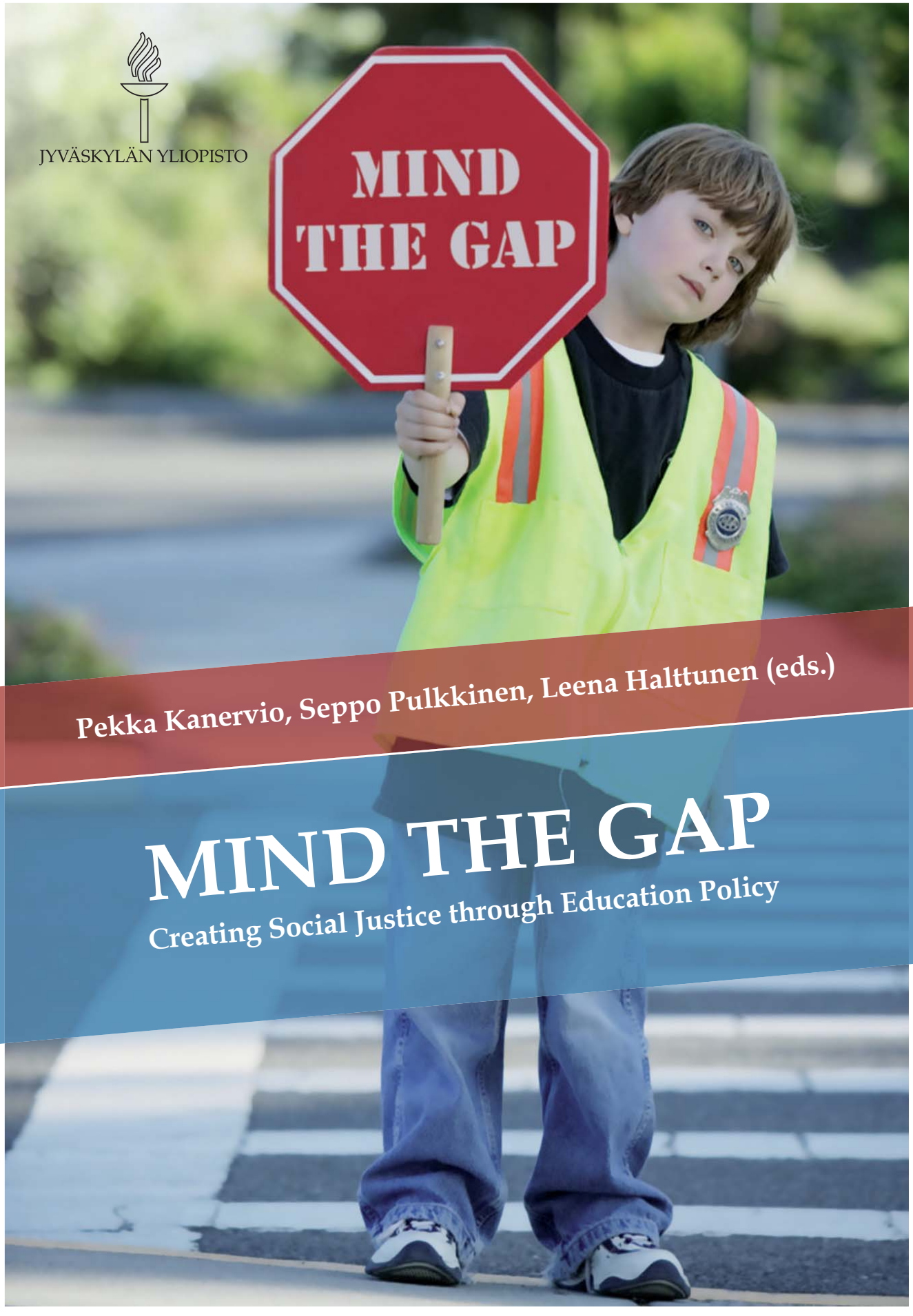

Pekka Kanervio, Seppo Pulkkinen, Leena Halttunen (eds.)

MIND THE GAP

Creating Social Justice through Education Policy

STUDIES IN EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP 1

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UNIVERSITY OF JYVÄSKYLÄ

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ABSTRACT

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This publication includes the full paper presentations presented in the International Symposium on Educational Reform (ISER) 2013 conference. ISER2013 is a symposium for national policy makers, researchers and scholars, superintendents, and principals. The annual symposium was organized by the Institute of Educational Leadership of the Faculty of Education, the University of Jyväskylä in Finland, in collaboration with the University of Kentucky, the University of Pretoria, and East China Normal University.

The themes of the symposium this year were Social justice, Future creation, Ethical leadership, The Finnish School system compared to other countries, Lifelong guidance and counselling, Leadership challenges and solutions, and Introducing present school leadership research.

Keywords: leadership, social justice, crisis

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FOREWORD

The editorial board appreciates the enthusiasm and the hard work of the full paper writers. Even though the schedule for the different referee phases was tight, the writers were willing to confront the challenge to write their part of the conference publication. We know that academics are busy and sometimes stressed due to the daily tasks in teaching, assessing, learning and researching. We thank all the writers for being so flexible in this process.

The second thanks go to our excellent reviewers. Thank you for being willing to be part of our process. It has been a pleasure to work with you. You pushed the task of reviewing to new dimensions giving really valuable information for the writers to reach a good academic level in their academic writing.

We hope that the publication helps researchers, educational leaders and teachers in their work. We also hope that this publication could change the lives of the peoples working or studying in the field of education.

In Jyväskylä 23.1.2014
Pekka Kanervio

FIGURE

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1 INTRODUCTION

The history of ISER goes back to the year 2005, this being the 9th symposium. Each year the ISER symposium has had excellent key note speakers from the host country and abroad. In addition, from the very beginning one core element of the ISER has been to give a forum for the students and researchers to present their studies. Probably the ISER has quite often been and will be a stepping stone for a novice researcher to present her/his research and a good opportunity to get guidance and feedback from the senior fellow researchers. The ISER 2013 continued this tradition and the last day of the symposium was reserved for the research presentations. More information concerning ISER symposiums is available at URL: http://leadership.uky.edu/centers-services/conferences-events/iser/ .

The presenters are also given an opportunity to publish their papers in the ISER -publication. This publication is the 3rd one and the first published in University of Jyväskylä in Finland. The publication has followed the double blind referee system: the writers did not know the two referees and the referees did not know the writers or each other.

The main theme of the symposium - mind the gap - can be seen throughout the articles. The first three articles focus on leadership and teacher training giving evidence on how important it is for both principals and teachers to get training and reflect on their roles in taking care of social justice. The theme connecting the next four articles is having critical lenses: one case describes ending in a crisis, other cases describing how crises are solved. This section ends with an article raising the question about the ownership of a school. The last two articles of the publication focus on developing the educational environment both in the context of the early years and secondary school. These last articles also emphasize that minding the gap is a lifelong issue starting from the early years but it should continue throughout the educational path of the child and the youth.

Short bios of the writers are found in the end of the book.

2 CREATING SOCIAL JUSTICE IN EDUCATION THROUGH LEADERSHIP TRAINING: REFLECTIONS OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN SOUTH AFRICA

Dr. Rika Joubert, Professor in University of Pretoria
Dr Jean van Rooyen, Senior Lecturer in University of Pretoria

ABSTRACT

Brighouse (2002) proposes two principles that should guide social justice in education: fair equality of opportunity and equality of condition. Fair equality of opportunity concentrates on treating all people equally and providing all people with equal rights. Equality of condition provides equitable outcomes to marginalized groups by recognizing past disadvantages and the existence of structural barriers embedded in the social, economic and political systems that perpetuate systemic discrimination. One of the challenges facing principals in many South African schools is to work with stakeholders to overcome the problems arising from the school's context and to build on the supportive factors. School principals have the main, but not sole, responsibility for creating the conditions that support effective teaching and learning. Against this background the following research question was formulated: To what extent do the summative reflections of the principals who successfully completed the Advanced Certificate in Education focusing on Education Leadership, provide evidence of the development of their capacity to manage teaching and learning in their schools? The summative reflections and the supporting evidence of the students show that previous socio-economic disadvantages are addressed through this leadership programme. Equality of opportunity and equality of conditions is about creating opportunities for people to reach their potential within the social realities of the heterogeneous South Africa.

Keywords: leadership training, school principals, social justice,

2.1 Introduction

South African school principals come from a background with multiple experiences and perspectives. One the one hand they live in a new South Africa where human dignity, equality and education are guaranteed to all (RSA 1996a). In addition, poverty, lack of facilities and resources, lack of management and leadership experience and various other inequalities still pervade the education system. The transformation of the political environment in South Africa since 1994 not only brought about a change in the constitutional environment of the country through the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, (RSA 1996a), but also resulted in new legislation and policy which altered the education environment and the way in which schools are managed and governed. A significant part of this new educational environment was placing great emphasis on providing a high-quality education for all learners. However, equal opportunities and quality means different things to different people.

Brighouse (2002), in searching for a theory of social justice in education, argues that a theory on social justice in education is needed to inform one of what rights people possess, which efforts merit strong state protection, how rights should be distributed, and principles to manage trade-offs. Brighouse (2002, 183) proposes two principles that should guide social justice in education: fair equality of opportunity and equality of condition. Fair equality of opportunity concentrates on treating all people equally and providing all people with equal rights. But treating everyone the same does not necessarily mean fairness of treatment (Nieuwenhuis 2005). Before schools can deliver high quality curriculum, teaching and learning experiences, we must first define what we mean by equality of opportunity and equality of condition in education.

2.2 Achieving social justice through equality of opportunity and equality of conditions in education

Prior to 1994 the education system in South Africa was fragmented and unequally funded. Davies (2013) explains that among the direct consequences of the fragmentation and unequal funding policies were:

- Widely divergent levels of quality in the schools, especially in rural schools in provinces such as Mpumalanga, Limpopo and the Eastern Cape
- Very great disparities in the scope and capacity of the administration and provision of basic resources in the racially divided education departments

- Significant differences in the levels and quality of teacher education
- Widely divergent practices with regard to curriculum delivery in the state schools.

Public schools in South Africa are still not homogeneous. There are schools situated in very poor rural areas attended by learners who can be classified as the poorest of the poor. There are public schools situated in affluent areas attended by affluent learners. Equity under these conditions cannot be achieved by merely seeking to resource each of the schools at the same level as the others.

Equality in education in South Africa is intertwined with the redress of previous racial discrimination and previous socio-economic disadvantages. Equality of opportunity and equality of conditions is about creating opportunities for people to reach their potential (Brighouse 2002). The standards of education reflect a close bearing on the question of equal opportunities. Equality of opportunity is restricted by family background and circumstances that put children at a disadvantage. One may accept that the state has an obligation to provide education of an adequate standard (RSA 1996b). In the South African context, adequate education could refer to a standard of education that empowers people to rise above the poverty cycle and to compete effectively in the labour market.

However, the provision of equality of opportunity must be combined with social justice principles to provide substantive equality to marginalised groups. Equality of condition provides equitable outcomes to marginalised groups by recognising past disadvantages and the existence of structural barriers embedded in the social, economic and political systems that perpetuate systemic discrimination. Equality of condition recognizes that there are situations where application of the same rules to unequal groups can generate unequal results (Nieuwenhuis 2010). Although the principles and frameworks developed may offer guidelines in terms of the development of legislation and policies, they remain barren abstractions that cannot prevail over socio-economic and political contexts which fundamentally shape what form rights, and therefore social justice, take in practice.

Social justice in education needs to be examined not from an idealized theoretical angle, but from the social realities of the situation within which social justice must be achieved. Educational equality is therefore based on the notion that the state must guarantee a set of education standards to be achieved implying that each child shall have the right to equally good education (RSA, 1996a). Equality then means that those with similar levels of ability and willing to exert the similar level of effort should face similar prospects regardless of background and, secondly, those with lower levels of ability should receive additional resources to those with more abilities (Davies 2013).

Section 9(1) of the South African Constitution (1996a) states: "Everyone is equal before the law and has the right to equal protection and benefit of the law". This is immediately followed by the proviso (section 9(2)): "Equality includes the full and equal enjoyment of all rights and freedoms" (RSA 1996a).

Furthermore, section 29 provides that: "Everyone has the right to a basic education, including adult basic education; and to further education, which the state, through reasonable measures, must make progressively available and Accessible".

The South African Schools Act (Act 84 of 1996b), in an attempt to guarantee equality of educational provision and standard of achievement to every learner in South Africa, instructs that "The principal must prepare and submit to the Head of Department an annual report in respect of- (i) the academic performance of that school in relation to minimum outcomes and standards and procedures for assessment determined by the Minister interms of section 6A; and (ii) the effective use of available resources.

At the school level where policies must be implemented, every school principal must annually prepare a plan setting out how academic performance at the school is to be improved. The history of inequality of education provision in South Africa shaped the school's tradition, conventions, culture, climate and curriculum delivery. In many previously disadvantaged schools establishing a school culture conducive to teaching and learning remains a strong inhibitor to providing social justice in education. The result of this is that policies handed down from the state are dealt with in a way that will ensure statutory or administrative compliance, without addressing the deeper lying assumptions, values and beliefs of the school.

2.3 Social justice through leadership training

The Nelson Mandela Foundation (2005) in its report states that "there are teachers who do sterling work, but the large majority of teachers teach in ways that do not challenge their learners. Too many learners do not understand their teachers and do not understand their textbooks." Teachers are not trained to teach the new curriculum, they raise issues about difficulties with learner assessment, paper work, lack of training and lack of resources. "Learners are still taught by rote and with little understanding" (p. 86). The Nelson Mandela Foundation research also found that classroom activity is dominated by three modes: reading, writing and correcting. Learners write, mostly copying from the blackboard, teachers mark and learners do corrections. In primary schools learners also repeat words, draw, sing, colour in and clean the classrooms.

Young (2000) states that ideally, social justice requires the establishment of institutional and other structural conditions for promoting self-determination and self-development of all members of society. Social justice also recognises that there are situations where the application of the same rules to unequal groups can generate unequal results. Social justice thus provides a framework to assess the impact of policies and practices (Nieuwenhuis 2010).

Martha Nussbaum (2000) and Amartya Sen (1999) approach social justice from a different angle by proposing a universal set of capabilities that, together, mark what we as human beings should be *able to be* and *do* in order to meet at

least the threshold for living in a fully human way. The capability approach developed by Sen and Nussbaum through dialogue and disagreement for over 20 years (Sen 1992; 1999; Nussbaum & Sen 1993; Nussbaum 2000) proposes that each of the capabilities is crucial and each is qualitatively different from the rest, yet they are also related to each other in a variety of complex ways.

Nieuwenhuis, (2010) asserts that the creation of social justice is affected by interacting push and pull forces as well as inhibitors. The push/pull forces consist of the historicity of the space wherein social justice is sought (the family, school, community, state etc.); the social demands, and the expectations and agendas that actively promote a more just dispensation within the context and the dynamics of economic imperatives available for education development. The very same push/pull forces can act as inhibitors of change. The factors affecting social justice and leadership are presented in Figure 1.

Any system committed to creating greater social justice in education will not succeed unless it addresses social justice in a more comprehensive or holistic manner. This, in turn, implies that any state that is committed to social justice in education must provide opportunities and support for all educators to exercise the range of functions necessary to enable the learners to develop their mature adult capabilities (Pendlebury & Enslin, 2004).

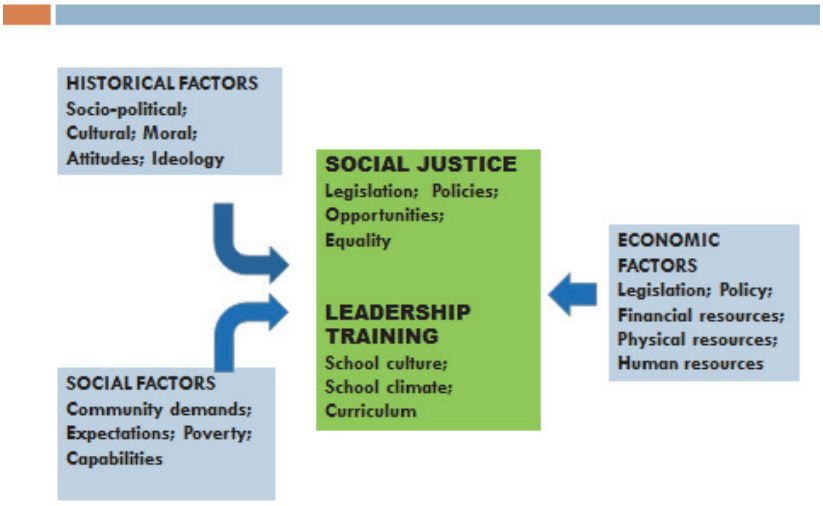

FIGURE 1 Factors affecting social justice and leadership capacity building in education

There is increasing recognition that effective leadership and management are vital if schools are to be successful in providing good learning opportunities for students. Emerging evidence suggests that high quality leadership makes a significant difference to school improvement and learning outcomes. Huber (2004) claims that 'schools classified as successful possess a competent and sound school leadership' and adds that 'failure often correlates with inadequate school leadership'. Leithwood & Jantzi (2006) show that 'school leadership is second only to classroom teaching as an influence on pupil learning'. They

conclude that 'there is not a single documented case of a school successfully turning around its pupil achievement trajectory in the absence of talented leadership' (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006, 5).

Hallinger & Heck (2010) maintain that the essence of leadership capacity is the developing and optimising of the human, physical and financial resources at the disposal of a school in order to achieve the best possible outcomes. This approach to leadership is echoed by Hargreaves and Fink (2008) who suggest a new way of conceptualising schools, teaching and leadership. They argue that schools need teachers and principals with intellectual capital, social capital and leverage capacity to be successful.

One of the challenges facing principals in many South African schools is to work with stakeholders to overcome the problems arising from the school's context and to build on the supportive factors. School principals have the main, but not sole, responsibility for creating the conditions that support effective teaching and learning. Each school offers a unique challenge, and opportunity, in developing and enhancing learner outcomes.

2.4 Problem statement and research question

Nieuwenhuis (2010) argues that social justice is an ideal – a vision that must become *a way of life* that permeates all aspects of being human. For this reason it cannot be legislated or achieved through legislation and policies only – albeit these are important instruments to promote social justice – social justice must be lived. It requires that every school principal and teacher take responsibility to protect, advance and promote the values, principles and ideals of social justice. This article aims to expand Nieuwenhuis' conceptualisation of social justice by ascertaining whether or not leadership training of school principals contributes towards creating social justice in education.

Clegg (2002) found that the ways in which individuals engage with professional development involve a complex negotiation of the relationship between reflective and active components. If we are to better understand this relationship, we need to take full account of the contexts within which such engagement takes place. Issues that drive leadership development, such as notions of professional competence, and the need to develop new skills and technologies, influence the relationship between reflection and action

In 2008 The National Department of Education in South Africa introduced a national Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE) in School Leadership as one of their attempts to improve the quality of school leadership in South Africa (Department of Education 2004). The training of cohorts between 100 and 150 school principals in each province in South Africa was allocated to different universities. The University of Pretoria enrolled students from the Mpumalanga province.

The main assessment tool employed by the higher education institutions involved in offering this ACE is the portfolio, which is intended to include all

the assignments, plus school-based documents, student reflections and a research project. One of the distinguishing features of the national ACE in School Leadership in South Africa is its emphasis on site-based assessment, so that learning can be applied to candidates' leadership and management practice. Definitions of portfolios emphasize the collection of work which includes a reflective commentary (Baume 2001; Forster & Masters 1996; Arter & Spandel 1992). One of the crucial processes of any portfolio is reflection (Klenowski 2002; Bailey & Guskey 2001; Jarvinen & Kohonen 1995).

Over the past thirty years, ''reflection'' has become a buzzword in tertiary education especially in continuing professional development programmes. It is important to note that Dohn (2011, 672) says that thinking and communicating are not constitutive of competence or adequate action, "but are themselves phenomena of practice, taking their meaning in part from the situation in which they arise. Adequate action instead relies on a tacit, practical embodied understanding, grounded in immediate recognition of and response pairing to the situation's gestalt".

Against this background the following research question was formulated:

To what extent do the summative reflections of the principals who successfully completed the ACE programme, provide evidence that the development of leadership capacity advances social justice in South Africa?

2.5 Research methodology

A qualitative approach was deemed appropriate for an in-depth analysis of the reflections that the school principals, enrolled for the ACE (School Leadership) programme, wrote to supplement and integrate the evidence contained in their final portfolios. Swanson & Holton (1997) are of the opinion that qualitative research methods focus on the quality of participants' perceptions, impressions and dynamic changing perspectives. The students were required to write a summative reflection on their personal and professional growth during the entire programme. A total of 150 students successfully completed this qualification at this institution last year. The final reflective portfolios, containing evidence to prove competence, of the top performing students were scrutinised. The students' summative reflections were analysed, clustered into categories and compared with the literature on social justice (Nieuwenhuis 2010; Brighouse 2002) consistent with the guidelines for inductive analysis.

2.6 Discussion of the findings

The conceptualisation of social justice and education leadership training (see Figure 1) was superimposed on the reflections of principals who completed the

ACE (Education Leadership) to determine whether education leadership training contributed to social justice.

2.6.1 Equality of opportunity and equality of conditions

Historical factors impeding social justice include socio-political aspects, cultural factors such as traditions, religion, ideology and gender. Historical factors that impeded the delivery of quality education to all the learners were mentioned by the students when they had to list the weaknesses and threats that they experience at their schools. Typical factors that students had to address during the two years of participation in the ACE programme include: staff members with a negative attitude towards performance appraisal and development, ineffective planning of curriculum delivery, lack of parental involvement, incapacity of staff to follow an assessment programme, teachers who are absent or teachers who do not *honour their lesson periods,* teachers who undermine the principals' authority, too many teachers attending workshops during school hours and learners who arrive late for school.

The summative reflections of the principals that were examined indicate that they have grown and developed their leadership capacity to improve equality of opportunity by addressing historical factors such as community involvement, the development of a vision and mission statement, admission policies, religious policies, codes of conduct for their schools, financial policies, safety policies and a policy for HIV/Aids. With regard to the more effective delivery of education to the learners, aspects such as planning, monitoring and equal division of work amongst teachers were addressed. Every student had to provide evidence to support their summative reflections. The principal of a relatively small high school reflected on improving learner performance and said:

> I started to develop plans like the year plan, IQMS (staff development) management plan, weekly activity plan, assessment plan, classroom observation plan.

The student included evidence of planning schedules and a new classroom observation template that he now uses. The principal of a primary school with almost a thousand learners found the content of the Education Law module particularly useful and said:

> This module enables me to implement legal principles at school, to balance human rights and create a harmonious school climate conducive to teaching and learning.

Copies of school policies such as the admission policy, code of conduct for learners, religious policy, extra-mural policy, procurement policy, language policy, assessment policy and individual learning area policies were included by the majority of students in their final portfolios as evidence of their capacity development.

The principal of a high school referred to his own development and the changes effected in his school.

> I have learned to monitor and evaluate teaching and learning in a transformed way, no longer using the old system of management. I now understand how to observe teacher and learner practices in class. The purpose of my observations was to develop a turn-around strategy that seeks to assist both learners and teachers in improving their learning and teaching skills. I established a School Assessment Team and managed the recording and reporting of learner performance to improve their achievement.

As supporting evidence he included examples of completed monitoring instruments that he used to observe teaching in classes, subject policies, assessment policy, and a feedback and marking policy.

2.6.2 Addressing social factors impeding social justice in education

Social factors impeding social justice in schools include the demands and expectations, of the community, the relative poverty in the area and the capabilities of the parents serving on the school governing body. In 2005 the Nelson Mandela Foundation reported on the social factors affecting South African rural communities. "Poverty and unemployment are starkly present in the everyday realities and activities of people living in rural areas" (Nelson Mandela Foundation 2005 25). The education level of the parents is very low and parents cannot assist learners with their school work. Parents and learners face a real dilemma when there is lack of transport to take learners to school. Due to various reasons, one of many being the HIV/Aids pandemic in South Africa, rural schools all experience a problem with child-headed households. In these cases, learners have additional responsibilities of caring and providing for their siblings. Learner: teacher ratios and the number of classrooms available at the rural schools pose a serious management challenge for principals in these schools.

The principals who enrolled in the ACE programme were selected because their schools were under-performing. All these schools are situated in the rural, relatively poor areas of the Mpumalanga province. In this ACE programme, school principals were encouraged to involve the parents and other role players in the community in projects to improve the quality of education in their schools.

The provincial Department of Basic Education subsidises school nutrition programmes in the rural schools of Mpumalanga. The schools receive the basic ingredients for the school meals, but have to manage the preparation and serving of the meals to the learners themselves. In the principals' final portfolios they have identified the following challenges linked to the preparation and serving of the meals to the learners: lack of cooking facilities, lack of staff to prepare the meals and lack of vegetables to serve with the staple food. In their reflections, many school principals explained how they involved the unemployed parents to establish a vegetable garden on the schools grounds. These principals included pictures of the vegetable gardens and commented that their schools are now able to serve healthier food to the learners, and parents sell the extra vegetables to community members. Principals provided

supporting pictures to show that community members assisted the schools to build kitchen facilities whereas in the past, the food was prepared by volunteer parents on open fires under trees.

> We now have a vegetable garden which assists with the nutrition of learners with vegetables. Our two general workers are assisted by two parents and they work tirelessly on providing the school with vegetables.

Examples of projects that the principals coordinated to improve the education opportunities for learners in their communities include establishing school libraries, computer centres and sporting facilities.

A primary school in an informal settlement in Northern Mpumalanga obtained donations in the form of books, shelves and labels from the neighbouring schools and businesses to develop a new library. In the letters to thank the sponsors the principal wrote

> Your visit and the time you invested in our learners help them to recognize their importance and value as individuals. By providing our school community with the keys of knowledge, you are unlocking a brighter future for each and every learner.

In the annual objectives to improve the learner's vocabulary and reading skills the principal wrote:

> 95% of Grade 1 learners should be able to hold a book in the correct position
>
> 80% of Grade 3 learners should know the parts of a book by the end of the year
>
> 60% of the Grade 6 and 7 learners should read a newspaper or magazine at least once per week.

2.6.3 Addressing economic factors impeding social justice in education

The school funding norms in South Africa require provincial education departments to rank schools according to the poverty of physical conditions surrounding a school. The relative poverty of the community around a school was based on the number of households with electricity and piped water and the level of education of the parents (Gallie 2013). Since 2011, schools are ranked into five quintiles, with Quintile One representing the poorest and Quintile Five representing the least poor schools. Schools in quintiles one to three, the poorest schools, should not charge compulsory school fees and they receive a higher subsidy per learner from the government. The non-performing schools, managed by the principals who were enrolled for the ACE (EL), all represent Quintile One to Quintile Three schools.

Schools, with the help of their communities, started developing sports fields and before-and-after-pictures were included as evidence of these new sport fields that were established.

In many cases the principals included before-and-after pictures as evidence to demonstrate how, through their improved managerial skills they maintained the school facilities. Broken window panes were replaced, falling

classroom ceilings repaired, school grounds were cleaned with the help of unemployed parents, fences were repaired, new school gates fitted and school furniture was repaired.

Lack of physical facilities is a challenge to many of the school principals. A principal of a primary school identified the lack of an administrative office and furniture as a challenge in her school. At the end of the second year of the ACE programme she coordinated the division of one classroom into an administrative office and a storeroom. She included pictures as evidence in her portfolio.

> I now have an office where I keep all the documents and files of the school. It is always kept clean." We also now have a storeroom in our school. We keep all books, surplus stationery and furniture there.

Financial management and resource management are the two most challenging areas for managers in schools without the necessary support from their school governing bodies. Financial management of schools includes the acquisition of funds and assets and their management. It includes budget preparation, cash flow analysis, expenditure control as well as the safeguarding of assets (Heystek 2013). The South African Schools Act (RSA 1996) determines that the school governing body is responsible for the financial management of a school. Most parental school governing bodies in the poorer schools have limited literacy and specifically financial management skills or experience (Heystek 2013, 73). They rely on the principal as the literate and supposedly financially knowledgeable person to take the responsibility for the management of school finances.

In all the summative reflections that were analysed, the principals commented on how this programme empowered them with the management of their school's finances and physical resources. Their comments confirm how this programme assisted them by providing them with the required knowledge and skills to overcome many of the historic barriers in their schools. The modules on education law and financial management developed their skills to address socio-political and ideological pressures and simultaneously create a positive school culture where social justice prevails.

> The school needed guidance and direction on how to manage and maintain finances and physical resources. I was now able to lead the processes when a financial policy was drafted. I was also able to convince the school governing body to alter the tuck shop into a kitchen rather than to wait for the Department of Education which takes forever to do something.

> The motivation and encouragement to do something with the little that the school has were obtained from attending lectures on this module.

Another principal commented: "I managed to assist the school governing body to amend the procurement, stock and physical resource policy." As evidence he included a stock register and inventory register to be placed at the back of every classroom door.

2.7 Contributions of leadership training to social justice in education: Discussion and conclusions

The declared aim for the transformation of the South African education system is to "ensure that the human resources and potential in our society are developed to the full" (ANC 1995, 3). The twin concepts of effectiveness and improvement are central to both equality and quality in South African schools (Coleman 2003). Dimmock (2012) clearly says that leadership is vital and necessary to ensure school improvement. He sees leadership as capacity building that is developing and optimizing the human, physical and financial resources at the disposal of the school.

The ACE (School Leadership) programme was conceived by the National Department of Education in South Africa as a practice-based programme and is intended to lead to enhanced leadership and management practice. The study materials were developed centrally and all the universities who were selected to offer this qualification were compelled to use the same study materials. All students who enrolled for this ACE (School Leadership) had to submit a portfolio of evidence as part of their summative assessment.

Most candidates claim to have improved their management practice and this was confirmed by their mentors in their final assessment reports. They are:

- Module One: Understanding school leadership and management in the South African context.
- Module Two: Managing teaching and learning.
- Module Three: Lead and manage people.
- Module Four: Manage organizational systems, physical and financial resources.
- Module Five: Manage policy, planning, school development and governance.

Two fundamental modules included in this ACE programme address the aspects of computer literacy and English writing skills.

Transformation of the education system, changing financial priorities, shifting education needs and new teaching strategies require that education managers at all levels take on new responsibilities. Muijs & Harris (2003) point out that evidence from school improvement literature consistently highlights the fact that effective leaders exercise a powerful influence on a schools' capacity to improve achievement. In other words, providing quality education without quality leadership is "impossible" (Coleman 2003).

Huber (2004) explains that the factor that determines the success of a school is the staff of the school. If people behave or act in the appropriate ways, if their decisions are proper and timely, and if they can use creativity to develop

new and improved teaching strategies and support materials, the school will continue to achieve the desired performance and will prosper.

Evidence from the summative reflections of the school principals' portfolios provides overwhelming proof that participating in this ACE programme contributed to social justice, especially in the poor, rural areas of Mpumalanga.

> Our school is in a rural area. Most of our learners depend on social grants. Some of these learners come to school on an empty stomach.
>
> I suggested the issue of making a vegetable garden to the school governing body. We wrote a letter to the office of Nokaneng Agrico requesting them to plough our soil. They also gave us seeds of various vegetables
>
> Ultimately our learners were fed.

Another high school principal in his summative reflection wrote:

> This course has given me courage that nothing is impossible. We have created good links with the community. The school even invites parents to school to discuss their children's progress and we advise them how to assist their children with school matters.

On instructional leadership a principal said:

> I had managed to allocate complete job descriptions to educators. The curriculum is now well monitored with the assistance of the senior management team who have subjects to look after.

One high school principal's words summarize our findings from analysing the student's summative reflections to find out whether the development of leadership capacity advances social justice in South Africa, when he wrote:

> When I joined the school, I did not know where to start. The filing system was not done. The school did not have any policies; there were no programmes in the school to manage.
>
> The school has qualified educators who can execute all the required duties in the school, but there was no proper control. The entire school was so dirty. Most of the windows were broken. They were still using old broken desks.
>
> Through the encouragement and knowledge that I got in the ACE course, our school now has a vision and mission written on the school's entrance. Most of the educators are now committed to change and the availability of school policies helps them to realize their responsibilities. As the principal I have tried to create a school conducive to teaching and learning. Broken windows are repaired and we maintain the desks. With the help of the SMT and one master teacher we are monitoring the classes and learners are now assessed using the assessment policy from the department.
>
> I work with the finance committee in harmony, planning together how we can improve the school. Feedback is regularly given to parents and this avoids complaints.

The analysis of the summative reflections and the supporting evidence of the students who completed the ACE in Education Leadership provide

overwhelming proof that previous socio-economic disadvantages are addressed through this leadership programme. Creating social justice in education was examined by keeping in mind the social realities of the situation within which social justice must be achieved. Equality of opportunity and equality of conditions is about creating opportunities for people to reach their potential within the social realities of the heterogeneous South Africa.

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3 TRAINING TEACHERS TO PLAY QUASI-JUDICIAL ROLES IN LEARNER DISCIPLINE: THE STORY OF AN INTERVENTION TO CLOSE THE JUSTICE GAP[1]

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ABSTRACT

In this paper we examine the justice gap in disciplinary processes and hearings concerning in particular learners and we also give a very brief account of a joint initiative by the authors and a private management consultant firm (African Management Consultants International) to provide interventional and empowering training to address the negative consequences of the status quo regarding disciplinary hearings on charges brought against learners as well as educators. We will focus on relevant legal issues, the professional development of teachers and school governing body (SGB) members for quasi-judicial roles in disciplinary hearings, our research and training methodology, the content of the programme and our conclusions and recommendations.

Keywords: discipline, quasi-judicial role, teacher training

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3.1 Introduction

Among the maladies of the pre-democratic education system in South Africa was a perceived failure to protect the rights and interests of both learners and educators in disciplinary hearings on charges levelled against them and to pursue justice through the required quasi-judicial disciplinary proceedings. This alleged failure was ascribed among others to unfair discrimination, authoritarianism and a disregard for labour and human rights and the rule of law including the principles of natural justice.

Although the principles of natural justice formed part of the common law of South Africa then, its application in disciplinary matters left much to be desired. The principles include several elements essential for disciplinary hearings and processes to meet the requirements of justice and fairness among others the dictum *audi alteram partem* (the other side must be heard), objectivity and fairness and rule that the punishment must fit the offence.

The new Constitutional and educational dispensations introduced in South Africa in the latter half of the 1990s assumed that educators (both school-based and office-based ones) would be able to play quasi-judicial roles and apply legal concepts (like due process and just administrative action) correctly in educator and learner disciplinary hearings and tribunals in order to help create educational environments conducive to quality education and to ensure that justice is done. It was also believed that, by imposing formal legal requirements on such hearings, accused learners and educators' rights would be better protected than that they had been under the previous dispensation in South Africa and that the Constitutional provisions on just administrative action would ensure that mere lip service to the principles of natural justice would no longer carry the day. Authentic compliance with the principles of administrative justice (incorporating the principles of natural justice) would now become the imperative. However, to us it is not clear that these assumptions were justified or even fair towards the educators involved.

These did not remain assumptions but provision was in fact made in education legislation for disciplinary hearings and proceedings and the roles of educators in those proceedings. Among the assumptions and expectations were that educators would be able to effectively play the quasi-judicial roles of prosecutors and presiding officers in disciplinary hearings concerning serious misconduct which may have very serious legal consequences like suspension and expulsion (in the case of learners) and dismissal (in the case of educators).

3.2 Justice

A comment on the concept "justice" is not out of place and serves to contextualise our argument. It originates from *Ex parte McCarthy,* a leading English case on the impartiality and recusal of judges. The facts of the *McCarthy*

case are briefly that, in 1923, McCarthy, a motorcyclist, was involved in a road accident which resulted in his prosecution before a magistrate's court for dangerous driving. Unknown to him and his lawyer, the clerk to the justices was a member of the firm of solicitors (attorneys) acting in a civil claim against the defendant arising out of the accident that had given rise to the prosecution. The clerk retired with the justices, who returned to convict the defendant.

On learning of the clerk's provenance (background), the defendant applied to have the conviction quashed. The justices swore affidavits stating that they had reached their decision to convict the defendant without consulting their clerk.

It was when the conviction was taken on review that Lord Hewart C. J. said among others,

> … a long line of cases shows that it is not merely of some importance but is of fundamental importance that justice should not only be done, but should manifestly and undoubtedly be seen to be done" and he added that "(n)othing is to be done which creates even a suspicion that there has been an improper interference with the course of justice.

In a sense education and the law pursue the same aim: justice.

3.3 Legal principles: job requirements

Implicit or explicit declaration

Educators (both school-based and office-based ones as defined in the Employment of Educators Act, 76 of 1998 (EEA) (Republic of South Africa 1998a) do not receive pre-service training in respect of the quasi-judicial matters relevant to disciplinary processes and hearings neither do they receive meaningful and appropriate in-service training and professional development. The result of this seems to be a general failure of justice and disciplinary proceedings that miss their goals. Aggrieved parties then have to turn to courts of law and other agencies in large numbers to have disputes settled – naturally at great financial and other cost to the persons and institutions involved as well as to the education system and to the country as a whole.

In South African law a person who applies for a post declares implicitly or explicitly that he or she has the necessary skills, knowledge, attitudes, values and experience needed to comply satisfactorily with the requirements of the position. Grogan (2003, 31) states that "employment contracts … bear a heavy load of implied terms." The employer accepts this declaration by the prospective employee through an appointment.

The Employment Equity Act, 55 of 1998 (Equity Act) (Republic of South Africa 1998a) provides that a person may be "suitably qualified for a job" (Section 20 (3)) as a result of any one of, or a combination of that person's –

- Formal *qualifications*;
- Prior *learning*;

- Relevant *experience*; or
- *Capacity* to acquire, within a reasonable time, the ability to do the job (authors' emphasis).

This Act provides for Employment Equity (affirmative action). Section 2 of the Act provides that its purpose is to achieve equity in the workplace. Section 20 (5) of the Act provides that when an employer decides whether or not an applicant is suitably qualified for a job, such employer may not discriminate unfairly "against a person solely on the grounds of that person's lack of experience."

An employer who appoints a person to a post whose requirements have been set out in an advertisement has the right to expect an applicant and subsequent appointee to be able to discharge all the responsibilities associated with the appointment in accordance with set performance criteria. In cases where an applicant does not have the capacity to do the job but has the ability to acquire such capacity "within a reasonable time" or does not have the relevant experience but is still appointed, such an appointee has a legitimate expectation that the employer will provide suitable opportunities for him or her to acquire the required capacity or experience.

Moreover, in terms of South African law as per the case *S v De Blom*, a person practising a profession is presumed to possess or have knowledge of the law as it pertains to that profession and such person is him- or herself responsible for having or possessing or acquiring such knowledge. Therefore, if an educator is not qualified for instance to perform the quasi-judicial roles regarding discipline in education that we will discuss below, the law expects him or her to acquire the required knowledge and skills although the expectation that the employer should assist is not in dispute.

Educator workload

In South Africa the job requirements as well as the workload of the various positions educators may hold are set out in the Personnel Administrative Measures (Republic of South Africa 1999) published under the Employment of Educators Act, 76 of 1998 (Republic of South Africa 1998(a). The requirements with which principals, deputy-principals, heads of department and other educators must comply are set out in the Personnel Administration Measures (PAM). Paragraph 3 of the PAM describes the core duties of educators employed at various levels. It also contains a general rule that, in addition to the core duties and responsibilities specified in this section, certain specialised duties and responsibilities may be allocated to staff in an equitable manner by the appropriate representative of the employer. The quasi-judicial roles associated with disciplinary hearings appear to be covered by this provision. It seems that an employer or manager who assigns such roles to someone who does not have the necessary skills and knowledge would appear to be within his or her legal rights while the affected employer will probably not be able to invoke the defence of an unfair labour practice as defined in law to prevent an employer from assigning to him or her a quasi-judicial role as contemplated in

this paper. However, we do not argue that there may not be a duty on the employer to assist the employee to acquire the requisite knowledge and skills.

In terms of paragraph 4.2 (d) (ii) of the PAM the job of a principal includes ensuring "that the *education of the learners is promoted in a proper manner* and in accordance with approved policies" (authors' emphasis). Paragraph 4.2 (e) ((ii) makes a principal responsible for the "development of staff training programmes" which could well include training in connection with quasi-judicial roles. Both the deputy principal(s) (paragraph 4 (3)) and the head(s) of department (paragraph 4 (4)) must assist the principal in "promoting the education of learners in a proper manner."

3.4 Discipline

We have already pointed out that the PAM compels principals, deputy principals and heads of departments to promote the education of learners in a proper manner. Discipline is an indispensable requirement of the promotion of the education of learners and it is therefore a general duty of all educators. Principals, deputy principals and heads of department (collectively known as the School Management Team (SMT)) bear an additional burden of ensuring that a proper learning environment is created and sustained among others through the exercise of sound discipline. In addition, South African law is clear that a school principal and other people in authority like teachers have both original and delegated authority to take disciplinary measures in the course of their work and that discipline is not limited to that emanating from the functioning of school governing bodies (SGBs) and codes of conduct as discussed below as is evident from the cases *Van Biljon v Crawford* and *R v Muller*.

3.4.1 School Governing Bodies (SGBs), codes of conduct for learners and disciplinary hearings

South Africa differs from most countries in the sense that every public school must have a school governing body (SGB) which also has an important role in learner discipline in terms of Section 8 and 9 of SASA as discussed below. In terms of section 16 (1) of the South African Schools Act, 84 of 1996 (SASA) (Republic of South Africa 1996) the governance of every public school is vested in its governing body and it may perform only such functions and obligations and exercise only such rights as prescribed by the Act.

In terms of section 23 (1) of SASA (Republic of South Africa 1996), the membership of the governing body of an ordinary public school comprises –

- *elected members;*
- *the principal, in his or her official capacity;*
- *co-opted members*

Section 23 (2) provides that the elected members of the governing body shall comprise a member or members of each of the following categories:

- *Parents* of learners at the school
- educators at the school;
- members of staff at the school who are not educators; and
- *learners* in the eighth grade or higher at the school.

Section 23 (9) contains a very important provision for the purpose of our paper namely that the number of parent members must comprise one more than the combined total of other members of a governing body who have voting rights. This makes parents the majority on an SGB which has specific functions regarding the discipline of learners as discussed below.

3.4.2 Code of conduct for learners

Section 8 of SASA (Republic of South Africa 1996) provides that –

a) Subject to any applicable provincial law, a governing body of a public school must adopt *a code of conduct for the learners* after consultation with the learners, parents and educators of the school (subsection (1))
b) A code of conduct referred to in subsection (1) must be aimed at *establishing a disciplined and purposeful school environment*, dedicated to the *improvement and maintenance of the quality of the learning process* (subsection (2))(authors' emphasis).

Section 8 (4) provides that nothing contained in SASA exempts a learner from the obligation to comply with the code of conduct of the school attended by such learner while section 8 (5) (a) requires a code of conduct to contain provisions of due process safe-guarding the interests of the learner and any other party involved in disciplinary proceedings. This concept is to a degree foreign in South African law and is encompassed in the law on fair disciplinary hearings and just administrative action in terms of Section 33 of the Constitution of 1996 (Republic of South Africa 1996a). South African law distinguishes between *substantively fair due process* (which implies that a fair and reasonable rule or standard exists and is known and that it must have been broken through misconduct) and *procedurally fair* due process (which means that fair procedures must be followed when an alleged breach of code of conduct is investigated, a hearing is held and punishment is imposed.) In terms of the law the disciplinary process must therefore be both substantively and procedurally fair.

Section 8 (5) (a) introduces the possibility of disciplinary proceedings and section 8 (6) stipulates that a learner must be accompanied by his or her parent or a person designated by the parent at disciplinary proceedings, unless good cause is shown by the governing body for the continuation of the proceedings

in the absence of the parent or the person designated by the parent. In terms of section 9 of SASA the disciplinary hearings (referred to in section 8 (5)) conducted by SGBs[2] into allegations of "serious" learner misconduct could end in a learner being suspended by an SGB or an SGB recommending to a provincial education head that a learner be expelled from a public school.

A disciplinary hearing must be conducted by a disciplinary committee constituted by an SGB in terms of section 30 of SASA (which provides among others that a member of an SGB must be the chairperson of a committee established by the SGB) and section 13(2) of the *Guidelines for the Consideration of Governing Bodies in Adopting a Code of Conduct for Learners* (Department of Education 1998). A disciplinary committee thus constituted performs a quasi-judicial act (Chambers Concise Dictionary 1997, 870) when it investigates the conduct of a learner. A quasi-judicial act is not a judicial act but in a sense and to a degree it appears to be a judicial act. A disciplinary hearing therefore has elements of a court hearing but is not a hearing in a court of law.

This similarities and differences between judicial proceedings and quasi-judicial proceedings was an issue in the *High School Vryburg case (*Joubert, de Waal & Rossouw 2004). In this case the judge examined the proceedings of a disciplinary hearing conducted by a governing body regarding a charge of assault with the intent to do grievous bodily harm brought against Andrew Babeile, a 22 year old learner in Grade 7 at Vryburg High School. It was alleged that on 17 February 1999, during a class break, Babeile had stabbed another learner with a pair of scissors. It was also alleged that the learner he stabbed had done nothing to provoke him. The governing body suspended him for serious misconduct. In the abovementioned case the judge declared the proceedings of the hearing null and void. Khumalo J found that there had not been a fair hearing among others because Babeile's parents had not been notified, and that the disciplinary committee had not applied the rules of natural justice. The judge also raised his concern about the fact that the chairperson of the disciplinary hearing was a magistrate by profession and that the distinction between a judicial hearing and a quasi-judicial hearing may have been clouded or compromised because of this fact and may have affected the learner negatively.

Paragraph 11 of the Guidelines (Department of Education 1998) lists learner offences which may be regarded as serious misconduct and which may lead to suspension while paragraph 13 deals with aspects of procedural due process applicable to disciplinary hearings, suspensions and expulsions. The outcome of a disciplinary hearing may have a serious impact on the educational rights of a learner and it is therefore understandable that SASA requires a code of conduct to contain provisions safe-guarding the interests of the learner and any other party involved in disciplinary proceedings. The concept of *due process* (and how to implement it in disciplinary proceedings and hearings) is not one with which educators in general are familiar because it does not normally form

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2 We believe that this power given to a body consisting of a majority of parents is fairly uncommon in the education systems of the world.

part of their initial training and it also does not feature in in-service or professional development programmes. All of this confronts the role players in disciplinary hearings with the imperative to get to know the law that applies to hearings to safeguard the interests of accused learners as well as those of all the parties involved in a hearing in order to fulfil their quasi-judicial roles properly (so that the purpose of a hearing is served namely justice done to all role players and the learning process promoted). The parties should not be exposed to the legal consequences of illegal, unreasonable and unfair acts in connection with such hearings.

For the purposes of our paper the following role players need to have knowledge of the legal requirements that define their quasi-judicial roles and functions in disciplinary hearings:

1. *The SGB* which appoints a disciplinary committee and has to take a decision regarding a recommendation they receive from a disciplinary committee
2. *A member of the SGB* (usually a parent) who may act as presiding officer at a hearing
3. *The principal* or someone (usually a deputy-principal or a head of department) to whom a principal (the appropriate representative of the employer) assigns the specialised duties and responsibilities of a prosecutor (or evidence leader) in a disciplinary hearing in terms of paragraph 3 of the PAM. However, such specialised duties and responsibilities should be allocated to staff in an equitable manner by the appropriate representative of the employer.
4. *Education department officials* who have to consider recommendations by SGBs and also appeals against decisions in terms of Section 9 of SASA (authors' emphasis)

We cannot quantify the number of incidents where officials of departments of education refuse to endorse recommendations by SGBs or simply fail to act or respond regarding the expulsion of learners for apparently invalid reasons in terms of Section 9 of SASA and thereby cause problems for schools that have taken steps against learners after fair hearings that complied with the requirements of due process. However, there is significant evidence that a fair number of departmental officials often act *ultra vires* (Beckmann & Prinsloo 2012; Suid-Afrikaanse Onderwysunie v Departementshoof, Department van Onderwys, Vrystaat, en 'n Ander; South African Teachers' Union v Head of Department, Department of Education, Free State, and Another; Beckmann & Prinsloo 2006). Rademeyer (2013, 17) quotes Colditz, the Chief Executive Officer of the Federation of Governing Bodies of South African Schools (FEDSAS), who said at the annual conference of the South African Education Law Association (SAELA) held on 9 September 2013 that schools which make recommendations regarding the punishment of learners to provincial education departments get no feedback from the authorities in 4 of the 9 South African provinces namely KwaZulu-Natal, Limpopo, the Eastern Cape and NorthWest. According to him

things are somewhat better in 3 provinces namely the Free State, Gauteng and the Western Cape. All of this underscores the need for specific training for departmental officials who may play a role in disciplinary hearings of learners and who may not realise the implications of the roles they play for learners, parents and the entire school community.

It needs to be remembered that when these special functions and quasi-judicial powers regarding discipline were written into SASA the policy makers and legislators must have believed that the role players in these hearings would be able to discharge their quasi-judicial responsibilities properly and safeguard the interests of all. However, these expectations and assumptions proved to be mistaken, justice (in the sense of consequences for offences as well as protection of rights) is often not done and discipline and education quality suffer as a result thereof.

3.5 Necessity of training regarding quasi-judicial responsibilities concernig learner discipline

3.5.1 Practical reasons

A good number of disciplinary hearings go wrong and, when challenged (either through appeals to higher authorities in the system or by approaching a court of law), many are overturned. Apart from suggesting certain deficiencies in the legal knowledge of educators, the overturning or challenging of the outcome of a disciplinary hearing may have a wide range of negative effects on education and a school:

1. *Teachers* may lose faith in the process and may be inclined to deny the existence of problems or just ignore them
2. *Parents* may lose confidence in a school and its educators
3. *Dangerous and violent conditions* may arise or escalate in a school and it may be almost impossible to bring them under control
4. *Learners* may see a decision overturned as a licence to disregard rules and codes and to challenge all authority – they may start viewing themselves as untouchable
5. *Departments of Education* who do not have valid reasons for not confirming SGB recommendations but still do so may cause resentment among educators and aggravate difficult circumstances which may already exist at a school – a feeling of us *versus* them could arise
6. *Schools and other agencies* and role players may run up enormous legal expenses
7. *The quality of education* may deteriorate because the environment that is supposed to be conducive to learning and teaching is eroded

> (section 8 (2) of SASA)(Republic of South Africa 1996), and most importantly, because justice is neither done nor seen to be done (authors' emphasis)

Teachers and SGB members who have to play quasi-judicial roles in disciplinary hearings are subjected to a huge amount of stress because they have not been trained for these roles and because they are probably aware of the negative consequences should a hearing go wrong. Neither initial teacher education nor in-service training (professional development) seems to provide teachers with the skills and the knowledge they may need in this regard.

3.5.2 Further aspects of the methodology employed to determine the need for training

Literature review

Our paper departs from the point of view that educators' knowledge of education law provisions is unsatisfactory and that it constrains the way in which educators can ensure that justice is done through disciplinary hearings and processes. There is a solid base of South African literature that confirms the general lack of applicable legal knowledge with educators in South Africa. These include Joubert (2006), Bush & Joubert (2004), Beckmann & Prinsloo (2012) (work based on interviews with a number of senior role-players in education litigation in South Africa since 1994), Van Wyk (1987) and Woolman & Fleisch (2009).

Partington (1984) paints a similar picture about England. In the USA two recent papers have also addressed and revealed a disconcerting lack of legal literacy among various levels of teachers and have even referred to legal illiteracy (Mirabile, 2013; Decker, Umpstead & Brady, 2013).

Interviews

Apart from the literature review (including the analysis of the law in paragraph 3 above) we also collected data through interviews with:

a) Lawyers who had acted for parties in disciplinary hearings
b) Educators who had acted as evidence leaders
c) School principals
d) Education department officials
e) Representatives of bodies representing SGBs of schools
f) People who had represented teacher union members in disciplinary hearings

All of the data collected confirmed that the consequences of ignorance regarding disciplinary processes and hearings are so dire that a way needs to be found to provide the role players in question with appropriate training. It was pointed out above that the law requires a person who performs a professional function to have knowledge of the law as it applies to his or her work.

A particularly serious consequence of lack of knowledge is that it may establish delictual liability in the case of loss or damage that may be suffered by a role player or an accused in a disciplinary hearing. It is primarily the responsibility of a professional person himself or herself to acquire such knowledge and an employer can also be expected to provide an employee with access to opportunities to acquire appropriate skills and knowledge. In the case of SGB members who have to play specialised roles in disciplinary hearings, such SGB members have a legitimate expectation that the provincial education authorities and their employees will assist them. In this regard section 19 of SASA provides that –

(1) Out of funds appropriated for this purpose by the provincial legislature, the Head of Department must establish a programme to -
   a. provide introductory training for newly elected governing bodies to enable them to perform their functions; (subsection (1)(a)) and
   b. provide continuing training to governing bodies to promote the effective performance of their functions or *to enable them to assume additional functions* (subsection (1)(a)) (authors' italics)

(2) The Head of Department must ensure that principals and other officers of the education department render all necessary assistance to governing bodies in the performance of their functions in terms of this Act.

It seems that section 19 (1) (b) makes particular provision for training for SGB members who may be called upon to play roles such as those of presiding officers in disciplinary hearings and for which they have not been prepared or trained. Section 19 (2) places a responsibility on principals and other employees of provincial education departments to assist (members of) governing bodies in the performance of their functions. We are not aware of official and adequate training regarding disciplinary hearings available in terms of section 19 (1) and we also believe that very few educators would be able to provide the assistance contemplated in section 19 (2) to SGB members.

A number of cases taken to South African courts point to –

(1) *The difficulty of the demands* that disciplinary hearings make on role-players and the challenges they face in handling the issues
(2) *The inability of some educators and SGB members* to perform their roles in disciplinary hearings correctly or to ensure that due process is followed in such enquiries
(3) *Incorrect or unauthorised (ultra vires) action* on the parts of education departments
(4) *The tension created in schools* if disciplinary hearing decisions or recommendations are challenged (authors' emphasis)

These cases include the following -[3]

a. *Michiel Josias De Kock v The Head of Department of the Department of Education, Province of The Western Cape*) – where educators transgressed the legal dictum of *nemo iudex in sua causa* and played the roles of witnesses, prosecutor and panel members in the same hearing
b. *Maritzburg College v Dlamini NO & others* (– where the Head of the Education Department of KwaZulu-Natal failed to respond within a reasonable time to a recommendation from the governing body of Maritzburg College to have learners expelled
c. *Queens College Boys High School v MEC, Department of Education, Eastern Cape Government* - a case in which the court set aside the decision of the Eastern Cape Province Head of the Education Department not to expel learners as recommended by the SGB
d. *Antonie v Governing Body Settlers High School and Others*–in which the SGB was criticised by the judge for the way in which it handled its own code of conduct and refused a girl permission to wear Rastafarian dreadlocks
e. *Head of Department: Department of Education, Free State Province v Welkom High School and Another, Head of Department: Department of Education, Free State Province v Harmony High School and Another*– cases in which the specific education department tried to force schools to ignore existing national policy regarding the treatment of pregnant female learners
f. *High School Vryburg and the Governing Body of High School Vryburg v The Department of Education of the North West Province*) (Joubert et.al. 2004) – which dealt among others with the manifestation of quasi-judicial proceedings in a specific hearing
g. *MEC for Education: Kwazulu-Natal and Others v Pillay* – a case that attracted a great deal of publicity because a learner challenged a school's code of conduct in regard to religion and culture and in which it was alleged that a school had discriminated unfairly against a learner because she wanted to wear a nose stud to express her solidarity with her particular Indian cultural heritage
h. A case heard in the Free State High Court on 17 May 2013 (*Lerato Radebe and Others v Principal of Leseding Technical High Schools and Others*) - in which the court ordered the Lesideng Technical Secondary School in Thabong near Welkom in the Free State Province not to prevent 13 year old Lerato Radebe from attending grade 8 at the school because she was wearing Rastafarian "dreadlocks" and in which the court described the school's action as discriminatory against the girl's religion

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[3] These cases can be found at http://www.saflii.org.za.

We therefore conclude that it is imperative that disciplinary hearings are conducted when necessary and that they be conducted in a manner that will lead to justice for all role-players, enhance discipline and the quality of the learning and teaching in schools. It would therefore seem necessary that role players in disciplinary hearings be equipped with the necessary skills and knowledge and attitudes to play their quasi-judicial roles in this regard appropriately and confidently.

At this point we would like to quote a description of an analogous necessity for certain training for legal professionals. We believe it puts the dilemma and plight of educators in perspective while it underscores the need for "how to" training concerning legal aspects quite clearly (Morris, 1969):

> Mr Justice Trollip recently commented on the need for the young advocate to study the art of advocacy but how does he learn? Bitter experience is, of course, one of the best teachers, but bitter experience is apt to leave in its wake a trail of destruction, or a clutch of ghosts that ever and anon will return to haunt their creator. … It is unfortunate that our [law] teachers and institutions have not the time to spare more than a passing word for the 'how' of legal practice. Nor, if my memory serves me well, is there any discussion of the sources from which that 'how' may be gleaned (xxxi).

Our analysis of applicable labour and other law, our general literature review, our analyses of cases and interviews with certain role-players convinced us of the necessity of such training. We found a company that was willing to invest in such training namely African Management Consultants Ltd. (hereafter AMC) after which the question arose as to who should be trained and what methodology should be followed.

3.6 Aim and methodology of the training

In the past we would probably have opted for preparing a document bundle containing relevant laws and policies and tried to teach participants in the disciplinary process "the law" and then assume that they would then be able to apply it in practice. Formal and non-formal in-service training in South Africa has been criticised and not without justification (Bush, Moorosi & Kiggundu 2011) and we decided to explore other avenues of training.

Conversations with legal practitioners active in the field of disciplinary inquiries in education convinced us that designing training programmes departing from the needs of the various role-players in disciplinary hearings would be a better way of approaching this training and would probably yield better results. We decided to train them to play their roles and introduce aspects of the law where and when necessary.

We decided on an interactive approach where we would put actual or fictional material before the participants. Participants would get "group work assignments" and their work would be critiqued by an experienced legal practitioner. They would participate in group discussions and would also be

encouraged to raise questions and make comments at any stage during the presentations. In this manner we hoped to draw from, and build on the experience on participants.

In summary the aim of the training would be –

1) To ensure that *simple justice* between man and man results in each case as far as possible
2) To *empower role players* about the legal demands of the roles they play such as evidence leaders, presiding officers or drafters of responses to appeals
3) To assist role players to obtain a sound grasp of what happens and should happen during a hearing or tribunal
4) To instil and *strengthen the values* of courtesy and respect in the process
5) To ensure that hearings and tribunals *serve justice, fairness and the truth* as they should
6) To create a degree of *safety and security* and confidence for role players in hearings and
7) To *break down misconceptions* about disciplinary hearings among others that an evidence leader has lost the case if an accused is not found guilty
8) As far as possible to *keep matters out of the courts* and avoid the impression of formal court proceedings;
9) To *stimulate the curiosity* of role players about the law as it applies to their roles
10) To encourage role players *not to pursue an adversarial path* but to utilise joint solution-seeking powers (authors' emphasis)

3.7 Content

We focused on two role players in particular namely the evidence leader ("prosecutor") and the presiding officer.

3.7.1 Evidence leaders

The content of the training for evidence leaders was divided into 3 parts namely what to do before, during and after a hearing.

The training about what to do before a hearing included aspects such as the duty to –

1) *Put all facts before the panel* in a balanced and fair manner
2) *Serve the truth and justice* and not always and merely to find the accused guilty

3) *Comply with constitutional guidelines* concerning the assumption that the accused is not guilty unless it is rebutted (the opposite is proved) on a balance of probabilities
4) *Show respect* for the process and the dignity of all role players especially the accused
5) *Draft a charge sheet* (after consultations referred to below) and which can be regarded as the be-all and the end-all of disciplinary tribunal. The charge sheet has to be clear and unambiguous (not vague) and understandable on a number of issues namely who is the source or origin of the offense or misconduct, of what the accused is accused, where did the alleged offence or misconduct take place and when did it happen
6) Ensure that the charge sheet *follows and builds on a process* of consultation during which the evidence leader takes written statements from witnesses
7) *Serve the charge sheet* on the accused
8) Afford the accused *enough (reasonable) time* to consider the charge sheet and to prepare
9) *Inform the accused of his or her rights* (as found for example in a code of a state department of labour law)
10) *Notify the accused* in writing of the date, time and venue of the hearing or tribunal
Inform the accused of his or her rights (authors' emphasis)

During the hearing or tribunal the evidence leader must among others –

1) *Follow hearing procedures* and show courtesy towards everybody: the presiding officer, accused and witnesses
2) *Arrange for and conduct oral evidence* only and by witnesses who made written statements – make sure that such witnesses are available at the hearing or tribunal
3) *Provide the relevant documents* (if any) placed in an original file ("bundle") and three numbered copies, one each for the presiding officer, the accused and for the witnesses
4) Create *an image of someone who is well organised* and who treats all people in the tribunal with respect. An evidence leader should work in terms of the dictum "Train hard and fight easy"
5) Remember that he or she is in *the role of a prosecutor* and not in that of the persecutor
6) *Adhere to the order of proceedings* in a disciplinary hearing / tribunal / inquiry (it should be remembered that the onus to prove the allegations against the accused lies with the evidence leader and that the guilt of the accused needs to be proved *on a balance of probabilities* and *not beyond all reasonable doubt* (as in criminal cases). The evidence leader is at all times bound by the charge sheet)

7) The evidence leader leads *direct evidence* which supports the charge sheet
8) The evidence leader *leads all his witnesses* as comprehensively as possible (authors' emphasis)

After a hearing where an accused has been found guilty the evidence leader should present a picture or an image of the guilty person in context and from the file on the guilty person. The evidence leader will propose a sanction or punishment which is authorised by the disciplinary code and which ranges from a warning to a final warning to demotion and eventual dismissal (in the case of an employee).

3.7.2 Presiding officers

Presiding officers must comply with legislation and guidelines including the following –

1) The presiding officer is responsible for keeping the proceedings *orderly*
2) The presiding officer must be *courteous* but firm
3) The presiding officer should *never be alone* in the company of any party to the hearing or tribunal, neither the evidence leader nor the witnesses nor the defence.
4) He or she should *apply rules and listen* to the evidence and arguments and should assess them in terms of the onus that rests on the prosecutor to prove the charges on a balance of probability
5) He or she should to be able to *judge objectively* and fairly
6) The issue of *possible institutional bias* cannot be removed from proceedings completely but the role of the presiding officer is to be objective and impartial – the analogy being the statue of Justitia
7) The presiding officer should be a *fair referee or arbiter* (authors' emphasis)

3.8 Pilot traning session

A pilot training session that was held from 13 to 15 February 2013. We hoped to get about 30 participants but in the end registrations had to be closed when 70 people had enrolled. There were participants from most of the nine provinces in the country, SGB members and educators but no bureaucrats.

3.8.1 Material used

The training material used was developed by people with many years' experience in education law and especially matters related to disciplinary hearings.[4] Ample use was made of cases, laws and actual or hypothetical disciplinary proceedings. Scenarios were developed and were used to give participants hands on experience of assuming parts of the role of an evidence leader or a presiding officer.

The participants were given hand outs (documents containing elaborate text as well as copies of the PowerPoint presentation and application exercises) on:

1) *The reason* for, and *aims* of the course
2) Introduction to *the role of the prosecutor*/ evidence leader
3) Role of the prosecutor / evidence leader *before the disciplinary hearings* / tribunals
4) Role of the prosecutor / evidence leader *during disciplinary hearings* / tribunals
5) Role of the prosecutor/evidence leader *after disciplinary hearings*/ tribunals
6) Role of the *presiding officer* in disciplinary hearings /tribunals
7) *Administrative justice*
8) *Scenarios* which had to be used to formulate a charge and a charge sheet (authors' emphasis)

Participants were also given excerpts from relevant legislation including the Constitution (Republic of South Africa, 1996a) and the South African Schools Act (Republic of South Africa, 1996) and policies.

3.8.2 Evaluation

Evaluation of the pilot session was done by AMC through survey questionnaires and through video recordings with participants.
Questionnaires

In the questionnaires comments were invited on a number of specific issues:

The speakers
Comments on the speakers were flattering and they were given excellent ratings of 85% and more by the participants. The comments included the following -

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4 Our thanks are due among others to Mr Louw Erasmus of Erasmus Incorporated, attorney at law, Mr Paul Colditz, Chief Executive Officer of the Federation of Governing Bodies of South African Schools, attorney at law, Dr Jaco Deacon, attorney at law and labour law specialist, deputy CEO of FEDSAS and Dr Izak Prinsloo, former education law lecturer at the University of Pretoria.

1) I learnt a lot of things I never knew. I will definitely use them to empower myself
2) Please do this course on a regular basis. This course should be done in each and every province. This will help improve the education in this country

What participants had gained from the training session
Participants reported that they had gained –

1. Excellent knowledge on topics they knew nothing about
2. Knowledge of different laws and procedures to follow
3. A skill set to conduct disciplinary hearings and the tools needed to be able to conduct a hearing in a fair and just manner
4. Useful information regarding problems they were experiencing at their schools and very effective ways of dealing with them

It would seem that the above-mentioned aims of the training were achieved to a large degree. The networking opportunities, including learning from good practices at other schools, were a bonus for which he had not purposefully aimed.

Video recordings of interviews with participants and facilitators
AMC video recorded interviews with facilitators and a cross section of participants. The opinions expressed confirmed the views articulated in the responses to the questionnaire and also highlighted other relevant issues. The opinions expressed by participants included the following –

1. The session was seen as essential and timeous (if not too late)
2. The approach and methodology were seen as effective and appropriate and all interviewees stated that they had benefited from attending
3. The training should be rolled out in all provinces and should be partially financed by the national and provincial education departments in terms of S 19 of SASA (Republic of South Africa, 1996) which makes provision for the enhancement of the capacity of governing bodies as set out above.
4. More time should have been spent on the training of role players in learner disciplinary hearings than in educator disciplinary hearings

3.9 Conclusion

It became abundantly clear to us that there is a pressing need for training educators playing quasi-judicial roles in disciplinary hearings. We are confident that such training could make a significant contribution to the fairness and

effectiveness of disciplinary processes and hearings of both learners and educators and, thus, to the quality of education itself. It also became clear that we need to separate the training for role players in disciplinary hearings of learners from the training for role players involved in disciplinary hearings where charges against teachers are investigated.

We believe that negotiations should take place with government to fully or partially finance the training of educators and SGB members in this regard to make it possible for all who need it to access such training. This is the avenue that we believe has the most promise for making a real contribution to closing the present justice gap in disciplinary hearings and, in the end, to save the government, schools and SGBs enormous sums of money that can be put to use where they are more needed. In addition, we believe we need to develop further in-depth and rigorous training sessions for specific parts of role-players' functioning such as the art of cross-examination, criminal law and civil procedure.

However, the beginning and the end of the matter should remain ensuring justice and fairness in quasi-judicial proceedings and hearings.

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4 DAVID ASSISTS GOLJAT: THE VALUE OF CROSS-CULTURAL LEADERSHIP TRAINING?

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ABSTRACT

Is cross-cultural training important? There is an increased interest in overseas training for educational leaders in China; however, little is known about the value of cross-cultural training program to leadership practices and professional development of school leaders. This qualitative case study explored Chinese school principals' perceptions of leadership practices and professional development after undertaking a Finnish training program in October 2011. Data was collected by semi-structured interviews from six Shanghai principals and analyzed by conventional content analysis.

The results showed three aspects of training: positive, negative and peculiar. The positive aspects include creating more effective leadership, better handling the contradiction, wider understanding the nature of education and government's role in education. The negative aspects involve limited school visits, diversified needs of trainees, incapable lecture delivering, and language barriers. The peculiar aspects comprise differences in national and cultural contexts, educational systems, principals' tasks, and teachers' competences.

In conclusion, a cross-cultural training program can play a positive role in expanding Chinese principals' leadership practices and professional development. However, when importing Western educational ideas to non-Western countries, efforts must be made carefully to adapt to the context and nature of the learners.

Keywords : cross-cultural leadership training, leadership practices, professional development

4.1 Introduction

Principal leadership is widely considered to be one of the most important factors in school improvement and student achievement. A principal's competency is the key element in successful implementation of educational reforms in schools (Leithwood & Jantzi 2006, 206). Leithwood, Harris & Hopkins (2008, 28) recently concluded that, "School leadership is second only to classroom teaching as an influence on pupil learning and almost all successful leaders draw on the same repertoire of basic leadership practices". The authors highlight that while effective leadership makes a significant difference, leadership practices tend to be generic and universal.

Over the past two decades, principal leadership has become even more significant due to the increasing complexity of principals' roles and responsibilities around the world (Billot 2003, 38). Traditionally, principals in most educational systems throughout the world were expected to carry out commands from the educational authority and fulfill their administrative responsibilities within their schools. Today, in the era of educational reform, principals' roles have gradually changed from school manager to school leader. (Hallinger 2004, 67-71.) Principals nowadays are expected to lead change in schools to sustain school improvement and students' learning achievement (Billot 2003, 45-46). One can argue that principal leadership is a very important factor for school improvement and student achievement. However, one can ask: what added value will a cross-cultural leadership training program bring for improving principals' leadership practices and professional development?

This study contributes to the field of educational leadership and management in the cross-cultural context. It builds upon the available body of knowledge relating to the effect of training on principals' leadership practices and professional development. It focuses on a cross-cultural training program with its unique characteristics and challenges. Therefore, the research can provide a basis for the improvement of similar educational leadership training for all training providers in Finland. The study is significant because it investigates a relatively new aspect of leadership training, cross-cultural leadership training program, from the perspective of the trainees.

The aim of this study is to explore Chinese school principals' perceptions of the possible effects and benefits of a Finnish training program in their own school work. In other words, it aims to present participants' perceptions of the Finnish training program in relation to their leadership practices and professional development, and to what extent they managed to implement knowledge and skills learnt from the training program. It is guided by the following research question: How useful is the Finnish training program for Chinese principals? The research is a qualitative case study and the data were collected from six general upper secondary school principals in Shanghai, China who attended the training program at the University of Tampere (UTA) in October 2011. In this article, David is understood as Finland while Goljat is

viewed as China. It tries to explore how a small country can assist a big country to tackle its education challenges, and how a cross-cultural training program can enhance Chinese principals' leadership practices and professional development.

4.2 Leadership practices

This section extensively reviews the literatures on leadership practices. Based on six previous researches on leadership practices, I synthesize and develop a framework named "Four broad and fourteen specific categories of successful leadership practices". The framework includes setting directions, developing people, redesigning the organization, and managing the instructional program. These broad categories encompass fourteen specific leadership practices (see Table 2).

TABLE 1 The four broad and fourteen specific categories of successful leadership practices (adapted from Kouzes & Posner 2012, 29; Walker & Ko 2011, 372; Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Hopkins & Harris 2006, 34-43; Marzano, Waters & McNulty 2005, 42-43; Cotton 2003, 67-72; Waters, Marzano & McNulty 2003, 4; Hallinger & Murphy 1985, 221)

Broad Categories	**Specific Categories**	
Setting direction	1	Vision
	2	Goal
	3	High performance expectations
Developing people	4	Individualised support/consideration
	5	Emotional understanding and support
	6	Intellectual stimulation
	7	Modelling
Redesigning the organisation	8	Building a collaborative vulture
	9	Structuring the organisation to facilitate work
	10	External communication and connections
Managing the instructional program	11	Staffing
	12	Providing instructional support
	13	Monitoring
	14	Buffering staff from distractions to their core work

Setting directions practice includes three categories. Vision is the first step towards being a successful principal. Successful leaders have a clear vision and dream of what could be done before starting any project; they have a strong belief in those dreams (Kouzes & Posner 2012, 17-18), and are confident in their capacities to make extraordinary things happen (Kouzes & Posner 2012, 17-18; Marzano et al. 2005, 56). While visions can be motivating, action usually requires some cooperation on short-term goals to be achieved in order to move toward accomplishing the vision (Leithwood et al. 2006, 35). The principal's

expression of high performance expectations for students is a part of the vision that guides high performance schools and is a crucial component on its own (Cotton 2003, 11; Leithwood & Riehl 2003, 6).

Developing people practice involves four specific aspects. Firstly, successful principals provide individualized support/consideration. Setting up a work structure that rewards and recognizes teachers is an important part of the principal's role in creating a positive learning climate (Hallinger & Murphy 1985, 224). Secondly, successful principals give emotional understanding and support. They demonstrate an awareness of the personal lives of teachers and staff through being informed about important personal issues, being aware of personal needs, acknowledging significant events, and maintaining personal relationships (Marzano et al. 2005, 59). Thirdly, effective principals offer intellectual stimulation. They provide varied professional development activities for teachers to improve their skills and secure the necessary resources, such as financial, human, time, materials, and facilities resources (Walker & Ko 2011, 372-373; Marzano et al. 2005, 42-45; Cotton 2003, 70-71). Fourthly, modelling is one important element of successful principals. Both Hallinger (2003, 332) and Waters et al. (2003, 10) claim the contribution to leader effects of sustaining high visibility around the school, a visibility associated with high quality interactions with both staff and students. Effective principals maintain high visibility on the campus and make themselves available to teachers, students, and others in the school community (Marzano et al. 2005, 61; Cotton 2003, 68-72; Hallinger & Murphy 1985, 223).

Redesigning the organization core practice consists of three areas. Building a collaborative culture is essential to become successful principals. They make a point of recognizing achievement and improvement on the part of students and staff (Kouzes & Posner 2012, 24; Marzano et al. 2005, 44; Cotton 2003, 70-72). Besides, effective principals structure the organization to facilitate work. Practices associated with such initiatives include creating common planning times for teachers and establishing team and group structures for problem solving (Hadfield 2003, 117). Restructuring also includes distributing leadership for selected tasks and providing opportunities for staff to involve in decision-making about issues that affect them and for which their knowledge is important (Marzano et al. 2005, 69; Leithwood & Riehl 2003, 7). Further, external communication and connection is significant to become successful principals. Principals establish links between the school and the local, national and global communities so that school communities can make contributions to the broader society and its development. (Walker & Ko 2011, 373.)

Managing the instructional program practice includes four aspects. Even though staffing is not mentioned in the other five studies, it has proved to be a fundamental function of leaders involved in school improvement. Effective principals also provide instructional support. This set of practices, encompassed in Hallinger's (Hallinger 2003, 332; Hallinger & Murphy 1985, 222;) model on "supervising and evaluating instruction", "coordinating the curriculum", Cotton's (2003, 67-68) model on "Safe and orderly school environment", Waters'

et al. (2003, 4) research on "Establishes set of standard operating procedures and routines", "Provides materials necessary for job", and "Directly involved in design and implementation of curriculum, instruction and assessment practices". Moreover, monitoring is a crucial element in becoming successful principals. This set of practices is labelled "monitoring student progress" in Hallinger's (2003, 332) model. Finally, effective principals buffer staff from distractions to their core work. They protect teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching time or focus (Marzano et al. 2005, 48-49).

4.3 Professional development

Professional development refers to "processes and activities designed to enhance the professional knowledge, skills, and attitudes of educators so that they might, in turn, improve the learning of students." (Guskey 2000, 16) This definition means that staff development consists of a broad range of processes and activities that contribute to the learning of educators. The author also considers that professional development is a process that is intentional, ongoing and systemic (Guskey 2000, 16). Professional development for principals is highly significant. A sizable amount of research supports the argument that principals need continuous professional development to support their efforts toward school improvement and to renew their commitment to sustaining positive learning communities (e.g. Sorenson 2005, 63).

According to Guskey (2000, 56-58), there are three types of evaluation: planning, formative, and summative evaluation. Planning evaluation occurs ahead of a program or activity, even though certain phases may be continual and ongoing. It helps decision makers to know whether efforts are commanded in the right direction and are likely to produce the desired outcomes. It also serves to identify and redress early on the difficulties that might bother later evaluation efforts. Further, planning evaluation helps to guarantee that other evaluation objectives can be achieved in an efficient and timely way. Formative evaluation takes place in the process of the program or activity. The aim is to offer those responsible for the program continuing information on whether things are going as planned and if expected progress is being made. Summative evaluation is conducted after completing a program or activity. It purposes to provide program developers and decision makers with judgments on the program's overall performance. It expresses what was achieved, what were the consequences (strength and weakness), what were the final outcomes (intended and unintended), and whether, in some cases, the benefits validate the costs. I consider this article to contribute to summative evaluation of the leadership training program that was provided by the University of Tampere for the Shanghai principals.

4.4 Results and Discussions

This section presents and discusses the data collected after the training program. Principals were asked how they considered the value and transferability of the Finnish training program. In other words, how participants evaluated the training program, how they had been able to use training aspects to overcome challenges and implement appropriate leadership practices afterwards, and how the training program brought to their professional knowledge, skills and attitudes. Principals reported positive, negative, and peculiar aspects of the training program.

In the citation the (...) marking means that the citation is preceded by a phase expressed by the interviewee. Brackets [ ] refer to a part of the citation that has been clarified in details. The language in the citations has been modified slightly by omitting some colloquial expressions and repetitive connecting words. In the quotations the six participants have been referred to with letters A, B, C, D, E and F.

4.4.1 Positive aspects of the training program

New skills

The most striking result to emerge from the data was about more effective leadership, including curriculum leadership, strategic leadership, and humanistic leadership. It is worthwhile mentioning that these terms were not directly covered in my literatures. However, they were reported when principals gave the answers to interview questions.

Five principals reported that the school-based curricula in Finland were highly rich, selective and flexible. They were impressed that Finnish schools had very detailed guidelines to explain how the curricula were designed and implemented. The Finnish examples gave them insights that well-designed curricula could make a difference to students' learning. More importantly, they learnt some skills to make real curriculum improvement happening in their own schools.

> We can make our school-based curricula more diversified in that schools do have some autonomy in China. From this view, Finnish experience gives me lots of inspirations. We start to consider how to make curricula richer and more selective so that students have more options to choose. (Principal A)

> Now we are trying to open more extended and research courses that are in line with students' demands, as well as the school's philosophy. (…) I give all the available resources to support these improvements. For instance, I recruit part-time teachers to teach these courses. (Principal C)

The result of Principal C confirms that successful school leaders provide adequate and consistent resources to support collaborative work (Walker & Ko 2011, 373; Connolly & James 2006, 72-79).

One respondent commented that the training opened his/her eyes by understanding how the citizenship education was conducted in Finnish schools.

> We were very interested in the citizenship education in Finland and took some pictures from textbooks. Afterwards, I translated them from Finnish to Chinese via Google translation and used them as discussion materials. Everyone was so excited to learn how citizenship education was conducted in Finland generally. We do not have this course in Chinese schools, but it is definitely needed in the future. (Principal E)

The results partly reflect previous research that instructional principals actively coordinate school curricular objectives which are closely united with the content taught in classes and with achievement tests (Hallinger & Murphy 1985, 222), and involve in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction and assessment practices (Marzano et al. 2005, 54-55).

Two principals claimed that the training program expanded their visions and horizons. They became more future-oriented in their leadership practices. The training helped them see the big picture of schools. They were able to stand on higher levels to look at a specific school issue afterwards. This result confirms the study that training on the theme of strategic planning not only equipping school leaders with knowledge and skills needed to succeed in challenging circumstances (Alava 2007, 45), but also help them to be future-oriented so as to make adjustments in time to suit the circumstances at hand, therefore overcoming turbulent challenges which confront them every day (Gamage 2003, 8-9).

Conversely, one participant reported the issue of strategic planning could not be answered in that it did not exist in Finnish schools. For example, he/she was answered by some Finnish principals, "No, we do not have school strategic planning. Why do we have to think about it?" One possible explanation for these contradictory results may be due to the different contexts they were talking. The former result may suggest the situation when participants talk about the training courses in the university. The latter result may indicate the situation when participants visit Finnish schools.

One participant commented that he/she was able to implement humanistic leadership in his/her school. "I learnt to pay more attention to individual needs at my school and try to support these needs within available resources." He/she added that principals must take overseas training programs if they sought to achieve the goals of student-oriented and humanistic leadership.

Four principals reported that they were able to better tackle the contradiction between ideal and reality afterwards. The ideal was students' overall development (both academic and non-academic outcomes of students) whereas the reality was the upward testing system (gaokao[5]). For example, one participant attached more importance to foster students' abilities of learning,

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[5] Gaokao refers to the national college entrance examination in China. It is a test that colleges and universities use to select their students in China and thus it is the one opportunity a Chinese student has to get into college or university (Zhao 2009, 49)

practicing and cooperation. He/she started to improve students' overall development steadily on the condition of ensuring good score. He/she used a metaphor to describe the situation of Chinese principals in quality-oriented education vividly.

> Now I should change it a bit and work towards quality-oriented education. It cannot be done overnight. I plan to have small improvement each year and several steps forward in several years. (…) Chinese principals are "dancing in fetters" [trying to move about while arms and legs are bound]. We need to work towards quality-oriented education, but do have a heavy burden. (Principal B)

Besides, one principal gained a deeper understanding of students' overall development. He/she gave the example of sports specialized students in both countries. In Finland, students were equally good in sports and academic study. In China, those students were quite good in sports but very poor in academic study. Consequently universities had to admit them for low academic score. He/she claimed that "Chinese way of educating students is a bit biased."

Another participant utilized effective networking to enhance students' overall development after training. For example, his/her school cooperated more with one university in many areas, such as conducting small joint research projects, organizing students' association activities, giving career lectures, recruiting teachers, and co-designing curricula of extended courses. Compared with few years ago, the school now had more extended courses for students to choose. Through such collaborations, the university and the school both learnt many useful things from each other.

> Previously, universities and secondary schools were separated and blaming each other. (…) Now my school has the real collaboration and cooperation with one university. We are trying to help each other and grow together. The university is considering what they can do for the school, and vice versa. (Principal C)

My data is in accordance with the study showing that successful leadership practices encourage willingness to compromise among collaborators, foster open and smooth communication among collaborators, and link school with external communities (Walker & Ko 2011, 373).

Three interviewees commented that the training enabled them to have broader understanding the nature of education. One interviewee expressed the view that the training program promoted his/her ideals of education and educational philosophy. After the training he/she started to appreciate the remarkable achievements of Chinese education with a large population more. As he/she said, "I do not look down on our education after training overseas. Instead, I became appreciative more our extraordinary accomplishments. As the largest population in the world, it must not be easy for China to achieve the basic education for all." The other stated "I must take care of my school so that parents feel public schools better than private ones." Another claimed that "Education should be intensively cultivated and slowly nurtured" afterwards.

Two principals reported they were able to straightway promote education cultures of respect, trust and cooperation among teachers and students in their

own schools. They were impressed that trust was everywhere in Finland. It was the same in the area of education. The society trusted schools, principals trusted teachers and students, and vice versa.

> Distrust is a big problem in China now. I tell teachers that regardless of social atmosphere, we must have a pure land inside the school and educate students to have integrity. (…) More importantly, I show trust to teachers and students by giving example. (…). If the principal says one thing and does another, he/she will definitely lose integrity. So I feel it is the Finnish education culture that we can apply directly into my school. (Principal E)

This result is consistent with the claim that effective principals contribute to productive collaboration in their schools by cultivating mutual respect and trust among those involved in collaborative activity (Connolly & James 2006, 72-79), and by serving the needs of others instead of their own (Kouzes & Posner 2012, 22). It also supports the view that teachers are trusted to do their best as true professionals of education in Finland (Välijärvi et al. 2007, 49).

New knowledge

Several interviewees agreed that the training helped them gain increased understanding the role of government in education. For instance, half of respondents were impressed by the collaboration between general and vocational upper secondary schools in Finland. They reported the Finnish government built the two-track system to ensure general and vocational upper secondary schools were open Access to each other. There were very few obstacles between two school systems. Students could freely choose courses in both schools and get two diplomas if they want.

> I was surprised to see female students learning painting, carpentry, and wallpaper paste in Finnish vocational schools. Students were quite happy. It is so different from us. In China, we have a very big discrimination to vocational education. Vocational schools are usually the last choice for students who are poor in academic performance and cannot study in general upper secondary schools. Most graduates want to be civil servants. (Principal D)

Half of participants were impressed that all teachers had master degrees in Finland. Teaching was a prestigious profession and many young students aspired to be teachers. One was surprised that teachers in vocational upper secondary schools also held master degree, which was very rare in China. Therefore, it was the responsibility of the Chinese government to break the system obstacles, build such cooperation and collaboration, and increase teachers' qualifications. The results reflect previous research that has been done in the field. For example, Välijärvi et al. (2007, 48-49) found that the profession of teacher was regarded as one of the most important professions in the Finnish society, and all Finnish teachers had to complete a master's degree to start their teaching careers.

One interviewee claimed that Finnish principals and teachers were very free to open any kind of physical education classes as the Finnish government would cover students' sports accident insurance. Also, the Finnish government

built hospital schools for those who were sick for long time. Chinese principals and teachers were reluctant to open physical education classes. They sacrificed their private time to make up missing lessons for those students who were sick at home. The reason was such insurance was not covered by the Chinese government, not to mention hospital schools. Therefore, it was the responsibility of the Chinese government to buy students' sports accident insurance at least to ease principals and teachers' worries.

4.4.2 Negative aspects of the training program

Despite all the positive sentiments expressed by a number of principals about how the Finnish training program had influenced on their leadership practices and professional development, there were participants who gave critical feedback of the training program. For example, one participate stated, "The Finnish training program cannot be regarded as a very professional principal training. It was primarily meant to expand principals' version and learn more about Finnish education system." The other claimed the Finnish training program was nothing new and pretty the same as domestic training program. As he/she stated, "They both include lectures and school visits." One possible explanation for this result may be because the participant compared the format between the Finnish training and domestic training programs.

> My understanding of Finnish education can only stay at this level. It is impossible to gain deeper understanding in such a training mode. (Principal D)

Limited school visits

Four participants reported that school visits time was too tight. They did not have sufficient time to discuss some planned issues with Finnish peers.

> The most regretful thing was so little time to visit Finnish schools, especially upper secondary schools. We spent most time discussing with professors and education officials in the university. (Principal E)

This result is partly in line with the challenge rose by Hölttä et al. (2009, 38) that how to harmonize and compromise between Chinese flexible working habit and Finnish rigid working traditions when organizing a training program for Chinese. It suggests that more collaboration between university programs and school systems are needed to promote the consistency of intensive leadership training programs (Dyer & Renn 2010, 195).

Diversified needs of trainees

One participant commented that there were too many different needs to make everyone satisfied. As he/she said, "Some wanted to learn school culture while others wanted to learn faculty development." This result has two implications. On one hand, it implies that the training programs will be inefficient if not taking the trainees different needs into consideration. On the other, it suggests

that professional development program requires adequate length and time to enhance principals' learning (Peterson 2002, 216-230).

Incapable lecture delivering

One principal reported some of their questions could not be answered in that the trainers were not practitioners. As practitioners, they wanted to clarify how Finnish peers practiced specific issues in Finnish schools. However, he/she said, "Professors and education officials are experts in their fields, but they do not know the specific practices in Finnish schools. They cannot give us clear answers." This finding supports the view that effective training programs require a knowledgeable faculty (Xing 2013, 55), as well as indicates that the training provider did not choose the appropriate trainers according to trainees' needs.

Language barriers

Two principals mentioned language issues. They agreed that the English and Finnish languages were barriers for some activities. They said most participants had minimal English skills, and the program relied mainly on translation from English to Chinese.

> It took Chinese experts 1-2 hours to explain the issues while a whole day for Finnish experts to clarify the same issues. Sometimes we spent half an hour making clear of basic concepts due to language barriers. It was a waste of time. (Principal B)

> Every participant took a booklet about school curricula that explained how the curricula were organized and implemented in Finland. However, we did not understand in that they were written in Finnish. (Principal E)

This result of Principal B is in accordance with the result showing that intensive overseas training program for Chinese requires language translations due to insufficient English skills of participants (Hudson & Andy 2006, 8).

4.4.3 Peculiar aspects of the training program

After the training, the participants mentioned peculiar aspects of the Finnish training program which made some aspect irrelevant for the principals. They reported many of their answers could not be answered by the Finnish trainers as they did not exist in Finland. The main reasons lied in the differences in the following aspects.

National and cultural contexts

Most participants reported that the Finnish society was more equal in terms of gender, salary and occupation than the Chinese society. As one stated, "There is no high or low to be an academician or a carpenter in Finland." Thus everyone could choose the career he/she liked.

> In Finland the social and class differences are very small. In China, these differences are very big and hierarchy is quite obvious. (Principal C)

> The design of Finnish education system is great. Fairness has a good connection with its social system. The other supporting systems are well engaged in the society. This is much related to concepts of society and people. (Principal E)

Remarkably, one participant claimed that the roots of society and concepts of people were so strong even though the Chinese government had good policies.

> Nowadays the policy encourages graduates to study in both general and vocational upper secondary schools, few students choose vocational education. There is such a strong public opinion that studying vocational education will be end in nothing, and the only way to success is to study in the university. (Principal E)

The result is supported by previous research result that an intrinsic part of Finnish pedagogical philosophy is the principle of equity, on which Finnish education policy has been largely premised (Välijärvi et al. 2007, 38). Conversely, the Chinese way of thinking is quite hierarchical compared to Finnish thinking (Hölttä et al. 2009, 38), which is deeply rooted and influenced by Confucianism in the Chinese culture (Branine 2005, 466).

Educational systems

Principals mentioned three main areas of educational system differences between China and Finland. The first education system difference was the matriculation examination. In China, the similar term is gaokao, which takes once a year in most places. Most participants felt such arrangement only gave students one opportunity to choose higher education. In Finland, students can choose different time to take the exam during the year. If students do not perform well, they can re-take exam and select the best results that they are satisfied.

The second difference was evaluation of schools. According to most participants, there were not many evaluations in Finland. In China, there were many evaluations and the single most important one for upper secondary school is gaokao. They explained that the whole society, parents and superintendents, continue to judge schools in terms of their performance in the gaokao.

> The evaluation of schools emphasize too much on gaokao results [in China]. Schools must show good result in enrolment rates of the gaokao and undergraduate level admission, otherwise it is meaningless how good they are in other fields. (Principal D)

> There was no such inspection in Finnish schools whereas there are so many inspections here [in China] that I cannot handle. (Principal D)

The third difference is school curriculum. One principal said the curriculum selection was very flexible in Finland. Students could choose extended courses cross grade and boundary. In China the school curriculum was stiff. Students in Grade 10 could only choose courses in their own grade, the same worked with students in Grade 11.

Principals' tasks

One principal mentioned issues such as faculty development and school alumni did not exist in Finnish schools. Chinese principals had to figure out to improve teachers' qualities all the time for two reasons. Firstly, most participants reported that faculty development was one of the most challenging tasks. It included teachers' qualification, professional dedication, staff capacity building, and teacher appraisal. Secondly, two participants explained most Chinese principals did not have the autonomy to recruit teachers. Such decisions were usually made by local education department.

> The most two envious and impressive things we have for Finnish peers are teachers' qualification and professional commitment (…). They are most two headache things for Chinese principals. (Principal A)

> The Chinese principals have great abilities. The teachers given to us are in different levels and we have to learn how to train them to become qualified and efficient teachers continuously. It is a very challenging task. (Principal E)

Regarding school alumni, Finnish principals could not understand Chinese peers' questions, "We do not know what the graduates do afterwards. Why do we have to think about school alumni? It is students' own business." According to his/her opinion, Finnish principals seemed not to pay attention to these issues. Conversely, Chinese principals were very clear about these figures and celebrities, such as the number of graduates who became academicians and studied in universities.

Teachers' competences

As mentioned earlier, teachers' capacities were uneven in Chinese schools. Some were high while others were low. One participant pointed out that some people were not fitting to the teaching occupation. They were good at some areas but unsuitable to be teachers. They became teachers due to certain historical reasons.

In addition, the conclusion made by two principals was very illustrative. They said they had enjoyed attending the program and learnt quite a lot. However, they were unable to put all what they learnt into practice due to many national, institutional, and cultural constraints.

> It is a matter of national contexts and systems. We cannot copy it. We cannot use it either here [in China] even we copy it from Finland. (Principal D)

> Many things do not work in China. We do not have such systems [equality, two-track system, etc.] in China. (Principal E)

The comments highlight the crucial factors (culture and local context) when applying one education system into another. This result is very interesting because Chinese principals claim differences in national and cultural contexts; educational systems would not work in cross-cultural training programs. It helps Finnish training providers to identify what they could not offer to

Chinese principals. It also indicates that a well-functioned educational system could not work alone without the coherence and coordination of other supporting systems.

Finally, I made a table to summarize positive, negative and peculiar aspects of the Finnish leadership training program to Chinese principals' leadership practices and professional development (see table 3).

TABLE 2 Summary of the results

Positive results	New skills	More effective leadership	Curriculum leadership	School-based curriculum, Citizenship education
			Strategic leadership	Future oriented, see big picture
				Could not be aswered by Finnish principals
			Humanistic leadership	Pay more attention to individual needs
		Better tackle the contradictions between ideal and reality	Step by step	
			Deeper understanding of students' overall development	
			More effective network	
	New knowledge	Broader understanding the nature of education	Promote ideals of education and educational philosophy	
			More appreciative extraordinary accomplisments of Chinese education	
			Take care of the school	
			Promote educational cultures of respect , trust and cooperation	
		Increased understanding the role of government in education	Two-track system	
			Teacher qualification system, MA	
Negative results	Limited school visits		Contradiction between Chinese flexible working habits and Finnish rigid working traditions	
	Diversified needs of trainees		Difficult to cover all the desired topics within three weeks	
	Language barrier		Finnish	
			English	
	National and cultural context		Finnish society was more equal in terms of gender, salary and occupation than the Chinese society	
Peculiar resuts	Educational systems		Matriculation examination	
			Evaluation of school	
			School curriculum	
	Principals' tasks		Faculty development	
			School alumni	
	Teachers' competence		Teachers' capacities were uneven in China while even in Finland	

4.5 Conclusions

This study has explored the value of a Finnish training program on Chinese principals' leadership practices and professional development. Research with this focus can be the first step towards enhancing our understanding of the effects of cross-cultural training on Chinese principals. Based on the research results, the following conclusions can be drawn.

The results indicated three aspects of training: positive, negative and peculiar. The positive impacts included more effective leadership, better strategies to tackle the contradiction between ideal and reality, a broader understanding of the nature of education, and an increased understanding of the role of government in education. The negative aspects comprised limited school visit time, the diversity of needs to be addressed, insufficient lecture delivering, and language barriers. The peculiar aspects contain the differences in the national and cultural contexts, the educational and school systems, principals' tasks, and teachers' qualifications and dedication.

The research results are important in at least three areas: theoretically, heuristically and practically (Tracy 2010, 846). Theoretically, the study has resulted in a framework of "The four broad and fourteen specific categories of successful leadership practices" designed for training effective school leaders. It identifies the areas of school leadership training that have a strong effect on leadership practices and professional development. Heuristically, the data analysis released weak sides of the training program that matter for the Finnish training providers, and therefore, need further investigation and action. Practically, the results have identified the discrepancy between the Finnish training institutions and the Chinese principals' needs. Finnish training institutions can use these results to improve the program and curriculum (Martineau & Patterson 2010, 281), and design more targeted training programs for prospective Chinese school leaders. This may be also applied to training institutions in other countries. Further, the results might be of interest to policymakers, scholars, and practitioners in China and Finland.

This study has three limitations. The most obvious shortfall lies in that it focuses only on the city of Shanghai, to the exclusion of principals from the other five provinces in China. Finnish trainers (university professors and lecturers), Chinese training organizers (education officials), and teachers (members of leadership team) were not interviewed either. In fact, the inclusion of all these stakeholders would enable me to gain more comprehensive data. Secondly, the study could have been smoother and more effective if the framework of leadership practices had been designed earlier. The researcher did not complete the design of this comprehensive framework until the later stage of the thesis. Thirdly, the study is only a summative evaluation of a training program. To some extent, it comes a bit late to be much helpful for the training program itself (Guskey 2000, 60).

The study suggests the following directions for future research. Firstly, the leadership practices framework may be used to guide future training programs for school leaders in national or cross-cultural training contexts. The issues presented in the framework might be of interest to training providers when designing and implementing training programs for school leaders. Secondly, in the future, perhaps it will be useful for both partners to receive some pre-training of its counterpart culture, education and school systems before the program commences. This is particularly imperative for the Finnish training institutions as service providers. By doing so, the relevance of a training program could be maximized and the mismatches could be avoided or reduced. Thirdly, it would be important to investigate the long-term influence of this leadership training program upon participants. It is advisable for the Chinese policymakers to conduct a systematic evaluation of all these cross-cultural training programs while carrying out this nationwide project. The evaluations should focus on planning and formative evaluation that helps redirect time, money, personnel, and other resources in more productive directions (Guskey 2000, 60).

In conclusion, a cross-cultural training program can play a limited but positive role in expanding Chinese principals' leadership practices and professional development. The study underlines the importance of critical reflection and adaptation on the part of practitioners when importing Western educational ideas to non-Western countries. It helps overseas training institutions determine Chinese principals' needs. In the context of cross-cultural training, efforts must be made carefully to tailor program provision to adapt to the context and nature of the learners. Only by doing so, David could assist Goljat in a more efficient and targeted way.

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5 THROUGH LEADERSHIP TO CRISIS

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ABSTRACT

This chapter describes two processes that led to a crisis and the reasons for them falling into crisis. These two processes come from the world of sport and the world of school. Pulkkinen's doctoral thesis describes the same worlds from the leadership point of view and has been the incentive to research leadership in these worlds also in the crisis cases.

Analysing the cases is conducted according to Prof. Ylikangas' view that the truth for a historian is only an objective, which one attempts to approach but which is always evasive. One always ends up with interpretations subject to change in the course of times. Though we are thoroughly informed of both the cases, we cannot tell what the absolute truth is - we only have an interpretation.

The data were studied for making conclusions through content analysis. The unit of the analysis is an entity of thoughts, which was used in finding out the similarities of these cases. Both cases are described and analysed in a rather detailed manner, because examining the cases in depth helps to understand the many-sidedness of leadership in both worlds. Six thematic entities found in the analysis describe the similarity of these cases. The similarities are: Lack of respect for the old culture, Leadership style, Use of power, Communicating, Contradictory signals to superiors, Outcome.

This paper presents two cases on how poor leadership can plunge the whole organisation into crises.

Keywords: coaching, leadership, crisis

5.1 Introduction

This research describes the course of two processes that led to a crisis and the reasons for them falling into crisis. These two processes come from different worlds: from the world of sport and the world of school. The processes have a number of similarities and involve both the leadership of the organisations and the leaders with the main responsibility, in the world of sport the head coach and in the world of school the principal. Pulkkinen's doctoral thesis (2011) 'The Significance of Coaching Background in a Principal's Work' describes the same worlds from the leadership point of view and has been the incentive to research leadership in these worlds also in the crisis cases.

Both cases are described and analysed in a rather detailed manner, because examining the cases in depth helps to understand the significant meaning and many-sidedness of leadership in both worlds. Even a new developmental stage of the community hit by a crisis may be attributable to the crisis.

Both events have been subject to a great deal of discussion and various interpretations, as well as strong attitudes in their respective communities. Analysing the cases is conducted according to the views of Dr. Ylikangas, Professor of History (2008). According to him, the truth for a historian is only an objective, which one attempts to approach but which is always evasive. One always ends up with interpretations subject to change in the course of times. If the truth were to be reached, it would be the end of research. This analysis of the two cases is conducted in line with this spirit. Though we are thoroughly informed of both the cases through documents and interviews, we cannot tell what the absolute truth is - we only have an interpretation.

5.2 Case Sport

When describing Case Sport, the entities in question have invented names in this research. The ball game team in question is called *the team* and the association, under which the team functions, is called *the Association*. The limited company owned by the Association is called *the Limited Company*. The country where the World Championship games took place is called *the Game Country*.

5.2.1 Background of case

The ball games national team was elected a new coaching leadership team, the goal of which was to coach the team to the second successive World Championship. The first one had just been won. The games are played every two years, so the next World Championship games would take place in two years' time.

An experienced coach was elected the new head coach. He worked at the highest club level as head coach in men's league. The national team was to be in good hands. The head coach elected the rest of the coaching leadership team. The head coach must have the right to choose his own staff.

The team was preparing themselves seemingly well through almost the whole two year cycle. There were no audible frictions to the outside and the head of delegation's reports were delivering only positive issues. This was, however, not true and the road was inevitably taking them into a crisis. It culminated at the most decisive moment in the World Championship games, where the head coach was dismissed in the middle of the games, followed by the resignation of the entire team's leadership team.

5.2.2 New head coach

The head coach of this case had reached excellent results at the Finnish Championship level with both male and female teams. Most players had indicated in the interviews that the expertise of the head coach is at a very high level. The critique of the players towards him focused only on the way he gave feedback and treated the players of the team.

It seems that the pressure to be successful in the World Championship games stressed the head coach and the team's leadership team. As a result the reactions of the team to diverse stimuli were seen as wrong performances. Due to this, the feedback of the coaching leadership team and especially of the head coach was, in the hope of triggering correct reactions, even more negative, straightforward and personalised.

5.2.3 New organisation

The structural network of the national team operations is complicated. There are two overlapping organisations: the Association and a Limited Company owned 100% by the Association with not entirely uniform objectives. The responsibility of the Association is to generate success in the sport, and the Limited Company is responsible for also generating revenue. This organisation structure had been in action only a short period and had not yet developed into the level that all parties would have understood the entity. The position of the national team's leadership team in the national team activity of the Association was unclear in regard to its essential parts.

The board of the Association had organised the national team activity with the principle that all parties in the organisation would work in close cooperation and had trusted that problems could be solved when emerging. The unclearly defined organisation proved to be very vulnerable in the crisis case of the research. The unclear allocation of responsibilities of the national team activities had resulted in a random attempt to resolve the crisis.

The weakness in the organisation of the Association was the muddled picture about the roles and responsibilities. The same person worked in both the Association and the Limited Company, but in different roles. The leadership

system was neither clear nor widely accepted. The organisation performed more on a personal and emotional level instead of concentrating on the problems and facts at hand, and trying to find a logic to solve the situation.

5.2.4 External stakeholders of the team

In the association there is also a national teams' leadership team which organises the national teams' activities. At the founding stage of the national teams' leadership team its functions or its authorities had not been defined. Neither had the national teams' leadership team themselves had a full understanding of their authorities or the more exact contents of their tasks. The national teams' leadership team did not have independent decision making power, nor was the internal work order of the leadership team discussed at the founding stage.

With the crisis accumulating, some players were in close contact with a club coach in Finland asking for support and advice. He asked the players to discuss the problems directly with the head coach. The club coach informed a leading functionary of the Association then present about the internal problems of the team and the players' mental indisposition. According to club coach view the problems were due to the behavior of the head coach, which he shared also with the leading functionary. The leading functionary arrived at the team on the request of the players. He arrived in the Game Country upset partly by the information given by the club coach, which originated from the players. He also was disposed to accept the solution model of the players without clarifying the conception of the national teams' leadership team about the sequence of the events. In addition, his view was that the leadership team of the national teams and himself as its member had the authority and the right to decide on the dismissal of the head coach. The heated behavior of the leading functionary inflamed the relations between him and the coaching staff and the head of delegation. The leading functionary let them understand that the lead team and especially the head coach had lost the trust of the Association.

5.2.5 Culture

Two years earlier Finland had won the World Championship. This terminated also the contract of the previous coach as head coach. His four year coaching period had by all standards been a success. He was a well-liked head coach and he achieved excellent results also on the competitive side. The previous head coach led the team and the entire national team activity with his own style. A culture was building. The opportunities to continue the culture that emerged during the previous head coach drained at the very beginning of the new head coach mostly because of two reasons.

The new head coach wanted to create his own policy and to begin from "a clean table". The entire organisation of the national team was renewed at the same time as the inception of the new coach took place. The inception was confirmed with an agreement between the Association and the Limited

Company. The agreement was preceded by a board meeting of the Association, where it decided to establish as its top sports tool the Limited Company managed by its government and CEO. With this agreement the purpose was to clarify the competitive activity of the sport and to create an organisation that would enable the development of both national and international competition activity.

The Association and its Limited Company were looking for modes of action copying ways of work from other sport associations. It did not advance the birth of their own culture. The result was inflexible processes, which added to the confusion of the organisation already well on its way towards a crisis. Another result was that the few traditions which had been found good and well-functioning during the previous head coach, were dysfunctional in this environment.

5.2.6 Final outcome

An important partial reason for the deepening of the crisis was the lack of communication between the players and the team's leadership team. The players and the team's leadership team were not capable of presenting their views to each other in a constructive manner. Between the players and the team's leadership team there emerged a rift. The deep crisis followed from the decision of the team's leadership team to send the key player back home. The final decision was however made by the head coach. In the opinion of the players the key players had not caused any troubles in the team. The players did not accept the decision of the team's leadership team nor the groundings given by the team leadership for their decision. Before the World Championship games the team's leadership team had emphasised the importance and significance of openness.

The discussions with the player sent home and with several other key players of the team disclosed the strong motive of the head coach for being the team's head coach. He had stressed he wanted to win the World Championship to himself, and not to his team. In these players' opinion the team and the players were just a means to the head coach achieving the World Championship for himself. These issues contributed to the rift between the players and the head coach deepening.

The chairperson of the Association arrived according to his original plan to the congress of the international association. The crisis was then already at an inflamed stage and the player had been sent home. After his arrival at the team's hotel he had a meeting first with the assistant coach and thereafter with the chief of coaching, after which he discussed with the players. After this the chairperson of the Association and the team's leadership team searched for compromise suggestions to be presented to the players. A compromise could not be reached. After this the chairperson dismissed the head coach in the middle of the World Championship games. The chairperson asked the rest of the team's leadership team to continue in their positions. They declined except

for the doctor of the team. The chairperson stressed his view that the games were for the players.

The emergence of the crisis was also enhanced by the poor crisis management of other parties, not only of the head coach. Parties belonging to the organisation of the national teams of the Association were not able to manage the crisis satisfactorily. The Association's communication about the decisions made was not precise, but even misleading. This caused the kind of criticism from outsiders which could have been avoided with more precise communication.

5.3 Case School

In Case School, the name used of the school is 'the School' and the persons who were in charge of conducting the analysis of the case are called the principals of another municipality.

5.3.1 Birth of school

The School was founded in the 1990s, 12 years before the new principal described in the case commenced as the new principal of the School. The School was established in the school network reform of the municipality. The former secondary school was divided into two schools, the upper level of the comprehensive school (grades 7-9) and an upper secondary school (grades 10-12).

The first principal of the School created a strong, progressive work culture. The teaching staff of the School was strongly represented in the various planning teams of the municipality. The reforms implemented in the School have widely been used as examples and they have been spread in their own municipality as well as several other schools in our country. The School was widely known for its attitude strongly conducive to reforms. (Kuusisto 1991)

The first principal retired at the turn of the new millennium after six years of principalship and his work was continued by an experienced principal appointed to the post with an internal municipal transfer with his own consent. He continued the work culture of his predecessor and the School continued developing into an institution with a strong identity. Five years later the principal changed the third time, again due to retirement. A teacher from the School was elected principal. The purpose was for him to work as an interim principal until the municipal school network reform in process would have been completed. Because of the temporary tenure the new principal did not undertake any major reforms in the School, but went on working in line with its familiar principles.

5.3.2 New principal

The school network reform of the city was completed and as a result a new principal was appointed to the School. His earlier school had been closed down in the school network reform. The new principal would have preferred another school in the municipality but on the basis of the school council decision his position was placed in this School. The new principal also announced this background in his first meeting with his new teaching staff. (Anon. 2006)

The new principal wanted to bring with him the processes and ways of his former school without getting familiar with the planning, history, work culture and mission of the new school. He had a strong desire to mold his new school to resemble his former school. The teachers would have preferred the new principal to get to know the School in peace and then think about the needs for reforms with the teaching staff, the pupils and the parents.

Regardless of this the principal embarked on realising changes as early as in the first few weeks from his own points of view without consulting the teaching staff's opinion. He had only informed about "illegal issues" in the actions of his new school and acquired support from various sources. Another detail about the questionable diplomacy is the principal's introducing himself to the students of his new school. That took place only on the initiative of the tutor students and the student council one month after the principal started in his position.

There were clear needs for change in the new School, emerging from the new curriculum and certain changed practices in the School. There had remained also some permanent practices from the previous school experiments, which were no more in line with the curriculum.

The work community was offended by the quick interference of the principal in the school practices (Töyrylä. 2007). The rapid inflammation of the School' s atmosphere was further enhanced by the stubbornness, impatience and poor communication of the principal. The steep change in the action culture was most visible in the culture of communication. The teaching staff had earlier been used to discussing with each other and to considering issues in question thoroughly. The new principal applied what the teachers called ordering by email. According to the teachers, giving orders was a questionable way to act from the perspective of getting the employees committed. In addition, the teachers experienced the communication between them and the principal to be also otherwise problematic. The principal's communication style both orally and in writing was brief and a great many issues remained unclear. (Töyrylä 2007)

The first symptoms of the atmosphere turning inflamed were detected as early as in the first week after the inception of the new principal in his position, when one of the teachers had loudly accounted in the staff room what the new principal was going to do. The teacher in question had previously worked in the school led by the new principal that had been closed down (Töyrylä, 2007). In one month's time the teaching staff arranged a discussion about the problems

between the principal and the teachers. The previous principal was invited to chair the discussion. A memorandum was written of this discussion, and it was forwarded to the principal who had been absent, the education director, the main shop steward, and the entire staff (Anon., 2007a). This was the trigger to a process with many stages, which involved the attempts of the then education director, his successor, the director of administration, occupational health and safety ombudsman, the main shop steward to settle the dispute between the principal and the work community. They did not lead to the desired outcome.

5.3.3 External survey

To solve the situation, the municipal education office ordered in the spring an external survey about the situation of the school. Its purpose was to find out the current situation of the school and the factors that had led to the crisis. The survey did not deal with the professional skills of the teachers, or with the implementation of the curriculum. The rapporteur presented the survey in the education council meeting in May. The survey was based on interviews and the documents supplied by the parties in question. (Töyrylä 2007)

The survey comprised 423 pages of written documents, among other things such as statements, memorandums, summaries, minutes, email exchanges and work community training materials. The following issues attracted the strongest attention in the survey (Töyrylä 2007):

- the structure of the school day
- the period system of organising teaching, building courses, centralisation/decentralization
- the teachers' school lunches subject to taxation and invigilating over student's school lunch
- school leadership team's work
- the timing of teachers' meetings
- teams and timing of team meetings
- distribution of budget for teaching materials
- communication and interaction
- student's code of conduct and disruptive behaviours

On the basis of the survey the issues that the principal interfered with were appropriate. At the beginning of the school year the new principal had told in the course of the first few weeks which school practices he would focus his attention on. According to the XX, it would have been conducive to consider more carefully the principal's timing and the code of conduct in regard to the involvement. However, the XX did not regard the principal's code of conduct as faulty. (Töyrylä 2007)

According to the survey there were in the School issues of school culture and practices which the new principal interfered with. Considering the basic

task of school, the XX considered these changes necessary. According to him, the principal would have been wise to get to know the teachers, the students and the practices of the School better, and only after that embark on making the necessary changes together with the teaching staff and thereby assist in developing the School.

In his summary the XX presents that changing the principal does not do away with the factors that led to the crisis. Those need to be dealt with in the work community and corrected to align to both the legislation and the framework decided by the municipal education sector. According to the XX, the municipal education sector had not undertaken administrative measures to improve the collaboration capacity of the work community but had consistently supported the principal. The offer of the education sector to work rotation had been interpreted as a menace to the teaching staff. According to the XX, the work rotation was a genuine option to the teachers who told they could not function under the new principal and commit themselves to the new culture. (Töyrylä 2007) The XX did not introduce the option of the principal opting for the work rotation. The teaching staff regarded the XX's statement as one-sided, favouring the employer. Therefore, yet another survey had to be conducted into the crisis.

5.3.4 Work community survey

During the autumn term of the principal's first year in the School the work community was supported with an extensive crisis consultation facility of the workplace healthcare system, to no avail. The work community was divided into strong factions. Due to this a work community survey was conducted in the following spring by two experienced principals from another community. (Ahonen 2007; Töyrylä 2007)

The survey was conducted applying a battery of statements developed at the Vantaa In-service Training Centre of the University of Helsinki (now the Palmenia). The theoretical basis of the survey was Weisbord's Six-Box-Model, which had been developed to correspond to the special features of the Finnish education system and demands, and amended with a seventh factor, "attitude to changes" (Ahonen 2007).

According to the survey the means of all the factors were exceptionally high compared to the comparative material. The data from the survey reflected a deep and serious split into two parties in the work community. In many of the survey sections the division forms two clearly diverse groups. Additionally, the group of neutrally aligned teachers was exceptionally small. This is well described by factor 3, "leadership". The mean is slightly positive but in many sections there is a strong division into two: the same issue draws both strong dissatisfaction and satisfaction. The result of the work community survey (Töyrylä 2007) was that the School was facing a serious work community crisis. (Ahonen 2007)

5.3.5 Finale

According to the experiences of teachers, creating a positive atmosphere has proved to be the most important resource and precondition for co-operation and implementation of changes (Savonmäki 2007). It would have been sensible to conduct an open discussion with the teachers about the values, educational principles and the requirements of the new curriculum. Only after that would it have been worth considering reforms and changing some practical issues. The new principal was either not willing or did not have the patience for this (see Kotter 1996). Rapid actions also quickly caused negative reactions (Wagner 2001).

According to several researchers a safe ground for implementing change can be achieved by careful preparation and a moderate timing. This is how a better commitment to change can be achieved. (Holbeche 2006; Duke 2004; Rubin 2002; Wagner 2001) This approach is supported also by Deal & Petterson's (1999) research about school culture, according to which the transfer to a new culture without respecting the traditions and the old roots leads to the school losing its way. (See also Fullan 2005)

The work community survey mentioned in the previous paragraph was carried out in the spring term, and the final report was published in early May. After this the following events took place. Also the principal grew tired and had a long sick leave. He applied for a new post and managed to find a new school in another municipality (Anon. 2007a). He did not mention anybody about getting a new post. Before moving to the new post his last administrative tasks comprised some particular measures. One of those was to issue a written warning on a made up reason to nine teachers, whom he perceived as his enemies. The principal did not punish the teachers who had supported him though they had been involved in the same practice as the ones punished with the made up reason. The warnings had been signed on June 5, when the principal had been on holiday. The warnings were later cancelled as inappropriate by the education office.

The second measure taken by the principal hit a teacher whom the principal perceived to belong to the side of his opponents. The principal discarded him when filling a vacancy for a teacher contract in the School. The teacher had worked in the School for a long time and had held the post as a permanent full time hourly paid teacher. He was not even invited to an interview. The education council cancelled the principal's decision and contracted this long time teacher. (Anon. 2007a; Anon. 2007b)

As the third measure in this category the principal decided to force certain eight teachers out of the school by forced work rotation. In the case of two teachers the transfer was implemented but during the following summer the education office cancelled these transfers.

5.4 Analysis and conclusions about the similarities of the crisis cases

After separately analysing the reports and documents produced of both the cases, they were approached from one more perspective, to find out if there were distinct common denominators in these cases. This perspective led to detecting several similarities.

Content analysis was applied as the method of analysis, following Tuomi and Sarajärvi's (2002) loose interpretative framework, which according to them and Jyrhämä (2004) can be applied to diverse entities of thoughts. In content analysis a document can be understood as comprising a wide range, such as books, articles, diaries, letters, interviews, speech, discussion, dialogue, reports or almost any written material or document. Content analysis is well suited to analysing a totally unstructured material. (Tuomi & Sarajärvi 2002; Kyngäs & Vanhanen 1999) The materials analysed here were the reports written about the cases, as well as the minutes and memorandums concerning the cases.

Through content analysis the data can be organised for making conclusions. In content analysis, prior to the analysis the unit of the analysis must be defined. It can be an entity of thoughts (Tuomi & Sarajärvi 2002), which was used in finding out the similarities of these cases. Reanalysing both the cases from the new perspective, six thematic entities describing the similarity of these cases were detected, and they are:

1. Lack of respect for the old culture
2. Leadership style
3. Use of power
4. Communicating
5. Contradictory signals to superiors
6. Outcome

The emergence of a crisis is rarely attributable to one factor or one person. An individual factor finally triggers the whole crisis and analysing the crisis easily concentrates on only this point, though there is cause to examine the issue more thoroughly. A crisis shall be analysed especially from the perspective of leadership. This analysis was conducted on the basis of the crisis monitoring report and other documents connected to the events, such as minutes, memorandums and various rules for action.

In the following chapters each thematic entity is described more accurately as a phenomenon, exemplified by its concrete realisation, the objective being to illustrate each phenomenon.

5.4.1 Lack of respect for the old culture

Culture is the way an organisation functions. It is affected by both internal factors and external pressures. As culture has developed in the course of a

longer time, changing it requires long term work, which is the task of the leadership. Culture is learned and it can be changed if we know the learning process. (Schein 1992; Senge 1990) This is when developing both the soft and the hard side need to combine. Besides, implementing change requires creating rituals for change. (Alava 2007)

In both crisis cases the emerging or existing traditions were forgotten immediately upon the new director beginning his work in the new position. The head coach expressed his indifference directly by stating his desire to begin his work from a totally clean table. Correspondingly, the new principal started his first meeting in the new school by stating that there were illegal practices in the School and that this would change. These initial comments were of such level of straightforwardness and harshness that they left no ground for interpretation. Nor were they grounded or allowed to be discussed. This is in strong contrast also to basic principles of teaching. Yli-Luoma (2003) has researched the influence of attitude theories on learning. He has found out that a student's motivating to the learning process is in the first place dependent on the emotional working atmosphere. He calls it the affective component. For it to be activated, the student must like the teacher. The teacher markets his subject by first marketing himself, and it is possible only after this that the students concentrate on listening what the teacher has to say, and they activate to the cognitive level.

Also Rogers (2003) pointed in his diffusion process to the sales term described by Yli-Luoma (2003). This term more commonly used in the world of commerce suits well to describe this situation. In both cases the leaders neglected this sales stage. In both cases the leaders also forgot that culture is to an organisation the same as personality is to a human being (Fullan 2005; Weber 1946**).** The first seeds of the crisis had been sown.

5.4.2 Leadership style

Another common feature is the leadership style of each leader. The concept of the human being behind the coaching and leadership approach of the head coach is closer to the mechanistic than the holistic concept of man. (see Hämäläinen 2008) Guided by his concept of the human being, the way of leading in the cases had been extremely authoritarian and largely based on the behavioristic way of giving positive feedback for the correct performances and negative feedback for the wrong ones.

In both cases leadership can be examined with Mosston's spectrum (Mosston & Ashwoth 1985), where the first and least developed style is the style of ordering and the other end of the spectrum is the 11th style, self-instruction. According to Mosston the latter is the most developed leadership style and to be reached through stages. Different styles however have their own, appropriate situations and a good teacher can use the whole range of the spectrum in his work. The style of both leaders remained at level one, the giving of orders. In some cases it works well as a style, but as the only one it is no good. It is the least applicable in organisations used to an interactive

leadership style. This was the case in both the organisations as a culture of their own also in the area of leadership had begun to form prior to the new leaders' term. In neither case did the leader continue the leadership culture of the organisation, or give groundings for their autocratic leadership styles. Each leader leads as their own personalities and apply leadership styles suitable to themselves. (Pulkkinen, 2011) It is, however, important to get to know one's organisation and its history also in regard to the leadership styles. In some cases changing the leadership style is justifiable but in these cases it was not.

5.4.3 Use of power

The use of power in these cases can be described as lacking logic. The head coach took surprising actions such as using the selection of players as a power game. The head coach discarded key players from important games without any explanation, or by commenting on them in an arrogant manner. Allocating the player roles and clarifying the position of every player is among the most important tasks of the head coach particularly in prestige competitions. Everyone must have a clear view of the role and position. (Pulkkinen, Korsman & Mustonen 2013; Pulkkinen 2011) This neglect seemed especially strange as the head coach had expressed he wanted to win the World Championship but risked the games with surprising changes in the team's squads, which were not based on the performance in the previous games or practices. He wanted to show the team that he was at the helm of power. This escalated at the decision of the head coach to send the topmost key player of the team home in the middle of the World Championship games due to the fact that the player had criticised the head coach.

A corresponding example of the use of power is found also from the work of the principal. One of the first indications was the principal's decision to abolish the second assistant principal's post. From the very beginning the School had functioned with the system of two assistant principals with their job descriptions developed very clear. The new principal wanted to engage himself in tasks that had previously belonged to one of the assistant principals. Additionally, the principal engaged himself also with a few tasks that previously were part of the school secretary's job description. At the same time the principal secluded himself in his office for longer periods of time. One of the tasks of the principal is presence and availability as much as possible (Mäkelä 2007). The principal's use of power escalated in the nine written warnings, which he delivered to those he found to be a threat to him. The reasons were highly artificial and purposeful, because not all of the teachers involved in the same "misconducts" received the warning. Further, the principal initiated the transfer process of the teachers to posts in other schools, with the purpose of moving away the teachers he perceived as threats to his position. In the case of two teachers the transfer process was also launched.

Foster (1986) has stated that leadership is always political. According to the political perspective, the leaders always aim at figuring out the political realities of each situation and at pondering on what actions to take in each

situation. This view emphasises that both inside and outside of an organisation there are interest groups with their own 'agendas'. (Bolman & Deal 2008; Alava 2007)

Analysing the part of the external stakeholders in both cases, their effect on the emergence of the crisis showed that these parties had a strong desire to seize the power, having their own "agenda".

5.4.4 Communication

The fourth feature in common is the communication. In the case of the ball games, the most important issue to be communicated is the selection of the players of the team, because it affects the scheduling on the part of the players. It is important to know if you are playing or not in the next event. The team's schedule of events is normally decided per calendar year, so the problems in that regard are normally minimal. In the national team cycle the players know the timing of the events in advance but they do not know which of them will be selected to play in each event.

The most important task of the head coach in terms of communication is to nominate the final team for the World Championship Game, in a timely manner. Not too early, nor too late. This is for the competitive situation to remain till the end, but for the eventual games for the team to have enough time to prepare themselves for the major event of the entire project such as the World Championship Games. However, the head coach postponed the final selection of the World Championship team and did not undertake it at the end of the last training camp, when nominating the final team is due. In this case the players received the nomination to the team by an SMS. The news did not reach all of them at the same time, which caused several awkward situations. The players were each in their own contexts and might receive the nomination to the World Championship Games while participating in their own club's event with other players waiting for the nomination to the game, too. Some players received the invitation, others did not. The players found it difficult to react to the message as they did not know if the peer player had received the information, whether positive or negative. There was no space for dealing with the emotions. To neglect delivering so important a piece of information is an indication of timidity in facing negative feelings. It does not add to any respect in the eyes of the players, either.

In school communicating is generally problematic because of the teachers' diverse timetables, and the school size and classroom work set their own challenges. Despite its difficulty, traditional communication in the teachers' meeting, where either the principal or other parties with issues to be shared deliver the information is efficient. The same information can then also be delivered in a written form on the noticeboard or via email. Face to face communication enables natural interaction and asking questions directly from the persons in charge.

In the School case the principal moved to using only email as a means of communication. This was perceived as mere giving of orders, with the real

elements of interaction missing. This was an extension to the previously mentioned seclusion of the principal in his office. (cf. Almonkari 2000) An event parallel to the head coach communicating via SMS is the principal communicating about the written warnings. The principal sent them by letter in the first week of June when the school year was over and the end of school year celebrations had taken place. The teachers did not get their legal right to be heard in their case either. There was no chance to arrange any joint meeting or to address the issue in the school community. To communicate an issue of this importance unilaterally by mail is an indication of poor self-esteem and timidity in facing negative feelings, as it was in the case of the head coach. This episode did not enhance the faith in removing the existing problems.

5.4.5 Contradictory signals to superiors

Both cases share the contradictory, even false signals received by the superiors. Part of this is due to the above mentioned communication styles. The signals described here connect to situations after the breakup of the crisis, when the situations were heated.

Both the sport and the school world are connected also by a strong, informal grapevine communication network. The information sharing of this network usually causes more confusion, more truths, and more advocates of the truth. In the Sport case the situation came to the leadership team of the Association as a surprise because the leadership team of the national team had told everything was in order among the team. The national team's leadership team wanted to support the head coach this way, and believed themselves that the problems would be solved, and that they would manage to find an internal solution to the problem. This did not take place, but communication that was aimed at being internal, found its way also beyond the team. (see van Gemenrt & Woudstra 2005)

Both cases have in common an external party that is well informed of the situation and tries to act as a kind of a middleman, without however having an authorisation. In the case of the national team this party was a former national team player who became a club coach, and visited also during the project in question the national team's training camps a few times in the capacity of an expert coach. He did not, however, belong to the national team's coaching-team. The players contacted him frequently and kept him informed of the events. In his capacity he tried to help the players by contacting the Association functionaries. This did not lead to the aspired outcome, but mixed the already complicated situation further. This was because the Association received mixed messages, and was not sure of their validity. Inside the Association there were also several persons attending to this issue primarily on the basis of their individual conceptions, and their mutual communication was deficient. Nobody was prepared for the crisis because no alarm signs had been received. Hence nobody was in control of the situation. The leadership of the Association attempted with all possible means to find a solution through negotiating, and supported the head coach till the end.

In the School case the external party was the chairperson of the education council. Due to his position, he was more closely attached to this case than the expert coach in the Sport Case. It was however contradictory that it remained unclear whether the chairperson was authorised by his position, or whether he acted as a private person. Still, he took a clear stand as a spokesperson for the teachers. He acted as did the expert coach, trying to bring messages about the situation to the leadership of the Education office. This did not lead to the aspired outcome but created a phenomenon similar to that in the Sport Case. The result was that the complex situation grew even more confusing. This was because contradictory information was available and the Education office was no surer about its validity. Diverse signals from inside the school had attributed to the situation, as there had formed in the school various factions. This complicated forming a full picture of the situation. The situation was almost as it was in the Sport Case: no party was prepared for such a severe crisis. The leadership of the Education Office tried with their full capacity to find a solution through negotiating, and supported the principal they had elected just as the Association supported its head coach.

5.4.6 Outcome

The last one of the common denominators of these two cases is the outcome. It was in each case the drifting into a total dead end situation without a respectful way to exit. In each case the outcome of the leader, the principal and the head coach, exiting was the only possibility. The situations had managed to escalate too high, and too many personal fortresses of disagreement had subsisted. For the same leaders to continue and to build a new future together would have been impossible. The recovery of each organisation from the crisis took a long time.

The world of sport lives in the cycle of certain periods following the rhythm of the prestige competitions, and therefore the recovery is faster than in the municipal school environment regulated by the employment contracts. The latter world requires several years to recover. Also, these organisations and their members share the common outcome of being labelled with a negative stigma for a long time.

5.5 Discussion and conclusions

Based on the analysis of these cases, the outcome is that the major reason for the emergence of the crises was mainly the failure in leading change in the two organisations.

A principal, when entering a new school, is a leader of change, and so is the head coach when receiving a new team. Every new leader brings with them a new culture of work and always triggers some kind of a change process. The breadth of the process depends on the then situation of the organisation and the

need for change attached to it. The biggest trigger of change is the director at the inception of his work in a new organisation. He is then a leader of change. According to Alava (1999), a new leader can be called a change agent. According to him a change agent has the following three important tasks and roles:

a. The information level: conceptual understanding of the need for change and the change situation, and internalising the dynamics of change
b. The level of the human beings: connecting the change to people, analysing the feelings and behaviors, influencing people and coping with emotional reactions
c. The level of action: supporting the change with one's own behavior and leading the change process

The core analysis of these cases was conducted by using the diffusion theory created by Rogers (Duke, 2004; Rogers, 2003). In this model the advancement takes place through stages. First there are the needs/problems that trigger the change process. The goal should be clear at this stage for the advance in stages to take place. The analysis taking place at the pace of the advance is necessary for the change.

The figure (Figure 6) below concerning the diffusion process (Pulkkinen et al. 2013; Pulkkinen 2011; Duke 2004; Rogers 2003) describes the stages of the process and their advance through time. These stages are 1) analysis of the situation, 2) interpretation of the analysis and setting the target, 3) launching the activity, 4) groundings and selling, 5) merging and turning into practice, 6) renewed activity.

The most important factor in a successful change process is the meaning of stages 1 and 2, which must be allocated a great deal of time. At stage one analysing the entry point in regard to problems and needs must be made with care, with sufficient openness and on a wide forum. (Duke 2004; Rogers 2003) A strong leader must create a safe enough ground for implementing change in the very beginning (Wagner 2001). Also the potential problems must be mapped. The analysis needs to focus on the main economic, action, and human resources available, as well as on the level of commitment. At this stage a realistic analysis into the preconditions and feasibility of actions must be made. (Pulkkinen et al. 2013; Pulkkinen 2011) In the School and Sport cases involving the teachers and the players in the preparations at once at the inception of the new principal and the new head coach would have been extremely important. Discussing the needs and problems openly would have given the change a good starting point. In these cases this did not take place, nor was there support from the teachers and players to the change.

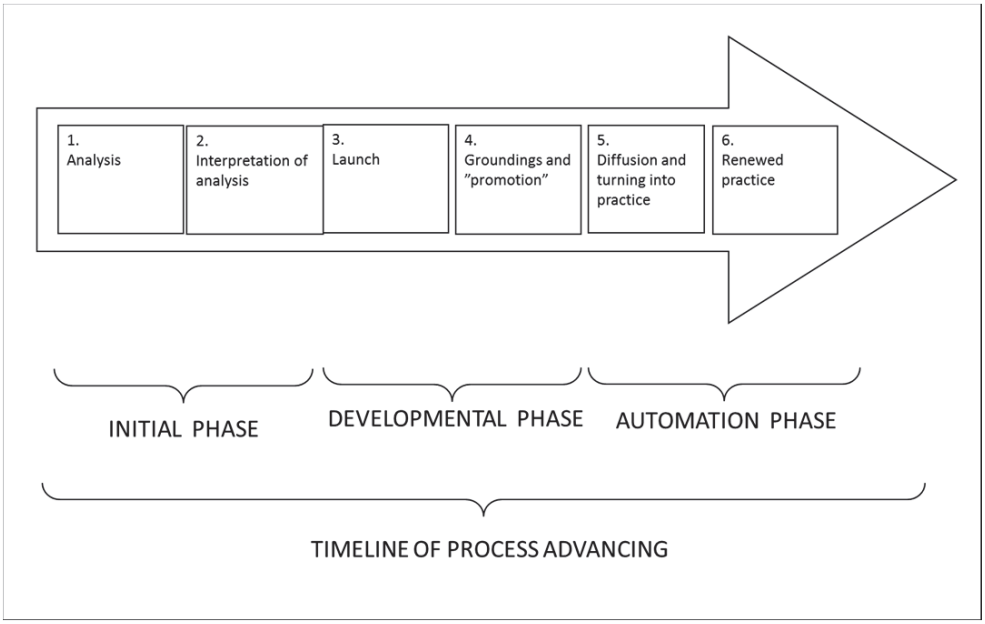

FIGURE 2 The six main stages of diffusion theory (Pulkkinen et al. 2013), adapted from the figures of Duke 2004, 24 and Rogers 2003, 138)

The second stage is the interpretation of the analysis. Its most essential function is to make a summary of the data acquired by the analysis, in other words, to make the correct diagnosis, which then forms the basis of an action plan. Publicising the interpretation made from the summary is necessary. The purpose of the change process is to decrease the difference between the current situation and the ideal one. It is important to set a realistic goal, for reaching the ideal one is not always possible, at least not at once. Therefore, also the meaning of the interim goals needs to be acknowledged. (Pulkkinen et al. 2013)

The need for change was not sufficiently grounded in either case, and the leader's one-sided interpretation among other things e.g. about the timing of ringing the bells in the School case, or the effects of organisational change on the action of the national team in the Sport case contributed to triggering the crises. The lack of transparency and appealing to one-sided generalisations lead to exactly the phenomena described in the cases.

Especially the meaning of the goal and awareness about it are the key issues during a change process. Without extensive awareness about it and the opportunity to monitor it during the change process, implementing change is not possible. In both the cases an open discussion about the goals and the set targets as well as about the possibilities to reach them remained missing.

In both the cases the biggest mistake was made in the very beginning. The schedule for launching the change was too rapid and unclear. It caused huge problems and frictions in the human relations. Quick changes ignite a counter reaction (Wagner 2001). They could all have been avoided by taking correct, moderate and open actions. Creating an atmosphere of real interaction would

have been a priority. It would also have been important to do the basic mapping of stage two properly. In either case nothing was done to develop interaction. The only interaction form and effort from the principal and the head coach was the giving of orders.

Understanding culture and knowing its values are according to Deal and Petterson (1999) the cornerstone of organisational culture. They also connect to culture the vision about the future. An organisation that dares to accept the challenges of the future must know the past and the present, and prepare for the future. Becoming conscious of these issues enables the school to develop and to be involved in the change of society. (Pulkkinen 2013; Collins & Porras 1994)

Finding out and becoming aware of the cultural values of the organisation at the beginning of the change process would have created good opportunities to work together towards the future visions. Organisational culture is the organisation's own "theory" about the suppositions regarding action and relationships. (Weber 1996, 80-85) Instead, neglecting to analyse the cultures of these organisations brought up the counter force to successful change as presented by Deal & Petterson (1999). They call this counter force the poisonous culture. It is geared towards negative values, which causes opposing cultures to form inside the school, and results in the teachers splitting into different factions and the human relations exacerbating. This entity is called by Deal & Petterson (1999) the negative side of culture. The negative culture took over also in the two analyzed cases. It could have been avoided by learning about the previous culture for example from the experiences of the long-time teachers of the school, and the long-time players of the national team. Such an approach would also have given credit to their work, strengthened the cooperation of all parties, and motivated to implement change instead of turning against it. Kilmann (1986, 356) makes a statement to the point: "Organizational culture is social energy, which makes people act."

The first two stages of the process form the basis of the change. After this follows the developmental stage of the change, during which the process is in practice worked into the form in which it is implemented. This stage must be completed before the new period of activity commences. At this stage it is important to ensure that the process and the period to be launched, for example a school year or a training period and the implementation plans made for them are sufficiently extensive and thorough. This applies to both the leadership and the facilities supporting its work. These measures were entirely neglected in both the cases. This caused the new principal and the new head coach to fail in proceeding into the third and fourth stage of the diffusion process (Pulkkinen et al. 2013; Pulkkinen 2011; Duke 2004; Rogers 2003) They attempted this transfer with too fast a timetable without analysing the previous stages at all.

The discussions necessary to conduct with the other members of the organizations were not carried out. The attempts to discuss and to make suggestions initiated by the other teachers and players were ruled out by the new principal and the new head coach. Neither of them could take any critique,

and they interpreted any person trying to present critique or suggest other kinds of action as their opponents. This caused mistakes to cumulate and the crisis to deepen further. The inability of the principal to tolerate critique showed concretely in a situation where he dismissed the leadership team chosen by the teachers, because it was suggesting several alternatives which the principal himself was advocating. The inability of the head coach to tolerate critique culminated in sending home in the middle of the World Championships the player that had criticised his actions. The principal selected the new leadership team himself, nominating there those whom he believed would support his views on the change process. The head coach did not trust his players and involved neither them nor the captain in any discussion about the team.

One obstacle in moving to stage three of the change process was the change in communication. The teachers were earlier used to thorough discussions about the issues at hand, and so had been the players of the national team during the term of the previous head coach. The new principal's communicating by emails was perceived by the teachers as the giving of email orders. Correspondingly, the head coach resorted to text messages and the notice board e.g. when publicizing the setup of the team. Earlier this was done in face to face discussions. The problem could have been prevented by maintaining the culture of discussions and by adding to it other channels of communication.

According to Almonkari (2000), the best ways of communication are created on location by monitoring the prevailing ways together, and by experimenting new ones with courage. In her view the people involved in communication are often the best ones to analyse and estimate the best means to solve a particular problem in communication. The role of the director in the formation of the work and communication atmosphere in a work community is of consequence. The atmosphere is especially dependent on how communication is carried out. With communication either a supportive or a defensive atmosphere can be created.

Neither the new principal nor the head coach ever reached stage four of the diffusion model called the sales stage, when the leader sells his/her idea to the members of the organization. It must be done with care, as resistance to change often emerges at the launching of the process, creating only an overload and stress, which trigger obstacles on the way of the real change process. The obstacles can be evaded by an advance developing stage well planned and implemented, which also includes stage five, merging and turning into practice (see figure 6, Pulkkinen et al. 2013; Pulkkinen 2011). Nor could stage six, renewed practice, be reached in either case due to the fact that the crisis had already gone so far that there were no circumstances to continue the change in the way the new principal and the new head coach had aimed at.

The diffusion model is well suitable for analyzing these cases. It illustrates the various stages of the change process, and highlights its cornerstones. Those are the awareness about the goal, advancing in that direction, large scale communication, advance preparation, and involving a big enough constituency

as early as at the preparation stage. Taking these factors into consideration can save one from many risks on the road to change.

There are obstacles and several problems on the road to change. They are inevitable and conducive to learning and succeeding. The persons implementing change and especially the leader responsible for it may face strong critique, but a well-prepared process provides the leader with good foundations to respond to it and continue the change process as planned towards the new practice. Conflicts are necessary in all successful changes, for people burst with new ideas when arguing and quarrelling, provided that they are capable of discussing and listening to each other and of finding an understanding without leading to prolonged disputes and deep antipathies. Problems are our friends, but only when we aim at solving them. Solving problems in the middle of ideas bubbling sometimes requires true creativity, which also enables coping with conflicts. Uusikylä (2012) makes a statement to the point when saying that creativity finds its birth in the conflict of ideas, but that it finds its death in the interpersonal conflicts. It often is the task of the leader to be the mediator solving the conflicts, in order to turn the desired change into a new practice.

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6 POLICY CHANGES AND PRIVATE SCHOOLING IN FINLAND: HOW ONE PRIVATE SCHOOL COPED WITH THE NEW AGGRESSIVE COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL LEGISLATION?

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ABSTRACT

Finland had an enormous change in school legislation when it implemented the comprehensive education system in the 1960s and 1970s. The changed legislation lacked amendments for private schools, which created trouble for them. This study describes how one private school survived the crisis. Following grounded theory procedures, a theory of renewal was developed introducing seven overlapping points. The points are: acknowledgement of crisis, innovative problem solving, new resources, new leadership, new structure, and new culture. The critical stage in the theory is the first stage, acknowledgement of crisis, because it is there that the administrator either becomes the facilitator for the change or resists the change. The appropriate choices by the administrative agent then lead to the change needed to adapt to the environmental pressures.

Keywords: change, crisis management, organizational change, organizational culture, private schools

6.1 Introduction

One of the most challenging changes for educational leaders in private schools are the changes in legislation concerning private schools. In this article changes which took place in the national education policy in Finland in the 1960s and 1970s are explored focusing on their impact on one private school.

At the beginning of the 1970s new comprehensive school legislation was in full power. The main idea was that only one school system was needed in Finland. Due to that more than 300 private school were merged to new comprehensive public schools. Only 40 of the private schools were able to survive and most of them in the capital region of Helsinki. Even though some of the schools were able to survive there were no amendment for private schools and due to that no funding for private schools. (Kanervio 2007, 39; Teperi 1995, 241-311.)

Private schools are generally defined as schools not dependent on national or local governments' subsidies but financed by tuitions, gifts, or the investment yield of an endowment. Private schools are also not administered by the local or national government, and have the right to select their students. (Oxford dictionaries 2013)

In Finland the private school system is rather special; namely, the financial basis of private schools is on the government subsidy and paid according to enrolment. Government subsidy includes the municipality's share of the funding too. Due to the funding policy, Finnish private schools are not allowed to collect payment from students. The exception is boarding schools that are allowed to collect payments for accommodation purposes. Private schools are usually administered by the owner which is usually an association founded particularly for that purpose. In Finland private schools exercise the right to select their students. (Basic education act 1994) Finnish, private schools can be seen to have dundamental similarities in funding when compared with charter schools in the USA (Finnegan et al. 2004).

The history of private schools in Finland started in the early 1600s. The first private co-educational schools were opened in 1872. In the 1960s the private school system provoked political ambitions when the foundation of new school legislation was planned. In 1974 385 private co-educational schools were in operation. Only 10 % (40) of the private co-educational schools continued when the new comprehensive school system was started in the middle of 1970s. Because the new legislation did not include amendments for private schools, some of the continuing schools, especially in rural areas, ran into trouble. For example all the municipalities from which students came to the private schools should have paid the private schools their part of the schooling, but in most cases they did not because the legislation did not force them to do so. (Kanervio 2007, 14-15)

This study focused on one such private school. The owner of the school is a foundation with a governing board for decision-making. The school was founded in 1940 by a gardening teacher. Her pedagogy of head, hand and heart focused on learning by doing. The school was almost closed in 1985 because of the poor economic situation of the school. Now the school is one of the best private grade 7-9 schools in Finland and has very good student enrolment.

The purpose of my study was to describe the change process in this Finnish private school in a crisis situation. My main research question was: What happened in the school and how was the school able to make a

turnaround and survive? My research questions were: What is the key to making a turnaround in a school? What is management's role in the change? How did the change in the school culture take place and why? (Kanervio 2007, 17-18)

The study had three objectives: a) to describe the change in the private school during 1985 – 2000; b) to try to understand the change process in the school; and c) to conduct a theory of renewal in the school. The goal of the research was to create a new conceptual theory (Glaser 1992, 14-16; Glaser & Strauss 1971, 176-195).

6.2 Study Methods

In Finland little previous research exists on private schools and there is a general lack of theory concerning private schools. Grounded theory is appropriate when limited earlier research in the subject area exists (Chenitz & Swanson 1986; Rennie 1998, 115). I chose to use an inductive grounded theory method. (Glaser 1992, 14-16).

The main data for this qualitative study were collected through open interviews conducted at the beginning of 2007. Eighteen former principals, teachers, and chairs of the board of trustees of a private school were interviewed. All the selected and interviewed teachers had been working at the school from 1985 to 2000. The principals and chairs of the board selected to the interview had been in their position at some point from 1985 to 2000. One of the principals was not interviewed due to his health condition, causing a potential for error in the study. Documented data such as board minutes, the school's history (Kailanpää 1990), and newspaper articles were also collected. The interviewees were asked only one main question: What happened in the school during 1985-2000?

The data were transcribed and from the transcriptions and the earlier collected archive material, and a descriptive history of the school emerged. Using grounded theory, interview data were organized inductively into 18 categories. These categories were: commitment, change of principals, staff vs. principal, principal vs. foundation, foundation's significance, principals' significance, missing documents, change and development, scandal in the school, the school's own law, external powers, staff vs. foundation, change in the administrative body, the school's economy and success, customers vs. the school, teachers' significance, change in culture, and assumptions (concerning private schools). These 18 categories were grouped into three main categories: transformation, power relations and culture. Connecting the main categories and the critical incidents in the school's life a theory of renewal emerged from the data.

To avoid the error created by the researcher no knowing the school enough I sent the ethnographic history to all of the interviewees for comments

and critique. Two of the interviewees asked for a correction in part of the story that I had compiled.

6.3 Results

In the analysis I found four critical incidents which had influenced the private school. The earliest incident happened at the end of the 1960s and at the beginning of the 1970s when the legislation of the comprehensive school was planned in Finland. Even though that time period is outside the original scope of the study the incidents were described to clarify the later incidents.

The 1st critical incident: The major change in legislation
In 1956 the Council of State appointed a school program committee. This committee submitted a report with a proposal for an all compassing nine-year school. At the end of the 1960s school legislation was changed dramatically: The Act of Communalizing the Independent (Private) Schools in 1966, The Frame Act of Comprehensive School in 1968 and The Act of the Governmental Funding of Co-operational Schools in 1968. These acts were the basis for the comprehensive school system which was established with The Basic Education Act in 1970. In this new school legislation it was mentioned that a private school could continue on the basis of an agreement with the local municipality. (Kanervio 2007, 137)

After illegal communalizing processes in Lapland [6], where the comprehensive school system was first started, the Supreme Administrative Court affirmed the rights of private schools. The left-wing Government changed Section 14 in the School System Act so that municipalities' possibility to use private schools as part of the local school system was limited and so the earlier illegal decisions were legitimized. After that change most private schools decided to merge into the comprehensive school system. (Kanervio 2007, 14-15)

In the new Basic Education Act in 1970 there was no statute for private schools. In the Act it was mentioned that schools got funding according to the agreements they made with the municipalities. The problem was that most of the municipalities were not interested in making agreements with private schools. The fault in legislation was recognized by the Government's administrator, but even though legislation was changed in 1983 no correction was made concerning private schools. Later officials at the state level school administration assured that this had not been intentional but private schools were forgotten in the original comprehensive school legislation. The statement was quite surprising because some of the private schools had been negotiating their situation since the changes in legislation took place in 1968 (Kanervio 2007, 137).

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6 Northern part of Finland

The private school studied in this research did not manage to get agreements with all the municipalities wherefrom its students came which caused the school financial difficulties. The school also lost applicants because the comprehensive schools were free of charge. Besides, the new curriculum gave comprehensive schools more flexibility in the study program, thus decreasing the private school's uniqueness. The change in legislation turned out to be critical causing a vicious circle effect (Alava 1999), for the school and a debate on closing the school was started in the middle of the 1980s.

The 2nd critical incident: The school's own legislation

Because the Foundation had used all its funds closing the school was almost the only option in 1985. However, the new principal elected in 1985 did not accept the idea of closing the school. She started negotiations with the Ministry of Education, the National Board of Vocational education (later NBVE), and the Board of Education to ensure the school's position. The first result of the negotiations was that the school got a new position as an elementary school with a home and institutional economics line in 1986. As the second result of the negotiations arose the idea of making a special legislation for the school. As the third results a team was established to consider developing the school in 1986. At the end of 1986 the idea of a special law for the school was officially introduced in a meeting of the Board of the Foundation (later BF). The law was accepted in Parliament in 1988.

Both the first and the second critical incidents was external. Many researchers agree that legislation influences organizations' actions e.g. building a legal environment, legitimizing organizations' actions and existence, with direct legislation, and with subsidy. (Björk 2006; Edelman & Suchman 1997; Miner, Amburgey, & Stearns 1990; Pfeffer & Salancik 1978/2003, 191, 214).

Due to the influence of the comprehensive school legislation the school had made short-term decisions because economical issues had steered the decision making. After the school got its own legislation it was a legitimized actor in the field of education. When the school's existence was secured it was able to make long-term decisions to develop the school. The building of the school campus started at the beginning of the 1990s and continued up to the beginning of the 21st century. The new national curricula, 1984 and 1994, led the school into the 21st century, too. The change in the legislation in which the school got its own legislation became critical for starting the process of getting out of the vicious circle. (Kanervio 2007.)

The 3rd critical incident: The change in the administrative body

Even though, after the school's environment and legislations had changed, the BF was a kind of 'old fashioned' bureaucratic fortress. The BF still used the old method of changing the principal again and again. Because of that the school had six principals in 1985-1993. The development of the school was minimal. In 1993 the staff members and parents stood behind the Principal when the BF decided to dismiss the Principal again. With the threat of a students strike they

forced two of the members to leave the BF. In this situation the whole BF decided to leave and a new BF was chosen. (Kanervio 2007, 138-139.)

The first outcome was that the Principal got more power to develop the school. He was able to develop the school to meet the 21st century. The second result was that teachers were empowered to develop their work. The third consequence was that the faults in the power relations, the forms of irresponsible power used by some teachers, were corrected at the end of the 1990s. The school got new middle level managers in the dormitory, kitchen, student welfare, and financial office. The main idea was that the problems should be solved where they occur, not in the BF or in an executive team.

In this new situation the BF's role was only to make sure that the school had resources to do its task. The principal and staff members took care of the daily tasks in the school. In this model the BF and principal were changed from manager to leaders.

The 4th critical incident: The beginning of the change in the culture

The first change in the culture occurred when the school's continuity was secured by the school's own law. After that the temporary teachers' positions where changed into permanent positions and the preparation of the school's own curriculum continued. Due to the above mentioned positive changes hope arose amidst the staff.

In 1993 the new principal brought visionary development to the school, such as the use of information technology in teaching and international collaboration. He also started to collaborate with the parents and the Parents' Council was started. He also developed the dormitories to be more comfortable for the students. From the principal's point of view the parents and students were seen as customers and there needs were taken into consideration. This way the thinking of customership was developed in the midst of the staff too.

The last principal interviewed according to the research scope returned the school to its roots. She saw the work-school tradition from a new perspective and regarded also schoolwork as work. This was written in the new curriculum too. (Cf. Deal & Kennedy 2000, 5.) She was interested in human relations and the old irresponsible power relations were corrected. Earlier some of the teachers had used irresponsible power making decisons they did neither have the power to do nor bear resposibility of the consequences. At the same time staff members were empowered in the new administrative culture.

Most of the changes in the school's culture took place in 1994-2000. The other things had to be in order before the change of the culture: (financial) security by law, development in maintenance, change in the administration and its actions, and innovative leaders. (Kanervio 2007, 110)

6.4 Theory of renewal in the school

Figure 3 describes the turnaround process in the school. The stages of the processes are large and partly overlapping as seen in the figure .

The main keys to the turnaround were acknowledging the crisis, a new innovative way of thinking and special resources. In this process the political powers and new organizations are seen as resources for the school. In 1985-1991 the state level political power was the most important resource to get the school back into the survival mode. This political power secured the school's existence with new legislation, and the Government's special subsidy saved the school from financial catastrophe. (Cf. Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978/2003.)

Now the school was in the survival mode and was able to face the next crises: change in leadership, change in the organization, change in operations and changes in the culture. Change in the organization and the BF's new role as the supporter of the school secured resources needed in these changes.

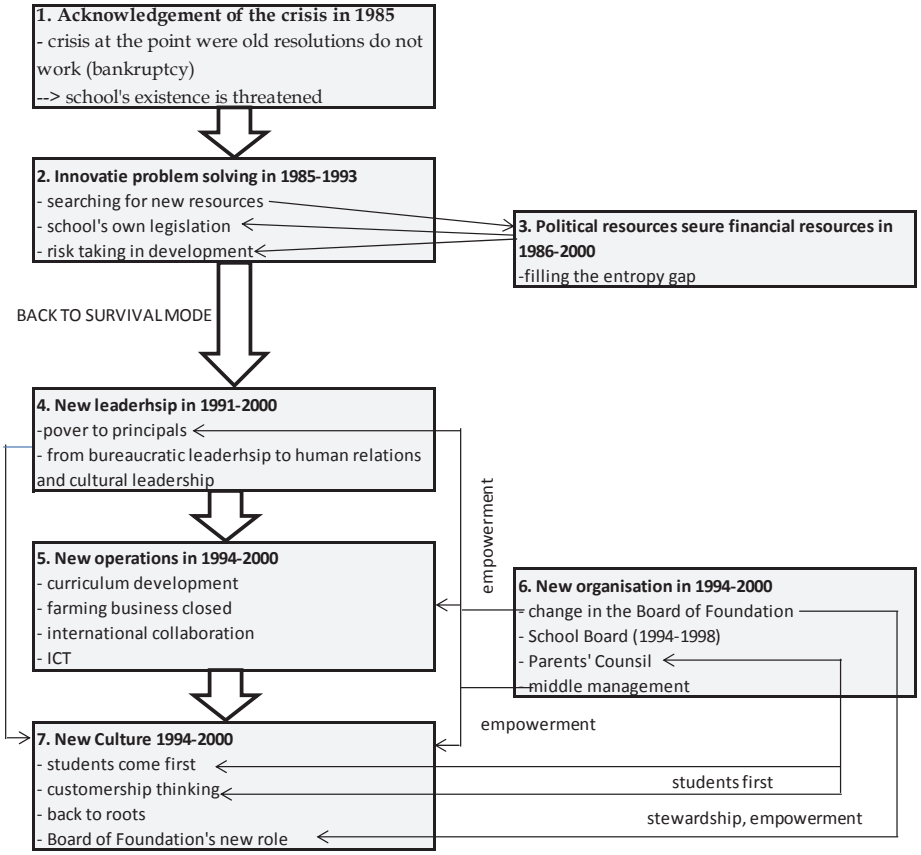

FIGURE 3 Back to survival mode (source Kanervio 2007, 162).

Stage 1: Acknowledgement of the crisis

It is important that leaders understand the reality the organization is living through. According to Booth (1993, pp. 88-89) "In crisis organizations' leaders often ignore, repress, or misinterpret the crisis. Even though the organization claims handling the crisis they in reality exacerbate the crisis."

Even though the indicators were visible, it seems that the school slipped into the crisis slowly. The funding of private schools was changed in the new Act of Governmental Funding of Co-operational Schools in 1968. In the private school studied in this research the legislation change decreased funding because municipalities were not paying their part of the schooling. The situation got worse little by little but the crisis was not acknowledged until the Foundation found out that its possibility to fund the school was at a crisis point in 1985.

Stage 2: Avoiding traditional decisions in a crisis

According to Booth (1993, p. 107) leaders usually use the easiest solution when making decisions. Managers ignore information which does not support their belief of the situation or make wrong decisions based on wrong assumptions. The decisions might be inadequate or lack implementation. When everything seems to be all right a new change hits and the organization is not able to respond quickly enough.

After understanding that the school was in a crisis in 1984 the debate in the BF concentrated on closing the school or selling the school. To avoid economical disaster those alternatives seemed to be the only ones. The new principal elected in 1985 did not accept this solution. Her actions led to search for other solutions, and an innovative solution of the school's own legislation arose in negotiations with the state level school administration. The school got its own law in 1988. This was the first time a privcate school got its own legislation and only few schools have got a similar act since 1988. Usually the existence of private schools has been only priefly mentioned in the legislation. (Kanervio 2007, 164-65.)

In 1991 the development and rebuilding of the campus was started even though the school's economical situation was not stable and Finland was in a deep economical depression. At the same time we can see that it was a wise resolution because building expenses were low due to the downswing of the markets. (Kanervio 2007, 164-65)

In 1994 the school developed its use of ICT and was one of the leading schools in its sector in Finland. International cooperation was also started in a Comenius[7] program. In all this the development the school was not following old traditional secure ways of thinking but was rather innovative and also took risks. The school developed the way other schools did only some years later which at that point gave the school market advantage. (Kanervio, 164-65)

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7 The *Comenius* program seeks to develop understanding of and between various European cultures through exchanges and *co-operation between schools* in different countries

Stage 3: New resources

When the school started negotiations to save the school in 1985 the principal met several officials of the Board of Education and the NBVE. The Minister of Education visited the school in 1986. The visit caused the State Provincial Office to establish a team to develop the school. After the Minister of Education was changed the following year, the new minister also visited the school. From these negotiations and visits politicians became suporters of the school which helped to get the school's own legislation. (Kanervio 2007, 164-165; cf. Booth 1993, 73-74.)

The school also got supplementary allowance from the Government's optional funding to amortize the debts. The school was also asked to make a list of needs, especially concerning building needs. The list was passed to the Ministry of Education, and the school was taken into the Government's Projects Plan[8] in 1991. The school got funding for a new cafeteria building and two new dormitories. These extra funding decisions were an enormous resource for the school which had lost its traditional funding from the Foundation. (Kanervio, 2007, pp. 164-165; cf. Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978/2003.)

In 1994 the new BF decided that its aim was to secure resources for the school. Due that a school board was founded by the FB with an aim to take care of the school's teaching. This led to empowering the principal and teachers, securing resources for schooling and also helping to create a new culture. The Parents' Council was valued more and their contribution to the development of the school was remarkable too.

Stage 4: New leadership from the time of the three last principals

A new principal started in 1991. This principal was the first principal who got full power from the FB. He was an old official from the Board of Education and he was more like a bureaucratic leader (Ouchi, 1980; Scherer, 1988). Due to his background he had his own relations to the newly established Finnish National Board of Education (later FNBE) and to the Ministry of Education. Because he knew the school legislation and funding procedures he used every resource the school was able to get from the Government as told in stage 3. It seems that for the first time the BF was pleased with the principal too. (Kanervio 2007, 165)

Another principal started in 1993 and he was an innovative leader who developed the school. He was interested in human resources (Kanervio 2007, 165-166; cf. Bolman & Deal 1997, 99-158). A teacher development program was started to get all the teachers qualified. A new way of thinking about customership was introduced, and the student was put first in decision making e.g. increasing their coziness in the dormitories and developing the curriculum.

In 1998 the next principal started. She was interested in the culture of the school. She understood the strength of the school's old ideology and combined it with modern thinking of education. For the first time the vocational subjects

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8 the Government's long term plans for public funding of projects such as building new schools, libraries etc. usually made for the next five years

and general subjects were put together and the gap between vocational schooling and comprehensive basic schooling was partly closed.

These three leaders in a row led the school into the new millennium: the first started building the facilities, the second developed curriculum and relations, and the third fostered the ethos of the school. This was possible because they had the power to do it. (Kanervio 2007, 165.)

Stage 5: New operations

Finland had changed from the 1940s agricultural society to the 1990s information society and service society. There was not any more a need for such a vocational schooling as there had been before. In the school's new vocational curriculum agricultural schooling was discontinued and the focus was changed to services and home economics.

International collaboration was also developed through the Comenius program, which made the school more attractive for the students. Because of the needs of the information society the school also started powerful ICT programs. Due to that the school became one of the leading schools in Finland using ICT in teaching. ICT was also needed to carry out the collaboration in the Comenius program.

The school was brought into modern times in quite a short time. This was also a good basis for the next changes because the school was sharply following the changes in the environment.

Stage 6: New structure

The new principal elected in 1993 created good relations with the parents. The Parents' Council was initiated and they were very active. They did some projects to get more convenient surroundings for the students. They built a place for students' free time activities, and fixed the old dormitories.

After the threat of a strike in 1993 the old BF decided to resign, and a new BF was chosen by the old BF. The Parents' Council was actively proposing members for the new BF and two of the members proposed by the Parents' Council were chosen. The new CBF had a vision for the organization: a separate School Board (SB) was initiated and the tasks were divided so that the BF took care of the resources and the SB made decisions on matters concerning education and teaching. The SB also chose students, and was a supporter for the principal.

The SB opposed the BF concerning the merger of local schools. Due to the SB's opposition of the merger the BF dismissed the SB at the end of 1998. Since then the BF has only taken care of the resources while the principal with the teachers' committee has taken care of the daily functioning of the school. The BF has trusted the principal's and teachers' ability to take care of the school's daily tasks.

The last change in the organization was the forming of the middle management: a dormitory head dean, a food supply chief and a financial manager, who were responsible for their subdivisions. The middle management

was created to avoid conflicting interests and irresponsible power. Some of the daily routine problems were also solved in the executive team.

In the figure 3 the new organization can be seen as a new resource empowering the principal and teachers, securing the resources for the schooling and helping to create the new culture.

Stage 7: New culture
New cultural aspects arose with the changes. Most essentially the new culture could be seen in customer-focused thinking, in student-centereness, in the returning to the roots, in the BF's new role, and in the openness and collaboration as told in stages 1-6. (Kanervio 2007, 167.)

6.5 Lessons for Leadership

According to Morgan (1986, 184) action, progress and success follow the action of empowering people. Handy (1985/1986, p. 309) states that power should be delegated to the level where things take place in the decision making. According to Schlechty (1997, 135-136) empowerment is not delegating additional power but enabling teachers to act. Due to empowerment teachers feel that they are leaders. Bolman & Deal (1997, 128-129) argue that empowerment is autonomy and participation. Murphy (2005) sees teacher leadership to be one form of empowerment.

In the present research empowerment was an important factor in the change process. As long as the old BF was in charge the change was almost impossible. A new administration and a new culture in the use of power enabled the change at all levels. The new administration was a source for the change in 1994-2000.

Is the change sustainable? Some of the last three principals acts increased sustainability. The construction project increased sustainability because it brought space for future growth. It also increased the students' coziness and made the school more attractive. This may have affected the enrollment which increased from 110 in 1985 to 258 students in 2005. The use of ICT made the school modern, developing teaching and use of e-learning methods. It also helped the students to be in contact with the outside world and with their families in their free time. Collaboration and openness developed the school and its relations to the surrounding society and parents. (Kanervio 2007, 167-169.)

All the above mentioned actions resemble the actions Michael Fullan (2005, 65-74) mentioned cocerning the systems level in his book Leadership & Sustainability: e.g. capacity building, ongoing learning, and external partners. All the above mentioned actions concerning leadership fit into Fullan's (pp. 53-64) arguments that leadership at school level increases sustainability: assessment of learning, changing the school's culture, relations to the parents and community to develop the school, and openness with the environment.

6.6 Limitations

One of the most difficult things about doing qualitative research is working with human beings. In this study a culture of uneasy silence was found (c.f. Herr 2005; Quantz & O'Connor 1988). Some of the members of the BF and some of the members of the staff had agreed on having sealed lips concerning the agreement in 1993 between the staff and the BF. In that agreement the members of the BF agreed to leave the BF. The culture of uneasy silence and missing minutes of the BF from years 1991-1993 caused trouble to get enough information. The interview of the principal during 1991-1993 was not conducted because of his bad health. In this part of the school's history there is a gap which was not filled in the research. On the other hand, it is a result, too, because it tells about the culture of secrecy.

In the research the school's adaptation to the environment resulted in returning to the survival mode and in becoming a successful school community. It seems that some of the stages in the theory might be universal, but it does not mean that the theory works in other (private) schools. Because the results do not indicate any level of generalizability the theory must be tested in other cases in future studies.

6.7 Conclusions

The critical stage in the created theory is stage one because it is there that the administrator becomes either the facilitator for change or he/she resists the change. The appropriate choices by the administrative agent will then lead to the changes needed to adapt to the environment's pressures. By viewing change as both planned and rational, or simply as the accommodation of external stress, the existing literature fails to account for the processes through which pressures are translated into permanent changes (cf. Fullan, 2005). According to Fullan (2005, p. xiii) "... it is possible, and necessary, to pursue a dual strategy that pays attention to short-term results while simultaneously laying the ground for sustainable engagement."

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7 THE MOTIVATIONAL POTENTIAL OF PERFORMANCE AGREEMENTS FOR PRINCIPALS IN UNDER PERFORMING SCHOOLS IN SOUTH AFRICA

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ABSTRACT

Performance agreements are an integral part of organisation. It is therefore acceptable that school principals in South Africa may be required to sign specific performance agreements to hold them accountable for the performances of the school. Performance agreements are part of the control process to determine if schools achieve the aims determined for their academic performance. The academic performance are measured as the school leaving examination pass rate as well as language and mathematics test results in grade 3, 6 and 9. The South African principals were not aware of the development of the performance agreement and since they heard about it, they were negative about the implementation of it. A performance agreement is an example of a goal directed motivational theory and is therefore a potentially valuable motivation process and tool. This negative attitude denounces the potential motivational value which such an agreement may have. The principals felt that the agreement left them in a potentially negative position since they do not have significant power to improve the performance of teachers and learners and therefore they cannot be held accountable for the quality of education in their schools.

Keywords: performance management, leadership, motivation, performance agreement

7.1 Introduction, background and orientation to assessment of South Africa education

The Department of Basic Education (DBE) (Until 2009 the Department of Education) introduced the IQMS process to measure what teachers are doing. This document must be completed annually by all teachers including principals. This process does not hold teachers accountable for the quality of their performance; that is if their learners pass or fail the specific subject. . Linked to this process is a potential 1% salary increase per year if the teacher gets a final mark of 2 out of 4 (ELRC 2008). Consequently, the implementation of IQMS has not proved to be an effective means of motivating teachers to improve their performance (Mahlaela 2012; Mbulawa 2012). To address the accountability of all teachers, including principals the Department of Education drafted a document, the Performance agreement (PA) for principals and deputy principals to hold them accountable for the performance of the teachers and therefore also the learners examination and test results. This document and the process of developing it had to be negotiated in the Education Labour Relation Council (ELRC) by the employer (DBE) with the teacher unions as representatives of the principals and deputies. This initial document, drafted in June 2011 was not accepted by the teachers unions. Since then the DBE developed a more comprehensive document, the Quality measurement system (QMS) (SACE 2013) which will include all teachers, including principals. Since July 2012 when this research was conducted until December 2013 when this chapter was written the DBE and the unions could not reach agreement. The South African Democratic Teachers Union (SADTU), by far the biggest teachers' union and thus the most powerful role player in negotiations on teachers' benefits, was strongly opposed to the principle and the format of the current PA, which it did not believe was in the interests of its members. As a result the PA is being revised by the DBE.

In contrast, the PA would hold principals and deputy principals accountable for the quality of the education (examination results) in schools. The Western Cape Province, one of the nine provinces in South Africa wanted principals to sign this agreement at the beginning of 2012, even if the agreement was not officially signed by the Department of Basic Education and the unions. A potential direct implication for principals, had they signed the PA was that disciplinary steps could be taken against principals of schools that have poor results. This potential threat was publically announced by the nation Minister of Education (Gernetzky 2011) and was experienced by principals as a threat to their position. Later in this article, the focus group interviews and the analysis will be used to explore the principals' reaction to the possible implementation of the PA.

This article focuses on underperforming schools. According to Taylor (2009) most schools in South Africa are underperforming. The performance

levels are equated with the grade 12 (school leaving) examination results as well as grade 3 and 6 literacy and numeracy (litnum) results.

This research project was motivated by the original drafted PA for principals. Against this back ground the research question is: To what extent do principals perceive the performance agreements as motivational in the process of improving quality education? The purpose of the research was to determine how the principals felt when they heard about the PA.

The theoretical base of this article on performance agreements is the link between the potential motivational value of such an agreement to improve the quality of the performance of teachers and principals.

7.2 Rationale

The rationale for this research is that motivated people may perform better over a longer period than people who as just controlled with an agreement which is potentially a threatening document (Owens & Valesky 2011; Latham 2007). Control is a normal management function of which the IQMS is an example. A more managerial approach to control requires accountability (Apple 1999). Managerialism is a form of control, standardisation and an emphasis of financial efficiency based on the business model for educational provision (Davies 2003, 91; Gewirtz 2002, x; Morley & Rassool 2000, 170). The DBE use the performance agreement (goal setting) as a performance enhancing process in a managerial context, which may not be necessarily motivational. Goals must be achievable, realistic while the participants must feel they have a realistic possibility to achieve the goal to be motivational (Reeve 2011). Accountability requires goals to be achieved; and therefore these goal driven agreements or control processes has the potential to motivate people to improve their performance level (Ryan 2012). It is therefore from this potentially motivational perspective that the draft PA for principals was investigated.

Unrealistic goals, for example where the participants feel they do not have control over the contextual factors, intrinsic and extrinsic may lose its motivational potential. The participants feel that the locus of control is outside their own control and may even become a threat if the performers (in this case the principals) believe they cannot achieve the goals and that their work and position may be threatened if they do not achieved the goals (Ryan 2012; Latham 2007). Although the performance agreement has not been signed the potential motivational value is investigated since it may inform the Department of Education and the unions about what they must consider when they draft the final document. The investigation also provides a theoretical foundation for performance agreements to be rather motivational than punitive.

Motivation is a fundamental element of successful change and development. The word motivation is derived from the Latin verb “movere” which means to move or be able or willing to move; simply phrased, your motivation level is what moves you to participate in an activity and affects your

desire to continue with the activity (Enhanced motivation 2004). It is therefore important to understand what would make the principals feel willing and able to move the rest of the staff to improve their performances. This requires knowing how principals perceive this agreement in terms of their own motivation.

Notionally performance agreements or performance contracts should not have deterrents or have other negative effects. This has direct implications for the way the performance agreements are implemented or applied. Any performance agreement has an official purpose, for example to improve the employees' performance and to optimize employees' output (ELRC 2008). There is also the unofficial, hidden or implicit purpose (Fredericks 2012). This means that the people involved and influenced by the agreement might be unaware of it. In the case of the performance agreement in question, principals were well aware of the official (SACE 2011) as well as the unofficial purpose of the PA (Gernetzky 2011). This emerged clearly in the interviews conducted during this project.

The managers (in this case the national and provincial ministers of education and director generals) want to know whether their plans to improve the quality of education will achieve the desired goals and standards. The result of this "want to know' is a set of control mechanisms; (the QMS which at this stage is in the development process in the ELRC) to hold the staff at the lowest level accountable for performance. A performance agreement is an example of such control mechanisms, which focus on the task rather than the person (Crawford, 2009; English, 2008). The predetermined and externally developed performance criteria (goals), in this case the examination pass rates or numeracy and literacy levels, must be achieved regardless of the context and circumstances of the contracted principal. A performance agreement may thus be described as a managerial and task orientated approach to school improvement.

A performance agreement may become a positivistic, bureaucratic and inhuman process if principals are assessed against examination result targets without regard to the context of the school and community. Performance agreements and appraisal are associated with goal path and expectation motivational theories (Sheppard, Canning, Tuchinsky & Campbell 2006; Pintrich & Schunk 2002). Although the drafted documentation does not explicitly state this, the performance agreements are potentially motivational to principals to improve their own and their school's work performance: the performance agreements can be and is supposed to be a positive motivational tool.

Denisi (2011) points out that it is not the criteria nor the content or the scale that is the problem with assessment documents; it is the attitude, or why it is done, to achieve what, which is the real problem. It is thus vital to take account of how principals perceive the possible implementation of the PA. When humans feel threatened they revert to a defensive mode of survival and therefore they may not be able to take the initiative and or use their creativity;

they can lose the drive to develop new ideas which are necessary to lead an underperforming school to sustainable improvement (Hallowell 2011; Kressler 2003).

7.3 Performance agreements and motivation

Denisi (2011) emphasises that for assessment to be a performance changing instrument, the process and criteria and purpose of the appraisal must be fair, valid and reliable. Otherwise the appraisee will change only to a limited or small extent or may not change his or her behaviour at all. The process, including the document, has to be legitimate and it must be accepted by the appraisee. A performance agreement is not inherently problematic if the agreement is properly negotiated and accepted by all involved. Control, assessment, appraisal, inspections or whatever the actual process is labelled does not matter. It is what is behind it, the motive behind the control functions that is the important aspect. Performance agreements cannot only be an accountability tool; the process must also make provision for the development and support of the principal (Cardno 2012). Depending on the motive of a performance agreement document and process e.g. developmental or inspection and punitive, may make the process and acceptable or unacceptable control activity for employees

A deeper understanding of performance agreements and appraisal can be explained as a specific world view or world philosophy. A world philosophy may be explained in terms of McGregor's X and Y approaches to people and management (Kressler 2003; Maslow 1998). Although there may be criticism of the theory (as in the case of most social theories) the basic supposition is that all people are inherently not driven to work hard (theory X) and on the other side people are highly motivated and dedicated. It is specifically the theory X attitude which instigates the lack of trust and "must know and control" attitude which leads to performance agreements. If principals are professionals why is it necessary to control and manage them with performance agreements like workers in industry? A Y approach from managers is a humane approach and has the potential to provide intrinsic motivation which is again potentially a better longer term solution for the improvement of quality education than a threatening control process (Latham 2007; James 2005).

Principals are accountable for the quality of education in the school. They are accountable because they are officially appointed in the post with a specific job description. Knapp and Feldman (2011) refer to this as internal accountability or internal motivation. The person feels accountable because it is something that is inherent and therefore it may be associated with internal motivation. As soon as the accountability becomes an externally driven accountability it is more like a compulsion; something I must do because legislation expect it from me. This refers to the hierarchy of accountabilities which may culminate in attitudes of: "It is not that I really believe in it, but

because legislation requires that I must do it, therefore I will (must) do it." This again comes down to external motivation which is normally not associated with long term and sustained motivations to perform.

In the proposed performance agreement in South African context there would be few if any incentives for principals when they sign the performance agreements. They will not get any salary increase; it will be just a confirmation that they are doing what they are supposed to do. It is therefore a control mechanism which may potentially influence the principal's emotions negatively and is therefore unlikely to result in a sustainable improvement of education.

Another problem with the performance agreement is that it is a one size fits all policy. An individual's personality, attitude and values can make a difference in the approach and implementation and success or failure of any performance system. Moreland (2009) mentions that when performance management is experienced as part of or focused on individual as well as organizational management and goals the participants feel positive about it. Conversely, people who feel that the same performance management system is just a paper exercise will not deliver any real long term effects for the school or the individual: an individual's values and attitude determines the motivational level to accept the process of performance management. When principals distance themselves from performance agreements, it reduces the possibility that they or the school will be motivated and therefore may benefit from the activity of performance agreements.

Martin & Dowson (2009, 327) define motivation as a set of interrelated beliefs and emotions that influence and direct behaviour. Therefore performance agreements may be expected to fulfil a few basic functions: first to ensure that the work being done is at least of the minimum quality or predetermined goals. Secondly, such an agreement may serve as motivational factor to workers because they may earn more money or some remuneration or preferable feel inherently motivated if they achieve the agreed standards or even surpass the required standards. They propose that relationships affect achievement motivation by directly influencing the constituent beliefs and emotions of motivation. Interpersonal and intrapersonal relationships will influence motivational levels if principals are made to sign agreements. A positive self-relationship, but also positive relationships with superiors and followers, may be significant motivational factors to minimize the potential demotivational factors of these agreements. Thirdly, performance agreements may also serve as a smoke screen for employees to get rid of unproductive workers as one of the participants in this research indicates.

A further problem is that there are too many factors, both external (environment or fellow human beings) and internal (personality, values) to the individual that may influence the motivational levels of a person; or the ability of a person (e.g. principal) to motivate all the teachers in a school simultaneously and to the same level to get them to improve their performance significantly (Sheppard Canning, Tuchinsky & Campbell 2006; Kressler 2003).

Each individual, as a cognitive, emotional and religious (values)-driven entity will influence the kind of motivation needed to make the person move to achieve or do what is expected. The circumstantial effects, external to the individual, are also determined in the kind and level of motivation. Hence this complexity, the internal and external influences as well as the individual group activities, makes it difficult to motivate other people. External factors such as the schools' socio-economic environment or infra-structure of a school are often outside the principal's sphere of influence; and these factors may have an important influence on the academic achievements of learners in the school. Hence the PA may not be acceptable as an accountability instrument if the principals feel that there are external forces outside their control which may influence their performance negatively.

7.4 Research design

The research was conducted from a constructivist and interpretative perspective. This approach is a normal qualitative approach because the participants construct their own reality, perceptions and interpretations of what is happening and what they know. This construction is influenced by the participants own personal reality, context and personality (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2001). This approach was used because I wanted to understand how do the participants interpret and construct what may happen when the performance agreement may be implemented. They constructed their understanding from what they heard from different sources e.g. newspapers, friends, the unions and departments of education. In this research most of the information was no from the official proposed document but rather second hand information or a discussion about the document without seeing it.

A constructivist approach does not necessarily search for the truth and therefor triangulation in search for the truth is not applicable. The participants explain how they see, feel, experience and expect from the performance agreement. They may therefore be bias, but that is their own reality and is therefore not a problem during the data collection as well as the analysis (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport 2011).

The data analyses also followed an interpretative approach. The analysis started with the direct voices of the participants to indicate their construction of their reality. This reality is then interpreted against the theory and existing knowledge related to the issues addressed in the project. The quotations in this text therefore do not represent one person's idea but it is the construction of the group. The quotations represent the opinion of the group because the discussion was a developmental process and a construction of their communal construction of the reality with regard to the proposed performance agreement document.

The focus group interviews were semi-structured interviews. There were a few basic questions and then the discussions developed as the participants

added to the ideas of others in the group to present their explanations and understanding of the proposed PA. The prompting questions for the discussion focused on their knowledge of the performance agreement and how they felt about it as well as the possible motivational value of the proposed performance agreement.

Focus group interviews were the means of gathering the data. Stewart, Shamdanasi & Rook (2007) indicated that focus groups are preferable because a group gave the participants the confidence to speak their minds openly. They were also able to draw on each other's ideas, making the discussion a building process of gathering data. De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport (2011) indicate that participants could also support each other which emphasised the importance of a particular point; but they could also disagree with each other which was an indication that the issue was as contentious as the project assumed it to be. The focus group is also ideal to construct reality since opinions may sometimes differ which provide deeper understanding of the theme. During the interviews the researcher ensured that one person does not dominate the discussions since that might have influenced the data collected and prevent the voices of all the participants. Certain participants were specifically prompted to give their opinions to allow all voices to be heard.

Although the representivity was not the purpose of qualitative study, which cannot be generalised to all principals and schools in South Africa, representivity ensured that more groups and individuals might learn from and associate with the information from the project.

A qualitative design was used to gather rich data and deep information from the most knowledgeable and informative participants (Punch 2009). The participants in group A, B and C were selected from principals and deputy principals attending a leadership qualification at the university. Although this constitutes a captured audience, these participants are knowledgeable since they volunteered to register for the academic program. This is an indication of their own need for development and their potential interest about managerial issues with regard to their own and school's performance. The different geographical areas where the participants were located is a means to get a wider contextual opinion about the theme under investigation since the local context may play a role in the construction of their reality and their interpretation of the performance agreement. The different groups are presented in table 1.

TABLE 3 Groups of participants

Group A	Is located about 400 kilometres from the capital city of Cape Town. The centre of this area is a large town and the surrounding rural areas. .
Group B	Resides in a large town or its adjacent rural areas 200 kilometres from Cape Town and about 200 kilometres from where Group A live
Group C	These students live in a small rural town or its rural environs, more or less midway between the two other towns and about 180 kilometres from Cape Town.
Group D	In the north of the country, about 1 800 kilometres from Cape Town.
Group E	South African Principals Association Western Cape Executive, nine principals

The participants from Group A, B, C and E were from the Western Cape, which is regarded as one of the two best performing provinces from the point of view of academic performance. This assumption was that principals in a good performing province may be more positive in their construction of the performance agreement than principals in low performing provinces.

Group D was selected since the author had an opportunity to teach in that region and used it to get the interpretation of principals from provinces with very low performing standards and the management and administration in these provinces are also less effective than the Western Cape Province. This group of principals and deputies were part time co-lecturers in the program They were different from the previous groups because they had higher academic qualifications; all of them already have a master degree and some even a Ph. D degree hey were from different provinces which in general do not have good education results.

The participants for group A, B, C (200 students attending the lectures) and Group D (24 part-time lecturers) were selected on a volunteered basis since they students were informed about the research project, the aims and research questions were clearly explained to them and they were told very clearly that it was not compulsory to participate so it would not be held against them if they did not participate. The interviews were conducted after the classes ended in a venue at the accommodation venue for the principals. There were more than enough students who indicated they want to participate hence I accepted that I will work with the participants who arrive at the agreed venue the next day. I felt this would give them enough time to decide whether they wanted to participate and feel forced to participate. The final numbers were sufficient to collect trustworthy data.

The ethical procedures were explained to them. In all the cases (except the SAPA principals), I was either their lecturer or their former lecturer at different levels in education management and leadership programmes. I therefore

acknowledge that they may have been influenced by my presence or the ideas I had presented to them during the programme. I attempted to ensure sufficient validity of the information by requesting them to present their own opinions. I also ensured that I do not ask any leading questions and even challenged some of their statements when it seemed that the principals were just saying what they thought I wanted to hear.

The following sections will discuss the data and issues addressed by the participants.

7.5 Principal's knowledge and perceptions of the proposed performance appraisal

The official negotiations about the possible PA were in the ELRC between the DBE and the unions. From the comments of the principals it seems as if neither DBE nor the unions communicated with the principals about the PA and the possible implications. Although the majority of the principals had heard something about the PA, few of them had seen the draft PA or had any official information about it. This was a particular concern in the Western Cape because this Department wanted to implement it before there had been public or interest group meetings to clarify all the issues the participants mentioned during these interviews.

The participants of SAPA (Group E) had the opportunity to discuss the document in detail because they had been asked to give official feedback to the Western Cape Department of Education (WCED) as well as the national DBE. The SAPA participants said they did not have a principled objection to such a document and process but they felt that there are many problems with the current document and format. They presented their concerns and suggestions, especially the Western Cape Department of Education. The WCED wanted to pilot the PA, with the blessing of the DBE although the official agreement was not signed in the ELRC. In December 2011 the agreement in the ELRC was that the document had to be revised by the DBE before the unions, especially SADTU would discuss the issue again.

One of the principals in Group B who is actively involved in SADTU indicated that he got information about the PA from the union. A few other principals indicated, after significant hesitation and short discussion between the members of the group, that there were some information sessions organized by the local districts where the PA was just mentioned in passing. Neither the DBE nor the Western Cape Department of Education seemed to have a structured plan to inform principals about or promote the implementation of the PA. Most principals described their knowledge about the PA as information that they got via the informal grapevine. A principal (an active union member) in Group D mentioned that at a union meeting "they just touched on the document" about the performance agreement, but there was no

specific meeting to inform them or discuss the possible implications. Another principal in this group (not actively involved with any union but with a PhD in Education management and policy) first read about it in a newspaper and then heard about it from her district.

A Group D principal (active union member) expressed this group's feeling best when reflecting on how they felt when they heard that the performance agreement might be implemented:

> Mmm, ...I think it brought us a little bit of fear because it is not clear what will happen to yourself if you underperform. Your performance is based on the number of stakeholders like the parents and governing body, learners, yourself and teachers and it is easy to be sabotaged. For example, if the governing body does not want to improve the buildings but you as a principal will be measured on the buildings.

A principal working on his PhD (Group D) research said "it was a mixed feeling because there was a lot of uncertainty and I thought we will get clarification about it".

A Group A principal said:

> To me it is a threat especially with us in the disadvantage schools. We do not have resources and therefore our conditions are differently and therefore we have problems. I do not think we can be treated equally than others, than previous Model C schools. The principals and deputies may lose their job and that is unfair to me.

Most of the participants felt that there is limited motivational value and power in the PA. One of the principals in Group D explained their feelings about the PA as follows

"It (the PA) is a threat because we think it will be the same as with the directors – if you do not perform, you will be recalled". In the South African context "recall" means that you are removed from a post and either employed at another school or in a district or circuit office.

Group B and C commented that the PA was not motivational because teachers could "sabotage" the principal if they wanted the principal to leave the school. In this kind of situation, teachers might purposefully not comply with the principal's leadership and efforts to improve the school. This could lead to the dismissal or replacement of the principal. That is another indication that principals feel there are too many factors outside their control that could have a negative influence on their future careers if they signed the PA.

7.6 The performance agreement as a potential motivational and accountability tool

Most participants agreed that this specific performance agreement does not have the potential to motivate them. They mentioned external factors outside their control which make it impossible for them to feel motivated to take responsibility for the personal performance of each teacher and therefore for the

examination results of the school. The participants mentioned all the usual factors such as lack of facilities, teacher's qualification, the learner's ability and socio economic conditions.

Significantly, most of them were adamant that money, for example an increase in their salary, was not necessarily an important motivational factor. In their view, for money to be motivational factor; all the teachers involved had to share in any financial benefit. That would have to go along with a willingness on the part of teachers to share in the consequences should the school not perform. The principles were under the impression that the national department of education had not made the additional funds necessary to reward all.

On the other hand, the participants mentioned that factors such as better facilities at the school and better support from the departmental officials at the local level would act as a motivation. This would be a more effect means of motivating them to work harder than a performance agreement aimed at forcing them to work harder. They also acknowledged the great importance of parental support. These could help to empower the principal to motivate the teachers to embrace development.

Most of the participants did not believe that the PA would be a powerful tool to inspire the principal and most of the staff members to improve their own performance. In contrast, the performance agreement was perceived as a negative action which might have very different consequences from what was initially planned and expected from the different departments of education initiating this process. The principals said that the PA does not provide them with any power to use if and when teachers do not meet the agreed levels of performance. The Group D principals also said that their knowledge did not give them total power but did help them.

One of the most important factors which influenced the principals to be accountable for the quality of the performance of teachers and the academic achievement of the learners were the teachers' unions. The Group D principals put it this way:

> We as principals are exposed (by the PA) because you know the teachers are protected by the unions; we may be recalled but because of the union's power an underperforming teacher will stuck with you forever.[9]

7.7 Concluding comments

The Department of Basic Education seems to function strictly in accordance with the neoliberalistic and managerialistic approach. They provide the principals with local decision-making power but require strict control mechanism to ensure that quality education is provided. The potentially strong

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[9] Author: meaning that underperforming teachers will rarely or never been disciplined or acted against

actions which the national Minister mentioned therefore is rather a task driven managerial than an empowering decentralised decision-making process for local schools to determine their goals and achieve them in a motivational progressive management process.

It is important to note that most of the participant's perspectives were based on informal or unofficial information e.g. news in newspapers or on the radio or from colleagues in informal discussions (grapevine). This information may therefore have been distorted or been very selective. Their assumptions might have been biased by the informants but for the participants, this was their reality; although the principal's perceptions may not be true it is true for them in the specific time and context. This constructed reality seems to have a potential negative impact the potential motivational value of goal driven performance agreements.

Although most participants had not seen the official document and had limited detailed knowledge about the proposed PA, their attitude to the PA was negative. They constructed their perceptions based on the Minister's comments and their experience of redeployment of underperforming district officials. Any potential motivational gains from the PA were therefore excluded. Realistic goals for individual schools based on their local context as indicated in the 2011 draft is diminished with the "fits all" QMS which is currently in the development phase. Although the 2011 document might create a more subjective assessment process and administrative burdening, it might had a better opportunity to determine personal and school goals which could have been motivational.

This indicates a negative attitude towards the PA; and a negative attitude, even before a new policy is implemented, may be indicate problems with the implementation process. Bruch and Vogel (2011: 38) refer to this situation as corrosive energy in an organization. This refers to energy or negative emotional and motivational feelings which erode the positive growth in the organization. There were, however, some principals who indicated that the PA might have some positive aspects.

The "positive" perspective was predominantly from Group E, which principals are from predominantly better performing schools; as well as from few principals (Group B) who feel they have control over the circumstances in their schools although they are not performing well enough. These principals indicate that the principle of a performance agreement is not automatically negative. There are just too many factors outside the control of the principals and therefore they feel they cannot be accountable for performances outside their control. The principle of locus of control is therefore a more important demotivational factor than the actual performance agreement document. The principals indicated that the union's influence is the one factor which makes it very difficult for them to be accountable for the teacher's performance and the learner's academic achievements.

Although it is not the purpose of a constructivist approach to generalise the findings, it seems as if the principals from all contextual areas find it

difficult to be positive about the performance agreement. Principals from the best performing province as well as doing an academic management program and principals who are well trained and who have additional qualifications, especially in management and leadership, can be expected to be able to use the knowledge to support and motivate the teachers. These principals (Group D) have better knowledge about change processes and how to lead and manage teachers during change; they also have the expert subject knowledge to offer support to teachers with limited subject or teaching knowledge. These knowledgeable principals therefore potentially have a high status in the eyes of the teachers and community. If these highly qualified and knowledgeable principals do not have sufficient power to motivate the teachers, less able and knowledgeable principals are likely to have serious problems, as was confirmed by the interviews with the other group of principals.

This does not reflect well on the motives and actions of unions and the DBE in a democratic and open society: these issues will have a significant influence on the people to be affected by this proposed change.

Generally, the participants' initial reaction was that the PA would be viewed as a threat rather than a motivational factor.

What is important is that these people applied for their posts, well knowing what would be demanded of them. Their basic job description in the Pam document refers explicitly to their responsibilities and accountability; therefore they cannot claim that they did not know they would be held accountable for the quality of education in their schools.

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8 WHOSE SCHOOL IS IT ANY WAY? COMMUNITY-SCHOOL RELATIONS IN A NEW EDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT - A NARRATIVE FROM SOUTH AFRICA'S LIMPOPO PROVINCE[10]

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ABSTRACT

White Paper 1 on Education and Training (Department of Education, 1995) (hereafter White Paper 1) was the first comprehensive articulation of the education and training policy of the post-apartheid government in South Africa. It was negotiated between erstwhile and published soon after South Africa's transition to a democracy in 1994. It postulated two very important principles of education provision namely 1) that the parent would be regarded as the primary educator of the child and 2) that schools should be viewed as belonging to the community.

The legal and policy mechanisms that were put into place to give effect to these two central ideas in White Paper 1 were not unqualified successes and, broadly speaking, schools got neither the support expected from the parents in particular nor that of the broader community in general. Parents and the community in general seem neither to have accepted full ownership of schools in the sense of their physical facilities and property nor in the abstract and emotional sense of attempting to enhance the educational performance and achievement of the schools and identifying with the schools whose future is largely in their hands.

A broad awareness of the acute need for the establishment and restoration of parent and community support has remained since the publication of White Paper 1. In 2010 the Limpopo Department of Education (the education department of the Limpopo Province, one of the 9 provinces of South Africa) established more than 130 education

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circuits as sub-units of their 5 education districts in order to establish structures that would be able to support schools better and enhance the quality of education provision and accountability. Circuit Improvement Programmes (CIPs) in which the newly-appointed circuit managers took part were designed and organised by the department in conjunction with a donor, Irish Aid. The training was provided by a training service provider Thakasa Training and Consulting and was assessed by the Department of Education Management and Policy Studies at the University of Pretoria on behalf of the research agency Business Enterprises at UP (University of Pretoria). The author was a member of this assessment team.

One of the established results of this training was that some circuits devoted considerable time to efforts to help schools re-conceive their community responsibilities and to better involve the parents and the larger community in their schools. This paper reports on the innovative ways in which one of the districts (namely Vhembe) and three of its circuits (namely Hlanganani North, Dzindi and Nzhelele East) and some schools set about involving the community and enlisting their support and ensuring their acceptance of ownership of the school in both a physical and emotional sense by focusing on why parents should be involved in schools namely because schools belong to the communities and not the state.

The paper was inspired by the above-mentioned research, and is particularly based on information provided to me by Mr F. R. Baloyi, Ms T. Nkuzana, Mr M. D. Ramutsheli and Mr A. Mukwevho (Limpopo Department of Education) whom I interviewed on behalf of the assessing research agency. The then acting Head of Department of the Limpopo Education Department, Mr M. J. Thamage, gave written permission for the use of the data.

The paper will focus in particular on the inclusive definition of community that the district, circuit and schools adopted and the perceived impact of the newly-found support from among others traditional leaders and parents.

In the paper I will deal briefly with the relevant provisions of White Paper 1 and the South African Schools Act, No 84 of 1996 (hereafter SASA). Then I will discuss the implementation of the above provisions as related to me among others in interviews. I will conclude with a preliminary assessment of the value of the initiatives.

Keywords: community support, parents training, school ownership

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The development process of White Paper 1 was inclusive and comprehensive and gave a voice to representatives of government and all political parties in South Africa as well as teacher unions, parent bodies, education departments and other interested agencies and organisations. It was a lengthy, tense and intense process (with the continuation of the negotiation often based on a knife's edge) and also involved a number of public hearings throughout the country in which the public could participate and express their opinions, concerns and expectations. White Paper 1 was published on 15 March 1995 as

the official government policy on the issues raised and debated in the policy development and consultation process.

The White Paper led to the promulgation (in 1996) and commencement (on 1 January 1997) of the South African Schools Act, No 84 of 1996 (SASA) which provides for the organisation, governance and funding of schools in South Africa. The Act is the embodiment in enforceable law of the policy principles of the White Paper which retains its status as South Africa's comprehensive education and training policy.

8.1.1 White Paper 1 on Education and Training (White Paper 1)

For the purposes of this paper it is important to note that paragraph 3 of chapter 4 makes explicit and unequivocal provision for parents or guardians to have "the primary responsibility for the education of their children, and have the right to be consulted by the state authorities with respect to the form that education should take and to take part in its governance." The paragraph also states that parents have

> an inalienable right to choose the form of education which is best for their children, particularly in the early years of schooling, whether provided by the state or not, subject to reasonable safeguards which may be required by law.

The parents' right to choose includes "choice of the language, cultural or religious basis of the child's education, with due regard for the rights of others and the rights of choice of the growing child."

Paragraph 10 of chapter 4 comments that the "relationship between schools and many of the communities they are expected to serve has been disrupted and distorted by the crisis of legitimacy" associated with the apartheid education system. In the context of this paper this paragraph argues importantly that the

> rehabilitation of the schools and colleges must go hand in hand with the restoration of the ownership of these institutions to their communities through the establishment and empowerment of legitimate, representative governance bodies (author's emphasis).

Paragraph 14 of this chapter suggests where a solution to the problems could be sought. It suggests that the principle of

> democratic governance should increasingly be reflected in every level of the system, by the involvement in consultation and appropriate forms of decision-making of elected representatives of the main stakeholders, interest groups and role players. This requires a *commitment by education authorities at all levels to share all relevant information with stakeholder groups, and to treat them genuinely as partners* (author's emphasis).

In this paragraph it is suggested the sharing of information by authorities and the functioning of genuine partnerships "is the only guaranteed way" to release social energy into the educational and training institutions and structures and

to end the enduring "alienation of large sectors of society from the educational process." In this way "the power of government administration to intervene where it should not" can be reduced.

However, it is common cause that the realisation of parental choice, the restoration of the ownership of schools to communities, a partnership of stake-holders and the end of the alienation of sectors of society from the educational process will be exceptionally hard to achieve if what is envisioned in paragraph 12 of chapter 4 does not materialise namely the restoration of the culture of teaching, learning and management and the creation of a culture of accountability. Paragraph 12 expresses the above intentions in operational terms as the

> development of a *common purpose or mission among students, teachers, principals and governing bodies, with clear, mutually agreed and understood responsibilities, and lines of cooperation and accountability* (author's emphasis).

In South Africa, policy intentions generally acquire legal power and enforceability provided they are expressly contained in legislation. In the paragraphs below I will therefore introduce aspects of SASA which represents the embodiment of White Paper 1 in a statute (law).

8.1.2 Provisions of the South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 (SASA) (Republic of South Africa, 1996) intended to give effect to the principles of White Paper 1

Preamble

As indicated above, the intentions, aims and suggestions of White paper 1 were given formal statutory status and enforceability when the South African Schools (SASA), No 84 of 1996 was promulgated in 1996 and became effective on 1 January 1997. The Preamble to SASA confirms the desirability and necessity of the involvement and contribution of role-players other than the state in education and training. It stipulates that that the new national system for schools should "uphold the rights of all learners, parents and educators, and *promote their acceptance of responsibility for the organisation, governance and funding of schools* in partnership with the State; …" (Author's emphasis). It would therefore seem that the legislators and policy makers wanted to make it clear that schools should not be the responsibility of the state only.

The provisions of SASA develop the notion of the ownership of schools and partnerships regarding their funding, organisation and governance further. The intentions and expectations of the state regarding the ownership of non-independent (private) schools will become clearer in the analysis of a number of SASA provisions below.

SASA provisions

Paragraph 10 of chapter 4) of White Paper 1 refers to the establishment and empowerment of "legitimate, representative governance bodies" (of schools). Section 16 (1) of SASA provides for the contemplated governance bodies of schools by stipulating that the governance of every public school is vested in its governing body. This body may perform only such functions and obligations and exercise only such rights as prescribed by the Act in terms of a limitation inserted into the Act in 2001 while Section 16 (2) provides that a governing body stands in a position of trust towards the school. These school governing bodies are known as SGBs.

This paper focuses on the **governance** of schools by SGBs as it contains elements of the ownership of schools such as responsibility for the maintenance of buildings and grounds, the establishment of a school fund and paying for services such as water and electricity. It is worth mentioning that the power to govern schools is given to SGBs in SASA (a national law) and this protects them to a great degree against possible interference in their work by education authorities and circuit or district or provincial level. The *professional management* of schools (that is the management of teaching and learning) is the responsibility of the school principal under the authority of head of the provincial education department in question (Section 16 (3) of SASA). SASA thus provides for, and distinguishes between the governance and professional management of schools. SASA therefore creates two distinct authorities at the same school: a professional management authority (led by the principal) and an elected governance authority (the SGB, of which parents are the majority in terms of Section 23 (9) of SASA). Although these two authorities are distinguished, they are also have to co-operate with, and support each other (in terms of Sections 19 (2), Section 20 (1) (a) and Section 36 (1) of SASA in order to ensure the development of the public school concerned through the provision of quality education for all learners at the school.

It is also important to note that public schools themselves are juristic persons in terms of S 15 of SASA (Republic of South Africa 1996) which reads that, "Every public school is a juristic person, with legal capacity to perform its functions in terms of this Act." Without such a provision regarding legal or juristic personality the state would not be able to devolve upon schools rights and duties such as purchasing textbooks, educational materials or equipment for the school and paying for services to the school (S 21 (1) (c –d) of SASA (Republic of South Africa, 1996).

In the paragraphs below I discuss aspects of SASA relevant to the question as to whom a public school belongs.

Specific SASA provisions regarding school governance, property and assets

For the sake of clarity and convenience of reference I will present and discuss the various provisions in this regard in table form. Table 4 below contains provisions regarding school property and assets while Table 5 contains other provisions on governance.

TABLE 4 SASA provisions regarding property and assets

SASA section(s)	Topic / Discussion
55, 13	**Ownership of immovable property, funds and moveable assets**
	In terms of S 55 (1) of SASA the **immovable property of schools** (author's emphasis) which were declared to be state-aided schools under section 29 (2A) of the Education Affairs Act, 1988 (House of Assembly) (Act 70 of 1988) (Republic of South Africa, 1988), devolved upon the State on a date determined by the Minister by notice in the Government Gazette. Previously S 31A (1) (a) of the Education Affairs Act (Republic of South Africa, 1998) provided that the **ownership and control of movable and immovable property** (author's emphasis) would devolve upon the state-aided school concerned subject to certain terms and conditions. State-aided schools in this sense were initially part of the education provision for White learners under the apartheid dispensation and did not provide education for learners of all population groups then. However, after 1990 and up to the commencement of SASA in 1997 (when these schools ceased to exist) they were authorised to admit learners of colour. The result was that the racial composition of learner populations changed and, in some cases, schools became known as "transformed schools" meaning that their learner populations had become predominantly black.
	Through S 55 (1) of SASA (Republic of South Africa, 1996) the new democratic government took back the ownership of the **immovable property** (author's emphasis) of the state-aided schools from the previous dispensation. However, in terms of S 13 (2) of SASA (Republic of South Africa, 1996) public schools on immovable property owned by the state acquired the right to **occupy and use the immovable property** (author's emphasis) for the benefit of the school for educational purposes at or in connection with the school **as long as the immovable property is utilised by the school in the interests of education** (S 13 (3) of SASA) (author's emphasis).
	Moreover, and important for our consideration of the ownership of a public school, S 52 (3) of SASA (Republic of South Africa, 1996) determines that "**[f]unds and other moveable assets** used by, or held for or on behalf of, a public school … and which in law are the property of the State, remain at the disposal of the school, and devolve on the school" (author's emphasis).There can of course be movable assets which would not be the property of the State(e.g.37(4) – see below.
	The above paragraphs seem to reinforce the notion that a public school, which is a legal person governed by an SGB, can claim at least co-ownership of the school and all or (some of) its assets.

(continues)

TABLE 4 (continues)

34, 36, 37	**Assets and funds**
	In terms of S 34 (1) of SASA (Republic of South Africa, 1996) the "State must fund public schools from public revenue on an equitable basis in order to ensure the proper exercise of the rights of learners to education and the redress of past inequalities in education provision." Taken at face value this seems to confirm state ownership of public schools as the state "pays for such schools."
	However, the legislator seems to have realised that the state would be unable to fund education fully and therefore formulated S 36 (1) of SASA (Republic of South Africa, 1996) as follows, "A governing body of a public school must take all reasonable measures within its means to supplement the resources supplied by the State in order to improve the quality of education provided by the school to all learners at the school." Contrary to S 34 (1) this sub-section seems to confirm the ownership claims of the community through the SGBs.
	Sections 37 (4 – 5) of SASA (Republic of South Africa, 1996) confirm the ownership of school assets and funds by the school and not the state by providing that, "Money or other goods donated or bequeathed to or received in trust by a public school must be applied **[by the school]** in accordance with the conditions of such donation, bequest or trust" (S 37 (4)) (author's insertion) and "[A]ll assets acquired by a public school on or after the commencement of this Act are the property of the school" (S 37 (5))."
	S 37 (5) may, however, be misleading. In terms of the South African common law fixtures that the school may add to permanent structures and buildings belonging to the state in terms of S 55 (1) of SASA (Republic of South Africa, 1996) as discussed above **cannot** become the property of the school (author's emphasis). Temporary, removable structures such as temporary classrooms bought by the school may, however, become the property of the school.

A number of further provisions illustrate the extent to which the character and functioning of the school may be determined by the governing body and not the state and suggests that the school indeed does not belong to the state in the first place. However, the state does have a stake in the education offered by a school on a partnership basis with educators, learners and parents as formulated in the Preamble to SASA (Republic of South Africa, 1996) which provides among others that for schools should "uphold the rights of all learners, parents and educators, and promote their acceptance of responsibility for the organisation, governance and funding of schools in partnership with the State; …"

These other SASA provisions are presented in table 5.

TABLE 5 SASA provisions on governance

SASA section(s)	Topic / Discussion
	Public schools
1	SASA divides schools into "public" and "independent" (private) schools. The term "state schools" is not used in connection with schools and this suggests the involvement of parties other than the state in the operation of schools (Republic of South Africa, 1996: Section 1).
5 (5)	The SGB determines the admission policy of a public school.
6 (2)	An SGB may determine the language policy of a public school.
7	For a religious observance to be conducted at a public school, it has to be conducted under rules determined by the SGB. Religious observances including reading of scriptures, prayers and seeing of hymns (as opposed to religious instruction) are allowed in public schools.
8 (1 - 2)	SGBs must adopt codes of conduct for learners at public schools. These codes must be aimed at aimed at establishing disciplined and purposeful public school environments, dedicated to the improvement and maintenance of the quality of the learning process.
9	SGBs may suspend learners for serious misconduct after fair disciplinary hearings and may also recommend that the provincial education head expel a learner from a public school for serious misconduct and following a fair disciplinary hearing.
20 (1) (a)	An SGB must promote the best interests of a school and strive to ensure its development through the provision of quality education for all learners at the school
20 (1) (c)	SGBs must develop the mission statement of the schools they serve. To a large extent this section allows schools to determine the character, culture and ethos of the schools
20 (1) (f)	SGBs must determine the times of the school day.
20 (1) (g)	It is a duty of all SGBs to administer and control the school's property, and buildings and grounds occupied by the school, including school hostels
20 (1) (i). 20 (4)	SGBs must recommend to the head of the education department the appointment of educators and non-educators at the school. This suggests a very strong interest in the welfare of the school and the quality of education provided by the school.
	Section 20 (4) contains a very express indication of the interest of an SGB in the promotion of the quality of the education offered at a specific school by stipulating that governing bodies may establish posts for educators and non-educators and employ them additional to the official post establishment.
	Of course Sections 20 (1) (1) and 20 (4) are inter-related.
20 (2), 21 (1) (a)	A strong indication of ownership is contained in the provision in Section 20 (2) that SGBs may allow the reasonable use of the facilities of the school for community, social and school fund-raising purposes, subject to such reasonable and equitable conditions as the governing body may determine, which may include the charging of a fee or tariff which accrues to the school. Section 21 (1) (a) is linked logically to Section 20 (2) and provides that SGBs must maintain and improve the school's property, and buildings and grounds occupied by the school, including school hostels, if applicable.

(continues)

TABLE 5 (continues)

21 (1) (c)	Many schools that have so-called Section 21 status must purchase textbooks, educational materials or equipment for their schools. This gives them a right to adduce that they "pay for the school" similar to the claim that the state can make in terms of Section 34 (1) discussed above.
37 (1, 6)	These two sections provide that the SGB must establish a school fund and administer it in accordance with directions issued by the Head of Department (S 39 (1) and lists the purposes for which a school fund, all proceeds thereof and any other assets of the public school may be used namely -
	i educational purposes, at or in connection with such school;
	ii educational purposes, at or in connection with another public school, by agreement with such other public school
	iii the performance of the functions of the governing body; or
	iv another educational purpose agreed between the governing body and the Head of Department

The above discussion indicates that there is ample scope for parents to accept both physical and emotional ownership of the school and also provides persuasive support for community claims to the ownership of a public school.

8.2 The relationship school and parents / SGB / Community

Implicit in this heading is the question as to whether parents and communities have really accepted ownership of public schools as contemplated by SASA. Does it manifest in practice that schools are not primarily owned by the state but by parents through governing bodies and the broader communities?

From the available evidence and it seems clear is that there are impaired relationships between governing bodies and school management to such an extent that it is not easy for governing bodies and the community to assume full ownership of schools. It would also appear that full justice is not being done to the envisaged role of the parent as the primary educator of the child who is, among others, entitled to reports (oral and written) about the progress of their child. Schools in more affluent areas seem to do better and parents seem to adopt a more visible and active role in them.

Victoria John (2012) reports that the state says that about 30% of governing bodies are not functional but that associations of governing bodies claim that between 70 and 80% of governing bodies are dysfunctional. This suggests that in the majority of schools parents do not take up effective ownership of schools through governance.

In 2003 a committee that had been appointed by the government reported to the Minister of Education on its investigation into school governance in South African public schools (Department of Education 2003). The committee's findings point to a less than optimal acceptance of parent and community ownership of, and participation in the governance of public schools and include the following –

- For the most part, parents have accepted the division of responsibility (between professional management and governance) established by the governance framework.
- The essential model of school governance is a success, but, in the most critical areas of a school governing body's life, improvements can be effected. These include the degree to which a school governing body deals with issues of parental involvement, fund raising, the appointment of educators and the development of plans for the school. In important respects, *more can be required of the school* (author's emphasis).
- We are seeing the parents entering the governance realm of the school. That is an achievement that should be protected. It is, however, not an unreasonable expectation to have that *the relationship should be yielding more* (author's emphasis). The country awaits the positive and profound impact of school governance on the improvement of the system as a whole – improvement that will be central to learner academic performance. The country still needs to see the fruits of democratic governance at all levels of the school system, in improved academic standards in historically disadvantaged schools, and in an improved sense of social responsibility in the schools of the advantaged.

Having now considered legal and policy provisions and status reports in relationship to school governance and ownership, we will now turn to what I term "the Limpopo initiative" and explore aspects of the initiative that represent noteworthy developments in this regard.

8.3 The Limpopo initiative and associated research

In 2010 the Limpopo Department of Education (the education department of the Limpopo Province, one of the 9 provinces of South Africa) established more than 130 education circuits as sub-units of their 5 education districts in order to establish structures that would be able to support schools better and enhance the quality of education provision and accountability. Circuit Improvement Programmes (CIPs) in which the newly-appointed circuit managers took part were designed and organised by the department in conjunction with a donor, Irish Aid. The training was provided by a training service provider Thakasa Training and Consulting and was assessed by the Department of Education Management and Policy Studies at the University of Pretoria on behalf of the research agency Business Enterprises at UP (University of Pretoria). The author was a member of this assessment team whose work continued untold early 2013.

My discussion below is informed especially by my interviews with the people mentioned in the Abstract above but is also underpinned by and reflects

to a degree the data becoming available in and through the various phases of the research. The team consisted of six researchers that carried out the research. The evaluating (assessment team) used the following data-collection instruments:

1. Evaluating the quantitative base line research conducted by the training provider to determine the training needs of the newly-appointed circuit managers
2. Evaluating the suitability and quality of the training materials developed for the project.
3. Observing one round of training sessions (there were 5 week long bocks of training)
4. Conducting interviews with participants (there were two rounds of interviews (one half way through the process and one at the end of the process) where each resorted conducted interview with 2 purposively sampled circuits and two purposively schools per circuit. All in all 24 circuits and 58 schools (principals) were sampled – the purpose of these interviews was to explore the possible effect of the training on the provisions of education in the circuit concerned. The interviews with school principals were intended to provide against which the claims and reports by circuit managers could be tested
5. In a one and a half daylong seminar towards the middle of the CIP circuit managers related their experiences attending the conference and indicated how they felt they needed to adapt their approaches to their work
6. At the end of the programme another one and a half daylong seminar was held during which circuit managers discussed the value of the Project to them and indicated what aspects of their approaches and practices they had changed or were changing.

Against the above background I will first report on initiatives involving parents as a collective and then on initiatives comprising parents as individual stake holders in one specific school.

8.3.1 Initiative involving parents as a collective

After the training referred to above education authorities in In the Vhembe district identified the inadequate response by schools to "public challenges" as a problem. The main problem was a lack of communication with parents, in particular about their children's performance in examinations and national assessment tests such as the Annual National Assessment (ANA) (which assesses learners' achievement in mathematics and reading). The result of this lack of communication and sharing of information was, in the opinion of the authorities, a lack of interest in schools on the part of parents and a concomitant

failure to accept ownership of the schools and their processes, activities and achievements.

In 2012 a circuit in the Vhembe district namely Hlanganani North was chosen to host an initiative by the district manager to call a cluster meeting of various stakeholders in four circuits to discuss the previous year's grade 12 results. The stakeholders were invited to a meeting that was scheduled for a Thursday morning – a most unusual time in this specific setting where most parents are simply "unavailable" at such a time due to long distances between their place of work and the schools attended by their children.

The invitation was sent to an inclusive group of stake-holders including –

a. Union representatives. Unions, in particular the biggest union namely the South African Democratic Teachers'' Union (SADTU), are normally not seen to be constructively involved in education and school development and are thought to have a destructive influence on schools and education. Motsohi (2011) refers to the "corrosive influence of unions on SA schools." Liwane-Mazengwe (2012) investigated the matter from an education law perspective and her findings are very similar to those of Mohotsi. Beckmann and Fuessel (2013) and Horsten & La Grange (2012) also express serious concerns about the negative role of teacher unions in education and their influence on children's right to access to education.
b. Traditional leaders. Traditional leaders are community leaders that are not elected democratically but who are part of traditional / customary leadership systems such those governed by tribal chiefs. They operate mostly in the disadvantaged rural areas of the country and, although they may not have formal legal power, their power (albeit limited) is recognized by the Constitution and is still widely respected. The Congress of Traditional Leaders of South Africa (CONTRALESA) is a political lobby group which represents many traditional leaders and chiefs in South Africa and it seeks to work with the South African government towards a more unified and strong South Africa (South African History Online, 2013). Securing their support for, and ownership of schools could be an important part of any school's strategy for school improvement.
c. Traditional healers. Traditional healers are not to be confused with traditional leaders but form part of "traditional culture"[11] and are recognised in South African medical practice. They are known for mixing potions from herbs (some of them medicinal, some of them "magic" potions). They also do things like breaking "spells" people believe have been cast upon them by opponents through certain rituals. They are an important part of traditional and rural societies

[11] I use this term for lack of a better phrase and I am fully aware that it may be attacked (and rightly so) from a number of perspectives.

where western medicines and medical services are not readily available but they also have a client or patient base in the big cities.

d. Church representatives. In terms of statistics approximately 80% of South African statistics are confessing and practising Christians and church goers of both missionary and other denominations and their presence at the meeting would not have been frowned upon as it might have been in some other countries.
e. Grade 12 learners. South Africa places a great deal of emphasis on the Grade 12 (also called "matric" or "senior certificate" examinations). Passing this examination could ensure access to bachelor level courses at university (matriculation exemption) for candidates who have met certain conditions. The rest of the candidates passing this examination are issued with a senior certificate. The national pass rate in these examinations is around 70%. The government tends to measure the success of the entire system in terms of these results only and Grade 12 learners (students) are obviously important role players in these examinations. Furthermore, learners in grades 8 -12 could also be SGB members.
f. Grade 12 educators. Like Grade 12 learners, Grade 12 educators are very important role players in the matriculation examinations. Whether it is correct and fair or not, the community and the government have high expectations of this group of educators and expect them to get the learners to pass even if they have to contend with serious problems of a systemic nature in this regard.
g. Parents and SGB members. From the discussion above it should be clear that SGBs and parents are regarded as key stake holders in education and in the performance of learners and schools.

600 people representative of all the stake-holders attended the meeting and the figure could have been more but restrictions had to be placed on attendance due to the unavailability of space. This effort to share information with the entire education community lasted for three hours while primary schools were encouraged to hold similar meetings regarding the ANA report.

According to the information provided to me by the educators I acknowledge in the Abstract, both during and after the meeting –

a. Learners committed themselves to improving the Grade 12 results
b. SGBs asked for more support from schools and expressed their concern about some human resource issues (not enough teachers and / or not enough suitably trained educators)
c. Traditional healers encouraged learners to study and pointed out to them that they were not able to give them a potion to make them pass – they could only help them after they had studied. This belief in the "magic" of a potion is an noteworthy reflection of a

manifestation of culture that impacts on education in this particular area.

d. The participants were allowed to speak in the language of their choice and nobody was "cut short". The formal meeting language was English, which some of the participants do not speak because their home language might be Tshivenda or Xitsonga. The medium of instruction of the schools is English but the organisers of the meeting tried their best to accommodate especially the parents and to give them an opportunity to make their voices heard
e. Women took their rightful place and also spoke up during this meeting, contrary to the perception that women do not play a role in community matters in this area which is perceived to be distinctly patriarchal

The above suggests that all participants took responsibility for, or co-ownership of the school and its pedagogical processes. One of the circuit managers noted that, after this meeting, there seemed to be "more stability in the relationship between principals and SGB to such a degree that there is greater harmony in schools and that the number of conflicts between them has been reduced". Previously there was a great deal of tension between principals and SGBs but this seems to have changed in a sense of shared ownership and responsibility.

In another interview another circuit manager shared his perception that the involvement of traditional leaders in the education process in the form of encouragement of parents, viewing schools as "their schools", helped counter vandalism at schools. It encouraged learners to be proud of the schools and not to be destructive which would be indicative of their taking ownership of schools and contributing to the improvement of education.

8.3.2 Initiative concerning parents of a specific school

The principal of this school pointed out that had he realised after the collective initiative discussed above that he needed to ask the question, "Whose school is it any way?" The answer that came to him was that it did not belong to the state or the educators but to the parents and the community.

How did this realisation reflect in, and affect the principal's action and the school afterwards?

The principal commented that –

a. He deliberately invited parents to the school and showed them "their" school and its property. Parents were generally surprised to see what the school was like and what they actually owned
b. Community and parental involvement has increased significantly
c. Summits are now regularly held to report to the community on the school's performance
d. SGBs and the traditional leaders are providing valuable assistance to help combat vandalism and theft which used to be a serious problem

– he referred to an incident where the community was instrumental in getting back IT equipment and a sound system that had been stolen from the school

e. Rifts between the school and some stake-holders have been repaired
f. Quarterly progress reports (cards) are now handed to parents (and not to learners) and discussed with them in detail
g. Parents have been involved in several school improvement projects like planting a vegetable garden from which the school feeds its learners and from which it also sells produce to the community in aid of the school fund
h. Parents have planted lawns and flowers and sunk a borehole from which the flowers and grass are irrigated
i. Parents pay for labourers that keep the terrain neat, clean the toilets regularly and prepare and serve food to the learners
j. The school has become a safe environment for both educators and learners

8.4 Conclusion

It seems that in many schools neither the parents nor the community accepted ownership of the school in the sense of its physical facilities and property or in the abstract sense of attempting to enhance the educational performance and achievement of the school. The intentions of policy and law seemed not to have been realised in many schools.

The two cases discussed do seem to suggest that it is possible to establish, promote and foster parental and community ownership of schools even in neglected and disadvantaged geographical areas. To that end schools should carefully identify all stake holders and take pains to involve them in school governance through the development of a common purpose or mission among students, teachers, principals and governing bodies, with clear, mutually-agreed and understood responsibilities. Even "unusual" stake-holders like traditional leaders and healers seem to have a legitimate place in this regard.

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9 DEVELOPING INNOVATIVE LEARNING APPROACHES THROUGH THE LINKS OF DIVERSITY AND EQUITY WITHIN THE NEW EARLY YEARS FOUNDATION STAGE (EYFS) CURRICULUM IN ENGLAND: CHALLENGES FOR LEADERS

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ABSTRACT

A commitment and promotion to social justice principles lies at the heart of many Early Years' practitioners working practices. However, the term social justice is complex, diverse and remains contested within Early Years. This complexity manifests itself through its multiple meanings, used in different ways to different ends in different cultural contexts. So it is vital to locate the phenomenon by taking cognisance of potential political and cultural influences. This paper explores the link between diversity and equity through an understanding of social justice within the new Early Years Foundation Stage (EYFS) curriculum in England. This paper examines how diversity and equity is promoted through the English Early Years curriculum and what remain the potential challenges for leaders and practitioners. Interviews in English multi-cultural and mono-cultural primary schools with Early Years age phases were conducted. The findings showed that the notion of social justice, diversity and equity was interpreted differently in each Early Years setting, which is unsurprising given the contested nature of its meaning. The multi-cultural schools appear to use greater variety of activities to embed social justice principles that involved their diverse communities more to enrich the curriculum in contrast to the mono-cultural schools. In mono-cultural schools however, leadership had to be more creative in promoting diversity and equity given the smaller proportion of their diverse pupil and staff population. Our conclusions are tentative, in that, most schools are struggling initially

with implementing the new EYFS curriculum, and their vision for permeating this curriculum with a diversity and equity focus, at best, is at early stages.

Keywords: Early Years, equity, diversity, multi-cultural/mono-cultural schools, leadership

9.1 Introduction

The EYFS curriculum in England encompasses four main principles that shapes practice in settings and consists of: understanding that every child is a unique child, children learn to be independent through positive relationships, children learn and develop in enabling environments, and the understanding that children learn in different ways and at different rates (DfE 2012). From September 2012 a revised EYFS became statutory in England for all government registered settings for children aged between birth and five. This revised framework came as a result of the Tickell Review in 2011 which was a British Coalition government initiated independent review of the Early Years curriculum which aimed first, to reduce the current level of paperwork carried out by simplifying assessment for children at the end of the reception in school and second, to better support children's early learning (DfE 2011). There is little literature on how diversity and equity permeates the EYFS, and what is published focuses importantly on developing children's language and identities (Issa & Hatt 2013, 8). There is increasing interest to school leaders (Bell & Stevenson 2006, 139) on the issue of diversity, equity and social justice.

One of the main changes with the new EYFS is that there are now seven areas of learning (rather than six) which have now been separated into prime and specific areas. The prime areas consist of: Physical Development, Personal Social & Emotional Development, and Communication & Language and are given more importance as they form the main foundations for child development in terms of judging children's readiness for learning and focusing on the healthy development of children. The prime areas are strengthened and built upon through the specific areas of: literacy, mathematics, expressive arts and design, and understanding the world (DfE 2012). The focus of the paper is to explore the way in which practitioners develop and promote diversity and equity into the EYFS curriculum and is explored next.

9.2 Literature

In 2008, the government introduced a framework for an Early Years curriculum known as the EYFS framework which was developmentally orientated, and specified a number of early learning goals to be achieved by children by the end of their reception year at school (aged 5yrs) (DCSF 2008). There is a normative

assumption that all children develop and progress sequentially regardless of their socio-cultural or minority ethnic background or earlier educational experiences. So the real decision-making for implementation by primary schools should be based on children's individual needs and contexts rather than any directives from the government.

Critics of leadership movement seem to propose that at all levels of the school system, the principles of social justice and the valuing of diversity must be held fast (Coleman & Glover 2010, 6). We start by clarifying what we mean by these terms. 'Diversity' has 'many and different' meanings (Coleman & Glover 2010, 6), but from a legislative stance, it addresses nine 'equality characteristics' currently protected in UK law: Age, Disability, Gender Reassignment, Marriage and Civil Partnership, Pregnancy and Maternity, Race, Religion or Belief, Sex and Sexual Orientation. Celebrating difference (Jehn, Greer & Rupert 2008; Lumby & Coleman 2007), valuing diversity (Coleman & Glover 2010) and minimising the impact of discrimination (Fiske & Lee 2008) lie at the heart of understanding diversity. Those leadership values underpinned by moral values of fairness and equal rights for a just society are crucial attributes to drive policy and practice forward (Coleman 2011).

We are interested to understand how leadership in multi and mono-cultural primary schools build individual and organisational capability and how they lead with values, like equity, fairness, respect and tolerance (Bell & Stevenson 2006, 143) particularly in the Early Years. As mentioned earlier, every school is different with different contexts, background and history, so each may 'interpret, articulate and implement' the concepts of diversity and equity differently (Bell & Stevenson 2006, 143). We are reminded by Gold (in Coleman & Glover 2010, 23), that, there may be conflicting values and can we ever be sure if all leaders hold the same values. She goes on to say that 'values are implicit in all of us… they guide every decision we make, even if we are not aware of this'. (ibid, 25) So the challenge for leadership in Early Years is how best they align different values in the interest of children and educational practice. The work of Lumby et al. (2005) showed how leaders in urban and rural organisational settings found it challenging in managing diverse staff. But with diverse workforce, Lumby et al. (ibid) found that the leadership required use of some different intercultural skills and competences that were not so evident where there were fewer staff from different backgrounds. Lumby & Coleman (2007) critique of diversity and equality in educational settings offers a refreshing viewpoint, stating that, supporting diversity amongst leadership may result in a `redistribution of power' which may appear uncomfortable to a dominant group (p.79).

Norte (2001) looked at how school leaders used their power and authority to create institutional opportunities for developing positive inter-ethnic communities. He suggested the need to review organisational structure, processes, staffing, content and infrastructure and Armstrong (2010) advocates the need for effective team management. Coleman & Glover (2010: 8) develop Gosetti & Rusch's (1995) observation for the need to look at society 'through a

lens that is not that of the dominant culture can be both exciting and instructive'. This research gives us an opportunity to look reflectively and build on our knowledge and understanding to lead on issues of social justice (Brundrett & Anderson de Cuevas, 2008: 258 cited in Coleman & Glover, 2010: 21). We move next to looking at theories of learning as this is an important consideration for ensuring that social justice ideals are embedded in the Early Years curriculum.

In English Early Years classrooms, learning by being active and interactive, and by exploring the environment, has gained universal status (Curtis, 1998). She suggested that play is not the only means by which children discover the world; the whole of their spontaneous activity creates their psychic equilibrium in the Early Years. This learning by doing theory has been accepted by English Early Years teachers together with the need to provide a free and spontaneous environment and the rejection of formal instruction.

In Early Years, learning through play aims to reflect the diverse society in which we live and challenge stereotypes. Diversity does not simply refer to heritage and disability, but also gender, nationality and culture, sexual orientation and age. Inclusive images are casual and incidental, meaning that all children are included as part of the landscape, rather than singled out for special attention. Seeing inclusive images is important so that everyone perceives themselves as equal. Inclusion in story books allows readers to become familiar with characters that may seem slightly different to them; look or behave slightly differently, or have a different kind of family, but are fundamentally just the same.

The varying and broader meanings of diversity have prompted a re-conceptualisation that takes account of complex nature of differences in children (Ng 2003; Graham 2007). These changes imply a move away from normative ideas that underpin categorisation of children (Petriwskyj 2010, 196) to more differentiated pedagogies supporting children with varied characteristics (Graham 2007). The argument posed by Petriwskyj (2010, 195), that, Early Years' leaders need to move away from surface level tinkering of the curriculum to focus on the deep hidden curriculum values and acceptance has some resonance with teachers in that field. With increased migration, changes to education will have an impact on the curriculum, and it is essential that Early Years' practitioners discuss the implications of diversity and equity issues on Early Years provision. Lynn Ang (2007), looked at the Curriculum Guidance for the Foundation Stage introduced in 2000 for all Early Years settings in England that catered for children aged 3-5 years, and commented that it 'raises questions and ambiguity' (p. 188) of how inclusion and diversity are addressed. She also advocates the need for deeper analysis of cultural difference if only to avoid the marginalisation of diversity and confer the 'privilege homogeneity through the language and culture of the dominant group' (p. 188).

A poststructuralist, social stance (MacNaughton 2005) offers us an opportunity to question and probe our own understandings of child education and helps us to critically reflect on the dominant discourse. As discussed earlier, Petriwskyj (2010), his evidence suggests the need to go beyond the rhetoric of

surface level adjustments of the EYFS (2012) curriculum to provide education that meets the diverse needs of children with their particular cultures and ethnicities that focuses on developing their critical conscious ability. We clarify these two concepts first in order to ground the understanding in rest of the paper. Culture is an amorphous concept borrowing its origins from different emphases and meanings stemming from anthropological to sociological and 'modernists' views. Dimmock (in Briggs and Coleman, 2007: 56) defines culture as an amalgam of values, beliefs and customs of distinct groups of people. Studying the influence of different cultures in schooling at different levels of policy implementation, like the macro- and micro-levels is helpful to reflect upon in this article. Dimmock (ibid) argues that by looking closely at 'culture' of different types of schools, like in multi-cultural and mono-cultural settings, there is an opportunity to see how 'subtle differences in values, relationships and processes' (p. 56) pan out. We shall be using the concept of cultures in this paper. Ethnicities in contrast is defined as a group of people based on a 'shared social experience or ancestry' (Wikipedia 2013). Implicit in the notion of ethnicities is how different school settings accommodate between different values, cultures and practice distinctive of ethnicities. Like globalisation is a multi-dimensional term, so is ethnicities, suggesting multiple values and cultures. The term multi-cultural is used in this article instead of multi-ethnicities as the latter has 'distinctive sub-groups of people within a society' (Dimmock in Briggs and Coleman 2007, 56).

Lumby & Coleman (2007) and Lumby (2010) believe that children are developing consciousness and preconceptions about diversity from birth. So focusing on interpersonal and inter-group relationships and nurturing a growing sensitivity to cultural difference (Lynn Ang 2007, 189), may not be enough in our view, requiring in Freire's (1970) terms, a process of conscientisation that precedes any transformative process. The process of conscientisation is perhaps where Early Year's practitioners need to look at their educational context and learn to deconstruct and reconstruct their beliefs and practices in pursuit of the Freirian perspective of participative, democratic educational experiences for children and adults. Early Year's practitioners may need to create time and space to develop the critical consciousness in their children. This is what Oliveira-Formosinho & Araujo (2011, 228) endorse as 'experiments in democracy', where there is respect for diversity 'in all its forms'.

Norte (2001) suggests a framework for analysing how issues of diversity can be developed in the curriculum, but this is the context of American schools but we feel that it is a good starting point for internal organisational dialogue to identify key priorities. Norte (2001) suggests that for curriculum design and implementation, you need to take a holistic, systemic review based on these five key elements: content, process, structure, staffing and infrastructure. Weiner (2003) offers similar views suggesting the need to look at structures, space (political) and people relationships. These ideas resonate with the development of Shields' (2009) transformative leadership concept of creating spaces in which

dialogue needs to occur to develop deep meaning and understanding of diversity and equity on how this links with current practice.

According to Shields (2009, 55), transactional leadership has 'a focus on exchange of mutual benefit' and transformational leadership has its 'focus on organisational improvement and effectiveness'. The latter concept calls for explicit discussion of issues of diversity for deep change to occur. Shields goes on to suggest the need for a systemic view of curriculum, to *explicitly* (our emphasis) address issues of inequity rather than talk in general terms about culture or ethnicity. Transformative leadership 'begins with questions of justice and democracy… it critiques inequitable practices and offers the promise… of better life' (Shields 2009, 55). At the heart of educational change is Shields' idea of dialogue to affect change which Freire (1970; 1998) calls 'dialogic relationships' (in Shields 2009, 57). Freire argues that without such relationships, 'education acts to deform rather than to transform' (Freire quoted in Shields 2009, 57).

Placing their values at the heart of their leadership is a mark of outstanding principals, referred to as value-driven leadership (Gold in Coleman & Glover, 2010). Many have argued (Gold in Coleman & Glover, 2010; Moore, George, & Halpin 2002) that principals' values gave the moral compass (Fullan, 2003) to help them navigate 'a hostile wider environment' (Bell & Stevenson 2006, 150). Fullan (2003) suggests that such a moral compass is vital to promote radical changes and improvement in EYFS practice at an institutional level. Developing critical consciousness of children and staff, through education, offers one such strategic direction that encompasses Access and entitlement through debate on issues of diversity and equity, and the potential for wider policy refraction becomes less. The cross-cultural theory (Thomas, 2008) demonstrates the need to be cognisant of high and low context cultures and to be mindful of managing both such cultures. Can EYFS curriculum reform confront the issues raised here about diversity and equity, social justice, fairness and ethics and help children and staff formulate for themselves their attitudes to such events and their consequences?

From analysing the literature, three main research questions emerged:

1. What does diversity and equity in Early Years mean?
2. How do practitioners develop innovative approaches in implementing diversity and equity in Early Years?
3. What are the challenges for leadership in linking diversity and equity in Early Years?

9.3 Methodology

We chose two types of English primary schools. Those which were multi-cultural/ schools (as explained earlier, with over 90% minority ethnic children) because their intake represented the large plural communities they were drawn from and the other schools were mainly mono-cultural/mono-ethnic (less than

10% minority ethnic children) due to their under-representation from minority-ethnic intake. Most of the schools were known to the researchers because they had visited the initial teacher trainees in these schools or had carried out previous research and therefore had good relationships with staff built over a number of years. This was seen to be strength, as staff were more open and forthcoming with their discussions. The negative side of this being, that as insiders we may have inadvertently succumbed to bias. But being fairly experienced researchers, we ensured that our protocol of interviews was followed rigidly, systematically and ethically and that where possible, we interviewed jointly and compared notes soon afterwards (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2010). Our driving principles of ethical educational research were of 'commitment to honesty' (Sammons 1989 as quoted in Busher & James 2007, 106), and 'respect for the dignity and privacy of those people who are the subjects of research' (Pring 2000 as quoted in Busher & James 2007, 106). Ethical issues (BERA, 2004: Online) were adhered to and prior to meeting the leaders, a letter of introduction and code of conduct for research(ers) were shown to the interviewees. The right to withdraw from research was clearly explained. Maintaining ethical integrity of all behaviours right from the start (Reardon 2006) was our paramount concern.

There were sixteen case study schools in total of the original sample of twenty. Bearing in mind Bassey's (2007, 143) definition on an educational case study research 'which entails being where the action is, taking testimony from and observing the actors first hand', this research can be classified as such since it satisfies all the criteria outlined that 'the researcher needs to collect sufficient data to allow him/her to explore features, create interpretations and test for trustworthiness' (Bassey 2007, 144). Each case study school was given a code, therefore, MCS1 – MC8 meant multi-cultural/multi-ethnic school 1-8 and MonoCS1 meant mono-cultural/mono-ethnic school 1-8.

We interviewed sixteen Early Years leaders in the sample schools as they were the key curriculum leaders in the area being researched. We also interviewed four head teachers (two each from the multicultural and mono-cultural schools) of the sixteen schools who have had experience in the Early Years age phase in order to get the holistic picture about the ways in which they were meeting the challenges of embedding social justice principles within the Early Years curriculum. So our total sample was twenty leaders from the sixteen schools chosen. We chose interviews as this gave us an opportunity to think about educational phenomena and how to investigate them (Morrison 2007, cited in Briggs & Coleman 2007, 13).

We chose schools where principals did have early years' experience and the focus of this article was on challenges faced by leadership in developing innovative practices. Given the small scale study, we had to limit the size and composition of our sample but are aware of the limitations of generalising from such a study. None of the sample group were from minority ethnic background, but in most settings, there were mixed staff by gender and ethnicities (like the teaching assistants), whose voices would have enriched the study if we had

time and scope to do and reflect on a longer study. Our focus was on leaders and leadership for innovative learning. The implications for analysis are that we were interested in listening to specific group of leaders demonstrating innovative practice in different settings and are cautious in advancing any grandeur conclusions without critical analysis of in-depth research data.

Our interviews, defined a 'conversation with a purpose' (Seidman 1991, 21, as quoted in Coleman 2004, 142) to share 'personal perception and experience' (Dimmock 2007, cited in Briggs & Coleman 2007, 63) were systematic by being carefully planned, structured and ordered. The interviews also afforded us the opportunity to '…gain insight into educational issues through understanding the experience of the individual' (Seidman 1991, 7, as quoted in Coleman 2004, 142). Considering that the field research was targeting key leaders from different schools intending to explore their perception of how social justice ideals were being implemented in the Early Years, we wanted to obtain as 'wide and as inclusive data as possible' (Denscombe 2003 as quoted in Fogelman & Comber 2007, 126). We assumed that the leaders in our sample schools will have a different level of understanding and experiences about social justice, so in our research design, we were careful to allow time and 'opportunity to discuss in more detail some areas of interest' (Aitken, 2011) by asking more open ended questions like why? where? and when? rather than how do you…? This data and its methodological integrity provide an analytical framework and a series of tools to all stakeholders working in schools. We wanted to ensure that our methodological approach was 'open to the scrutiny and judgement of others … and were…'subject to reflection and re-assessment by the researcher' (Morrison 2007, 15). Moreover, we were keen to ensure that the data collected could be debated internally by the schools to enhance their innovation capacity and hopefully, 'provide a conceptual framework and an action plan for getting from questions to set of conclusions' (Yin 1994, 2).

9.4 Findings

Based on the participants' perspectives, the findings emerged as descriptions of specific experiences of the concepts explored based on practice in each school. While there was presence of wealth of experience shared from the coded respondents, most appeared to give generic response to the questions posed. Only when probed further did the respondents articulate a deeper conceptual understanding of the issues raised.

1 What does diversity and equity in Early Years mean?

For some of the Early Year's leaders in each type of school sampled, **diversity** meant:

> Providing a learning environment that allows every child to achieve irrespective of their language, ethnicity, ability and interests. We are doing everything possible to

> prepare our children as global citizens. We have diversity training and induction. (MonoCS5)

> It is important to appreciate that everyone is an individual and has different experiences, interests and needs and when this is recognised then the best provision can be tailored to meet those individual needs'. (MonoCS7)

> 'Setting that will accept children from a range of backgrounds and not discriminate those from a minority background. We celebrate diversity. (MCS5)

> Having a realistic not stereotypical view of other countries/cultures. (MCS6)

In contrast, the head teachers of the mono-cultural and multicultural school said:

> Real welcome and inclusion, valuing experience and culture. We value diversity in all its forms and I am so lucky to have very good links with the local community to draw on expertise like language and cultural advice. Our role is to overcome cognitive and structural barriers faced by our members of the school community. This means changing the culture through promoting our values and vision. We have clear targets for diversity and monitor these targets. (Head teacher mono-cultural school, 3)

> Wide range of culture and nationalities (inclusion) in both children and staff, and supporting resources. We are encouraging all our learners to be active, questioning, inquisitive citizens and equipping them with such skills. (Head teacher, multicultural school, 4)

School leaders from both the mono-cultural and multi-cultural settings iterated that they 'found the challenges of the implementation of the EYFS very difficult whether it was managing with diverse staff or not'. In addition, these leaders cited the benefits of collaborations and partnerships with the local community to seek specific support or guidance on cultural issues and the ability to feel free to ask other leaders for help and support. The Early Years staff understood diversity as addressing and tackling issues of stereotypes, discrimination and ensuring their practices exhibited a level playing field for quality education that was personalised. This suggests that the ideal of social justice provides an impetus to overcome discriminatory behaviour towards 'others' and implies intervention to change organisational practice towards being more just.

For some of the early year's leaders in each type of school sampled, **equity** meant:

> Meeting the needs of all the children in my class. (MCS1)

> Making sure that all children have the same opportunity to Access all learning experiences. (MCS2)

> Everyone, staff and children has a right to be valued irrespective of background, ethnicity or ability. (MonoCS1)

> Children should feel valued and be free to express their beliefs and cultures. Equality is the right to feel equal. My head is a great mentor and I am learning so much from her. (MonoCS2)

Head teachers in the two contrasting schools thought the following as regards what equity mean for them:

> To be respected and given the best opportunities to achieve and learn. This is achieved through establishing a provision that reflects the individual needs, interests and abilities of everyone. We continually offer training and a formal mentor on equality and justice. (Head teacher, mono-cultural school, 1)

> Making children in the class feel that they are being treated equally so that they don't have the notion that certain children are seen to be the teacher's favourite! (Head teacher, multi-cultural school, 1)

Meeting individual young person's needs was cited by all of the case study respondents and supported the concepts of the right to equal resources and fair treatment to all. The degree of equitable provision, however, could not be identified through this small scale study suggesting the need for further targeted research on policy, strategy and operational issues. In most cases, equity was descried as respect and promoting human dignity that underpinned organisational ethos and culture. The head teachers supported the drive for equity and justice through formal training and mentoring programme. They also placed great value on having a formal mentor to guide staff in their initial years as EY leaders.

2 How do practitioners develop innovative approaches in EYFS of diversity and equity?
Diversity in the EYFS could be developed in these ways:

> It focuses on meeting the needs of all pupils, but with a particular focus on equity and diversity – which can be done through play. (MCS6)

> We already have a diverse setting with many different first languages. (MCS7)

> We have many activities that support the different cultures of our class. I want to learn and understand more about various cultures and customs. (MCS8)

> Not always very helpful to those children who have English as an additional language, especially within the communication and literacy sections as some of the criteria are hard to assess against unless you have expertise in the home language. Often their parents' English is not always comprehensive enough to have their input on these areas. (MonoCS4)

> The new EYFS focuses even more on meeting the needs of the children and therefore the play initiated through children's interests is paramount. We encourage role play and teach our children how to argue persuasively. (MonoCS5)

> We use our theme of the term to address aspects of diversity, currently our topic is ourselves and therefore we are looking at all different kinds of people. (MonoCS7)

The head teachers said about diversity:

> Employ staff from different backgrounds if opportunity arises and using guest speakers. But the most important role I have as the head is to promote positive ethos through our vision and values and behaviour every day. (Head teacher, mono-cultural school, 3)

> Encourage more volunteers to come in and help – therefore using their knowledge of how to make settings more diverse. Staff need additional information to update their knowledge and understanding so that multicultural practices can be delivered effectively. (Head teacher, mono-cultural school, 4)

> By having set guidelines to promote diversity and equality otherwise these areas can be ignored. We run regular staff development on a range of issues. (Head teacher multi-cultural school, 3)

> We promote the diversity of our school by recognising celebrations of other cultures, encouraging children to share key phrases in their home language with their class/school. The whole school is learning British Sign Language so that we can communicate with our deaf pupils/peers. (Head teacher, multi-cultural school, 4)

Many respondents of the case studies were able to showcase examples of good practice of diversity in education and how they prepared young people for the globalization of the twenty-first century. Equipping young children with the critical consciousness or reflective ability was seen by many respondents to tackle stereotypes and generalizations that can cloud judgements. Leadership at all levels discussed their vision of a democratic society and how their school structures and systems would help to ensure that the vision and values could be carried out through in promoting the EYFS practice.

Equity in the EYFS could be developed in these ways:

> Making sure that the opportunities offered through play are linked to children's interests regardless whether they are male or female, or their background. (MCS3)

> We use values based education where we recognise differences within the school community and the wider world and examine how everyone should have basic rights. (MCS8)

> EAL children are often disadvantaged because of the expectation they should be assessed in English. A child may be absorbing English and be able to understand it enough to efficiently Access and learn within the environment. However, their spoken language might not be on the same level and therefore they might not achieve their true potential if their understanding cannot be effectively assessed. They also may be confused by terminology in English and their home language and they may mix up languages. (MonoCS3)

> Making sure that the equal opportunities policy reflects the EYFS. (MonoCS7)

The head teachers in the mono-cultural and multicultural schools commented about equity:

> We as staff need to provide so many experiences to make learning as equal as we can, especially for those children who lack certain experiences. We have high expectations of all our learners. (Headteacher, mono-cultural school, 2)

> Ensuring our vision and values promote equity in everything we do, our curriculum, teaching, learning, staffing, monitoring, recruitment, training, links with the parents, the home and others. We have bespoke staff development courses for those aspiring to leadership, like minority ethnic staff into leadership, this is our succession plan. (Head teacher, multi-cultural school, 3)

Mono-cultural schools, like the multicultural schools, provided quality education and the leaders told us their practices were driven by values and behaviour that promoted diversity and equality. They were focused on staff development and endeavoured to mainstream diversity and equity, which meant that this was central to all aspects of policy and practice in their organisations. In addition, some of the case studies reported an example of women's network or leadership courses specifically for women or ethnic minorities.

School leaders collectively valued equity for all and ensured their systems and processes offered such a vision and values to all. Many of the respondents iterated that they believed they tried their best to provide high quality education and a level playing field even when they had limited resources. They identified a need to give every learner an opportunity to enjoy and succeed that was very personalised. Both formal and informal socialising and educational tactics were used to make the EYFS Accessible and to work for every child.

In multicultural school settings the main advantage appears to be the diversity of population. In such schools, many of the respondents told us about the celebrations and activities they undertook further enriched the curriculum. One head teacher told us why their school values of social justice and democracy underpinned his/her leadership actions and decisions. The head teachers were keen to grow their own leaders, so recognised the importance of mentoring and role models. The EY leaders described the importance of understanding other languages and cultures so that they could reach out to their learners and meet their individual needs better.

In mono-cultural schools, the challenges for linking diversity in the new EYFS are considered in the next section.

3 What are the challenges for leadership in linking diversity and equity in Early Years?
Some of the challenges identified by EY leaders were:
"getting help from other people such as parents and other members of the community" (MCS7); "spending time doing a little research into the needs of the diverse groups in my class". (MonoCS7) "and preparing visual resources, sign language" (MCS8). 'The support available to EY teachers/leaders came in the form of staff in our setting from a variety of backgrounds' (MCS2) and drawing on multicultural resources. Comments on some of the personal challenges in meeting the needs of diverse children centred on "not knowing if what you are doing is right or not" (MonoCS4); "wishing I could speak every language that is represented in my classroom (13 at last count)" (MCS6); "Parents may have an issue learning subjects they don't feel are relevant" (MonoCS6); "Making children aware of other cultures as they may not be educated about this – may only see stereotypes in the media" (MonoCS7) and "harder to Access sites such as temples – and not knowing where to go to get the Access and information you need" (MonoCS8).

For the head teachers, their issues were:

> Multicultural schools have more opportunities to show they are promoting equality but this may not always be the case if we don't monitor our successes. (Head teacher, multi-cultural school, 4).

> Mono-cultural schools are not promoting diversity and equity as their population is not diverse therefore they may feel that they don't need to cater for anything else - this is a false view that we need to challenge at every stage. (Head teacher, mono-cultural school, 2).

It is not surprising to see a range of needs and issues presented in these comments. This suggests that schools in our sample were at different stages of promoting their practice through the values of diversity and equity. Every member of the respondent we interviewed valued the importance in underpinning their practice or leadership actions and decisions through the issues of diversity and social justice. The emphasis however was on personalised, child-centred and holistic notion of curriculum provision by all the case studies. There were formal and informal structures and systems in place in the case studies that promoted the diversity and equity dimensions. Reaching out to parents was a priority for those schools who felt more explanation was needed about the values of diversity and equity. Here, reputation management was important as was demonstrating leadership with values. Head teachers were keen to point out to us that having regular discussions of values formed part of their daily rituals to establish understanding among all staff.

9.5 Discussion

Our reason for including the quotes above was NOT to disrupt the flow of our discussions. But we have addressed this (briefly) below where relevant. This study brought up the need to question and discusses how a commitment and promotion to social justice principles was demonstrated in the Early Years' practitioners working practices. The evidence presented examined how diversity and equity was promoted through the English EYFS curriculum and what remained the potential challenges for leaders and practitioners. The results of the case studies analysis reveal an overall thrust to underpin practice in the EYFS through values based principles of diversity and equity in both the mono-cultural and multi-cultural schools. In this article, the main values espoused by leaders are those demonstrating commitment to equity, and diversity. So for leader (MCS8), to offer opportunities to all learners, "male or female, or their background", and in contrast, leader (MCS3) acknowledged that "everyone should have basic rights". For leader (MonoCS5), the values close to their practice were those that "allows every child to achieve irrespective of their language, ethnicity, ability and interest" and developing every child to be "*global citizens*". For leader (MCS5), the values of having a non-discriminatory environment and acknowledging and valuing diversity were

essential as suggested in this observation, "… setting that will accept children from a range of backgrounds and not discriminate those from a minority background… We celebrate diversity".

The main strategies found in the case studies were linked with deploying diverse staff, (addressed already) where available in case study schools, to assist in the teaching, resource preparation and assessment of children. In the mono-cultural case studies, out-reach resourcing was the main strategy. Leadership in all schools was strong and very much founded on values-led and modelling good practice to community of learners.

These findings reinforce the findings of the numerous studies that have been conducted in the field of diversity and equity where diversity management was at the heart of good educational practice (Coleman & Glover 2010). In addition, these studies opened up the debate about diversity and equity in areas like the curriculum design, structures and systems (Norte 2001); people-relationship (Weiner, 2003); and transformative leadership (Shields, 2009). But to date, there are no detailed studies that map the link between EYFS with diversity and equity, although there are a few that look tangentially at theories on multilingual learning in early years settings rather than our focus (Issa & Hatt 2013).

9.5.1 Implications for Practice

Diversity and equity are part of the ideals of social justice and provide an impetus to overcome discriminatory behaviour (Coleman & Glover 2010, 7) and stereotypical approaches to quality EYFS curriculum. Norte's (2001) model of curriculum reform offers one model of change where, through dialogue, staff begin to see for themselves where to make connections. Leaders may want to support and drive such curriculum change and implementation through sharing good practice, giving staff time for dialogue and debate and thus an opportunity for all to change the culture of the organisation. Having regular discussions of values is an important first strategy in promoting diversity and equity (Coleman & Glover 2010 22). High success in the case studies may have shown that strong internal mentoring programme and peer group training and development. But we need to be cautious as the business of schooling has changed considerably as a result of accountability mandating a new (re)conceptualisation of the leader role in leading and managing for and with diversity (Lumby 2010).

The importance of this study suggests that a resourceful leader (Coleman, 2011) is the one that took risks, were open and transparent in their discussions and promoted transformative leadership behaviour which called for explicit and continuous discussion of issues of diversity and equity for deep and meaningful change to occur (Shields 2009). The concept of 'dialogic relationships' which Freire argues means that without such relationships, 'education acts to deform rather than to transform' (Freire quoted in Shields 2009, 57).

From analysing our data, we remain confident that our sample group were engaged in dialogue with stakeholders to promote innovative learning environment for all. It was happening more where you had more than one Early Year class in a setting or when Early Year and Key Stage 1 are working together in settings. It is isolated Early Years settings that may have not had the opportunity to work in this way due to geographic constraints. From our data it is not clear at this moment in time as schools work through the new EYFS curriculum. Our data is starting to show that our sample group were totally committed to demonstrate through their policies and practices the principles of equity, diversity and social justice, whether in multi-cultural or mono-cultural schools. This is evident from the quote from (Head teacher, mono-cultural school, 2) that we need to challenge the assumption that

> mono-cultural schools are not promoting diversity and equity as their population is not diverse therefore they may feel that they don't need to cater for anything else - this is a false view that we need to challenge at every stage.

9.5.2 Developing innovative approaches

Lessons learned from our study shows that innovative practices in the EY settings require a holistic approach to planning, monitoring and evaluation. The curriculum is child-centred and the structures and systems set up should be simple to use with the head teacher providing clearly focused directions on teaching and learning strategies that ensure the values are based on diversity and equity. Taking time and planning frequent communication are vital to effectiveness. In Early Years setting, the staffing is predominantly female and leaders are female. However, other settings had mixed gender workforce. We did not set out to investigate gender related issues in this research.

Thomas (2008, 122) describes in cross-cultural theory of high and low context cultures: 'In low-context cultures, the message is conveyed by the words spoken. In high-context cultures, a good deal of the meaning is implicit, and the words convey only a small part of the message.' Each of our case studies may want to reflect on their own positioning of the cross-cultural theory and see how they can become even more critically conscious in considering the importance of 'values of leadership on the culture and style of the organisation' (Coleman & Glover 2010, 56). We develop our analysis of the evidence against the model presented in Figure 2. This model was drawn up from synthesising a range of literature like Freire (1998), Norte (2001), Lumby and Coleman (2007), Shields (2009) and Gold (2010).

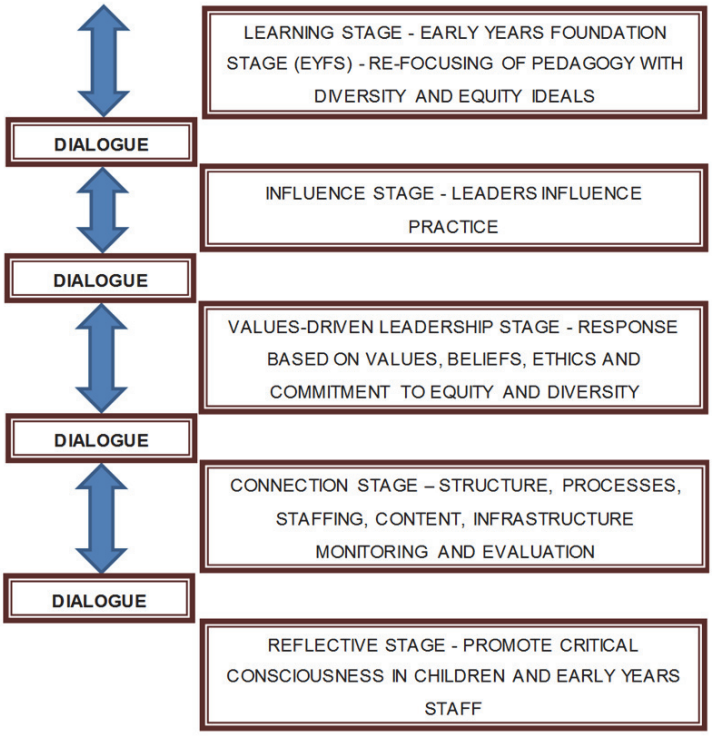

FIGURE 4 Diagrammatic plan (adapted and synthesised from Freire (1998), Norte (2001), Lumby and Coleman (2007), Shields (2009) and Gold (2010)

In the learning stage, the content in terms of the EYFS curriculum offers opportunity for a re-focusing of pedagogy through diversity and equity ideals. Here, Early Years leaders continue to develop their vision for EYFS through current policies and environmental scanning, to focus on identified school priorities and how to continue to implement the new EYFS curriculum. Next, the Early Years leaders may need to use their persuasive and influence skills to explain their vision in the influence stage of the plan. In this stage of the cycle, the development of inclusive staff cultures is very important. This is likely to be more important to ensure that new appointments are committed to the schools' mission of diversity and equity. The commitment to diversity, equity and values-driven philosophies may prove to be central for successful implementation and embedding of the EYFS in the values-driven stage of the cycle.

The connection stage arguably allows time, space and people to be organised and reconfigured in order for the implementation stage where curriculum planning takes place. Although we have not discussed in any detail the involvement of the community, its involvement seems a strong feature of good practice. This is based on Wenger's (1998) work on communities of practice, which encourages fostering of partnerships with various stakeholders.

Indeed, working beyond school boundaries is a pre-requisite if children are to achieve the Early Learning Goals by the end of the reception stage. The reflective, monitoring stage aims at charting progress on the action plans and priorities and the evaluation stage completes the cycle for next strategic intent and action. This is a crucial outcomes stage where we believe there is probable potential to develop the critical consciousness in children modelled by staff and leadership. We are aware that to accomplish the EYFS reform these equity reforms will require a new kind of leadership, one that requires resourceful leadership skills (Coleman, 2011), imagination, difficult dialogues and courageous actions. Transformative leadership through dialogue at every stage of the cycles mentioned in our plan may help to promote justice for the entitlement of every child and family, and of society as a whole. This may be a simplistic model but it offers an opportunity for debate to make sense by Early Years leaders in their own context and community settings.

9.5.3 Implications for Research

Findings indicate that the EYFS curriculum implementation is at a start of its change journey in English primary schools and the notion of diversity and equity may take time to implement and embed. But perhaps in good schools, structures and systems are already in place to gently ease such change, requiring further research. Each case study school may differ to some degree based on the drive from the leadership. For example, it may be that some of the multicultural schools had greater advantage in the practice of embedding diversity and equity, whereas the mono-cultural schools had to be more creative and be more resourceful in its implementation. Our findings also suggest that the mono-cultural schools could well benefit from twinning, clustering, and other forms of existing collaborations to share good, innovative practice. Here, *both types* of schools gain mutual benefit and could be researched further on how diversity and equality means in practice compared to theory. But none of the case studies used disadvantaged children's education because all of them believed in and actively promoted the principles of social justice and equal rights.

We are left with more questions than answers like, what are the characteristics of multicultural schools that might influence the practice of promoting social justice more than mono-cultural schools. Does the school context make a bigger difference than promoting diversity and equity alone? How do we know that using professional development for specific groups may lead to modelling good practice whether in multicultural or mono-cultural schools? Should we acknowledge the importance of including social justice issues in training for educational leaders and how do we know it may help model good practice? A final implication is that, is there about time that leadership at all levels are more risk takers and embraces the advantages of diverse workforce, even though managing and leading diverse staff has its own major challenges (Norte 2001; Lumby et al. 2005).

9.6 Conclusion

The most important contribution of the study is the reflective evidence showing that the new EYFS can be made to be innovative if links of diversity and equity can be clearly demonstrated. A critical feature emerges from our data, in that, good early years practice is child –centred and underpinned with democratic and social justice values. The discussion suggested that innovative early years practice in the case studies may vary, but fostering and developing a culture of change that embraces diversity and equity in the EYFS are more likely to be successful. Three central perspectives are produced. First, the EYFS curriculum offers a distinct and rare opportunity to embed the principles of diversity and equity through having regular discussions of values and establishing understanding among staff, parents and community. In this way, the management of change may seem to be less conflicting if ideas from all are considered. Second, it is imperative that leaders look at their existing policy and structures to establish and support implementation of diversity and equity without making it appear to be tokenistic. Third, it is important to take into account the dynamic nature of change process itself. Our study shows the importance of examining the meaning of diversity and equity and how it can be implemented in the new EYFS, because in a situation of change, these are concepts with much explanatory power.

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10 SCHOOL LEADERSHIP TOOLS IN PREVENTING STUDENT DROPOUT IN ONE FINNISH SCHOOL

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ABSTRACT

Finland has a relatively small student dropout rate compared with other countries like the United States. This paper examines one school in Jyväskylä municipality in order to determine the leadership tools they use in preventing student dropout. Qualitative research methods were used. While individual face to face interviews were used for data collection, thematic analysis was used in analysing the data. The principal, the school counsellor, special education teacher, and four other teachers were interviewed individually to collect the data. The conceptual frame for preventing student dropout such as engaging and forming a partnership with parents, looking for warning signs, making learning relevant and the classroom environments safe, and embracing a student – centred funding model are used.

The major findings include the existence of systemic leadership tool that are used for early identification of students at risk of dropping out. These leadership tools include the "Student Welfare Group" that brings in preventive measures that help to stop students from dropping out. Other existing tools also include the use of Wilma – an extensive communication tool linking the school, the parents, and the student involved. This study has provided practical solutions for curbing student dropout that can be emulated by other institutions around the world.

Keywords: student welfare, Wilma, student dropout, leadership tools

10.1 Introduction

Student dropout is still a hot topic among researchers around the World; on the one hand because it is affecting many countries, and on the other because

researchers themselves have not been able to unanimously agreed on what school dropout constitute of, and how it should be measured – this may be due to the huge global variation in the context of school dropout (Hammack 1986). In the United States for example, disparity exist on how school dropout rates are measured not just among districts but also among states (Hammack, 1986). This study views school dropouts as students who have left the school for whatever reason without passing their grade nine examination.

A few reasons made me to undertake this study. While the inconsistency in the measurement of student dropout by researchers made me curious, the fact that the total number of dropouts in Finland as reported by the Education Statistics Finland (2013) and Woodruff (2008) is low compare with other countries like the United States made me to believe that there must be a reason for the low rate of dropouts. According to Education Statistics Finland (2013, 1),

> 5.7 per cent of students attending education leading to a qualification or degree discontinued their studies and did not resume them in any education leading to a qualification or degree in 2010/2011 academic year.

Woodruff (2008) stressed on this low dropout rate in Finnish high school comparing them with 25 per cent in the United States in the year 2000. According to her, the *"World Economic Forum ranks Finland first in the World in enrolment and quality"* in tertiary education (Woodruff, 2008, 1). The third reason was from my knowledge on student dropout in my principal preparation training during my master's degree studies where I had been made aware of the extent the Finnish schools are safe and how Finnish students are provided with their "basic needs". I went into a middle school in the Jyväskylä Municipality to find out what school leadership tools were used in the prevention of student dropout in the school.

The principal, the school psychologist, the school counsellor, special education teacher, and three other teachers were individually interviewed. My main aim in this paper is to find out what leadership tools are used in the case school in preventing student dropouts. In order to achieve this main aim, my interview questions investigated the school leadership structure, student dropout rates, how students at risk of dropping out are identified, and the tools which are used in preventing student dropout. This study has helped in identifying more tools that should be used in preventing student dropout. It has also presented how some of the existing tools could be shaped to align with the culture and context of any society, and generally it has presented a new perspective in solving student dropout issues.

10.2 Background: A brief description of school leadership structure

The school leadership in the case school comprises of the principal, vice principal and others who are elected into the leading group and teams to run the school. As explain bellow, every teacher in the school belongs to a team or leading group.

As it can be seen from figure four (Figure 4), the principal is at the top of the school leadership structure, and is assisted by the vice principal. A leading group comprises of the principal, vice principal, three teachers who are elected into the group at the beginning of the every year, and one member who is a representative of the other staffs. This group has the responsibility of running the school on a daily basis. Teams with various functions exist and these teams include environmental, evaluation, student welfare learning, bullying, ICT, and teachers' welfare. These various teams have the responsibility of bringing up ideas that may help to shape their various domains and the school. Finally we have teachers and other staffs and student leaders. Based on the information I gathered from the interviewees, the people involved in leadership appear to work as a team.

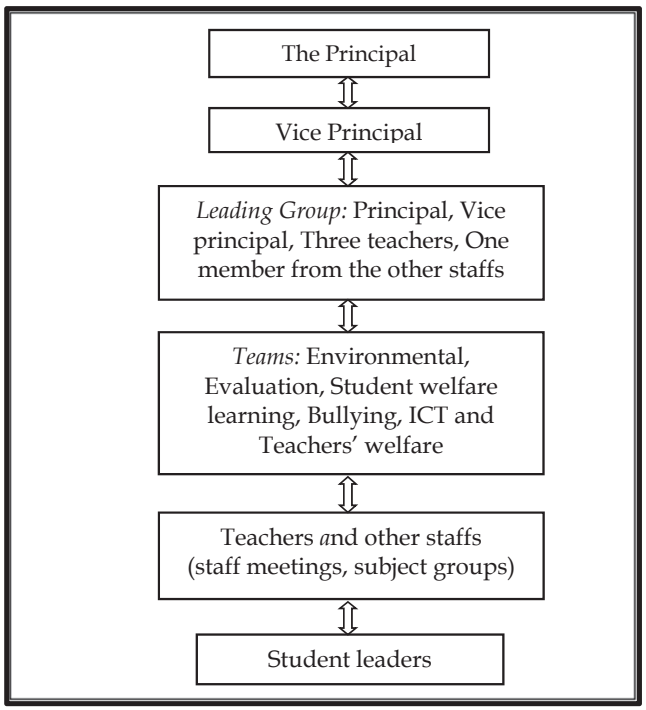

FIGURE 5 School leadership organizational chart in the case school

10.3 Literature review

This section explains why students generally drop out of schools, explains the predictors of student dropouts from previous research, and presents tools that have been identified by various researchers for the prevention of student drop out. These tools include engaging and forming a partnership with parents, building a relationship and/ providing Access to an adult advocate, looking for warning signs, making learning relevant and the classroom environments safe, raising the academic bar and scaling down the size of big schools, rethinking schedules, providing a community plan and investing in pre-school, and embracing a student centred funding model.

10.3.1 Why students dropout

In order to better understand why students drop out of school, it will be a good idea to hear from the dropout students themselves. In a study by the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, many diverse youths ages 15 to 25 explained that they dropped out because "They were bored, had missed too many days and could not catch up, spent time with people who were not interested in school, had too much freedom and not enough rules in their lives, and were failing" (ASCD 2007, 91; Molina 2012).

Alexander, Entwisle & Horsey (1997) have also argued that a family context may also be a reason for the dropping out of school. According to them if a family member who has been the main person behind the child's education dies, the child may eventually drop out of school. Also when parents do not value or like education, the child may also drop out of school because of lack of motivation. A child personal resource has also been identified by Alexander et al. (1997) as being responsible for dropout. Children with poor academic development and engagement do drop out of school. Alexander et al. (1997) also see children with negative attitude towards education like taking absences from classes, constantly going late to school, spending much time watching TV and even those who are aggressive also drop out of school. Molina (2012) believes that children who join this type of peer social network may eventually dropout too. Students who have been previously suspended from school or had poor academic patterns have been observed to also drop from school and in a report by Azzam (2007) 71 percent of the respondents stated that they had become uninterested in schooling in the 9 and 10 grades. Ensminger & Slusarcick (1992, 97) have broadly stated that

> Family background, family education expectations and values, parent-child interaction concerning school, the social integration of the family in terms of school, and a child's cognitive and behavioural performance

are the major influence of student dropout.

If we understand why students drop out of school, it may become easier to predict those who may eventually dropout based on those reasons. Pyle and Wexler (2012) have reemphasized the views of Heppen & Therriault (2008) that schools should establish a longitudinal database that allows teachers to track students' progress over a period of time – examining areas like grade retention, student absences, academic achievement, and behaviour. According to Pyle & Wexler (2012), this will help the school early enough to identify at risk students and preventive measures will be used to stop them from dropping out.

Alexander et al. (1997) and Suh, Suh & Houston (2007) have also suggested that background characteristics like family socioeconomic status, race-ethnicity, mother's age at the birth of the study child, and size of sib ship are good indicators. Concerning the family context as a predictor, Alexander et al. (1997, 88), emphasize three main areas: "family stressors" like dead, illnesses and divorce; parental attitude and value towards education, and parent socialization practice. Child's attitude towards self and school: A child who comply with school routines and do all the school work as required will not likely drop out. When a child is satisfied with his/her academic self-image and love being in school and achieving high score, his/herself esteem will be high and will not dropout. A school experience and peer social network are also good predictors. Students who have previously been suspended from school or those with poor academic pattern may eventually dropout (Suh et al. 2007). A student with a social network of dropouts may eventually dropout too (Molina 2012; South, Haynie & Bose 2007).

10.3.2 Tools for preventing student dropout

This study has taken a comprehensive review of tools used in preventing student drop out as suggested by previous researchers like Furger (2013), Brigeland, Dilulio & Morison (2006), ASCD (2007), Looby (2010), Pyle & Wexler (2012) and Bloom, Thompson & Unterman (2010). These tools include the engagement and forming a partnership with parents, building a relationship and providing Access to an adult advocate, looking for warning signs, making learning relevant and the classroom environments safe, raising the academic bar and scaling down the size of big schools, investing in preschool, rethinking schedules and providing a community plan, and embracing a student – centred funding model. All these tools are explained in details below.

Engaging and forming a partnership with parents

In many cases parent involvement in school decline as the child progresses in education, but continuous communication with the school and being updated with the child school schedule and progress towards graduation is very important (Furger 2013). According to Brigeland, Dilulio & Morison (2006, p. iv) "Sixty eight percent of respondents said their parents became more involved" in their education only when they were aware that their child was at the verge of dropping out".

According to Furger (2013) and ASCD (2007), engaging and forming a partnership with parents is very important for any successful result. American Psychological Association (APA) (2010, 4) supports this view by adding that "Partnership between schools and families to encourage learning" will help to produce positive results. To put this into practice, many schools are making schedule for parents visit. In some communities, meetings are scheduled in such a way that parents will visit the teacher in school while in others teachers visit the parents in their homes as is the case in California in the United State (Furger 2013). This teacher/parent partnership is very important especially in the upper secondary because the students are in a transition period. In some universities in the United States, this cooperation continues during the first and second year especially with students at risk of poor performance. (Furger 2013.)

Building a relationship and/ providing Access to an adult advocate

Teachers or trusted adults can make a difference in the life of students in determining whether the students stay in school or drop out. These advocates usually cultivate a good relationship with the students and support them based on their needs [academic, social and emotional] (Furger 2013; Pyle & Wexler 2012; ASCD 2007). According to Looby (2010) to show how important this relationship is, he explained that many successful students in the study reported that their advisors reviewed their academic progress, taught them about college and career, and that their advisors changed or supported their plans for college. APA (2010) has also emphasized that the teacher/student relationship should be caring. In Cameroon especially in boarding schools, there is usually a good student to student relationship. Students in form one and two usually have senior students at their disposal to advise and help them. (Furger 2013.)

Looking for warning signs

Searching for early warning signs is very important to give the teachers, school staff or parents the appropriate time to intervene (ASCD 2007). In a study by Bruce, Bridgeland, Fox & Balfanz (2011, 2) they explained that

> Early warning indicator and intervention systems represent a collaborative approach among educators, administrators, parents, and communities to using data effectively to keep students on the pathway to graduation. The best early warning signs are characterized by a combination of features that enable rapid identification of students who are in trouble; rapid interventions that are targeted to students' immediate and longer-term need for support, redirection and greater success; the frequent monitoring of the success of interventions; a rapid modification of interventions that are not working; and shared learning from outcomes. (Bruce et al. 2011, 2)

Furger (2013) identified these early warning signs as failing final grade in English and Math, taking absence for about 22 percent of school days, and not being promoted from 9 grades to 10. Once these early warning signals are discovered, preventive specialists will be made available to those students (Furger 2013). Pyle & Wexler (2012) have argued that identifying students who

are at risk of dropping out and providing timely intervention will help. They have suggested that teachers should develop a longitudinal student tracking system, use data on grade retention, student absences, academic achievement, and behaviour, and document information when students are absent from school.

Making learning relevant and the classroom environments safe

Boredom and disengagement hasten the dropping out of students. Teachers should continuously develop their pedagogical skills in order to improve their teaching methodology and the curriculum should be reform to meet up with the current career demand for the 21st century. If this is done, many learners will find connections between what they learn in class and future job demands. Internships will also help to make these connections. Pyle & Wexler (2012) have suggested that teachers should design studies that link what the student study with their career. This idea of making school or study relevant has also been emphasized by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development - ASCD (2007) and OECD (2012).

A safe classroom environment is also necessary for an increased performance in student learning. A safe school environment, cooperative learning and good classroom management will make learning enjoyable and help to keep students in school (Furger 2013; APA 2010). According to Mayer & Mitchell (1993, 1),"Punitive classroom environments have been identified as a major contributor to attendance problems". Pyle & Wexler (2012) have emphasized on the behaviour of the students. According to Pyle & Wexler (2012) and ASCD (2007), the teacher should teach the students how to communicate effectively with their peers, problem solving skills, and set standards for good classroom behaviour.

Raising the academic bar and scaling down the size of big schools

It will be a good idea to raise academic bar by setting high expectations and more challenging curriculum and there should be support for students with special needs and those who generally need help (Pyle & Wexler 2012; ASCD 2007). The APA (2010, 4) call it "High academic expectations of youth from both adults and peers". Pyle & Wexler (2012, 286) have suggested giving extra-time in small-group tutoring or individual support to those who need and "personalize instruction". According to Furger (2013), when the preparatory curriculum was implemented in San Jose School District in California in 1998, the dropout rate reduced from 18.2 per cent to 11.4 per cent. Also with big schools students easily get lost and cannot thrive. In a report published by Bloom, Thompson and Unterman (2010, 35) they examined the effects of the closing down of big schools, and establishing "Small Schools of Choice" (SSC) in New York City, and there were remarkable findings for small schools of choice. According to Bloom, et al, (2010, iii), "By the end of their first year of high school, 58.5 per cent of SSC enrolees are on track to graduation in four years compare with 48.5 per cent of their non-SSC counterparts ....". They

explained that the above positive effect was sustained and by the end of the fourth year overall graduation rates were increased by 6.8 per cent (Bloom, Thompson & Unterman 2010, iii).

Rethinking schedules, providing a community plan and investing in pre-school
Family responsibility and job have been a major impediment for many students to attend school. Scheduling evening classes for such working people will allow them to subsequently complete their studies. This is the current trend in many parts of the World. In Liberty High School in Houston there are evening and weekend classes thus giving the busy students flexible schedule. In Liberia, at Saint Augustine Episcopal High School, evening classes started after the Liberian civil war in order to give parents and other busy individuals an opportunity to attend school. Another way forward will be to develop a community plan whereby students serve in community projects and earn credits for it (ASCD, 2007). Attending preschool is an early investment that pays off later. In a publication by Melhuish (2011), it was proven that by the age of 11 many students who attended high quality preschool outperformed those who did not attend preschool especially in literacy and numeracy. (Furger, 2013.)

Embracing a student – centred funding model
Furger (2013) has suggested the embracing of a student – centred funding model whereby privileges are given to schools with more challenging population to gain more funding in order to meet up with their demands like hiring more teachers, meeting the needs of students with special needs, and implementing new programs. According to Furger (2013), many school districts in Boston and Chicago are using this model. The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (2007) has even suggested that the legal age of dropout should be raised to 18, and it has also proposed the view that dropout should be viewed "Not as a problem to be solved, but as potential to be fulfilled" (ASCD 2007, 92).

10.4 Method

Qualitative research method was used in this research. The case school was selected on the one hand because of Accessibility. My colleague was the principal of the school for many years and he knew the current principal quite well. On the other hand, this convenient sampling method was used because Finland has succeeded in drastically reducing school dropout rates throughout the whole country thus providing a homogenous system. Due to this relatively low student dropout rates in Finland with 4.0 per cent "In upper secondary general education" (Education Statistics Finland 2013, 1), investigating into one school that has succeeded in reducing student dropout was the best way to understand what tools they had in place for this dropout prevention. Data collection was mainly individual face to face interviews. After interviewing the

principal, school counsellor, special education teacher and the school psychologist, three other teachers who were free and willing to take part in the interview were randomly selected from those who were available in the staff room at the time. The principal used a power point to demonstrate how the student welfare group works and "Wilma Demo" to explain how Wilma was being used in the school as a communication tool.

Respondents were individually interviewed. The interview questions were divided into four sections; section one investigated about the school leadership structure and section two found out the actual rate of the students who dropped out of school between 2009 and 20012. While section three was about the systems in place that were used to early identify students who were at risk of dropping out, section four seek to find out what tools were in place for the prevention of student dropout. Thematic analysis was used. While some of the themes were new, others were similar to those identified in the previous literature by researchers like Neild & Balfanz (2006), Looby (2010), Pyle & Wexler (2012), and Melhuish (2011).

10.5 Results

The findings of this study can be broadly summarized as follows: There is shared supportive leadership that promotes a collegial relation among the staff. There is a well-functioning system that predicts students who are at risk of dropping out of school. There are tools like the student welfare group, Wilma, forming of a partnership with other stakeholders, student teacher trust building and different curriculum for special need students that are used in preventing student dropout.

10.5.1 Constant search for predictors or warning signs of student dropout in the case school

When it comes to predictors of student dropout, the principal believes that absenteeism from school is a good indicator. She explained that after every course the number of students who were absent the most numbers of times are collected. The list is taken to the school welfare group and they decide on what to do. She also explained that the student result in every subject is another indicator. The principal explains that there is also teachers' evaluation where teachers discuss with students and predict from the quality of their discussions if they may dropout or not. The student welfare group tries to find solutions to every problem.

According to the special education teacher they usually get information about student who might eventually drop out from the primary school and from parents. Class teachers are invited to the student welfare meetings and the class teacher helps to give them some prior knowledge about the student who might drop out. Troubled students are usually put in different groups and they

include students with motivation problems, students who skip classes and those who have poor grades and according to her these are indicators of dropout.

The English teacher explained that when students do not attend classes, when they do not do their homework, these are signs that something wrong may happen. "I have not seen 4 to 5 students in three weeks, and they do not come to school at all". She also explains that another predictor of student dropout relates to friends' influence. She believes that English is an easy subject to teach. According to her, with a little effort students can do well in the subject because they use English on a daily basis. She explained that "There is a student who comes to class ones in two weeks and she still does well", and that sometimes when the English teacher does not have classes in the morning, she passes through the grocery store on her way to school to ask students to come to school.

The Finnish teacher had the same view with the principal that absenteeism is one of the indicators that they use to predict student dropout. She listed some of these predictors to include when a student is not regular in school, when the homework is not done on time, and when there is lack of motivation, for example when the student is in class but does not want to study. She explained that sometimes this type of students "hang outside" when the class is going on. According to her, the first sign is usually the lack of interest and then the absences.

According to the Home Economics teacher, if students struggle with their lives, have difficulties in studying, and /or perform poorly in evaluation, and according to the Swedish teacher, students who do not do their homework, have difficulties in understanding the subject, lack of interest in school, among others may eventually drop out of school.

10.5.2 Student dropout number per year

This section presents the student dropout rate from 2009 to 2012. As it can be seen from the student dropout diagram bellow only four students dropped out of the case school between 2009 and 2012. As one teacher rightly explained, the dropout rate is not big, "they dropout when they go to a 'bigger school', when they are more older and their parents cannot control them so much and they will drop out". She continued that

> I belong to one group in the city that we work together to solve these problems of dropping out. I know some of my students who had problems here and when they moved to the other schools, they dropped out. Students do not drop out in our school because they are still young and they also get a lot of help. When they get older they will have to look after themselves but this does not work like this and that is when they dropout.

As it can be seen from table four below, only four students dropped out of school between 2009 and 2012 (one in 2009/2010, two in 2010/2011 and one in 2011/2012). This number of drop outs seems correct because it was double-

checked by the principal from the school records. Some teachers like the special education teacher were not certain if students actually dropped out from their school and this again stresses the unavailability of a unanimous definition of student dropout. "I do not know if any student actually dropped out because we have a system that if a student does not pass his or her exam, he or she is sent to a special school", the special education teacher had explained. The Finnish teacher was not also certain about the number of students who have actually dropped out of their school.

> When it comes to students dropouts, I do not really know because I teach hundreds of students with three other teachers. I think they don't really drop out because they go to other schools. They are still young and they cannot just disappear. They usually drop out only when they go to Upper Secondary School

TABLE 4 Student dropout number per year

Year	No. dropout
2009 – 2010	1
2010 – 2011	2
2011 – 2012	1

She explained that it may be only one student has left the school who is in the hospital because his condition does not allow him to remain in school. When presented with the dropout rate statistics, and what constituted student dropout in this context, she agreed that the statistics given by the principal on student dropout should be correct.

10.5.3 Tools in preventing student dropout in the case school

Student welfare group

As the principal explained and also from the short power point she presented, this group comprises of the principal who is the chairperson of the group, the school psychologist, school nurse, and social worker. Depending on the case, the special education teacher, class teacher [a teacher who is in charge of the class] and/or student advisor may also be invited. The privacy of the student is respected. This group meets every week and their main target include; to improve the physical and psychological well-being of the pupil, solve acute problems, engage in multi-professional discussions, make decisions, and do practical work in solving student problems. They decide on cases to tackle, various cases are collected from the social worker, special education teacher, and only very important cases are sent to this group. In the student welfare group, students are supported and given special education.

According to the principal, "All the students in our community between the ages of 13 and 16 attend our school with the exception of the deaf and the blind that are sent to another school". She further explained that all students with special needs are integrated in their school and that there are special assistant teachers assigned to the special need students. There is a meeting where the student, parent and teachers discuss how to handle each special need student's problem.

The principal elaborated that

> When I came to this school there used-to be about 10 cases at a time, but with the institution of these small groups there are only about 4 to 5 cases each time",

So there is much time to look in to each case. She stated that

> Dropout cases dominate most of the discussions and it has become a big problem today, because the mental wellbeing of the students has been affected. Sometimes they do not have the strength to come to school. Sometimes there are family problems too like divorce, parent mental problems like depression due to unemployment and sometimes these parents just stay away from all social activities and are cut-off from the outside world. They become isolated and drag the children into the system and that is very sad.

She regretted the fact that sometimes students spend a lot of time on the computer at night and summarized her views in fighting student dropout as follows:

> I have been doing this for 20 years and the most difficult cases are those whose parents are mentally ill. This is a difficult group for social workers because the problem to an extent is not big enough to be taken to the hospital, and to another extent it is really challenging and is preventing students from coming to school.

The principal concluded that in the student welfare group they evaluate what they have done so far and the student is still not coming to school, and adopt different strategies. The school social worker networks with the social worker that works in the family. Both social workers worked as a team. In her school, teachers also work as a team with the social worker. According to the principal, usually the social worker in a team of a minimum of two members meets the student or parents and "I think that is shared leadership" – she emphasized.

Wilma as a communication tool

Wilma is a communication web interface for student administration. The teacher concern, parents and the student have passwords to log into the site. It is own by Starsoft company. Currently it is used by many schools in Finland for various activities like the registering of courses, checking grades, read announcements and register for absences. Parents can also use Wilma to see how the child is doing in school and communicate with the teachers. I had a discussion with the company representative and I was given the permission to add this website for Wilma demo, details about Starsoft and how Wilma actually functions. (<URL: http://www.starsoft.fi/public/?q=fi/node/6995>)

Every student in the school and parent has a password to login. Different subjects are written down and how these subjects are taught, how the student is evaluated, who is teaching the subject, grading, absences, behaviour and other aspects. Parents can log into the system and see what is going on in school. Parents sign at the beginning of the school year and promise to check out Wilma every week. For those who do not have computers like new immigrants, papers are sent to them every month.

There is a Finnish law which requires that all students in the special system are evaluated at least once a year to see what has been done and what needs to be done the following year. The principal decides if a student needs special education. After one year for example, the principal will also evaluate if the student still needs it or not. The principal explained that there was a student she just evaluated and sent back to the normal classroom because that student no longer needs special education.

Working in partnership with other stakeholders

This partnership includes parents, family social worker, police, primary school, and high school. According to the student counsellor, it is her duty to meet parents very often. "Yesterday I had five meetings with parents and their children". Sometimes the school psychologist is in these meetings. She explained that they tell the parents what parents should do at home, for example, making sure that the child goes to bed on time and also gets up on time to come to school.

> I spoke for example with one student today and we agreed on what the student has to do and we will meet again next week. I motivate the students to do their school work even though they may have problems at home like the father drinking too much.

She explained that she tells the students that it is very important that they come to school so that they can make their lives better. She has been in her school for quite a long time and that she communicates with students often.

She also explained that it is very important that they meet many different people outside the campus, for example the police, the social workers from the other schools - especially those from the high school. "*I can help them when my students go to their school*". She meets the police when the student has done something wrong. She explained that in the hospital there is a psychiatric school and that she was there the day before because one of her students is there. The student has been there for three months and she goes there once in three weeks. They usually meet together - child, parents, and the new teacher who is the psychiatrist.

> We meet together and plan on what to do. Even though I have been there for a long time, sometimes I face challenges and I do not know what to do because the problem may be so big.

The principal explained that they try to solve the problems in small groups and that no one works alone.

The school social worker networks with the family social worker and they work as a team. In school teachers also work as a team with the social worker. According to the principal usually the social worker in a team of a minimum of two members meet the student or parents. The English teacher also explained that they usually talk together and see how they can help. Sometimes the school psychologist goes to their home to see how the situation can be resolved.

> Usually if students do not come to my class I can go to the class teacher or principal and talk to them. Usually these students are not only from my class. Other subject teachers also notice the same students too.

Student/teacher trust building

While the principal explained that the privacy of students is respected by inviting only teachers who are directly concern with the student problem, the school counsellor explained the importance of building trust between her and the students. According to her, it is good that they have more time for the students and help them as often as possible. "It is also good that they trust me and can open up to me. The students trust me that I do not tell others some of the things we have discussed together". She also explains that, usually at the beginning when the trust is not yet there, students hesitate to tell her everything, but with time when trust has been built, the students will open up more to her and she can help them more because she understands the situation better.

> "When students leave our school they usually come back, sometimes 20 years later to say 'hello I am fine now'. Tomorrow I am going to one upper secondary school to hear how my former students are doing".

According to her, her work needs time to build trust. She concluded that she likes her work, even though it is challenging. She continues that ones you have done the work for a long time you will become used-to it; "students listen to me here better than my own children because I am not their mother - I have 5 children".

The Principal had also explained that the school counsellor meets every student often and discuss with them, and that the school counsellor also keeps notes for every student. The school counsellor hears from other teachers, for example students who do not come to school and investigates the reasons for the absences. She believes that some students have drug problems, and even though this affect only a small number of students, it is a challenging problem, and some also have problems at home. The student welfare group usually meets on Wednesday. The Home Economics teacher had also explained that she encourages them to keep on coming to school, makes the students to understand that they are good in something, and makes the work easier for those students who fine the subject difficult.

Different curriculum for special need students

The special education teacher is responsible for designing individual curriculum for students with special needs. She explained that if there are

courses that students have not passed "I usually come in with special education, try to motivate them, and help them with those courses that they are failing in". She works with the students as a caring adult to make them succeed. If a student does not come to school "I will call, hello this is Jenny, this is a school day -do you remember? Please come here now". She also contacts the parents and social worker to explain the situation. She explained that teachers do not give up; they always repeat the same thing and encourage the parents to send the child to school. After school she goes to the next level and informs the teacher what the student really need.

The English teacher also explained that she gives work tasks according to the student's level. Students with special needs are given easier tasks that they can do. According to her, "We practice learning by doing and we make sure that the environment is safe and students do not bully others. Students must feel safe before they can come to school". She also explained that during evaluation different aspects are taken into consideration because there are students who can speak very well and if we only evaluate them base on writing for example, then these students may not get good grades. The Swedish teacher also confirmed that there is a special education teacher who helps the students who need more help and that they also arrange for extra lessons after school for students who need extra help.

10.6 Discussion

The study identifies a wide range of warning signs that the school use to predetermine those students who are at risk of dropping out. These warning signs include: absenteeism, poor student result, teachers evaluation, information from the previous primary school, from parents, from class teachers and from friends students associate with, students who do not do their homework, lack of motivation, lack of interest in studies, students who struggle with their lives, and those with difficulties in understanding the subject. The study also signals some of the challenges in defining precisely what school dropout is. While some teachers actually doubted if the students actually drop out, the final statistics used in the study measured school dropout as the number of students who left the school for one reason or the other including those students who did not pass their grade nine examination and decided to transfer to another school in the municipality (OKSA) that takes care of these type of students in order for them to continue with their studies.

The findings present us with new tools which can be used in preventing student dropout. The student welfare group (not very new in Finnish context) led by the principal determines students who need special education and the city provide the resources so that the education is made available to those who need it.

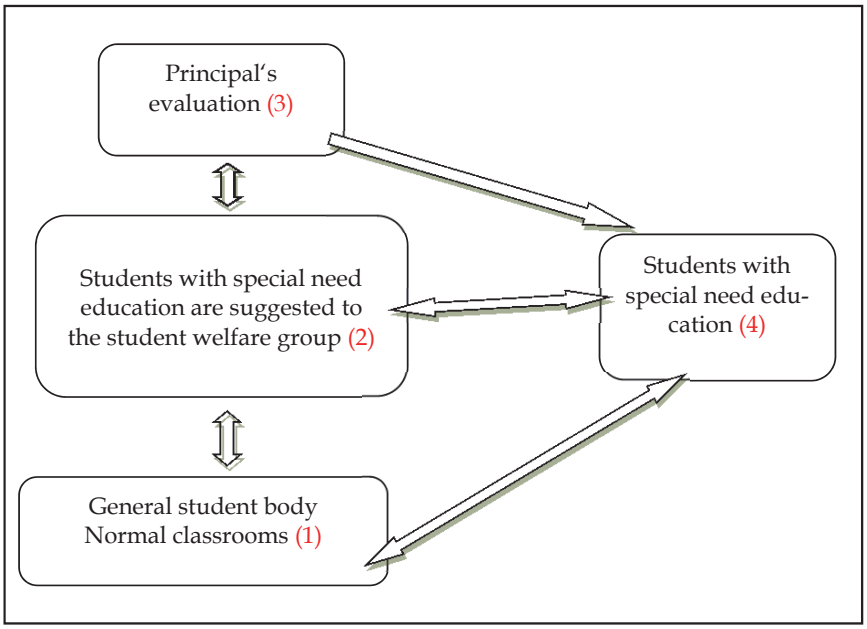

FIGURE 6 Students with special needs evaluation process

As it can be seen from figure 5 above, students who need special education (general student body normal classrooms - 1) are suggested and the list is screened and sent to the student welfare group (2). In the student welfare group the students are evaluated again by the multi-professional group and those the group deem necessary to be given special education are agreed on. The principal is a formal special education teacher and she understands these problems better. She must sign the final decision giving any student special education (3). The principal then informs the municipality who provides funds in order to provide these students with the additional education they need (4).

The special education teacher together with the multi-professional group is responsible for the provision of this special education for every student in the group (4). It is also important to note that these students with special education work in small groups, sometimes classes are arranged after or before their usual classes, and sometimes they are part of the normal classroom while being given additional help (4&1). An assistant teacher is specialized in leading the small groups and they also work as a team. It was also explained that special education is given to students only in the areas that they need most and that students are kept in the normal classrooms as much as possible (4&1). At the end of every year, the multi-professional group evaluates every special need education student and determine if he/she still needs it again. Students who no longer need special education remain in their normal classrooms (4&2). Sometimes the special education may just be in one subject area and it ends as soon as the objective is achieved.

The study has not only presented us with new tools which can be used to prevent student dropout such as the student welfare group and the used of Wilma, it has also presented other tools which have been identified in previous literature such as forming of a partnership with other stakeholders, student teacher trust building, and different curriculum for special need students. The case school has also established a longitudinal tracking of students' progress over a period of time [from primary, middle and high school] (Pyle & Wexler 2012; Heppen & Therriault 2008). Other tools which have been identified in previous literature that were not identified in the study included investing in preschool, the embracing of student–centred funding model, rethinking schedule and providing a community plan, and scaling down the size of big schools. An understanding of the context and culture of the Finnish society may help to explain why the student dropout rate is very low in Finland. More explanation on this is given in the next section "conclusion".

This Finnish context and culture have been elaborated upon by researchers like Pulkkinen (2012) in his Finnish education and child raring "Ten pillars of a good childhood". Pulkkinen (2012) uses these pillars to explain why Finnish education is outstanding in the world. Some of these pillars include:

> Safe places to live and learn, with Access to health care, adequate clothing, and nutritious food, education that develops the full capacities of the child—cognitive, physical, social, emotional, and ethical, supportive, nurturing, child-friendly communities, growing independence and decision-making, and children and young people participating in community life. (Pulkkinen 2012, 2-8)

While these pillars give us an insight of what is preventing Finnish students from dropping out of school, I would like to end with this thought provoking quote "If you sow two identical seeds in two different environments, you will have two plants of strikingly different size and strength". (Pulkkinen 2012, 1)

10.7 Conclusion

This study has added to the abundant existing literature new tools which can be used in preventing student dropout such as the student welfare group, and Wilma. It has also elaborated on how other existing tools are used in the school for the prevention of student dropout. In order to better understand why the student dropout rates are quite low in Finland (Education Statistics Finland 2013) compared with other countries like the United States (Institute of Education Sciences 2012), it will be necessary to also understand that there are other systems in place that help to prevent student dropout from the way the society is organized. These other systems include the Finnish welfare system, its social security system, and free education at all levels and free food program for all schools. Of course, the decentralisation of education has given municipalities, teachers and other stakeholders the power to effectively handle school dropout issues at all levels (including the school, family and society) and with good

support and resources provided. According to Viana & Rullán (2010), the reasons for low student dropout rate in Finland include the following:

> Finland has a good student support services, teachers have more academic freedom, social inequality exist in a smaller scale, schooling including universities, and health services are free, and teacher training is more vigorous. (Viana & Rullán 2010, 2)

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12 ISER SYMPOSIUM POSTERS

During the second semester of the studies in Master's Degree Programme in Educational Leadership, the students prepare Research Proposal for the Master's Thesis. Cohort 2012-2014 presented their proposals preparing posters based on their Research proposal. In the end of the semester there was a conference day when posters were presented to the peer student and IEL staff.

Posters were also presented during the ISER -conference. At the same time poster presentation gave a possibility for the students to get feedback from the international audience and practice having a poster presentation in an international conference. The posters start from the next page.

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LEADERSHIP ROLES OF TEACHER TRAINEES IN GAMBIA PRIMARY: A CASE STUDY OF TWO PRIMARY SCHOOLS

ALHAGIE M.S JABBI

BACKGROUND

- Profile and history of The Gambia
- Education Policy of The Gambia
- Teacher Education College
- Teacher training program
- Teacher Education Curriculum

AIM OF MY RESEARCH

The aim of my research is to examined the leadership roles of teacher trainees in Gambia primary schools and to find our weather leadership responsibilities of teacher trainees is developing their education in teaching practice or if it is affecting quality in developing their education or the effects of leadership roles of teacher trainees in Gambia school system.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. What are the roles of teacher trainees in the school?
2. What kind of leadership roles are assigned to teacher trainees?
3. How are teacher trainees contributing in the development of the school?
4. What contribution do teacher trainees make in school administration?

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The central theories and concepts of my research are the teacher education programs. This is related to my topic as teacher trainees are important components in the teacher education program. I will review

- Teacher training in Finland
- Teacher training in western world citing UK and US.
- Teacher training in The Gambia college.
- Teacher leadership.

RESEARCH APPROACH AND DATA COLLECTION METHOD

- My research approach will be qualitative approach and I will collect my data in Gambia.
- I will use interview as a method of collecting data
- I will interview two teacher trainees from each school
- I will also interview on headmaster, education officer and one staff from the teacher training college.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THIS RESEARCH

- To determine whether teacher trainees tasked with leadership has in any way contributed to the progress or deterioration of quality education
- To determine if teacher trainees are ready for leadership roles
- To find out if they have any form of training in leadership.

RECOMMENDATION

After completing this research, I would recommend for further studies in this area.

LEADERSHIP FOR SOCIAL JUSTICE

AND EQUITY IN EDUCATION:

UNDERSTANDING THE FINNISH PERSPECTIVE

By
Narayan Bhatta

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

- **Context of the study**
  - Finland's historic success in PISA
  - Equitable school outcomes
- **Nordic Welfare State ideology and Social Justice**
- **Global Education Reform Movement**

LITREATURE REVIEW AND THEORITICAL FRAMEWORK

Leadership for social justice and equity in education
- Culture of Learning
- SCLCP in class rooms
- Inclusive Education Policies
- Special education services
- Respect to individual capability and dignity
- Individualized support
- Formative and diagnostic evaluation...

Political-economy of educational policies
- Curriculum planning and practice
- Education governance
- Globalization and education for 24/7 global knowledge economy
- Educational institutions as economic organizations
- Neo-liberal capitalism VS Nordic welfare state ideology
- GERM VS The Finnish alternative approach

- **Ethical and responsible leadership**
- An educational leader is an ethical leader
- Moral purpose of education

THE AIM OF THE STUDY

- To understand the reform process in Finnish basic education since 1970s from the perspective of leadership for social justice and equity .

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1 How has Finland succeeded in ensuring social justice and equity in education since the 1970s?

2 What makes Finland distinct from Global Education Reform Movement?

RESEARCH METHODS

- **Qualitative inquiry**
- **Document Analysis– A thematic meta-synthesis of Finnish basic education policies since the 1970s**
- **1 to 2 selected interviews**-educational scientist and expert who have been at the center of these reforms.
- **All together**, the study will be a **'social histori-**

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUIDY

- Reveal the reasons behind Finland's success in educational excellence with repeated top performance in PISA
- Examines political economy of educational policies determining justice and equity aspects of education.
- Strengthens the alternative way in international educational reform movement.
- Stands as a moral support to inclusive education policies and Education For All, MDG agenda.

LIMITATIONS

This study is unable to observe the multidimensional complexities of 'justice and equity' in everyday practice in school class rooms.

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The School Leadership Perspective on the Impact of the National School Feeding Program in Ghana

By
Baafi Darko

Introduction

Background

America
- Children Aid Society of New York in1853
- Philadelphia in 1894

Europe
- Bradford Act in 1870 in UK
- Free school lunch in 1880`s in Germany
- Netherland Royal Decree in 1890`s
- Finnish School meal in 1948

Africa
- South Africa School Feeding in 1992
- Ghana School feeding in 1950`s

The Aim of the Research

To find out the school leadership perspective on the impact of the National school feeding program in Ghana

Key Words
School Feeding, School Leadership, Nutritional Needs

Research Question

. What is the school leadership perspective on the impact of the national school feeding program?

Literature Review

. Enrolment, attendance and retention
. The school feeding and take-home content have been proven to be effective tools in improving enrolment and reducing dropout rate among children.
. The cost of pupils` schooling
. The amount of money spent on food by children is minimized with the school feeding. It improves families' income.
. Health needs
. The fortified meals served in schools are effective means to address nutritional deficiencies in for example iron and iodine.
. Alleviate short and long term hunger
. The meals provided to pupils reduce short term hunger and serve as vehicle for meeting the nutritional needs
. Pupils' psychological/Cognitive development
. The free meals go a long way to enrich the brain to enhance learning process.
. Improvement in pupils` performance
. The school feeding and its nutritional value goes a long way to enhance outputs of pupils.
. Performance of the pupils
. The pupils' performance is enhanced with an available nutritional meal which supports cognitive development and output of pupils' work.
. Improve household food security
The take ration arouses and sustains the interest of the pupils in schooling. Families are motivated to push the pupils to school because of the take home benefit of food.

Finance/Leadership Structure

Dutch Gov./Gov. of Ghana

National Level

Min. of Finance, Agriculture & Health

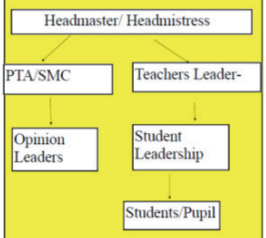
Regional Level

Min. of Local Gov., Agriculture & Health

District Level

Dist. Assemblies, Coordinators &

School Leadership



Data Collection Method

Qualitative Method
School Selection
Interview Design
Focus Group Interviews
Ethical considerations of the study

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Peer-Group Mentoring as a Tool for Professional Development

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INTRODUCTION

Peer-group mentoring (PGM) is a new model of supporting teachers' professional development in Finland. The purpose of this article is first to describe how Finland provides this peer-group mentoring support in their educational system. Furthermore, this research contains a quantitative analysis of the experienced impact of participation in PGM on the professional development of Finnish teachers in general and vocational education. Supporting teachers is a challenge for education systems all over the world. Mentoring is seen as one of the most common support systems in the induction phase (Jokinen, Heikkinen, & Morberg, 2012). Access to effective early career support (induction) programmes, and adequate mentoring support should be provided throughout teachers' careers (European Commission, 2010).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- How do general education and vocational education teachers experience peer-group mentoring in their professional development?
- Are there differences between general and vocational teachers in their experiences?
- To what extent perceive participants of PGM to be supported in regard to professional, personal and social dimensions of professional development?

DATA COLLECTION METHOD

Data were collected from participants in peer-group mentoring meetings. Quantitative research methods were used. 69 teachers in general education and 47 teachers in vocational education completed an online survey. (n=116)

CONTEXT FINLAND

Finland is an interesting case for different reasons:

- The reputation of the Finnish educational system is highly valued because of the leading role in the PISA results.
- Finnish teachers still have an important and respected role in society (Sahlberg, 2012).
- The number of applicants in teacher education is high. This increases the opportunities for universities to select the best students based on academic skills and motivation. Consequently, Finland gets good teachers who in turn achieve good outcomes. This process is named the 'positive circle of recognition' (Heikkinen, 2003). Teacher education is research-based. The purpose is to cultivate a research-oriented attitude in teacher practices.
- Finnish teachers own a high level of autonomy. This results in a significant amount of power in school-based decision-making concerning operational contents and policies of the school (Välijärvi et. al, 2002; Välijärvi, 2005).
- The Finnish educational system is not controlled by an inspectorate system. This fact affects the way in which peer-group mentoring takes place. No elements of assessment, standardization or control are involved.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The phase of induction is an important phase in the lifelong process of development of teachers' professionalism. Induction is a systemwide, coherent, comprehensive training and support process that continues for 2 or 3 years (Wong, 2004). It constitutes an intermediating link between the initial teacher education and a starting point for continuing professional development (Fransson & Morberg, 2001; Gold, 1996; Wei, Darling-Hammond, Andree, Richardson, & Orphanos, 2009).

Bell and Gilbert (1996) described three dimensions in their model for achieving teacher development. A professional, social and personal dimension is involved. The European Commission (2010) confirms that induction programmes should contain these three dimensions. This implies that beginning teachers need three basic kinds of support: personal, social and professional support, as displayed in Table 1 (European Commission, 2010).

Table 1 Support required by Beginning Teachers (European Commission, 2010)

	Personal	Social	Professional
Aims	-Develop identity as teacher -reinforce competences -boost self confidence -reduce stress and anxiety -motivate -avoid drop out	-socialisation into school and profession -promote cooperation -promote collaborative learning -promote involvement in and from school community	-further develop teaching competences -link initial teacher education and CPD -develop professionalism of beginning teachers
Key requirements	-safe, non-judgmental environment -reduced workload -team teaching -co-teaching	-collaborative work -co-teaching -team teaching -teamwork -project groups	-access to knowledge through exchange between new/experienced teachers -further courses or classes -consultations
Relevant systems of support	-mentor -peer -self-reflection	-mentor -peer	-mentor -peer -expert -self-reflection
Other factors	-school leaders	-school leaders -parents, community	-school leaders

These three kinds of support can be translated into four relevant interlocking systems of support as mentioned in table 1. These systems are a mentoring system, an expert system, a peer system and a self-reflection system (European Commission, 2010). The mentoring system and peer system are seen as relevant systems of support in all the three dimensions.

The first system or *mentoring system* concerns the stimulation of professional learning processes whereby a variety of approaches can be used, e.g., coaching, training, discussion, counseling, etc. An important factor in this process is the mentor or experienced teacher who has the responsibility to provide support on the personal/emotional level, the social level and the professional level. In addition, Wong (2004) states that the alignment with the vision, mission and structure of the broader programme is a must. Not only does the new teacher benefit from the mentoring, also the mentor can enhance his or her skills and knowledge. Furthermore, the school can use this system in the development towards a culture of a learning community. (European Commission, 2010)

The second system or *peer system* creates network opportunities within and across schools. The creation of a safe environment is necessary in this system. Face-to-face meetings with participants who have the same status and who face the same problems are important, but also a partly virtual community can be set up. Peer groups can be school-related when schools have a large number of beginning teachers. Otherwise, peer groups can be formed with teachers from different schools. This can result in interesting discussions with opportunities to share ideas, knowledge and reflections on different perspectives. (European Commission, 2010)

Finland combines those two interlocking systems of support in a system of peer-group mentoring.

PEER-GROUP MENTORING (PGM) IN FINLAND: 'OSAAVA VERME'

The Finnish Network for Teacher Induction 'Osaava Verme' is a network that contains collaboration between the Finnish teacher education institutions such as the vocational teacher education institutions and teacher education departments of universities.

- The main goal is to develop and disseminate peer-group mentoring (PGM) nationwide in Finland in collaboration with local education authorities.
- *"Peer-group mentoring (PGM), known in Finland by the acronym Verme, is an activity whereby teachers share and reflect on their experiences, discuss problems and challenges they meet in their work, listen to and encourage one another, learn from one another and learn together".*
- PGM differs from traditional mentoring in terms of the implementation in groups consisting of both novice teachers and more experienced counterparts. Groups are composed of 4 to 10 teachers and their mentor. Meetings are usually organized once a month in a separate place from their own school (Jokinen & Välijärvi, 2006).
- The nature of activities in PGM groups is informal, which means that experiences and thoughts can be shared without performance pressure. The relationship between mentors and mentees is reciprocal and based on the idea of equality which leads to a confidential atmosphere. Mentors attend a regional mentor training programme that consists of five seminars of two days, the equivalent of 10 ECTS.

SIGNIFICANCE

- Research confirms positive and significant correlations between teacher quality and pupil attainment (Darling-Hammond, Holtzman, Gatlin, & Heilig, 2005; Greenwald, Hedges, & Laine, 1996; Rockoff, 2004).
- Teacher quality is seen as the most important within-school explanation of student performance. Its effects are more extended than those of components such as school organization, leadership or financial conditions (Darling-Hammond & Youngs, 2002; Rivkin, Hanushek, & Kain, 2005).
- Research also suggests that in-service teacher training correlates positively with student achievement (Angrist & Lavy, 2001; Bressoux, 1996).

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Participative leadership challenges facing Junior High Schools and actions to meet the challenges: a case study of Sekyere South District, Ghana.

Kwame Gyasi

INTRODUCTION

Undeniably, school headmasters (principals, as used in Finland) are confronted with administrative challenges which they need to identify the appropriate methods to resolve them in order to improve their schools' performance in the standardized exams in Ghana. The Junior High School headmasters play central role to ensure development and improvement in teaching-learning process to achieve academic excellence in their schools. It was emphasized that the quality of pupils' education can be realized through the actions of the school headmasters (Bosu, Dare, Dachi, & Ferttig, 2011, p.71). This is an indicative of headmasters' responsibility to ensure effective schools. According to Glassman (1994, p. 288) the concept school leadership is pivoted on school headmasters who are tasked to improve and develop their schools: such responsibilities can be measured upon the basis of students' achievement in the final exams. Irrespective of whatever challenges the headmasters face they are charged to prove themselves as capable leaders. This is noted by Dubrin (2001, p. 18) that a leader is bound to face a batch of problems which include people and other things. It is imperative that headmasters be aware of possible challenges they are likely to encounter and device correct procedure to tackle them.

CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

The study is based on the context of Ghanaian culture and values.

AIMS OF THE STUDY

To identify some of the participative leadership challenges confronting the junior high school headmasters.

To explore possible actions to meet the challenges.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

I. WHAT ARE SOME OF THE POSSIBLE PARTICIPATIVE LEADERSHIP CHALLENGES FACING THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL HEADMASTERS?

II. WHAT ARE SOME OF THE POSSIBLE ACTIONS TO UNDERTAKE TO MEET THE CHALLENGE?

RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

The study is worthy and important to study because it seeks to explore and dissect the phenomena in order to confirm the authenticity of the problem. It also aims at exploring possible actions to improve the situation if the hypothesis is proved to be correct. It can also be used as a reference point for interested investigators who wish to do further studies into the phenomena

COMPOSITION OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

- Headmaster
- Assistant headmaster
- Staff secretary– Guidance and Counseling Coordinator– Sports and Culture– Health Sanitation-
- Class Teacher (Form master)
- Subject Teachers
- School Prefects
- Students

Responsibilities of headmasters

- Oversee the general management and administrative functions of the school.
- Safeguard the physical and financial assets of the school.
- Ensure high level of discipline among staff and pupils of the school
- Implement and achieve the strategic objectives of the Board.
- Source: (GES)

Challenges of headmasters

- Financial constraints
- Lack of commitment and support from teachers
- Problem of teacher retention
- Parents' unnecessary interference in school matters

Headmasters' participative leadership challenges with
- Teachers
- Parents

Actions to meet participative leadership challenges with
- Teachers
- Parents

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

PARTICIPATIVE LEADERSHIP

The issue of school participative leadership has been extensively discussed in relation to its potential to impact positively on students' learning outcome. The concept has recently received a lot of publication globally and gradually gaining popularity in the field of education. It is used interchangeably with terms such as distributed leadership, and shared leadership though with similarities in content and usage. The differences can emerge from the context within which they are applied. Participative leadership seeks to involve members or subordinates and all those who matter in the running of a school with the viewing of tapping and harnessing their rich experiences, knowledge and talents. Lamberts (2002, p.39) laments over the old paradigm where a single individual leadership left substantial talents of teachers unused. This resulted from the fact that leaders were worshipped and labeled heroic. According to Somech (2005, p. 780) participative leaders are required to lead by supporting group members to explore available opportunities and challenges in order to manage by sharing ideas. That goes to support the belief that no individual is a repository of knowledge, and therefore appears impossible for one person to run an organization

RESEARCH DESIGN

Data collection method

The quantitative questionnaire will be designed in relation to the research questions with the aim of identifying possible participative leadership challenges confronting junior high school headmasters and actions to meet those challenges, with the purpose of improving the schools.

Population and sample

The data collection of the study will involve 20 schools out of a total of 84 junior high schools in the district. For the purpose of good education delivery, the district has been divided into five circuits, and the study will consider least 3 schools from each of them. The participants for the study will be headmasters, teachers, parents, students and educational workers. The study will involve 150 respondents as the total sample. The group of participants will consist of 30 headmasters, 70 teachers, 20 parents, 15 educational workers, and 15 students. The participants will be selected by using random sampling.

Ethical consideration

The research will seriously take into consideration the ethical issues involved in academic research. This will include respecting the privacy of the respondents, the consent of the participants and the like.

Delimitation

The study will be limited to only the Sekyere South District in Ashanti Region, Ghana. It was supposed be carried out in more districts but due to time constraint and limited resources, it became necessary to select just a district which has the generalizable characteristics. The district was chosen because of its accessibility and nearness to the researcher.

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LEADERSHIP STRATEGIES IN SCHOOLS FOR VISUALLY IMPAIRED

Veronika Janiková, University Of Jyväskylä

THE CONTEXT AND AIM OF THE STUDY

My research is focused on two schools for visually impaired, one in Finland and one in Czech Republic, and to define differences and similarities in leadership strategies between both schools.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- What leadership strategies are used in each school?
- How do the strategies differ between the schools?

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Nowadays many students with visual impairment are integrated in regular schools. This phenomenon influences the number of students in special schools. Therefore, principals in special schools have more difficulties to create a long-term vision for the future.

DEVELOPMENT OF SPECIAL EDUCATION IN FINLAND

The idea of integration of students with special needs in mainstream schools in Finland has been established in the 1966.

The structure of special education during 1960s:
- Auxiliary classes for students with learning difficulties
- Separated classes for students with other emotional problems
- Only a few state schools for students with sensory disabilities

1970s:
- Special schools remained, additionally integration
- Implemented in cases the students were considered as ready for this step.
- A new profession of special education teachers has been established

1980s:
- A big change in formal special education
- Two types of schools established in 1960 replaced by non-categorical system of special education

1990s:
- As a consequence of changes during 1980s, new special needs categories appeared.

Today's situation:
- Two schools for visually impaired:
- Jyväskylä
- Swedish-speaking in Helsinki

DEVELOPMENT OF SPECIAL EDUCATION IN CZECH REPUBLIC

- Special Education principles formulated during the 1930s by Professor Miloš Sovák
- During that period, the leading force in care for the disabled was represented by physicians
- Professor Sovák developed the term „defect" and formulated structured way how to understand the consequences of such defect
- 1989 – significant changes in Czech society and special education as well: collective approach emphasizing special schools started to turn into more individualist approach, where the needs of handicapped people were listened

DEFINITIONS OF KEY CONCEPTS

There are a multitude of leadership strategies, but for the purpose of my study I have decided to focus on:
- Transformational leadership
- Transactional leadership
- Pedagogical leadership
- Instructional leadership
- Shared leadership

Transformational leadership
3 basic roles of a transformational leader
- Motivator
- Communicator
- Facilitator (Govindarajan & Trimble, 2010)

Transactional leadership
"Transformational leadership is focused on the role of supervision, organization and group performance." (Bass,1997).
Assumptions:
- Workers are motivated by rewards and punishments
- The primary goal of the followers is to obey leader's instructions
- Subordinates should be monitored to achieve all expectations

Pedagogical leadership
- Pedagogy is seen as a synonym for teaching, not instruction
- Pedagogy as student-centred learning and teaching
- Relationships between students and teachers
- Pedagogy specifically recognizes the cultural, moral, and societal aspects of what is learned and why it is learned.
- „A concept of pedagogic leadership is overshadowed by concept of instructional leadership" (Macneil et al., 2005)

Instructional leadership
"...direct or indirect behaviors that significantly affect teacher instruction and, as a result, student's learning." (Macneil et al., 2005)
5 dimensions of instructional leadership:
- Time devoted to educational versus administrative tasks.
- The head teacher as a metacontroller of classroom processes.
- The head teacher as a quality controller of classroom teachers.
- The head teacher as a facilitator of work-oriented teams.
- The head teacher as an initiator and facilitator of staff professionalization.

Shared leadership
"A dynamic, interactive influence process among individuals in groups for which the objective is to lead one another to the achievement of group or organizational goals or both" (Conger & Pearce, 2003, p. 1 as cited in Kocolowski, 2010)
- Shared leadership has existed since ancient times - Republican Rome
- The understanding about what to do and how to do it are made through the use of an interactive process involving many different people
- Principals' roles in providing services for students with special needs
- Developing effective strategies of communication between teachers, parents, regional associations etc.
- Arrangement of effective in-service training for special educators
- Developing strategies of adherence to provincial legislation in special education.

RESEARCH DESIGN – QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

- Semi-structured interview as an research instrument
- Two sets of questions, one for teachers, one for principals
- The amount of Respondents: 8: 1 principal, 1 vice-principal, 2 teachers in each school

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Principals:
1) How leadership is carried out in your school?
2) Who is responsible for school development?
3) Who is responsible for pedagogical leadership
4) How do you understand the term „pedagogical leadership?"
5) How often do you organize the staff meetings? B) How are the teachers involved in staff meetings? Do you feel they are safe to express their opinions?
6) Do you have any leading group of the teachers within your staff? B) If yes, how are the tasks distributed within the group?
7) If no, is there anybody else involved in decision-making except for you?
8) Who is involved in creating vision of your school?

Teachers:
1) How leadership is carried out in your school?
2) Who is responsible for school development?
3) Who is responsible for pedagogical leadership?
4) How do you understand the term „pedagogical leadership?"
5) How often does your principal organize regular staff meetings? B) How do you define your role within your colleagues (teachers, principal)? Do you feel they are safe to express their opinions?
6) Do you have any leading group of the teachers within your school? B) If yes, how are the tasks distributed within the group?
7) How and when are you involved in decision-making in your school?
8) Do you have any possibility to actively participate in creating the school vision?

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Role of Interaction among Teachers & Students while practising Distributed Leadership in Classroom Activities

GHULAM ABBAS KHUSHIK

INTRODUCTION

Finnish schools have a system where students start school at a later age. They enjoy a 3-months summer break. Students spend less time in school per day. They have barely any home work and are rarely tested. Teachers are respected professionals, quickly receive tenure, are rarely evaluated, earn average salaries, have strong union, faith and trust. Schools receive modest funding, develop their own curriculum, research and adopt new technologies, have no achievement gap and leave no child behind. Finally they have the best results.

Finnish schools have the best results but **developing class rooms' culture** to enhance good interaction among the **students and teachers** for the best students' learning needs more attention.
There is great **need** and **significance** of understanding the role of interaction among teachers and students while practicing distributed leadership in classrooms through various classroom activities.
The **aim of study** is to examine the interaction among teachers and students in classroom activities. The study is based on following **research questions:**

- How do teachers and students interact among themselves for the development of classroom's learning culture in classroom activities?
- To find out the reasons behind the failure of constructive interaction among teachers and students in classroom activities while sharing leadership roles
- To suggest the best possible ways of interaction among teachers and students for classroom activities

It is a hypothesis that students are lagging behind in communication skills in classrooms' activities when they attempt distributed leadership role to accomplish various tasks in classroom activities.

Theoretical Framework

This study has basis on the following theories where the researcher will introduce to you about Organizational culture theory. Organizations have people. People bring and make a culture in the organizations. According to various writers "Organization culture is the culture that exists in an organization, something of the same kind to societal culture. It is composed of many indefinable phenomena such as values, beliefs, perceptions, behavioral norms, artifacts and patterns of behavior as well as unseen and unobservable force that is always behind the organization activities" (Shafritz, Ott & Jang, 2005). It is a kind of a force defined by Shafritz, Ott and Jang (2005) which always works behind the all organizational activities, organizational activities are always visible due to the results. Change which we want to bring in classrooms is not only for changing certain activities or doing new activities, which never represent culture change; I as a researcher create a base for my studies on three theories, one of them is about change in organizational culture, which is named as "Changing Organizational Cultures" by Harrison M. Trice and Janice M. Beyer. The rationale to use this theory as the basis of my studies is this that I want the reader to understand the organizations, cultures and cultural change in organizations. In short there are various organizations in the world so we have also many cultures, each single organization may have a different culture. Schools as organizations have variety of cultures.

Hinde, (2004, p. 1) suggests us to imagine and says that to know school culture we need to imagine that when we enter in a school, what so ever we see, we hear teachers and students speaking, the outlook of bulletin boards, entrance in to school was easy or difficult, children's all actions, school is noisy, welcoming or not and general feeling represent school's culture Peterson and Deal (1998, p. 29) have pointed out a very good idea for schools having positive culture that "shared sense of what is important, a shared ethos of caring and concern, and a shared commitment to helping students learn".

Other basic theories for this study are communication theory and socio-cultural interactionist theory by Vygotsky.

Research Design

Research design is based on qualitative method of research, this is an observational study. Data will be collected during the months of September and October 2013. The selection of the schools for data collection is decided with the help of advisor.
Participants are students and teachers so the main data will be on observation. Two full observation days will be for each year students. Observation, video recording of the class will be the main tools to collect the data. Participants will be contacted two days before for such data collection methods for the sack to inform them on the basis of ethical grounds. Short interviews are possible after class contact hours from individuals or some questions may be asked during the lecture.
Data will be collected from one school therefore letters of the director of this institute would be required to collect data, other permission letter would be required from school's principal, written collective permission would be required from school teachers in the school, students' willingness to participate in data collection will be recorded in black and white. Data collection will be based on **observation of the classes** and **informal interviews of teachers and students. Video recording,** writing and verbal recording of the classes and interviews will be the tool for data collection.
There may be some **informal group meetings** which may take place where video recording and note taking will be done to have all the required data, it is in case if the researcher feels that data is not enough. I have planned a table to collect data that will clarify more on data collection method.
Thorough understanding of the existing situation at schools will depend on effective method of data collection. It will enable the researcher not only to analyze the situation of teachers and students as playing role to **enhance students learning** in class activities but also make it possible for me to focus on **work in collaboration** with teachers and students in the entire process of the research. They will be helpful in collecting data, and giving feedback. Finally, conclusion about the role of teachers and students in interaction among themselves while **practicing distributed leadership in classrooms activities** to enhance students learning will be formed on the basis of analyzed data. Following is the systematic methods of data collection:

Observation: Three classes will be observed in all to see demographic conditions, for example gender, use of mother tongue in the class, behavioral incidents, and various aspects of teaching methodology. Field notes will be taken while observing.

Short informal interviews: Students and teachers, whose class will be observed, may be interviewed. The idea behind taking interview is to take their point of view about interaction among teachers and students to enhance students learning in classroom activities. Questions will also be based on role of interaction among teachers and students for enhancement of learning. Teachers and students may be asked questions on the basis of classroom observation. The discussion may take place on the basis of issues arising from the teaching and collaboration and distributing the leadership role during classroom activities.

Video and audio recording: The classes will be video recorded for future comparison, and interviews will be recorded. However, transcribing all the interviews and classroom observation will not be necessary as the notes of observation and interview will be taken which will be based on important ideas coming through them.

S.No	Types of Data	Nos.	Aim	Objectives
1	Observation of Classroom teaching	Two days per each classroom, 3 classrooms in total for six whole days + 2 to 3 teachers meetings. The observation time may be between 40 to 50 hours	To understand the process of teaching and learning. How teachers and students learn collaboratively. How teachers invite students to share learning	To find out the ways to enhance students' knowledge in class room activities
2	Informal short Interviews 10 in total	10 Five from Class students. Five from teachers.	To see students and teachers point of view about interaction and learning enhancement. To discuss the difficulties/ hindrances in communication	To bring student and teachers in the process of implementing the best possible way of interaction. To prepare new technique
3	Video tape	4 Classes for the whole time used by teacher in each class)	To see the coordination between the interviews and the actual classroom instructions and ways of learning	To prepare authentic data for forming suggestions and recommendations for betterment

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Appendix

Introduction to Culture, classroom Culture.
Introduction to Communication and interaction classrooms
Introduction to class activities
Introduction to Distributing leadership and collaborative working (Distributed leadership)
Literature review
Organizational culture, school culture, class culture & its development.
Collaborative learning among students, leadership distribution in class environments.
Communication & Interaction among students and teachers in class activities , teachers' Constructive and approach of communication and its effects.

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The Roots of the Finnish Curriculum since the 1970´s

by Tuija Levo

INTRODUCTION

The Finnish Government has decided to implement a new curriculum by 2016. The nationwide curriculum is going to determine new goals and hour divisions for pre-school, elementary school and additional teaching. The new curriculum should be ready in 2015, and it should be obtained in the beginning of 2016.

OPS 2016

The Finnish curriculum has changed significantly during the last decades, and for example in the 1970´s the old parallel schools changed to comprehensive schools. Today, the old instructional teaching has changed to pedagogical teaching, and schools are becoming learning communities.

In this research the roots of the Finnish curriculum since the 1970´s are studied. The study is conducted as a qualitative study with data analysis and expert interviews. The research is conducted through change perspective.

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

In recent years I have worked in the Economic centre of Pirkanmaa, and I was able to witness a huge merger of the employment offices. Change has also been very closely attached to my earlier work experience. In the future I would like to work in the educational field and knowing curriculum is going to beneficial.

THE AIM OF THE STUDY

The study is going to investigate curriculum reforms since the 1970´s in Finland.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1) How has the Finnish curriculum changed/ developed since the 1970´s?

2) Can Change leadership be seen in the Finnish curriculum reforms?

3) What will the ongoing curriculum reform change?

THE THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

- The focus is in the history of the Finnish curriculum reforms.
- The phenomenon behind the study is the new curriculum and its development process.
- The research is conducted through change perspective.

TO BE DISCUSSED IN THE MASTER´S THESIS

- Theory of qualitative research and data analysis.
- The curriculums from the 1970´s.
- The different governmental programs from the 1970's.
- Curriculum reforms and implementation.
- The new curriculum process.
- Change leadership

Finnish 1st graders in 1985 at Ruosniemi ele-

THE KEYWORDS

Finnish curriculum, history of Finnish curriculum, curriculum reform, curriculum deve-

THE RESEARCH METHOD

The research is conducted with qualitative method. Data collection is done with data analysis and a few expert interviews.

SIGNIFICANCE

I am going to study the new curriculum process. While there is not ready knowledge about the Finnish curriculum, the history of the Finnish curriculum is discussed. The study will support future studies about curriculum, and also the new implementation process.

THE TIMETABLE

The theoretical frame is planned and collected in the spring 2013. Writing will start in May. During the summer the goal is to write the curriculum and change leadership sections.

The method for the data analysis is also investigated, and some parts of that are also going to be written.

Expert interviews are conducted in autumn 2013.The rest of the theory will be written in autumn the 2013.The research should be ready by the spring 2014.

CONCLUSIONS

After the First World War Finland´s parliament decided to develop the Finnish school system, and a law on compulsory education was passed in the 1921. This was made to ensure equal access to learning. After the chaotic period of the World War II Finland focused to build up the nation again. The country started to develop education by increasing the access to schools, and focused on to the quality of the education. Since the 1980´s Finland have moved towards result orientated education policy, and for instance the supervision of schools has been given to municipalities. (Kuikka, 1997, pp. 12, 48, 90.)

Finland is a country of many school reforms, and in here the history of curriculum were studied. The new curriculum is established by 2016, and therefore it is important to affirm the roots before new leafs can grow.

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Pictures:
Class picture from my archive.
School picture: Retrieved on April 30th, 2013. http://www.pori.fi/kasivatusjaopetusvirasto/koulut/ruosniemenkoulu.html

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The Role of Student Counselling in School Leadership. A Case Study of Two Schools in Finland and Russia

By
Sima Mironova

CONTEXT OF THE STUDY
Finland and Russia

AIM OF THE STUDY
The aim of this study is to understand student counseling phenomenon and its role in Russian and Finnish school leadership

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY
This comparative research study will show differences of organising student counselling in schools itself and its role in a shared leadership. Lifelong learning as a part of student counselling will provide deep understanding of a counselling process and its importance of student's development. The results of case studies will show either similarities or differences of the role of student counselling in school leadership. The Russian educational system can learn from the Finnish model and vice versa.

KEY CONCEPTS
Educational Counselling, Teacher Leadership, Lifelong learning, School Leadership

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

How is student counselling organised in Russian and Finnish educational systems?

- What is the role of student counselling in school leadership?
- What is the role of the principal, the teacher and the student counsellor in School Leadership?
- Where is the place for lifelong learning in the Russian and Finnish educational curriculum?

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The student counsellor phenomenon

The student counsellor phenomenon was shaped differently in the Russian and Finnish educational systems. Investigating history of its development in both countries will help to understand its role in education nowadays. Student counselling passed through legislation in Finland. It is stated in The Basic Education Act of 1998 that every student must receive school counselling services. In Russia, according to the Concept of modernization of Russian education up to 2010, a Concept of Special Education at the senior level of general education was implemented in 2002. According to it, every high school has a possibility to offer special education or basic education with elective courses to students. Russian high school level of education has changed rapidly during the recent years. The roots of the student counselling concept have to be found through the history of educational reforms in Russia and in Finland.

Guidance and counselling

Guidance and counselling are major themes in my thesis and they have to be investigated. Moreover, the student counselling and guidance concepts have to be distinguished. For example, in Finland (Raimo Vuorinen, 2012) student counselors perceive themselves as guides to students. The Finnish Educational Board (2013) says: "Guidance and counselling activities are to constitute a continuum lasting the duration of basic education. The fact, that teachers participating in the guidance work together with study counsellors guarantees that pupils get guidance and counselling services during their studies and in transition phases of the study path". Finnish teachers are expected to guide students towards development of learning skills and capacities. To add, guidance and counselling are providing extra help for special need students and preventing drop-outs.

Teacher Leadership

Based on the fact that teachers share guidance work with student counsellors I need to define the Teacher Leadership concept in my thesis. Andersen F. (2010) found out that Finnish teachers perceive themselves as managers and leaders in classrooms. Finnish teachers have autonomy and independence in their classes, but they also share leadership responsibilities. However, every Russian school has a right to create a "Preprofile training" programme which states what kind of activities meet the requirements of special student support. Russian teachers are expected to guide students and support them in daily and elective classes.

Comparative Research

As it is stated in my topic my thesis is a comparative research. The focus of my research is on making comparisons between two different educational systems and student counselling concepts. However, the collected data will more likely be hard to categorise. Student counselling is organised differently in Russian and Finnish schools and its role in school leadership will differ as well. Furthermore, this is a major challenge of comparative research.

Lifelong learning

Student counselling goes hand in hand with the Lifelong learning concept. Today in a constantly-changing world a 'lifelong learning' orientation to education is seen as vital for young people. 'Lifelong Learning' is interpreted as engaging people with learning throughout all stages of their lives. 'Lifelong learning' has become ubiquitous in education policy documents and it has been interpreted in various ways, ranging from 'second chance' education, or linking secondary education with industry, through to a much broader interpretation that concerns ways of engaging people with learning throughout all stages of their lives. (Bryce, Withers, p.10.). The aim of the Lifelong learning is to achieve students' full potential as adults, that is why young people need to develop a range of skills and knowledge. Lifelong learning at secondary school level is concerned with keeping students engaged in learning, and developing in those students the characteristics that will make learning an integral and valued part of their lives when they leave school. It implies that student counselling is one of the key ingredients of lifelong learning in a secondary school.

School leadership

School leadership as a major concept in my research will show the role of student counselling in Russian and Finnish school leadership. Teachers, student counsellors, special need teachers, vice-principals and principal are shareholders of leadership at school.

special teacher, 1 teacher assistant in a Finnish school: 1 principal, 1 vice-principal, 1 classroom teacher, 1 subject teacher in a Russian school. I will create different type of questions for each precision. The data will be collected by literature review about backgrounds and system of student counselling. In interviews the main focus is seemed to be on receiving personal opinion from teachers how do they use leadership in counselling. From a student counsellor I want to receive an answer how does they see their role in School Leadership. From a principal – what is a part of student counselling in School Leadership. A special teacher and assistant teachers were chosen to take part in data collection, because they may see more details than classroom teacher.

Timetable for conducting interviews:

- Russian school: June - July 2013
- Finnish school: September 2013

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Institute of Educational Leadership

School Leadership Challenges in Implementation of Technical and Vocational Education Curriculum in Ghana

By

Osei-Asibey Daniel

MPEL (2012-2014)

INTRODUCTION

CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

- Historical bacground of technical and vocational education TVE in Ghana in colonial and post colonial era
- Perception of the Ghanaian society towards TVE

AIMS OF THE STUDY

Though several studies have been conducted in this field, hardly does one come across research work that give voice to the school leadership that has been tasked with the responsibility of implementing the curriculum at the school level. This study therefore aims at finding out the challenges in the implementation of the Technical and vocational curriculum in Ghana, from the perspective of school leadership

RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

In a way of reducing the rate of unemployment in Ghana, TVE was given prominence in the 1961 educational act, the Dzobo committee and educational reforms in 1972 and the Anfom committee and educational 1987. The 1987 educational reforms for example placed a lot of emphasis on TVE even at the junior secondary school (JSS) (Badu, 2011, p. 4). Teachers were also given training to handle the curriculum, yet much was not achieved. The 2007 educational reform stressed the importance of TVE as a mean of reducing the high rate of unemployment among the youth. Despite all these measures, TVE has failed to provide the intended option to the youth of Ghana (Ministry of Education Youth and Sports, 2004; Badu, 2011, p. 6). All these reforms were prompted by the concerns raised by the general public, employers and the "so called educational experts" without actually giving much attention to the voices of the school leadership. The researcher is therefore motivated by the need to hear from the school leadership, the challenges impeding the successful implementation of technical and vocational education curriculum in Ghana.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study would be very important in Ghana especially to the Ministry of Education, youth and sports (MOEYS) and the Ghana education service (GES) because it will add up the available stock of knowledge that relates to the challenges of TVE in Ghana. Though a number of research works have been conducted in Ghana about the challenges facing TVE, hardly does one find literature limiting on the challenges of TVE from the perspective of the school leadership. This study therefore will augment the existing studies in this field.
Again, the study will also serve as a point of reference for future studies on this subject.

RESEARCH QUESTION

What are the challenges facing the school leadership in the implementation of the technical and vocational curriculum?

Many levels in life make very important use of the skills developed, for example, individual skills influence the job security and wage on the market. The skill influences productivity for employers and ensuring that the youth participate actively in the building of the society (EFA global monitoring report, 2010, p.78)

LITERATURE REVIEW

The basic reason for technical and vocational education (TVE) is to prepare the youth with needed knowledge and the skills required to make them dynamic enough to make a meaningful life, and equip them to make a smooth transition from school to the working life.
There has been an increase in people's consciousness of the need for curriculum developers to pay serious attention to technical and vocational education to match up with the diverse requirements from the job market as a result of the socio-economic and global trend of technological advancement (UNEVCO, 1993, p.3). Technical and vocational education (TVE) has been noted to be a very important area in the all nations that aspire to develop. TVE has a direct bearing with the growth, development and wealth creation.
Ghana like any other sub-Saharan Africa country has made several attempts to make TVE an integral part of its educational and development process. This is evident in a number of policy documents including 1987 and 2007 educational reforms (ADEA, 2001, p. 12)

Theoretical framework

Policy guidelines

The gabs in skills and entrepreneur are clearly shown in the Job market of Ghana, considering the challenges with the school intake, quality and relevance. This has mainly been attributed to the non existence of national policy framework to coordinate TVE and training in Ghana (IMF, 2003, p. 104)

FINANCING

The recurrent per capital cost of TVE as at 2006 was estimated to be five times higher than primary education and about three times higher than senior secondary education but TVE account for only 1% of the total budget of education (EFA, 2010, p. 88)

QUALITY AND QUANTITY OF TEACHERS

The number and the quality of the teachers in education system in any country has a significant influence on the outcomes of the educational system. It is said that no education can rise above the quality of it teachers. According to Colclough, (2012, p. 121),

INFRASTRUCTURE AND EQUIPMENT

In Ghana, the number of technical and vocational schools that are well equipped is less than 30%. Apart from other noted challenges such as inadequate funding, they are also faced with problems of neglect with respect to infrastructure and training equipment, (Baffour-Awuah & Thomson, 2011, p. 26).

RESEARCH METHODS

Atwima Nwabeagya district of Ashanati region in Ghana where my research is going to be conducted has only three secondary schools that run TVE. Qualitative research will therefore be used since it is flexible to conform to the changes in the process of the research. Again, the sample size must not necessarily have to be very large to make the research credible. The research is not tailored towards the control of the researcher, but the participants are "active co-creators of the knowledge process" (Klenke, 2008, p. 10-11). Qualitative research is descriptive and considers the type of language used. For these reasons qualitative research will be used.

INTERVIEW

Interview was selected for this study because a research instrument like interview with focused groups has the ability to provide information which is far richer and broader than what is spelt out by policy makers, again the researcher may also have the opportunity of receiving some of the data at first hand (Silverman, 2010, p. 306, 308).

ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

A letter of introduction will be sent to Atwema Nwabeagya district of Ghana Education service (GES) to obtain a permission to undertake the research in three schools selected for the research. Permission from the headmasters and the departments' heads of the schools will officially be sought.
A meeting would be held with participants where I will brief them of the aims of the research and to arrange a date for the interview with them. Here participants will be made aware of their rights as far as the research is concerned.

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How student's voice can be heard

Irina Shatilova

INTRODUCTION

It is a well known fact that **education plays a significant role** for the human being not only in individual growth and success but also for a country's' prosperity. Babones (2009, p. 45) has described in his scientific article an increasing importance of knowledge in the modern world that people develop through education.

It becomes difficult to ignore the **increasing interest of scientists in student leadership concept that is taking a premium place in education** these days.

According to Dempster and Alf (2007, p. 276) the extreme raise of attention to student leadership field bases **on the lack of adult people willing to be part of leadership** in their lives. A huge amount of books and articles exist about **adults' leadership** and their role there.

Thomson (2012, p. 96-97) has presented meaningful points of student leadership activities as a recourse to get **some benefits** for them.

Therefore, we should concentrate on **developing student leadership** in educational institutions at all the levels in order to improve additional skills **that are needed in adult leadership.**

It is expected that the question what is **the fundamental reason for implementing student leadership nowadays comes to our minds**. The basic reason is that the new world demands new human performance, intellect and prejudgements. Zohar (1997, p. 6) considers the change of the world paradigm from the Newtonian paradigm to the Quantum paradigm. The World shifted from the machine mechanism of organizational performance to a **new creative way of working process** in organizations.

Hargreaves (2003, p. 1) published the book where he focused on the modern society as a knowledge society where human being's brain capacity takes the main role in knowledge economy.
The paradigm shift and knowledge society are phenomena that refer to newest organizational models where all human brain potential should be used. Student leadership is a key component in answering the modern requirements.

The AIM of the research:
to look into the student leadership within the school leadership decision-making process

Research questions:
1. What is the role of students in school decision-making leadership?
2. How does student leadership show in students' and school staff 's relationship (communication between students, teachers, principals)?
3. How do schools practice and develop student leadership?

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This research will draw upon a wide range of research literature about student leadership in order to explore the role and place of students in school decision-making, the features of their interaction with school staff, and contribution of school staff in developing and supporting student leadership.
Today, the modern generation highly needs to learn and practice leadership skills, to be brave and easily express their ideas. According to my opinion, student leadership is a role for students to contribute to the decision-making in a school community for better school achievements through the leadership process.

Distributed leadership and collaborative leadership are basic concepts that closely relate to student leadership.
Bennett et al. (2003, p.7) underline three main element sof distributed leadership:

- "emergent property of a group or network of interacting individuals"
- "openness of the boundaries of leadership"
- "varieties of expertise are distributed across the many, not the few"

All of these elements also take place in student leadership. Leadership among students originates from a group of people who interact with each other. Student leadership as a part of distributed leadership defines an own role for students, because all school members are considered to participate in school leadership.
Based on the openness of the boundaries of leadership multiply, distinct capabilities and possibilities can be found in groups or organizations when initiatives raise some kind of questions with relevant skills in a particular area and others will improve, develop or adapt them in practice (Bennett et al., 2003, p.7). Teachers and principals play role initiatives, students, in turn, look for solutions and vice versa.
Kohm and Nance (2009) say: "To accelerate positive change in your school, foster a climate of working together". Nowadays, there is a tendency that principals, teachers and students work together in a collaborative way, otherwise they will not be successful and they will not achieve a high level of school outcomes according to the modern requirements.

RESEARCH DESIGN

In this research, a qualitative research approach will be applied. Bogdan and Taylor (1975) noted that the qualitative research method is a way to produce descriptive data about people's life, behavior, relationships, etc. Bogdan and Taylor (1975) explained qualitative methods as methods to know people personally, to go through the experiences that people experience in their daily life in their social environment. Qualitative research in the present study will be used to understand and recognize how students, teachers and principals view and organize the school environment around in relation to the student leadership phenomenon. The nature of the research questions does not demand to measure any facts. Studies of people, human behavior and school functioning are suitable approaches to find answers to the research questions.
Qualitative research requires a methodology that permits open interviews, unstructured observation, qualitative data analysis and objectivity from the perspective of the subject (Babbie & Mouton, 2001, p. 33). Interviews will be used as the primary data collecting tool in three Finnish schools. One principal, one teacher and a group of students will participate in the interviews from three levels of schools: primary, lower secondary and upper secondary education. Teachers and students will be selected based on their involvement and knowledge about student leadership in the school. Semi-structured interviews will be adopted to collect the stories concerning the student leadership situation in the school. These questions will be asked from the participants during individual interview sessions which will last for at least 30 minutes. Tape recording will be used during each interview session.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH:

1. To promote a deeper perception of student leadership in the Finnish schools.
2. The second emphasis of the thesis is contribution toward expanding of literature resources in the issue of student leadership.
3. In the end of the study, I will consider ways of developing and supporting student leadership, and give recommendations concerning the future studies.
4. The research findings will be welcome back in Kazakhstan with school teachers and principals who are responsible for implementing innovations and improving school outcomes.

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EXPLORATION ON HOW FINNISH TEACHERS ACHIEVE EQUAL CARE IN THE CLASSROOM

Xiao Hanyang, Master Student, University of Jyväskylä

BACKGROUND

In some countries, students can not receive equal care from teachers. Some teachers only pay attention to the students who get high grades or whose parents have good relationships with the teachers. As a student, I also have this experience. Under this kind of a study environment, students can not have an equal opportunity to recognize and feel this world. And the inequality behavior of the teachers influence students negatively in facing their lives.
During the Finnish school visits, I observed in the classroom and discussed with Finnish teachers several times and saw an equal and harmonious study environment. Why can Finnish teachers treat students equally? How do students feel when they study in this environment? In this research, I will try to find the reasons.

AIM

The research will give an in-depth theoretical knowledge of ethical leadership, teacher leadership and classroom management. It will study Finnish class education and find out how Finnish students receive teachers' equal care and the significance of this kind of teaching.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

(1) How do teachers achieve equality in the classroom?
(2) How do students think about teachers' care?

LITERATURE REVIEW

ETHICAL LEADERSHIP

"Ethical leadership is leadership that is involved in a manner that respects the rights and dignity of others. As leaders are by nature in a position of social power, ethical leadership focuses on how leaders use their social power in the decisions they make, actions they engage in and ways they influence others" (Trevino, Brown & Hartman, 2003). Ethical leadership "falls within the nexus of inspiring, stimulating, and visionary leader behaviors that make up transformational and charismatic leadership" (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002).

In ethical leadership, leaders should give evidence of the level of integrity which is important for followers to trust and accept the vision of leaders. Leaders who are ethical assist followers to find and improve their personal abilities by encouraging and motivating them (Trevino, Brown & Hartman, 2003).

Ethical leadership can increase followers' loyalty and trust and then result in more followers' efforts (Piccolo, Greenbaum, Den Hartog & Folger, 2010).

Characteristics of ethical leadership:

- Trust.
- Respect.
- Equality.
- Relationship.
- 4-V Model (Grace, 2006):
- Value.
- Vision.
- Voice.
- Virtue.

TEACHER LEADERSHIP

Teacher leadership is defined from the view of tradition as "the process in which teacher leaders exert influence over colleagues in a school" (York-Barr & Duke, 2004) or "a teacher as a leader in a classroom leads and influences students as followers" (Norton, 2012).

From a Turkey survey, researchers found that "the teacher's leadership style was the main factor affecting academic performance" (Norton, 2012) and the learning styles of the students are often influenced by teacher behavior in the classroom (Yildirim, Acar, Bull & Sevinc, 2008).

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

The 1960's and early 1970's – psychology and management (understanding students' problems and helping them understand their problems and work to develop more productive behaviors)

The mid-1970's – the disruptive misbehavior of students and teachers and were instructed to use more behavioristic management strategies to control students (Canter, 1976; Jones, 1987). "Behaviorists believed that discipline is external and controlled by the teacher and is characterized by operant conditioning and behavior modification" (Marks, 2005).

Yet Kounin (1970) turned focus from students to teachers; from teacher reaction to teacher action.

Brophy (1988, p. 2) defined classroom management as "actions taken to create and maintain a learning environment conductive to attainment of the goals of instruction (arranging the physical environment of the classroom, establishing rules and procedures, maintaining attention to lessons, and engagement in academic activities)."

"The current research supports the claim that classroom management is more than reacting to student misbehavior or providing external incentives to promote compliant behavior" (Marks, 2005).

In the past twenty odd years, researchers have found that a successful classroom management has three successful elements (Marks, 2005):

-Classroom environment
-Instruction
-Student-teacher relationships

Equal care

- **Relationships**
  -respect, trust and caring
  -believe in students
  -human, teacher, leader, family, friend
- **Instructions**
  -encourage and motivate
  -do not ignore misbehaviors
  -create a community of equality
- **Environment**
  -equality
  -justice
  -fairness
  -high quality teaching and learning

RESEARCH DESIGN

Research Methodology
- Qualitative methodology

Data Collecting Method
- Interview
- Feedback

Research Place
- 1 Local Secondary School

Participants
- 4 teachers
- About 20 students from 1 class

Timetable
- May 2013, research proposal
- Summer 2013, test of the interview questions
- September or October 2013, interview and feedback
- From October 2013, organize the data

SIGNIFICANCE

- **Try to find the reasons why and how Finnish teachers treat students equally.**
- **It will be a new guidance to let educators know their responsibilities.**
- **Give new ideas about teacher-leading styles.**

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David Assists Goljat:
The Value of Cross-Cultural Leadership Training?

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BACKGROUND

• Huge interest in overseas training for educational leaders in China: *Dispatching 10,000 Backbone Teachers of Primary and Secondary Schools Overseas Training (2011-2015)*

• Missing: value of cross-cultural training program to leadership practices and professional development of school leaders

OBJECTIVE

To explore Chinese school principals' perceptions of the possible effects and benefits of a Finnish training program

METHODOLOGY

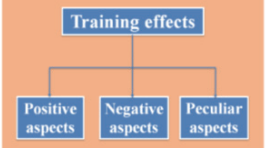
• Qualitative case study

• Semi-structured interviews: 6 Shanghai school principals

• Conventional content analysis

RESULTS

The study identified three aspects of the training effects: positive, negative and peculiar aspects



Positive aspects
- New skills
• Create more effective leadership
• Better handle contradictions
• Broader understanding the nature of education
- New knowledge
• Increased understanding of the role of government in education

Negative aspects
• Limited school visits
• Diversified needs of trainees
• Incapability of some trainers
• Language barriers

Peculiar aspects
• National and cultural contexts
• Educational systems
• Principals' tasks
• Teachers' capacities

CONCLUSIONS

• A cross-cultural training program has a limited but positive role

• Need to be aware of cultural nuances when attempting to import Western educational ideas to non-Western countries

• Efforts must be made carefully to tailor program provision to adapt to the context and nature of the learners

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