policies did not always reflect the "street realities" of schooling (Ball, 1987, p. 8). The work of a school revolves largely around the latest dictate of a national government, and there is no escaping this. Increasingly, school leaders have to protect staff time from distraction brought about by new events, new requirements and additional demands of the policy environment. As suggested by Lumby and Coleman (2017), "[t]he policy context changes not only what is done in schools, teaching and learning, but also the relationships between staff and children, between staff, and between staff and parents. The pressures of performativity, that is, constant scrutiny by means of league tables or inspection, accompanied by fear of potential public exposure, are particularly corrosive" (p. 20).

Blasé and Blasé (2004) also point out that policy changes have encouraged "the kinds of leadership that seriously damage teachers, teaching and student learning" (p. 245). Gunter (2012) argues that school leaders are caught in a game "where those outside of schools" are in control of school leaders (p. 18) and where school leaders almost always struggle to assert their leadership against the structures that enable and prevent their agency (Gunter, 2005). Eacott (2011) describes these events as leading to "the cultural re-engineering of school leadership…" (p. 47). Notwithstanding the pressures placed on school leaders by changes/events in global and national policy environments, as far as possible, school leaders must implement government policies at the school level in order to be compliant with a national state and in order to align a school's actions and objectives with those of a national state. This has a direct impact on their leadership. As a result, depending on the content of educational policies, their engagement with educational policies, and the likely impact of educational policies on their school, school leaders are likely to interact with educational policies as protagonists or antagonists or both. In either case,

educational policies thus contribute directly to the shaping of school leadership practice by having a direct and constant impact on a school leader.

Teachers

Teachers are central to the work of a school as well as to the overall effectiveness and success of an education system. Without adequate numbers and appropriately experienced and qualified teachers in place, an education system cannot achieve its best for students and for society. Schools are complex institutions in which teachers and the work they do are sometimes not recognised, although without them it is impossible for schools/school leaders to function. Miller (2016) described teachers as "mechanics", tasked with the important responsibility of preparing students to lead successful lives. Several other roles associated with leadership, teaching and mentoring have been used to describe teachers. These include counsellors, mentors, curriculum specialists (Harrison & Killion, 2007), and conveyors of information, knowledge builders and innovators of new ideas and practices (Bennis, Benn, Chin & Corey, 1976).

Lipsky (1980) described teachers as "street-level bureaucrats" who establish and invent devices, decisions and routines to cope with uncertainties and work pressure that effectively become the public policies they carry out. This is consistent with school leaders' descriptions of teachers in this study as, for example, "the wheel of a school". This also underlines a main proposition by Seashore Louis et al. (2004) that "[l]eadership is second only to classroom instruction among school-related factors that contribute to what students learn at school" (p. 65). Thus, the work of teachers, whether in the classroom or in a pastoral, leadership or support role, is a most significant factor in the overall success of schools/school leadership.

Schooling/Education Context

Context matters, and no sensible evaluation of school leadership (practice, effectiveness) can take place without consideration of the context within which leadership is enacted. What are the social issues within a

school's national environment? What are the geo-political issues within a school's national environment? What are the technological and economic issues within a school's national environment? What are the religious and cultural issues within a school's national environment? How do these issues influence/impact school leadership? How do these impact school leaders? How do these issues influence schooling? How do these issues influence individual schools?

However, national issues are only part of the wider contextual factors. What about school related issues? What is the size of a school? What are the average class sizes? Does the school have sufficient numbers of staff? Are staff suitably qualified and do they possess appropriate experience? There are also community related factors to consider. What are the socio-economic backgrounds of parents? Are parents educated—can they read and write? Do parents attend/support school activities? Do/can parents contribute to schools financially or otherwise? What support, if any, can a local community provide to a school? There are also factors related to the governance of schools. How effective is the school board in supporting a school leader? Do school board members understand their role? Does the ministry of education/education department provide adequate support to schools in terms of resources required—financial and technical? As Hutton (2011) notes, "With context being an important factor in determining the nature and type of leadership exhibited by principals … researchers must be mindful that there are literally hundreds of factors … which seem to be associated with effective or high performing principals" (p. 50). These are some of the contextual factors that simultaneously enable, drive, support and influence the effectiveness of school leadership.

Personal Factors/Motivation

McCleskey (2014) describes leadership as "a characteristic ability of extraordinary individuals" (p. 117). Greer also notes, "[l]eadership is not a position; it is a process" (Greer, 2011, p. 30) and that "[i]t's difficult for leaders to be effective if they do not take the time to examine their sense of purpose and the ways it has been defined, influenced, informed and refined by their experiences" (p. 20). This awareness of

self suggests leadership is not only a personal but also a reflective activity underpinning a school leader's understanding of their strengths and weaknesses, and the range of factors that guide their decision-making and actions.

As discussed throughout this book, school leadership is influenced by several factors within and outside a school's immediate environment. Furthermore, "the complexities related to running schools have forced principals to develop their unique approach to effective leadership" (Hutton, 2013, p. 90). Holden (2002) describes this improvement in leadership quality and personal agency as arising from "… conscious interaction with the culture of the school". As discussed in Chap. 1, school leadership is a uniquely personal activity, influenced and shaped by factors in a school's internal and external environments, but balanced by personal factors unique to each leader (Miller & Hutton, 2014). Personal factors may include determination, self-confidence and motivation. Highlighting the role of personal factors, Clarke and Wildy note that school leadership requires "not only functional knowledge, understanding and contending with matters of compliance, but also confidence, determination and political sophistication" (p. 47). In addition to personal factors, values, beliefs and educational philosophy also influence school leadership. In Chap. 1, I described values as "*a set of regulatory codes, implicit and explicit, that sets the tone for an organisation and provides agency to an individual school leader and checks and balances to their actions*". This corresponds to Halstead's definition that values are "principles, fundamental convictions, standards or life stances … general guides to behaviour … which are closely connected to personal integrity and personal identity" (p. 5). Ferroro (2005) described personal philosophy as a "source of distinctiveness" among school leaders that underpins the values and beliefs associated with "what makes life worth living … what is worth teaching…" (p. 8). Furthermore, as proposed by Ashby and Krug (1998), "[m]ake no mistake: your personal philosophy shapes your educational philosophy and influences the decisions you make on the job…" (p. 55). Consequently, a school leader's sense of self, their beliefs and values and other personal factors are major influences on their approach to leadership and therefore the practice of school leadership.

Evidence Summary

A correlation matrix was formulated among the seven themes of the book. Significant relationships were evidenced between and among all variables according to continents. However, only a slight relationship was found between school leadership that is personally internally motivated and school leadership that is policy driven and mediated. This is to be expected since one is intrinsic and the other is extrinsic. Put differently, although school leaders acknowledge the importance of educational policies, there were sometimes tensions between the content, aim and implementation of particular educational policies and their agency, educational values and/or personal philosophy. A correlation was also made among the five continents from which data were gathered. No significant relationships were found. However, what was intriguing was that, when a comparison of the overall school leadership scores for the entire survey was conducted, there were major differences between Asia and North America and between Africa and North America regarding the practice of school leadership. These results show that leaders in one continent sometimes scored higher in a category than leaders in another continent. For example, school leaders in Europe are more likely to resist wholesale policy implementation while school leaders in Asia are less likely to do so. This directly correlates with research findings from Hofstede (1980), Dimmock and Walker (2005), and Hallinger (2016) where the cultural approach to leadership vis-à-vis the power/distance among individuals in Asian societies is much more clearly delineated than it is among Westernised societies. A similar finding came to light between Asia and South America and Africa and South America where school leaders were found to approach school leadership rather differently. In particular, African, South American and North American school leaders very much engaged in partnership working, but this was not as developed a phenomenon among school leaders from Asia. This directly correlates with research findings from House, Hanges, Javindan, Dorfman and Gupta (2004) where leadership practice is related to institutional as well as societal cultures. Overall, the findings suggest school leadership is understood more or less the same way among school leaders irrespective of origin. However, the practice of school leadership varied somewhat

depending on location and country context. For example, whereas school leaders in developed countries saw teachers as primarily "doing their jobs", school leaders in developing countries saw teachers as important partners, without whom school leadership would be more of a challenge. Furthermore, school leaders in developing countries tended to be engaged in external partnership working as a result of economic necessity, whereas school leaders in developed countries tended to pick and choose external partners—usually based on securing an opportunity (which may or may not be a need for the school).

Conclusions

The purpose of this book was to derive an understanding of how school leaders in global contexts conceptualise, do and support their leadership. Schools are complex institutions, each with its unique culture despite their common aims and objectives. Although schools generally have some similarities among them in terms of norms, structures, rituals and traditions and common values, the particularities of a school's context (internal: staffing, size, parental support; external: location, regulatory environment, community involvement and support) significantly influence the degree of effectiveness exhibited or potentially exhibited by a school leader.

Leadership is a bridge that connects the practice and policy environments, and a lever that helps to negotiate and navigate the complexities of these environments. There is no blueprint for successful school leadership, and if one were to speculate on the content of such a blueprint, s/he would expect educational policies, context, partnerships, teachers and personal factors/motivation to be essential components. Although improvements to national economic fortunes have undoubtedly recast how education is conceptualised, done, and is seen to be done, students are fundamentally the main focus of education upon whom achieving the expected changes and improvements rests.

There are unprecedented large-scale educational reforms taking place in national education systems globally. There are also fundamental social and economic changes occurring outside the control of schools and school leaders, which have significant bearing on every aspect of schooling and school leadership. School leaders feel they are being driven

and not being led by educational policies in respective national education systems. They feel "too much" is happening in national policy environments, and as a result they do not always have time and space to deliver one policy directive before another one is thrown at them. This, they argue, is antithetical to the clarity and coherence national education systems need.

"The intelligent school is greater than the sum of its parts" (MacGilchrist, Myers & Reed, 2004, p. xvii). Schools serve the needs of the present and the future—and teachers play enormously important roles as primary change agents, learning leaders, partners in national development, and the eyes, ears, hub and wheel of a school. Without good quality supportive teachers, school leadership is doomed. Through personal agency, school leaders apply "corporate mindsets" (Miller, 2016, p. 120), enter into selective partnership arrangements, leverage available support for their schools in order to tackle or respond to challenges in a school's internal and external environments, and respond to national development objectives for change in individuals and in national societies.

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Appendix

Participants' Characteristics

Country	No. of participants	School location		Gender		School type		Average years of service	
		Urban	Rural	M	F	Pri	Sec	Teacher	Leader
Anguilla	2	2	–	–	2	2	–	25	10
Antigua	1	–	1	–	1	1	–	24.5	9.5
Brazil	2	1	1	–	2	1	1	19	9
Canada	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	31.5	15.5
Cyprus	7	6	1	5	2	2	5	22.8	8
Guyana	2	2	–	2	–	2	–	24.5	14.5
Israel	3	2	1	–	3	2	1	26	3
Jamaica	9	6	3	2	7	6	3	24.4	4.6
Montserrat	1	1	–	1	–	1	–	28	11
Mozambique	3	1	2	2	1	3	–	27.6	16
Pakistan	8	8	–	2	6	5	3	11.6	5.1
South Africa	6	2	4	3	3	2	4	21.5	6.6
St Maarten	1	1	–	–	1	1	–	20	6
Turkey	1	1	–	1	–	1	–	15	10
UK (England)	10	9	1	4	6	4	6	24.4	7.1
USA	3	3	–	1	2	2	1	24.3	7.6

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