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**Leadership in Finnish Comprehensive School Core Curricula since the
1970s**

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<p>The Finnish comprehensive school was founded in 1970. The first comprehensive school curriculum was published in the same year and the next curriculum reforms followed in 1985, 1994 and 2004. Currently, the new curriculum is in progress. This research examined the relationship between the curricula and leadership. The study was conducted as a qualitative content analysis in which the official curricula were analyzed. In addition, two expert interviews provided valuable information on different decades. The research data were analyzed with a summative content analysis and the results were described with the interpretative method. The authenticity of the research was evaluated with triangulation.</p> <p>When reporting the results, the decades were named according to their most important features, and leadership descriptors were indicated. Therefore, the 1970s was the time of “the Comprehensive school and teachers as leaders”. At the time, the education system was led by managerialism and instructional leadership. Moreover, the 1980s was the time of “the Municipal control and lost curricula”, which again was directed with managerialism and instructional leadership. However, the 1990s was the era of “the Inspiration and school-specific curricula”, which changed the leadership towards pedagogical leadership. In the 2000s “Leaders turned back to managers” and some of the managerialism and instructional leading was returned. Finally, based on the interview data, the predictions of the future's leadership seem to move towards “Principals as ideology leaders”. In addition, pedagogical leadership is going to be visible on all school levels. Lastly, it was discovered that in the forthcoming reform principals are going to meet many challenges and therefore Kotter's (1995) theory of successful change was demonstrated in here. In addition, this research demonstrated that continuous evaluation and development should be added to his theory.</p>	
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<p>Suomen peruskoulujärjestelmä sai alkunsa vuonna 1970 ja samana vuonna julkaistiin ensimmäinen peruskoulun opetussuunnitelma. Seuraavat opetussuunnitelmauudistukset toteutettiin vuosina 1985, 1994 ja 2004. Parhaillaan Suomessa kehitetään uutta peruskoulun opetussuunnitelmaa, joka on tarkoitus ottaa käyttöön vuonna 2016. Tässä tutkimuksessa tarkasteltiin johtajuuden ja opetussuunnitelman välistä suhdetta. Tutkimus toteutettiin laadullisena sisällönanalyysinä, jossa aineiston muodostivat viralliset opetussuunnitelmat ja kaksi asiantuntijahaastattelua. Tutkimustulokset analysoitiin summatiivisen sisällönanalyysin menetelmin ja tulokset kuvattiin tulkinnallisella menetelmällä. Tutkimuksen luotettavuustarkasteluna käytettiin triangulaatiota.</p> <p>Tutkimusraportissa vuosikymmenet nimettiin niille ominaisin piirtein. Siten 1970-luku kuvattiin peruskoulun alun ja johtavien opettajien aikakautena. Siihen aikaan johtajuus perustui managerialismiin ja instruktionaaliseen johtajuuteen. 1980-luku oli kunnallisen ohjauksen ja hukatun opetussuunnitelman aikaa. Johtajuus seurasi 1970-luvulla alkanutta managerialismia ja ohjeistavaa johtamista. Inspiraation ja koulukohtaisen opetussuunnitelman aikakausi nousi kukoistukseensa 1990-luvulla ja instruktionaalinen johtaminen vaihtui pedagogiseen johtajuuteen. Siitä huolimatta 2000-luvulla koulun johtajat muuntuivat jälleen managereiksi ja ohjeistava johtajuus palasi kouluihin. Tutkimus tarkasteli tulevaisuuden johtajuutta ja haastatteluihin perustuen voitiin todeta, että rehtorit ovat muuntautumassa ideologian johtajiksi. Lisäksi pedagoginen johtajuus tulee näkyvämmäksi jokaisella koulun tasolla. Viimeisenä päätelmänä todettiin, että lukuisat muutokset asettavat uudenlaisia vaatimuksia rehtoreille. Siitä syystä Kotterin (1995) teoria onnistuneista muutoksista tuotiin esille tässä tutkimuksessa. Tutkimustuloksena teoriaa täydennettiin kahdella lisäaskeleella ja siten jatkuva arviointi ja jatkokehittäminen lisättiin muutosteoriaan.</p>	
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LIST OF INSTITUTIONS

The Advisory Board= neuvottelukunta

The Central Office= keskusvirasto

The Municipal School Department = kunnan kouluvirasto

The National School Board = kouluhallitus

The National Board of Education = opetushallitus

The Provincial Government = lääninhallitus

The School board/council = koululautakunta

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 School reforms

The Finnish comprehensive school was launched in 1970. Since then, the country has gone through four different curriculum reforms which have affected the education policies remarkably. (Vitikka, Krokfors & Hurmerinta, 2012, pp. 83–85.) In the 1970s, the centralized school administration ensured that the schools followed the given instructions when the comprehensive school model was spreading in the country (Lahtero, 2011, p. 20). In addition, the curriculum of 1970 was detailed and its aim was to control the schools in transition. Then, in the 1985 curriculum, the responsibilities for the Finnish education system were assigned to the municipalities. At that time, the local authorities were responsible for a curriculum to be written for every school. (POPS, 1985.) In practice this distanced the teachers from planning. As the centralized administration was abolished in the early 1990s, the 1994 curriculum reform empowered and demanded the schools to plan their own curricula, which meant that the teacher's motivation and interest in planning the curriculum increased. (Kuittinen, 2014). What happened next was that the schools individualized too strongly, and a new reform was needed. Today the Finnish basic education is based on the 2004 curriculum, which unified the schools and continued the pedagogical development. At the moment the next curriculum, to be established in 2016, is being planned in Finland. The forthcoming reform is going to affect the whole education system including the governance structures, schools, principals and teachers. (Opetushallitus, 2014.) In other words, new winds are blowing through the whole Finnish education system.

The past and future reforms have placed multiple demands on leadership. In the 1970s, the principal was one of the teachers and made sure that the schools followed the strict instruction letters and, for example, the principal's task list. Then, in the 1980s, municipalities kept the schools in control because now they were in charge of the school actions. The principals were responsible for the schools' pedagogical development but at the same time they were distancing themselves from teachers because the administrative tasks took most of their time. Due to decentralization in the early 1990s, the teachers' motivation towards school development increased, and the principals became responsible for even creating a good public profile and image to their school. (Hämäläinen, Taipale, Salonen, Nieminen & Ahonen, 2002, pp. 17–38.) Since 1991 the National Board of Education has been the supervisor of the education system in Finland by providing guidelines and information for education providers. The National Core Curriculum issued by the National Board of Education is one of the key supervisory elements in schools securing that the Finnish education policies are followed similarly in them. In the past years the principal's job description has changed further and become unlimited. (Taipale, 2005, p. 193.)

1.2 Research process

The starting point for this research was my personal interest towards the Finnish National Core Curriculum. I studied educational leadership as a major and as I noticed, the curriculum had hardly been researched from the leadership perspective. Therefore, I decided to study the relationship between leadership and the Finnish curricula since the 1970s. In addition, the new curriculum is in progress and it is essential to understand the history of the previous reforms before the next transition can be understood. Therefore, the historical period of the study was placed to the launch of the Finnish comprehensive school in 1970. In the beginning of the study, three research questions were formed, and they focused on the curriculum development, visibility of leadership and leadership styles in the curricula since the 1970s.

The research was conducted as a qualitative study, in which the Core Curricula formed the data which I analysed with the summative content analysis. Moreover, two expert interviews were conducted with semi-structured interview questions. The research findings of the study were demonstrated in chronological order. First, the

information on the curricula and interviews were demonstrated separately, and then they were combined in the leadership analyses.

The theoretical part of the research discusses the key concepts of the study which were curriculum, curriculum reform and selected leadership theories. As the study progresses, the theories are also discussed from the Finnish perspective. Then, the research analysis describes how leadership emerges in the comprehensive school development through the context of the different core curricula, and lastly the leadership approaches are summed up with leadership analysis from the different decades. The last part of the study includes the research evaluation where the significance, limitations and authenticity of the research are reflected on, and the conclusion.

2 CURRICULUM THEORY

In the following chapter, the descriptions of the curriculum, curriculum theory and reforms are discussed in order to obtain a better understanding of the substance of the curricula. In addition, the Finnish curriculum reforms are demonstrated. The Finnish curricula have strongly been related to the development of the Finnish society and therefore some background information about the country is also presented. However, the Finnish curricula are described more thoroughly in chapter 5.

2.1 Curriculum

Marsh and Willis (2003) demonstrate eight definitions of the curriculum according to how it has been used or interpreted in schools. Accordingly, the definition usually varies according to the issue that has the main focus. Firstly, curriculum is demonstrated as the most essential instrument of schools and it includes precise information on learning goals and subjects. Secondly, in curriculum descriptions it is presented that information on the matters that served the modern society should be included in the syllabus. Thirdly, it is claimed that the document should be a presentation of the school's responsibilities. Fourthly, it can be demonstrated as the student's substance in schools which should include the hidden curriculum. Fifthly, the curriculum is used as a source of real life competences. Sixthly, the curriculum signifies a key manifesto for technology and, for instance, students' benefits from computers should be visible in it. Seventhly, the curriculum is described as an encouragement for the students' questioning and self-management. Lastly, it is stated that the curriculum should serve

learners. In addition, learning experiences and all aspects of life should be taken into consideration when it is created. (Marsh & Willis, 2003, pp. 77–11.)

Marsh (2009) continues that the definition of curriculum depends on the characteristics and target group. He compares Walker's (2003) and Beane's (2001) lists of curriculum characteristics. Moreover, he states that in Walker's (2003) list the subject matter, intentions and the organization itself are highlighted as the most relevant elements of the curriculum. Beane (2001) adds five more features to the definition, which are the importance of learning practices, decision making, selection of different subjects, commitment to groups and shared responsibility on different levels. In addition to the different characteristics, the definitions vary according to the interpreter. For instance, people attached to the educational field, such as school staff, parents, and government, experience the curriculum through a different point of view. Typically, teachers foster practicalities for the classroom life, and government staff focuses on the national issues. (Marsh, 2009, pp. 9–11.)

Kelly (2009) agrees that defining curriculum is complicated because the word can have several different meanings. Typically, the organization, concept and purpose of the curriculum have an influence on how the term is understood. In addition, the term of education has to be understood similarly before its pervasive definition can be discussed. Therefore, in curriculum theory the first stage is to agree on the “true” curriculum which is attached to a particular course or program. In addition, the hidden curriculum must be taken into consideration. The hidden curriculum, for example, presents the actual things that students learn in schools. Typically, the values, responsibilities and communication styles can be learned unintentionally. Moreover, the available equipment and materials affect the student's learning. (Kelly, 2009, pp. 7–13.)

Kelly (2009) discusses the planned and received curriculum and highlights that sometimes the written curriculum is different from the message that the students perceive. In addition, the formal and informal curricula are discussed. Accordingly, the formal curriculum determines the frames of the school. In contrast, the informal curriculum presents the information or skills which were obtained intentionally. (Kelly, 2009, pp. 7–13.)

In sum, the purpose of the curriculum defines which theory is seen as more useful or which theory is implemented in a particular country. Moreover, Kelly (2009) relates the curriculum also to reforms and highlights that it is an essential part of development but it can also demonstrate a tool for change and control. On the other hand, the school

curricula can also be politicized which means that the curriculum has direct and indirect influences on the countries' policies. Moreover, the political context has a major influence on the curriculum, and they tend to develop hand in hand. Accordingly, the direct and indirect influences can be studied separately but the effect of both is inevitable. (Kelly, 2009, pp. 118, 188–189.)

During the Finnish comprehensive school era the importance of the syllabus has varied significantly. In addition, Rokka (2011, pp. 15–17) demonstrates that the Finnish reforms have always had political influences no matter if they have been wanted or not. Previously, teachers used textbooks instead of the curriculum because the National School Board only allowed the use of certain books (Kuittinen, 2014). In the middle of the 1980s, the municipal curriculum became obligatory, although some of the schools did not even know where to find it (Suortamo, 2014). Later on, the curriculum has become a key tool for basic education teachers (Opetushallitus, 2014).

At the moment, it is stated in the National Basic Education Core Curriculum that all schools in Finland follow the same principles of education. Typically the values, learning outcomes, teaching methods and subjects are presented in the Finnish curriculum. (Opetushallitus, 2014.) In addition, Alava, Halttunen and Risku (2012) discuss the importance of the curriculum as a leadership tool. Moreover, they highlight that the curriculum signifies the school's manual and therefore ideologies, rules and learning outcomes should be described in it. Moreover, they present it as the key instrument in today's schools and without it schools cannot be led in an effective way. (Alava, Halttunen & Risku, 2012, p. 44.)

2.2 Curriculum reform

Marsh and Willis (2003) discuss that the terms of curriculum development and curriculum change are often used for the same purpose. They highlight that the development processes are often discussed when the need for change has been identified. However, they argue that curriculum change includes real action and the term can only be used when the whole process from idea to implementation is described. Therefore, the term comprises the need for change, planning, implementation and even the acceptance of the new. Mainly, the changes after reform are intentional but also

unintentional transitions can occur during the process. (Marsh & Willis, 2003, pp. 157–158.)

The curriculum process can be slow and complicated because the old habits cannot be changed rapidly. The best way to start planning is to make the process open for everyone, and therefore, principals, teachers and school's stakeholders should have their say in the development process. Posner (1988) states that there are two different approaches in curriculum planning, which are the technical production and critical perspective. The technical production is a rational approach which highlights the most important factors that need to be taken into account when changes are introduced. For instance, it aims to answer to questions such as what kind of learning experiences should be provided and what to assess. In contrast, the critical perspective studies the process more thoroughly, and it expands the review to the political and social perceptions. Altogether, Posner (1988) highlights the importance of technique and past knowledge. Particularly, he claims that the requirements and goals should be clear. In addition, successful curriculum planning necessitates both the old and new. Accordingly, senior experts and innovative newcomers should work in collaboration to reach the best results. (Posner, 1988, pp. 77–94.)

The school curriculum should be a systematic guidebook for the school but at same time it should be flexible and modifiable. Moreover, the best developers of the curriculum are claimed to be teachers who are the experts in classroom life. However, the development process is much more complicated and a wider perspective should be taken into account. Typically, Marsh and Willis (2003) divide the participators to the macro and micro level developers who both have very important roles in the curriculum process. The macro level encompasses the general policy statements and individual school strategies, and on the macro level such things as the selection of subjects, hour division, degree requirements and evaluation are defined. On the contrary, the micro level presents actions on the practical level, for example, teachers need to turn theory into practice by specifying the lesson plans for the whole school year. Most importantly, the visible side of the school is often demonstrated on the micro level. As typical of such, weekly timetables and daily interaction with stakeholders are often first noticed. (Marsh & Willis, 2003, pp. 196–197.)

2.3 Finnish curriculum reforms since the 1970s

In the Finnish curriculum reforms since the 1970s, different planning styles have been used. In 1970, the Curriculum Committee was responsible for creating the curriculum and they collected the existing Committee Acts in one document (Sahlberg, 2011, p. 21). In contrast, the 1985 reform was claimed to be established in secret, and its main purpose was to transfer school development to municipalities (Rokka, 2011, pp. 23–24). In 1991, The National Board of Education was founded and it was responsible for creating and following the national curriculum of 1994 (Hämäläinen et al., 2002, pp. 23–25). The planning of the 2004 curriculum started in 1999 when the National Board of Education established a development group for the reform. In addition, the planning process was conducted in cooperation with several municipalities and schools. (Kartovaara, 2007, pp. 5–9.) Lastly, the National Board of Education set up a steering committee in 2012 to be responsible for the next reform of 2016 (Opetushallitus, 2014). Next, the Finnish curriculum reforms are demonstrated more thoroughly.

The most important influencer of the Finnish education policy has been the central government and uniform legislation (Lampinen, 2000, p. 11). After the World War I, the Finnish parliament decided to develop the Finnish school system and the law of compulsory education was passed in 1921. Accordingly, this was made to ensure everybody equal possibilities to learn. Furthermore, after the World War II, Finland focused on recovering the nation again. Essentially, education was seen as the key to rebuild the nation again. (Kuikka, 1997, pp. 12, 48, 90.)

Rokka (2011, pp. 21–22) presents that the first curriculum in Finland was created in 1925, and after the World War II, the second curriculum was written by the Curriculum Committee in 1952. During the 1950s, Finnish politics and economy were newly structured and the country focused on the public services. However, in the 1950s, the basic education possibilities were unequal because schools were divided to grammar and middle schools. (Sahlberg, 2011, p. 15.) These two schools had different career purposes, and at an early stage they determined the children's future study possibilities. This can be demonstrated with the fact that grammar schools educated civil servants and the studies led to universities. On the contrary, middle schools were more pragmatic and led to vocational schools. (Lampinen, Savola & Välke-Salmi, 1982, pp. 12–13.)

Eventually, these separate study paths led to the working-classes' dissatisfaction, and parents placed demands for better schooling opportunities for their children. At the

same time it was noticed that the country needed educated citizens in order to recover from poverty. (Sahlberg, 2011, p. 16.) In the 1960s, Finland developed rapidly and, for instance, the need for labour turned from agriculture to industry. Typically, people moved from the countryside to the cities, and a growing number of children necessitated an improved education system. For this reason in 1970, the two-sided basic education was abolished. (Lampinen et al., 1982, pp. 17–19.)

Sahlberg (2011) demonstrates that in the 1950s and in the 1960s the different school committees were responsible for education planning and implementation. Moreover, in 1959, the School Program Committee made a proposal of joint basic education and then, in 1963, the National Board of General Education brought the idea to the Parliament. (Sahlberg, 2011, p. 19.) As a result, the new legislation was implemented in 1966 and the curriculum committee was set up to develop the national curriculum for the comprehensive school (Komiteanmietintö, 1970, pp. 3–4). The Basic education Act was published in 1968 and it formed the ground for the comprehensive school reform (Vitikka et al., 2012, p. 84). Later, the committee reports were combined in the National Curriculum for the Comprehensive School in 1970 (Sahlberg, 2011, pp. 21–22).

During 1966-1973, Finland established nine new Central Offices and the National School Board as one of them was authorized to control the basic education reform. Moreover, the National School Board and municipalities formulated regional implementation plans. As a result, these institutions implemented several instructions that were to be applied in schools. For instance, the Central Office steered the municipal education, national curriculum, teaching materials and teacher training. (Aho, 1999, pp. 35–36.)

The launch of the nine-year comprehensive school started from the northern parts of Finland, and then, gradually by the end of the 1970s, all middle and grammar schools were turned into the comprehensive schools. Accordingly, the structure of schools was now more equal but they still offered lessons on three separate levels in some subjects. In addition, the reform was enormous and the transition created new challenges for teachers and students. The whole education pedagogy changed and therefore the teacher training was also renewed in the late 1970s. (Sahlberg, 2011, pp. 20–23.)

The education policy in the 1970s was centralized and because of the comprehensive school reform, schools followed tight instructions and rules. Moreover, education was controlled with the detailed curriculum and the school inspectors toured

in schools. (Lahtero, 2011, p. 20.) However, in the 1970s the oil and energy crisis in the world weakened Finland's economic growth and the society faced new challenges (Lampinen et al., 1982, pp. 16, 41, 44).

In the 1980s, the education system was renewed because the old and bureaucratic system was not leading to the desired outcomes. Moreover, the education policy had been re-evaluated and as a result, the centralized education system needed to be abolished. Furthermore, during the 1980s, municipalities were given the responsibility for the regional education. (Simola, Rinne & Kivirauma, 2002, pp. 247–264; Poropudas & Volanen, 2003, pp. 36–37.)

In 1985, the next curriculum was released and it had been directed by the national education policies. In addition, the curriculum highlighted the aims of the Parliament, Government and the Ministry of Education. Accordingly, the new education policy aimed to give more power to the actual implementers of the curriculum. However, the curriculum included detailed instructions for municipalities which again controlled schools. Typically, Rokka (2011) states that the 1980s was the time of planning and norms in the Finnish education history. The old Curriculum Committee had been abolished and the curriculum had been drafted in secret. (Rokka, 2011, pp. 23–24.)

The education policy started to decentralize gradually after the 1985 curriculum reform. However, the change process was slow and at the end of the decade it was finally admitted that the change had not led to the expected results. Accordingly, the Finnish education research claimed that education was now producing similar and mediocre students who lacked, for example, creativity. (Uusikylä, 2005, pp. 13–14.) Therefore, in 1988, the Ministry of Education formed a development committee in order to make a proposal for the new planning system of education. As a result, a new reform was again in progress. (Varjo, 2007, pp. 110–111.)

In the 1990s, Finland was suffering from a big economic crisis and the country drifted into depression. In the uncertain economic situation, the politicians realized that education had direct impacts on people's working life (Simola et al., 2002, pp. 247–264). Therefore, the country needed to develop education to be able to compete in the markets. During the 1980s and 1990s, the centralized administration was abolished and the Central Office was terminated. Due to this, the Ministry of education, the National School Board, the Provincial Government and schools started to control the Finnish education policies. (Aho, 1999, pp. 29–39.)

The National School Board was terminated and, in 1991, the National Board of Education was established and the new education policies were created. As a result, the tight norms abolished, and the interest was directed into learning outcomes. Then, the National Board of Education were given the liability for creating and developing the curriculum. Due to this, Finland received the next curriculum in 1994, and schools were now encouraged to be distinctive. Moreover, Finland joined the European Union in 1995 and internationalization through projects and exchange programs increased. (Hämäläinen et al., 2002, pp. 22–25.)

Basically, the national education policies were influenced by the international education trends. Moreover, organizations such as the WTO (the World Trade organization), the IMF (International Monetary Fund) and the OECD (The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development) affected the country's economic development. At the same time, neo-liberalism started to spread as a general ideology globally. (Poropudas & Mäkinen, 2001, pp. 11–12.) Consequently, in the 1990s, schools started to differentiate and divergences became part of the schools' marketing. It followed that the principle of equal education possibilities changed into a citizen's right to choose the good quality in education. As a result, schools started to compete with each other. Moreover, they launched a list of their achievements and the public placement test system was in progress. (Hämäläinen et al., 2002, pp. 23–25.)

Towards the end of the 1990s, it had been discovered that schools started to differentiate too strongly. In addition, the new Basic Education Act had been published in 1998 and it placed the demand for the next reform. (Taipale, 2005, p. 193.) Therefore, the planning of the 2004 curriculum had already begun in 1999 when the National Board of Education established a development group for the reform. In addition, the planning was conducted in cooperation with several municipalities and schools. Moreover, the curriculum was first piloted and then implemented in comprehensive schools by 2006. (Kartovaara, 2007, pp. 5–9.)

The purpose of the curriculum was to support equal education in Finland, and it reduced the differences between the Finnish schools (Taipale, 2005, p. 193). However, during the 2000s, internationalization, technology and working life placed new demands for the Finnish education. Therefore, another reform is in progress currently. The ongoing reform in Finland started in 2012 and the next curriculum should be ready by August 2016. The aim of the next curriculum is to emphasize the changing learning theory and support schools as learning organisations. (Opetushallitus, 2014.) The 2016

curriculum is discussed more thoroughly in the research analysis chapter 5.5. Moreover, the current administration model and education system of Finland are demonstrated in appendices 1 and 2.

2.4 Successful reform

As stated above, the school reforms should include both macro and the micro level developers (Marsh & Willis, 2003, pp. 196–197). In addition, leadership has a very important role when changes are conducted. In addition, the whole change process should be planned carefully. During our studies of educational leadership, we discussed the implementation of reforms. I studied Kotter's theory of change, and I came to a conclusion that it is essential to demonstrate some change tools for principals. Moreover, in the interviews it was highlighted that future changes demand development of the school's culture, and therefore cultural transitions are discussed in here.

Fullan (2002, pp. 16–20) highlights that only cultural changes can lead to the long-term results in the school context. Particularly, school culture demonstrates the rules that each member of the community must follow. Moreover, culture includes the norms and regulations which guide the daily actions. Most importantly, the organizational culture sets the organizations apart from other companies. Alternatively, it also defines who are “we” and who are “the others”. (Bennett, 2003, pp. 50–51.) As every community, the organizations also develop their own culture. They share the same values, traditions and habits. Then, these common features create cohesion inside the organization. (Dimmock & Walker, 2005, p. 11.)

The Finnish comprehensive school reforms have placed several requirements for the school culture. In the 1970s, teachers from middle and grammar schools moved under the same roof and teaching and teaching methods were modified according to the comprehensive school system. Since then, each reform has affected the schools dramatically. Therefore, it is essential that each reform is planned and performed carefully. (Opetushallitus, 2013, pp. 32–34.) In the future, the whole education system is going to change, which will set new demands on leadership and school cultures (Suortamo, 2014).

Kotter (1995) demonstrates that there should be eight different steps considered when changes are planned. He highlights that all these steps should be followed or

otherwise the transition is likely to fail. First, he points out the importance of understanding the need for the change. At this stage, open discussion about the possible profits and risks should be completed. Second, a powerful alliance should be formed inside the organization. Third, the organization has to have a clear vision and also a plan on how to achieve the goals. Fourth, the vision has to be a shared vision and the leading alliance has to be guided to the right direction. Fifth, the organizational structures have to support this new vision and obstacles need to be removed. (Kotter, 1995, pp. 59–67.)

In addition to these, the next step decreases the change resistance. Accordingly, the sixth step is to make smaller but concrete changes that will help the personnel commit to the changes. Seventh, the processes that support the vision should be settled. Moreover, the organization requires change agents, and therefore the staff members who support the new vision should share some of the responsibilities. Eighth and the last step, is to combine these new processes. Now, the organization should function as a whole, and it should focus on creating a shared culture. Moreover, leaders should be committed and the knowledge should be divided between the older and younger personnel so that the information does not lie in one pair of hands. Lastly, Kotter (1995) discusses that there might be other issues that should be taken into consideration. However, these are the most relevant ones for the school reforms. (Kotter, 1995, pp. 59–67.)

3 LEADERSHIP THEORY

In order to describe the different leadership approaches in the Finnish education system since the 1970s, this chapter demonstrates leadership theories that were the most relevant for the study. First, the principal's role as a leader is discussed. Second, the definitions of leadership and managerialism are presented. Third, instructional and pedagogical leadership are demonstrated. In this study, decision making in schools is presented as shared or distributed leadership and therefore they are also demonstrated in here. Fourth, the characteristics of the school leaders were examined and therefore trait leadership, transformational leadership, situational leadership and change leadership are highlighted. Lastly, the current status of the principals in Finland is presented.

3.1 School leaders

Fullan (2002) highlights that leadership has a key role in the school development. Moreover, he states that sustainable development should be at the main focus in schools and it would help leaders in changes. In addition, a good leader forms a leading team around him or her and together they form strategies and aims. Moreover, the school success cannot be only measured by learning outcomes, but the personnel's participation and motivation should also be taken into consideration. Furthermore, principals should encourage their personnel to cooperation and networking. (Fullan, 2005, pp. 8–9.)

Spillane, Halverson and Diamond (2004) state that leaders should provide adequate resources and possibilities to participate in the development to their personnel. In other words, leaders have to be the enablers to their staff and they have to guide

teachers to the right direction. Moreover, an efficient school leader looks after the school's macro level tasks which are, for example, the vision, resources, culture and assessment. In contrast to discipline, they should focus on quality education. Moreover, the school culture should be built in such matters that it ensures trust and collaboration towards the common goals. Most importantly, the education researchers have proved that leadership has direct impacts on learning outcomes and the best results have been achieved in schools where leadership has been shared. (Spillane, Halverson & Diamond, 2004, pp. 3–13.)

3.2 Leadership or managerialism

Northouse (2013) states that defining the term leadership is challenging because sometimes it can have a different meaning to different people. In addition, leadership has developed fast during the past decades, and new definitions have arrived. Northouse (2013) continues that leadership can be studied through several perspectives. Firstly, trait and process leadership can be compared in order to describe the position power of the person. Essentially, according to the trait leadership theory, leadership occurs through the leaders' personal characteristics and their natural authority. On the contrary, according to the process leadership theory, leadership can be found in everybody and it can be learned. Moreover, leaders can be divided to assigned and emergent leaders. The assigned leaders receive their position through formal agreements. In contrast, the emergent leaders receive their power from their followers who promote them as the leaders. In addition to these, management and leadership are often separated from each other. It can be stated that the difference between these two approaches is that management uses control and order, and leadership aims at more constructive outcomes. (Northouse, 2013, pp. 7–13.)

Although this research has its focus on leadership, the term managerialism has to be taken into account because it could be detected from the Finnish school system. Basically, managerialism is a leadership approach in which the individuals and the organization are led with the most efficient means. However, the efficiency in this manner often relates to the economic proficiency and not that much to the personnel's satisfaction. In addition, managerialism is a leader-centered strategy which ensures that instructions and directives are followed. Moreover, managerialism can be described as a

planned control that assures that things are done in a certain way. Furthermore, in managerialism it is determined that “accountability” should be secured in organizations through the hierarchical power division. In other words, various participants are appointed to be accountable. (Ojala, 2003, pp. 27–37.)

Characteristically, in the school administration accountability demonstrates the official responsibilities received through the employment contracts. In addition, managerialism can occur through the coercive, mimetic and normative methods. First, coercive elements describe the amount of norms. Second, the mimetic model demonstrates the fostering of the previous procedures. Third, the normative model emphasizes the general values that are considered in all actions in the organizations. (Ojala, 2003, pp. 27–37.)

Murray (2010) continues that managers are hostages that ensure that the instructions are followed. Even though they might think that they have the leader's position they are most likely following someone else's orders. Moreover, he agrees that managers focus on structures and control. In addition, they are administrators and their work is guided by rules and timetables. Lastly, he demonstrates that managers often lead with a short-range vision. (Murray, 2010, pp. 1–3.) Lastly, Kruse (2013) demonstrates that leadership differentiates from managerialism in several ways because managers plan, supervise, solve problems and recruit in a very systematic way. On the contrary, leaders lead people and try to encourage them to do their best. (Kruse, 2013, pp. 1–3.)

The concept of leadership is very versatile and it does not have only one feature but many. In fact, leaders need to have many good qualities. Basically, leadership can be demonstrated as a process of influence through communication. Moreover, it encourages people to do their best and cooperate towards the common goal. In addition, leadership does not require authority because people work according to social influence. Kruse (2013) continues that leadership should not have anything to do with seniority or hierarchical positioning. Moreover, he proceeds that these old features of leaders are rarely successful because a certain age does not guarantee the needed leadership qualities. In addition, titles can sometimes be granted as the official acknowledgements but they do not ensure successful leadership qualities either. (Kruse, 2013, pp. 1–3.)

3.3 Leadership theories

When looking at the Finnish education steering systems since the 1970s, instructional, and pedagogical leadership can be discussed. Stewart (2006) highlights that according to Heck and Hallinger (1999) *instructional leadership* has been one of the most commonly known leadership styles internationally. Accordingly, the instructional style focuses on the schools' aims, curriculum, rules and school environment. In addition, the leadership approach demonstrates the top-down model, where the principal's main task is to ensure that teachers teach effectively. Moreover, students are at the centre of schools but schools are responsible for providing knowledge with the specific methods. Nevertheless, the leader's role is the most important factor in the school. (Stewart, 2006, pp. 4–6.)

Hallinger (2000) continues that instructional leadership focuses on the roles of school principals as the directive leaders. Then, their leading is technical because their main concern is to make sure that rules and instructions are followed. Moreover, he demonstrates three key elements of instructional leadership which are the school goals, instructions, and an effective learning culture. (Hallinger, 2003, pp. 331–332.) When instructional leadership is discussed in the Finnish context, it is essential to highlight that the comprehensive school system fosters teachers' autonomy. Moreover, in the further discussion the instructional approach in this research demonstrates merely the *top-down leadership* model instead of the strict instructional approach.

Today, the education system is being renewed at all stages and the old leadership methods can no longer be implemented. Moreover, instructional leadership has played a key role for a long time, but it is no longer enough. (Alava et al., 2012, pp. 41–42.) In order to produce supportive and creative learning environments, students should be considered as a whole. In contrast to the instructional style, *pedagogical leadership* acknowledges learners as the most important thing in the schools. Then, pedagogical leadership emphasizes the real life examples and aims to develop functional learning communities in which the teachers are learners too. (Macneill, Cavanagh & Silcox, 2005, pp. 3–6.)

The principal's pedagogical leadership signifies that the principal is both instructional and supportive to the teachers. Similarly, knowledge gathering and continuous learning are possible for teachers as well as for the principal. Basically, in the principal's work the most essential processes should be the curriculum, the

organizational culture, the common goal and the school mission. However, the successful implementation of these processes requires pedagogical leadership from the superintendents and other leaders too. (Alava et al., 2012, pp. 42–43, 47–48.)

Next, decision making in school is described with shared leadership and distributed leadership. *Shared leadership* states that several team members participate in decision making. In addition, all group members act as the leaders and they also share the responsibility for the results. Similarly, the group members have the same amount of influence power on the decisions. (Hoch, 2012, p. 161.) In addition, shared leadership has been described as teamwork. However, the team does not have a certain leader but the whole team acts as a leader. (Ensley, Hmielski & Pearce, 2006, p. 220.)

Hughes and Pickeral (2013) state that shared leadership occurs when staff members, students and parents collaborate in order to overcome problems. When shared leadership is implemented in schools, it is likely to increase the teachers' motivation and commitment. In addition, it demonstrates joint responsibilities and encourages everybody to open communication. Moreover, shared leadership is a leadership approach in which the leaders act in an ethical and honored way towards their colleagues. (Hughes & Pickeral, 2013, pp. 1–4.) Lastly, shared leadership creates the feeling of ownership and the teachers become responsible for the whole school and not only their classrooms. (Wilhelm, 2013, pp. 62–63.)

Distributed leadership highlights that schools have many leaders and together they share responsibilities. Moreover, distributed leadership consists of communication and interaction and it supports lateral decision making. In addition, the school leaders' tasks have increased enormously and therefore it is inevitable for them to divide their decision making. According to different studies, distributed leadership has positive effects on learning outcomes. Moreover, distributed leadership not only shares power but also considers carefully how the leadership should be divided. Most importantly, the approach makes leadership transparent and it encourages all participants to do their best. (Harris & Spillane, 2008, pp. 31–34.)

According to Alava et al. (2012), distributed leadership signifies that everybody has an important role in the school dynamics. Moreover, the principal's role is to run the school but there are several experts on other levels too. In addition, distributed leadership ensures that everybody is able to use their best skills and even the students and parents are involved. Furthermore, distributed leadership creates learning communities in which everyone is a learner. (Alava et al., 2012, p. 48.) Spillane (2005)

continues that open communication guarantees that the job is done with high quality. Again, he claims that distributed leadership is collaboration between the principal, teachers and status quo. (Spillane, 2005, pp. 143–150.)

The first theories of leadership perceived organizations from the leaders' perspective. Moreover, the personality, traits, skills or behaviour determined the good qualities of the leader. Leadership theories began with the Great Man theory, according to which leaders were born as such and leadership characteristics could be inherited. Furthermore, this theory was followed by the *trait approach* that suggests that the leader's personal features separate the genuine leaders from the unqualified leaders. In addition, it is claimed that organizations required a certain type of leader in order to succeed. (Northouse, 2010, pp. 19–40.) In the 1950s, the Skills theory was represented and it states that the skills can be learned. In addition, it was claimed that career experience automatically improves leadership skills. (Northouse, 2010, pp. 43–72.)

The definitions from the 1960s started with inauthenticity leadership (instructional leadership) and they demonstrate leaders as the front men of organizations. In the 1980s, Henderson and Hoy (1983) started to use the term educational leadership, and pointed out that real leaders do not fall into stereotypes or hide behind roles. Therefore, transformational leadership became a popular leadership style in schools. Particularly, *transformational leadership* values positivity, cooperativeness, and morality. In addition, it aims to turn followers into leaders. Moreover, the transformational leadership style demonstrates the importance of self-leadership and personal values. Additionally, the transformational leaders are able to change others through the vision and motivation. Moreover, transformational leadership supports charismatic leaders as one of its main features. (Avolio & Gardner, 2005, pp. 315–321, 329–330.)

In the beginning of the 1990s, demands for a new leadership style increased. Consequently, leadership styles were examined and Leithwood became one of the leading researchers of transformational leadership. He developed the principal's profile to measure the rectors' effectiveness. In addition, his research increased understanding on the issue that leaders have a major impact on the schools' climate and culture. Moreover, he studied the personnel's problem solving skills and transformational leadership was discovered to be a successful tool in leading changes. (Brinks, 2012, pp. 3–29.) In addition to these, transformational leadership supports the long-term vision, and the followers' development. Moreover, with the transformational leadership approach all members are cared about and the aim is to increase motivation and

intelligence at the same time. In addition, transformational leaders act like mentors and they lead in an exemplary manner. (Nash, 2012, pp. 3–6.)

Situational leadership is discussed when the main focus of leadership is on the existing situation. Situational leadership was developed in 1969 and it was stated that leadership requires both instructional and supportive behaviour. Moreover, leaders have to assess their personnel in order to receive information about what kinds of actions are needed in certain situations. In addition, the leaders should be able to change their leading style according to the settings. Essentially, situational leadership is divided to four different leadership styles which are delegating, supporting, coaching and directing. (Northouse, 2010, pp. 99–119.)

Essentially, in different situations the amount of support and instructions varies between high and low. According to the directive behaviour, the amount of information is high but support or guidance stays at a low level, whereas in the coaching style the number of instructions and support are at a high level. On the contrary, when considering the delegating behaviour, it is emphasized that the amount of both support and instructions remains low. Last, according to the supporting approach, the leader's directive behaviour is low but support is provided at a high level. In other words, leaders change their behaviour according to how much guidance or support their staff need in different situations. (Northouse, 2010, pp. 99–119.)

Change leadership is a process in which transitions are predicted and the organization's external and internal factors are taken into account. Most importantly, change leadership emphasizes transitions in organizations and individuals. In addition, the change leaders do not only act on the school level but they perceive education as a whole. In addition, they appreciate open dialogue and conduct planning in collaboration with their staff. Moreover, the change leaders consider themselves as servants to their staff and they support the teachers' and students' development. (Cloud, 2010, pp. 73–77.)

In addition, change leaders support the common vision and they do not implement only their own ideas. In addition, they have emotional intelligence and lead ethically. As principals, their actions are trustworthy and their personnel consider them as equal and gentle leaders. Moreover, change leaders do not only have the good quality of characteristics but they are also professionally qualified. In addition, they make efforts to improve the quality of the whole organization. (Cloud, 2010, pp. 73–77.)

3.4 Leadership development since the 1970s in Finnish schools

Before the Finnish comprehensive school was established in 1970, the previous grammar and middle schools had their own laws and leaders. In middle schools, the leader was one of the teachers and his or her work was similar to the teachers'. Accordingly, in schools the teachers taught independently and the leading teacher secured that the school's instructions and orders were followed. In addition, the leading teacher was supposed to follow and guide the teachers to cooperation but still respect the teachers' autonomy. However, middle schools were usually small village schools and therefore the leading teachers had an important role and influence power in the villages. On the contrary, grammar schools supported principals who were responsible for the discipline and supervision of teachers. Basically, the comprehensive school system changed the status of principals and schools were controlled more strongly from the outside. Typically, the National School Board, Provincial and Municipal Governments supervised the school's actions. (Hämäläinen et al., 2002, pp. 17–19.)

In the 1970s, the principals' main job was to implement the new education system which would provide educational equality. At the time, schools were controlled by many instances and, for example, the Municipal Education Departments supervised the education managers who were responsible for the school administration, economics and pedagogy. Therefore, the principals' main job was only to make sure that daily routines were working at schools. (Taipale, 2005, p. 188.) Moreover, the education system was centralized and schools were controlled by the school inspections (Lahtero, 2011, p. 20).

The Finnish comprehensive school followed the leading model of middle schools and in these schools the leader had been chosen from among the teachers (Taipale, 2005, p. 188). During the 1970s, principals were chosen by the National School Board and the nomination could be done without the opinion of the selected. Furthermore, the principals' status was close to that of teachers, and their tasks included teaching and management. Most importantly, the rectors were the role models of their school. (Isosomppi, 1996, pp. 100–108.)

At the end of the decade, the headmaster's status became stronger because the Decision on Principals was placed in 1978. The agreement made the title “principal” official and vacancies became open. (Isosomppi, 1996, pp. 100–108.) At the time, the principals' teaching hours reduced and principals were supposed to have more time for pedagogical issues. (Hämäläinen et al., 2002, pp. 17–19.) However, the official

agreement led to divergent opinions. Accordingly, teachers were afraid that headmasters would become the representatives of the employer and they would no longer be part of the teachers' union. Moreover, the principals also felt that they were in a complicated situation because their power remained low and the Municipal School Departments and the Provincial Government made most of the decisions. (Taipale, 2005, p. 188.)

In the 1980s, the aim was to abolish the centralized steering systems. Therefore, in the 1985 curriculum, municipalities became responsible for planning and implementing the regional and local curricula. Therefore, the principals' work was controlled from the top and, for example, their work was guided by the principals' task list which included 17 different liabilities. According to the list, the principal's job was, for example, to supervise that the laws and norms were followed. Accordingly, the list was also used by the inspectors in their school evaluations. Moreover, these inspections caused pressure to do things according to the rules and creativity was not allowed. Essentially, the principal's recruitment followed the 1970s system and principals were mostly assigned to their positions. In addition, the principals' vacancies were open but the strong teacher association ensured that the teachers had the casting vote in the recruitment. (Taipale, 2005, pp. 189–190.)

In the 1980s, the aim of the principal's work was to focus on pedagogical leading. Primarily, principals were in charge of renewing education but usually teachers did not give their support to those attempts. In addition, in the beginning of the 1980s, the school principals stated that they did not have enough time to be the pedagogical leaders because administrative work took all of their time. In addition, the term 'pedagogical leader' was strange to them. (Taipale, 2005, p. 189.) Essentially, in the 1980s, teachers hoped that principals could focus on the administrative tasks and the pedagogical development should belong to them. In other words, principals were supposed to act as invisible civil servants. Moreover, the principals' and teachers' cooperation remained low and they worked together mostly when the schools' annual plan was written. (Taipale, 2005, pp. 189–190.)

In the 1990s, education was no longer used strongly as a political tool and it was concentrated more on quality education. In addition, the school administration cut down the number of norms but the teachers' union tightened their agreements. (Taipale, 2005, p. 190.) In the 1990s, Finland suffered from major changes socially and economically and the country drifted to depression. Therefore, the state implemented a tight budget for schools and in order to reduce the personnel costs the school administration was

terminated. Moreover, in 1991, the National Board of Education was set up and new education policy was launched. (Hämäläinen et al., 2002, pp. 23–25.)

Taipale (2005, pp. 189–190) states that at the same time the principal's task list was abolished and the tight norms were changed to the follow-up of learning outcomes. Then, the National Board of Education was given the responsibility for creating the national curriculum. For these reasons, schools were now able to modify the local curricula and they were supported to be distinctive. (Hämäläinen et al., 2002, pp. 23–25.) Consequently, principals were no longer assigned to their positions and since 1998 the principal's qualifications were determined by a law (1998/986). In addition, the principals' tasks were determined in the Finnish Local Government Act in 1995. Accordingly, this law presented principals as the municipal civil servants. (Alava et al., 2012, p. 18.)

The number of school norms decreased and principals were allocated more responsibilities. In addition, the leaders were now supposed to focus on resourcing and leadership development. Thus, principals had more freedom in their schools but it also brought extra work and obligations to them. Particularly, the principal's job was to create a positive public image and schools wanted to be seen. In addition, the amount of stakeholders increased and they placed different expectations to principals. Moreover, the school life was in constant change and leadership skills had a major role in the principal's life. Therefore, the pressure on leaders grew strongly and some of the principals applied back to their original teachers' positions. (Hämäläinen et al., 2002, pp. 25–27.)

Typical of the decade was that principals allied with other headmasters so that their schools could become stronger. In addition, teachers realized that schools needed a leader and therefore they again gave their support to the principals. Accordingly, the principal's job called for a strong personality who would be able to create strong networks and market the school positively. In addition, it was understood that schools that used shared decision making were most likely to succeed during these insecure times. (Taipale, 2005, pp. 191–192.)

In the 2000s, the teachers' interest towards the curriculum continued because schools were again able to create their own plans. In addition, students and parents were taken into consideration and the commitment towards the work grew. Moreover, schools continued to profile and they were able to provide more selection in the courses. (Hämäläinen et al., 2002, pp. 30–31.) Then, in 2004, the new curriculum was published

and it included the national guidelines for education. Most importantly, its purpose was to unify the Finnish schools and reduce their differences. As a result, the competitiveness of basic education remained quite low, though some of the Finnish schools had expressed their interest towards the private school system. However, the number of the private schools is still very low in the country. (Taipale, 2005, p. 193.)

Then, in the 2000s, effectiveness became visible in the municipal sector. This created new demands on principals and their leadership required professional leading. In addition, the principals' in-service training became essential for their work. Moreover, in the 2000s, the principals became representatives of their employers and they participated in the local politics. Consequently, the principals' role in human resources was growing and they usually recruited their staff. However, leadership differentiated the teachers' and leaders' roles and leading became more complicated. Accordingly, schools were growing and the administrative tasks took more and more of the principal's time. In addition, the principals were liable for their actions to various stakeholders. Moreover, the principal's task list no longer existed, which made the principal's job quite unlimited. (Taipale, 2005, p. 193.)

3.5 School leader today

Currently, the Finnish basic education is steered by the Basic Education Act (1998/628), the Basic Education Decree (1998/852) and the 2004 basic education curriculum (Pesonen, 2009, p. 19). Rokka (2011, p. 32) states that the 2004 curriculum returned some of the instructional management because the curriculum was again based on the norms and instructions. Currently, the principal's qualification requirements are determined by a law (1998/986), according to which the principals have to have a Master's degree, the teacher's qualifications for the school, teaching experience and the educational administration studies or the corresponding knowledge (Taipale, 2012, p. 20).

Basically, the current curriculum defines that principals lead their schools according to the laws. At the moment, the Finnish schools are mostly public and principals are civil servants. Essentially, the decentralized steering has turned into flexible guidance in which the Ministry of Education sets up the rules of education policies. Moreover, the National Board of Education is responsible for the school

development. Even though the school actions are determined nationally, municipalities and schools have a lot of decision power too. (Pesonen, 2009, pp. 20–23.)

In Finland, the principal is a school leader who works together with the vice principal(s) and a school assistant. Basically, principals are responsible for their schools but they also meet a lot of expectations coming outside the school. In addition, during the comprehensive school era, the Finnish education has developed enormously and, for example, internationalization and technology have taken huge steps forward. Furthermore, the schools' marketing and parents' involvement have also set new needs for education. In addition, schools get feedback more openly from their work. (Honkanen, 2012, pp. 10–11.)

Primarily, the principal's responsibility is to make sure that education follows the society's aims. In addition, the principals are responsible for the fact that the school's vision and strategies are followed. Moreover, they guide teachers in their work and secure that the political intensions and the National Board of Education's guidelines are ensured. (Hämäläinen et al., 2002, pp. 38–41.) At the moment, principals' responsibilities are determined in the Finnish Local Government Act of 1995 (Alava et al., 2012, p. 18). In addition, principals follow the Ethical Code of Conduct that was approved in 1996 by the board of the Finnish Principal's Association (Hämäläinen et al., 2002, pp. 38–41).

According to the guidelines, principals have to respect the personnel's individuality, look at things from the students' perspective and ensure a safe environment. In the future, the principal's status will become stronger and principals themselves have the biggest responsibility for creating their position. Most importantly, they need to act as school politicians, pedagogical leaders and civil servants at the same time. (Hämäläinen et al., 2002, pp. 38–41.) Currently, the Finnish education principle determines that every school has to have a principal. Moreover, principals are responsible for all school actions economically and pedagogically. However, very often the pedagogical development suffers from the amount of office tasks. (Huusko, Pietarinen, Pyhältö & Soini, 2007, pp. 122–126.)

Essentially, Finnish principals are qualified teachers and often their experience as teachers influences on their leadership. Today, school leadership demands that headmasters are able to lead processes and constant changes. Therefore, in the changing school life, principals are the foremen of transitions and they have to enable continuous learning to their staff and to themselves. According to these expectations, principals

always have to be one step ahead in their organization. (Huusko et al., 2007, pp. 122–126.)

Hämäläinen et al. (2002) state that a good leader does not follow either the centralized or the decentralized approach but he or she has to be able to use them both. Principals lead expert organizations in which the personnel are mostly highly educated. In addition, they need to develop a sense of community. Basically, principals have to lead themselves effectively so that they can act in a genuine way. Although principals are responsible for leading their school, they very rarely can make the decisions on their own. Instead, they have to cooperate with the administration, municipalities, school boards and even students. (Hämäläinen et al., 2002, pp. 80–93.)

4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 Background and aim of the study

The idea for the study developed during the first academic year 2012-2013 of my Master's Degree studies. The curriculum reform was in progress in Finland and the new basic education curriculum will be launched in 2016 (Opetushallitus, 2014). Basically, I was a newcomer in the educational field and I did not have any teaching experience. Therefore, my interest towards the new curriculum increased and I wanted to get more knowledge about the Finnish curriculum process. Moreover, in order to understand the forthcoming changes I needed to understand the history of the Finnish curricula. Most importantly, I studied educational leadership as a major and as I noticed, the curriculum had been rarely researched from the leadership perspective. Therefore, I decided to study the relationship between leadership and the Finnish curricula since the 1970s.

The aim of the study is to understand and open up the curriculum process and find out how much information it provides for school leaders. In other words, the purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between the curricula and leadership.

4.2 Research questions

The main frame of the study is created around three research questions:

- How have the Finnish curricula developed since the 1970s?
- How has leadership been described in the Finnish curricula since the 1970s?

- What kind of leadership styles can be interpreted from the Finnish curricula since the 1970s?

4.3 Qualitative content analysis

Qualitative research is often used when real life issues, such as people's experiences, interactions or social knowledge, are examined. In addition, the role of the researcher is to describe events and move towards generalizations. Moreover, researchers should be objective and their behaviour should not distort the results. (Björk, pp. 2–3.) Basically, in qualitative research, the data are uncountable and interpretation is needed to describe the results (Glesne, 2010, p. 7). In addition, qualitative data can be collected through interviews, questionnaires, observation and text documents. Moreover, the research can be conducted with one method or a combination of methods. In addition, the data collection method can be chosen according to the research questions and available resources. (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2012, p. 71.)

Content analysis is a text analysis which studies written documents and, for example, historical studies can benefit from it (Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011, p. 62). The difference between quantitative and qualitative content analysis is that quantitative data collection can be done, for example, through word-counting but the qualitative approach describes the written text. Thus, content analysis can be used in order to describe numerical findings that have been turned into a written form. Moreover, content analysis investigates similarities and differences and aims to summarize them. In content analysis material is disintegrated, renamed and then recollected to a new form. (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2002, pp. 105–116.)

Miles and Huberman (1994) demonstrate three different ways to conduct content analysis, and they have discussed the interpretative approach, the social anthropological approach and the collaborative social research approach. Firstly, the *interpretative approach* states that social activities are searched from the text through symbols and then the theoretical frame influences how the findings are interpreted. Secondly, the social anthropological approach requires that a long period of time is used in data collection so that the findings can be compared. In addition, this approach requires that the used language and cultural symbols are understood. Thirdly, the collaborative social research approach highlights that the researcher is part of the study and aims to establish

certain action or even change among the target group. (Miles & Huberman, 1994, pp. 5–9.) In addition to these, Jupp and Norris (1993) discuss that the theoretical framework can be created through three different methods which are the positivist, interpretative and critical frames. First, the positivist style focuses on objectives and resembles a quantitative study. Second, the interpretative frame describes acts as part of social phenomena. Third, the critical approach is theoretical and resembles discourse analysis. (Jupp & Norris, 1993, pp. 37–51.)

Essentially, content analysis can be divided to conventional, directed and summative content analysis. First, conventional analysis is often used to describe phenomena which originate from the data. Second, directed content analysis begins from an existing theory. Third, summative content analysis searches certain terms in order to understand the data. In addition, summative analysis can use word-counting as a data collection tool. Moreover, all these forms follow a certain research path and aim to solve similar problems. In addition to these three styles, content analysis can be divided into deductive and inductive approaches. Accordingly, inductive analysis moves from details to broader perspectives. On the other hand, deductive analysis moves from general to detailed information. (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2012, pp. 105–108.)

In *summative content analysis*, the searched concepts are already known in the beginning of the study. Though the keywords are ready, categorizing can also create new information. In summative content analysis, the researcher collects certain symbols or expressions and applies them to the existing theory. (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2012, p. 117.) Firstly, summative content analysis starts with the key points of the study which can be words, messages, symbols or themes. Secondly, the key categories have to be written down and thirdly, the collected data and codes are analyzed. (McKernan, 1998, pp. 145–147.) In addition, summative content analysis aims to combine information and categorize similarities and differences (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2012, p. 118).

This *research process* started by collecting information from the relevant literature, and at first the theoretical framework was outlined. As a result, the most important issues for the study were the Finnish curricula since the 1970s. In addition, curriculum theory, reforms and leadership theory formed to be the key elements of the study. Second, the table of contents was sketched and the essential theory was introduced. In addition, qualitative research and content analysis were chosen because of the written and historical data. Moreover, the results were interpreted with writings. In this research, the summative content analysis formed to be the best analysis tool

because the leadership theme was already known in the beginning of the study. Basically, the research questions steered to certain theories and therefore it was a natural choice for the study.

As stated above, this research followed McKernan's (1998) and Tuomi and Sarajarvi's (2012) instructions about content analysis. Firstly, the key points of the study were chosen. Secondly, the categories were written down. Thirdly, data was collected and the received results were analyzed. Fourthly, similarities and differences were searched. Fifthly, the results were described in a written form. Moreover, the reliability of the study was checked during the process, and in the end, the whole study was evaluated (see McKernan, 1998, pp. 145–147; Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2012, pp. 117–118).

This research had quantitative features as the study began with word-counting from the table of contents of the curricula, and then later on the whole curricula were examined. Moreover, leadership theme was known in the beginning of the study but at the end, the leadership findings determined what kind of theory was needed in order to describe the leadership styles. Essentially, Tuomi and Sarajärvi (2012, pp. 105–108) discuss that content analysis can be divided to inductive and deductive analysis. Accordingly, this research emphasized both styles because first, simple words from the curricula formed wider theories and then again in the conclusions theories were scattered to smaller details.

4.4 Curricula as data

When the nature of documentary evidence is discussed, it is essential to describe which documents are used. Moreover, the documents should be categorized according to their primary or secondary position. In addition, primary documents can be divided into deliberate or inadvertent sources. Typically, the deliberate sources are useful for future studies, and the inadvertent documents include additional information which has been used by the researcher. Moreover, documents analysis is challenging because the researchers have to know what they are looking for. Furthermore, the primary documents might be written in old or symbolic language, and therefore the researchers have to establish coding very carefully. (Duffy, 1987, pp. 53–54.)

McCulloch (2004) discusses certain rules which can be used when documents are analyzed. He highlights the importance of authenticity, reliability, meaning and

theorization. Firstly, authenticity states that the documents should be original and truthful. In addition, the place and date of the documents should be published. Secondly, when researcher is satisfied with authenticity, the reliability of the documents must be evaluated. However, reliability at this stage means that the availability of the documents is assessed. Thirdly, the meaning of the document has to be evaluated and this denotes that information is significant for the examiner. In addition, the relationship between the document and context must be assessed. Lastly, the used theory completes the analysis. (McCulloch, 2004, pp. 42–46.)

In this study, data were collected from the official comprehensive school curricula which had been published in 1970, 1985, 1994 and 2004. (Vitikka et al., 2012, pp. 84–85.) In addition, the draft of the forthcoming curriculum 2016 was available on the National Board of Education webpages (Opetushallitus, 2014). Between reforms some refinements to the curricula had been made and, for example, the Basic Education Act and Decrees had been renewed in 1983 and 1998. However, in order to maintain a clear focus and retrieve a reasonable amount of data, this study researched only the official curricula. Therefore, the authenticity and reliability of the documents were at a high level. In this research, theory was chosen according to the research questions and later it was used in order to discuss the research findings.

4.5 Interviews as data

Interviews are a good method when we need to find out information about what someone really thinks about something. In addition, interviews are flexible and the researcher can make sure that the interviewee understands the questions correctly. Moreover, interviews guarantee good quality answers because the interviewees can be selected. Furthermore, the interviewees most often allow the researchers to use the given information in their study because they have had chance to discuss and refine their answers during the conversation. (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2012, pp. 71–73.)

Primarily, qualitative interviews can be divided to unstructured and semi-structured interviews. The unstructured questions demonstrate the open discussion. In contrast, the semi-structured method includes certain interview questions that need to be answered. However, all interview questions should be open-ended. In contrast to the

unstructured questions, the semi-structured interview guarantees that all participants answer to the same questions. (Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011, pp. 62–64.)

In addition to the curriculum examination, two expert interviews were conducted as the semi-structured interview in this research. Essentially, the interview included four different interview questions, and three out of four questions encompassed information of all the curriculum reforms since the 1970s. The interview participants were selected from among the steering group of the curriculum 2016 process. Thus, three interview requests were presented and two principals were able to participate in the interview. First, Mr Markku Suortamo, the principal of Puistokoulu (primary school) in Jyväskylä, Finland, was interviewed, and second, Mr Jukka Kuittinen, the principal of Saarnilaakso (junior high school) in Espoo, Finland, was interviewed. Most importantly, they both had a long career in the educational field and they had been working in schools since the 1970s. Moreover, they worked currently as the principals. Their answers provided important knowledge for the study, and in the research analysis their answers are summarized. The interview questions are demonstrated in appendix 3.

4.6 Data analysis and interpretation

As stated above, data collection was conducted with a summative content analysis in which the leadership theme formed the key element. Firstly, data was gathered from the curricula's table of contents. At this point, it became evident that leadership was clearly mentioned only in the 1970 and 1985 curricula. Therefore, at the second stage the whole curricula were investigated and leadership findings were written down in the summaries. In addition to the curricula, data was gathered from the expert interviews. Accordingly, the results were again demonstrated as the stories. Therefore, the study followed an interpretative analysis in which leadership was searched for in the curricula and the interview answers. In order to describe the data, the themes were written down in the summaries which described the key elements of the different decades. As a result, the summaries presented the research findings and were later used in order to make conclusions. The data collection of the curricula is demonstrated in appendix 4.

4.7 Research evaluation

According to research ethics, information has to be universal, public, neutral and systematically assessed. In addition, ethics in research work refers to good quality and the researcher's commitment to establish the study according to the research plan. When research ethics is considered, it is essential to justify to oneself and others why a certain topic and methods were used. In addition to ethics, also the reliability and validity of the study should be considered. Accordingly, validity means that the research investigates issues that it was supposed to study. Moreover, reliability requires repeatability from the study. However, nowadays the use of the terms validity and reliability are argued in the qualitative study. (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2012, pp. 126–129, 134–141.)

Tuomi and Sarajärvi (2012) continue that the terms credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability should rather be used in qualitative studies. They state that when the research authenticity is discussed, seven different elements should be taken into consideration. Firstly, the aim and motive should be evaluated. Second, the data collection methods and tools should be assessed. Third, the research participants should be described and their participation should be justified. Fourth, the relationship between the researcher and the participants should not affect the results. Fifth, the research duration should be long enough in order to collect trustworthy data. Sixth, the research data should be analyzed with a proper analysis method and the selection has to be grounded. Research ethics has to be evaluated, and lastly, fluency and logicity of the report need to be evaluated. (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2012, pp. 126–129, 134–141.)

The credibility of the study states that the research findings must be truthful. Moreover, it is evaluated if the research participants have been described and justified sufficiently. With transferability, it is demonstrated that results need to be transferred to another context. Dependability, at its simplest, is illustrated so that the research is evaluated by a third party. In addition, the research must have been carried out with the academic principles. Lastly, confirmability demonstrates that the research results have to be supported by other studies. (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2012, p. 136.)

In the research world it is very common that the research findings overlap or argue with other studies. In addition, different research results can be valid at the same time. However, this can be explained by different research perspectives and methods. Therefore, in order to justify the accuracy of the study, triangulation can be used as a measurement. Essentially, triangulation is an evaluation method that provides

information on whether the study has been conducted with qualified methods. Moreover, in qualitative study, triangulation can be used for measuring the trustworthiness of the research. In addition, it evaluates if the research questions have been answered with the reliable findings. (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2012, pp. 144–145.)

According to Denzin (1970), triangulation can be divided to the evaluation of the data, the researcher, the theory and the methodology. In addition, with triangulation of the multi-method research, it can be demonstrated that the research can assess not only one, but a combination of these features. First, data triangulation means that the research data and materials are collected with several sampling methods. Second, researcher triangulation denotes that more than one researcher conducted the study. Third, theoretical triangulation signifies that two or more theoretical statements were used as the basis of the study. Fourth, methodology triangulation stands for the use of different data collection methods. (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2012, pp. 144–145.) The research evaluation of this study is presented in chapter 6.

5 RESEARCH RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between the Finnish National Core Curricula and leadership. Accordingly, the research investigates the official curricula and demonstrates the leadership findings in the form of a summary. In addition, the key findings of the summaries are presented in Tables 1-6. Moreover, the expert interviews provide general information from schools, curriculum and leadership during the different decades. Therefore, the interview answers are presented as the stories after the document analysis.

In addition to these, each decade is concluded by a leadership analysis, which combines theory, the interview answers and the curricula findings. In the leadership analysis the themes are categorized to three levels which are the steering systems, the decision making in schools and the leader. As a result, the discovered leadership approaches are demonstrated in Table 7.

In the following, the research findings and the discussion proceed at the same time. In this study, the amount of the data was large and therefore the results are first demonstrated in chronological order. Finally, information of the decades is combined with the research conclusions. In order to clarify the term of “the curriculum”, it has to be acknowledged that in the Finnish context the curriculum is often referred to as the National Core Curriculum of the basic education. Nevertheless, in this research the document is called “the curriculum”.

5.1 Launch of comprehensive school and teachers as leaders (1970)

The 1970 curriculum includes two separate books which were called the Basic Education Curriculum Committee's report I and II. This research focused on the first report because it was more relevant for the study. First, the 1970 curriculum's table of contents was studied. As a result it was discovered that it has titles from the Curriculum Committee which had confirmed the new curriculum for the comprehensive school. In addition, pedagogical guidance was mentioned directly. Moreover, the school leader's and homeroom teacher's tasks were presented in the table of contents. Second, the whole curriculum was researched and written into a summary. The curriculum was really detailed and the issues were mentioned many times; therefore only the most important leadership themes are demonstrated in Table 1. Lastly, the research findings are demonstrated as a summary from the whole curriculum.

Leadership themes of the 1970 curriculum		
	Table of contents	Document
The steering system	The Curriculum Committee	The Government, the Comprehensive School Committee, the Basic Education Committee, the School Reform Committee, the Committee Act of 1965, the systematic evaluation, the School Council, the central administration, the regional administration, the local administration, the School Board, the Provincial Government, the Municipal Education, the Advisory Board
Decision making in schools	Pedagogical guidance	Pedagogical guidance, the authoritarian regime, authoritative leadership, the school's annual plan, teacher-led
Leader	The principal's or school leader's task	Principals tasks and obligations, the Basic Education Decree, the principal's and vice principal's offices
Other	The homeroom teacher's task	The student assessment, the class and school units' rules, the municipalities' role to provide equipment, the student union, the homeroom teacher

Table 1. Leadership themes of the 1970 curriculum.

5.1.1 Leadership in the document

Fundamentally, the curriculum begins with a statement to the Finnish Government. It highlights that in December 1966 the Comprehensive School Committee was established on the basis of the previous Basic Education Committee and School Reform Committee. Accordingly, the Curriculum Committee's responsibility was to create plans and a curriculum draft for the comprehensive school. Essentially, in the curriculum it was stated that the previous education system supported unequal education possibilities and had a fragmented administration. Therefore, the comprehensive school had the starting point as early as in the 1965 Committee Act, which supported the nine-year comprehensive school. Then, on the basis of the school experiments conducted in the 1960s, the comprehensive school system was launched in 1970. (Komiteanmietintö, 1970, pp. 3–6, 13–19.)

In the curriculum, the aims of the Curriculum Committee and Basic Education are demonstrated. In addition, the definition of the curriculum highlights the structures of the syllabus. Moreover, the implementation process is presented, and the role of basic education in the education system and society is discussed. Accordingly, it was stated the responsibility of the school was to teach issues that could not be learned elsewhere. In addition, the schools were to provide systematic teaching integrated with other subjects, and they had a special responsibility to educate for the citizen's actions and achievements. Accordingly, the relationship between the curriculum and school work, the social community and teacher training were also demonstrated. (Komiteanmietintö, 1970, pp. 20–24, 56–72.)

The curriculum development was seen as an important part of the school's work. Therefore, it was stated that, for example, the systematic evaluation was essential for the schools. Moreover, self-assessment was described as a positive approach, and that with the results, the teachers should have been able to recognize the inadequate teaching methods or testing systems. Then, it was stated that the schools started to use the sampling tests so that the students' learning outcomes could be compared with those in other schools. (Komiteanmietintö, 1970, pp. 73–94, 116–130.)

Also student assessment was highlighted as part of the curriculum development. In addition, instructions about the grades and certificates were demonstrated in the context. The curriculum included discussion on student counselling, and it was stated

that the classes and school units had to have rules. In addition, such issues as students' welfare, accommodation, food, transport and benefits were highlighted in the syllabus. Finally, the poverty of the nation was visible in the curriculum and it was presented that the municipality was responsible for providing clothes and shoes to the children who were in need and that school benefits could be requested from the School Council if necessary. (Komiteanmietintö, 1970, pp. 158–195.)

Most importantly, pedagogical guidance was presented in the curriculum. In addition, it was stated that the pedagogical issues belonged to the school leader. According to the curriculum, the school's aim was to ensure a safe and fearless education environment. Therefore, it was emphasized that an authoritarian administration or authoritative discipline did not support this. Moreover, it was stated that authoritative leadership included fear and would not promote the growth of independent and trustworthy children. (Komiteanmietintö, 1970, pp. 230–232.)

From the leader's perspective it was stated that school leaders should respect the teachers' differences. Furthermore, the time after teaching hours should be used to pedagogical guidance, conducted as discussions with the teachers. Moreover, it was stated that the school leaders could become good pedagogical leaders only if they were attached to the students and teaching. The school leader should be seen as an effective member among the teachers, instead of being a commander. In addition to this, their in-service training was also seen as an important part of school development. (Komiteanmietintö, 1970, pp. 230–232.)

The most important tasks of the leaders were curriculum planning and implementation with the help of teachers. Moreover, treatment of students, guidance of teachers and administrative tasks were mentioned. In addition, the school leader had to ensure that the school succeeded in its aims and that the curriculum was used in a flexible way. Moreover, schools had to improve teaching possibilities, students' personal guidance, students' rights, student unions and school actions. From the administrative point of view, it was indicated that the leader should be able to divide the tasks between the office staff and the deputy director. Moreover, it was pointed out that education in the 1970s was teacher-led. The curriculum also included instructions on the school premises, for example, that the principal's and vice principal's offices had to have an easy access to the school premises and especially to the teachers' room. Moreover, it was stated that the tasks of the School Council and the principal were listed more thoroughly in the Basic Education Decree. (Komiteanmietintö, 1970, pp. 213, 230–232.)

In the curriculum, the students were described as responsible members of the school. It was suggested that student councils could be launched in the schools and that it was good to share responsibilities at an early stage so that the students could learn about their liabilities. Accordingly, it was stated that the students and teachers would work more effectively if they had a chance to influence their work. Moreover, schools should decrease competition and instead concentrate in cooperation. Due to this, the principal's task was also to maintain and to develop the relationship between home and school. In addition to the principal, also the class teachers and homeroom teachers had their own paragraph about the school and home relations. (Komiteanmietintö, 1970, pp. 196, 233–247.)

From the developmental point of view, it was stated that schools should have 1-3 planning days in which the School Council should be included. Moreover, the teachers would have 2-4 planning days during an academic year and these days would be organized by the central, the regional or the local administration. Moreover, the School Boards and the Provincial Government would provide more education if important issues would emerge. In addition, it was presented that the Municipal Education would steer the local education and, additionally, the schools would have an Advisory Board with an important task in communication but without decision power. Lastly, the curriculum included information on the respective school personnel. (Komiteanmietintö, 1970, pp. 196, 233–247, 256–262.)

5.1.2 Curriculum and leadership in interviews

Mr Suortamo stated during the interview that it was challenging to trace certain transitions directly to the curriculum because education was developing throughout the decades. He continued that during the 1970s, the education policy was very bureaucratic and led by the central government. Moreover, the principal's job was steered from the top. Fundamentally, the comprehensive school reform moved forward step by step in the country but in practice the National School Board was still in charge and sent the strict instruction letters to schools. Moreover, the school leaders ensured that the instructions were followed because the school inspectors toured in the schools. In addition, the principal's role was to operate between the central management and the teachers. Moreover, their job was to motivate their staff. However, at that time, the principals were rarely approachable and the curriculum was not negotiated in the

schools. Then, the acts, the letters and the curriculum modified the school's daily life. For this reason, the curriculum was seen as an obligatory norm in the schools and even some principals thought that it was not needed. Basically, the establishment of the comprehensive school divided opinions, and schools, political parties, the teacher union and teachers had disagreements about the education system. Moreover, teacher education did not value the curriculum either. In the confusing situation the schools were dependent on the given instructions and the good principals followed them accurately. Later on, when the instruction letters vanished, the schools did not know what to do next. (Suortamo, 2014.)

Mr Kuittinen highlighted that in the 1970s the National School Board, the Head of Education and the Chief Education Officer had the leader position. Moreover, the important issues were solved by the National School Board and the smaller issues could be solved in the schools. The principals had been chosen from among the teachers and both had similar work agreements; therefore the school leader was seen more as a teacher instead of a leader. Furthermore, the comprehensive school system changed leadership in many ways because the old grammar and middle schools had merged and the principals needed to re-apply for their positions. Therefore, some of the school leaders lost their positions and became vice principals or teachers again. Nevertheless, the comprehensive school made the principal's status stronger. Kuittinen highlighted that when the principals worked with the teacher's agreement, they had their vacations at the same time with the teachers and therefore, the school programme was planned together. Consequently, when the principals received their own collective agreements, they were supposed to do most of the planning during the teachers' summer holidays. Due to this fact, the teachers' influence started to decline. (Kuittinen, 2014.)

5.1.3 Leadership analysis of the 1970s

In the following description, the curricula findings and interviews are combined. As a result, the leadership description of the 1970s is demonstrated at four different levels. Firstly, the analysis aims to solve if the general education ideology of the decade was closer to managerialism than leadership. In other words, this division demonstrates if the aim of the education was in efficiency (managerialism) or in human development

(leadership). Then, the leadership approaches are demonstrated at three different levels: those of the steering systems, decision making and the school leader.

Firstly, the general leadership ideology of education is discussed. Basically, Ojala (2003, pp. 27–37) describes managerialism as a leadership approach in which individuals and the organization are led with the most efficient means, and managerialism is described as a planned control. According to these it can be stated that in the 1970s the organizational strategies were based on *managerialism* instead of leadership. The main focus was on results and not that much on the personnel.

Secondly, the leadership approach of the educational steering systems is presented. Instructional leadership has its focus on the aims, the rules and the curriculum, and the leadership approach is often described with the top-down management. (Stewart, 2006, pp. 4–6.) Hallinger (2000) continues that the instructional style defines the school principal as the directive leader (Hallinger, 2003, pp. 331–332). According to this, it can be determined that the steering systems controlled schools with *instructional leadership*. For example, Lahtero (2011, p. 22) states that the launch of the comprehensive school was ensured with the strict instruction letters and inspections. The focus was on rules and evaluation (Komiteanmietintö, 1970). At the time, the education policy was *centralized* and controlled with the *top-down* leadership model (Lahtero, 2011, p. 20).

Thirdly, the school decision making is described. In the beginning of the decade, the leader was one of the teachers and planning in the school was done together. Later on, the Principals Act (1978) changed the leaders' status into civil servants. (Isosomppi, 1996, pp. 100–108; Komiteanmietintö, 1970; Kuittinen, 2014.) According to this, it can be stated that decision making in schools followed the top-down model. In the beginning of the decade, the principal and the teachers worked in *cooperation* but the roles started to diverge after the Principal's Act. In addition, as the steering systems emphasized managerialism, the schools needed to follow the instructions instead of creating their own guidelines. Decision making in schools was poor and towards the end of the decade the principal and the teacher were distanced from each other.

Fourthly, the school leader's role is discussed. Previously, it was presented that the comprehensive school followed the leading model from the old middle schools, where the leading teachers had usually been the most experienced male teachers who were assigned to their positions. Basically, the leader's role in the 1970s varied a lot because first, the leader had been one of the teachers, and later, they received the principal's

status. Most importantly, the principal's job was to ensure that the school management and the school actions followed the given instructions. In addition, they were role models in the schools. (Isosomppi, 1996, pp. 100–108; Taipale, 2005, p. 188; Kuittinen, 2014.)

According to the above, it can be claimed that *trait leadership* had a major influence on principals' recruitment in the 1970s: the leaders were chosen according to their personal features and work experience was seen as beneficial. Basically, the leaders were often *assigned leaders* who could not affect their selection. Moreover, the leaders were *directive* towards the personnel and accordingly, their leading was merely based on management instead of leadership because norms had more significance than the human resource. The 1970 curriculum demonstrated that schools were teacher-led, but despite this the school leaders' role became more important when they signed their own agreements in 1978. Lastly, as stated above, the curriculum discussed pedagogical leadership and shared decision making. However, in the beginning of the comprehensive school the old leading models existed for a long time. Typically, the pedagogical leadership term had already been abolished from the next curriculum of 1985. (Isosomppi, 1996, pp. 100–108; Komiteanmietintö, 2014; Northouse, 2010, pp. 19–40; Taipale, 2005, p. 188.)

5.2 Municipal control and lost curricula (1985)

With the issuance of the 1985 curriculum the municipalities were allocated the responsibility for creating the curricula. In addition, the 1985 curriculum had shrunk to one book, the 1983 Basic Education Act was used on the basis of the curriculum, and pedagogical leadership was no longer mentioned in the syllabus. Firstly, the table of contents of the curriculum included the titles for the steering system and the education policy decisions. Further, the municipal curriculum and its jurisdiction were demonstrated, and the decisions of the Government and the Ministry of Education decisions were presented. However, the principal's tasks had disappeared but still the homeroom teachers had their own paragraph. Secondly, the context of the curriculum included several references to laws and acts, and instructions were given for the yearly plans as well as certificates. The most essential findings are demonstrated in Table 2. Lastly, leadership findings are presented as a summary.

Leadership themes of the 1985 curriculum		
	Table of contents	Document
The steering system	The steering system, the education policy decisions, the municipal curriculum as a part of the steering system, the municipality's duties and jurisdiction, the curriculum (hour division, student assessment, teaching and other school operations), the Government decisions (preschool and additional studies), the Ministry of Education decision of the teacher's special duties	The Parliament, the Government, the Ministry of Education, the National School Board, the Basic Education Act (1983), the municipal curriculum, the School Council, the Basic education Decree, the Government statements (preschool and additional teaching), the Ministry of Education statements of teacher's special duties, the school evaluation
Decision making in schools	–	Joint planning
Leader	–	–
Other	The homeroom teacher	The homeroom teacher, the student union

Table 2. Leadership themes of the 1985 curriculum.

5.2.1 Leadership in the document

In 1985 the new curriculum was released and the aims of the Parliament, the Government and the Ministry of Education were highlighted in it. In addition, it stated how the curriculum is part of the steering systems and how municipalities would have not only the possibility, but the obligation to create their own curriculum, and that the National School Board would present the guidelines for the curriculum, subject teaching and hour division according to the Basic Education Act (1983). (POPS, 1985, pp. 7–8.)

The key decisions of the education policy and the new legislation were discussed. Moreover, it was demonstrated that the power division between the Government and the municipalities had changed, and now the curriculum was renewed to include all the instructions that were needed in order to establish the municipal curriculum. (POPS, 1985, pp. 9–17.)

Basically, it was stated that the school curriculum had to follow the national guidelines and the Basic Education Act and Decrees of 1983 and, the municipalities would need to create the local curricula. Moreover, a list of issues that had to be written in the curriculum document as well as instructions about the hour division and student

assessment were issued. Typically, the subject syllabus was to be decided together with the school and the municipality, and the School Councils had to set a curriculum committee to attend to the curriculum planning. (POPS, 1985, pp. 18–26.)

It was stated that school actions should be conducted with joint planning. The relationship between the curriculum and the teachers was highlighted. Accordingly, the curriculum was described as a tool for teachers and it was stated that textbooks should no longer be used as the curriculum but instead, the teachers should acquaint themselves with the national and municipal curricula. The cooperation between different subjects should increase and teachers should follow the principles of the national curriculum. Moreover, the curriculum had a paragraph about homeroom teachers, who had an important task as educators but their work was also defined as a link between their class and school. Their job was to get to know the laws and norms concerning the students, as well as to get to know their students and encourage their class to act as a unit. Furthermore, the homeroom teachers were to support homes in their jobs as educators. (POPS, 1985, pp. 52–61.)

Additionally, the student's union was presented more broadly than in the previous curriculum. Teaching instructions were given for the subjects and municipal adjustments were described. The last part of the curriculum included appendices with a model of the school's annual plan and the certificates. Also, the Finnish Government's statements about preschool and additional teaching and the Ministry of Education's statements of the teacher's special duties were attached to the enclosures. (POPS, 1985, pp. 54–56, 176–186, 292–332.)

5.2.2 Curriculum and leadership in the interviews

Mr Kuittinen stated that in 1985 the basic education was divided into the primary and secondary schools. Then, teachers did not have independent roles but many subject groups were founded in order to develop subject-specific teaching. Basically, the schools expected the municipal curriculum to be the guideline and the importance of the school decisions reduced. (Kuittinen, 2014.) Mr Suortamo continued that in 1985 the curriculum was rarely mentioned in schools. Even though the purpose of the reform had been good, the schools felt that it brought extra work and then, no-one was taking responsibility for the actions. Moreover, he stated that the municipal curriculum was

made because it had to be made and after that it was placed into the storage. (Suortamo, 2014.)

Mr Kuittinen emphasized that the principals became more distant after the reform. Typically, the schools no longer had internal planning days but teachers needed to participate in municipal seminars. Accordingly, the teachers felt that they did not have anything to do with the curriculum and they were dependent on the municipal instructions. At the time, the schools used the textbooks which were authorized by the National School Board and selected to local use by the municipal Education Council. Therefore, the textbooks were in the role of the curriculum. In sum, the school curriculum was lost and teachers did not know where to get it. (Kuittinen, 2014.)

Mr Suortamo discussed that he personally understood the importance of the curriculum when he became a teacher of teacher students in the 1980s. He then understood that the curriculum actually offered support to the teaching, and he wanted his students to get acquainted with the curriculum as well. Surprisingly, he found out that his students were not able to find it from the local schools but were told that there would be one copy in the school safe. (Suortamo, 2014.)

5.2.3 Leadership analysis of the 1980s

Previously, it was demonstrated that during the 1980s the old centralized governance system came to an end, and municipalities started to control the schools regionally. However, the curriculum was established in 1985 and the transition did not occur immediately. At the time, the 1983 Basic education Act gave new regulations to the education providers. The schools still received instruction letters and inspectors toured in schools. The principals' work was guided with the principal's task list. The principals were supposed to lead transformations but they were often lacking the support of teachers. (Poropudas & Volanen, 2003, pp. 36–37; Rokka, 2011, pp. 23–24; POPS, 1985; Taipale, 2005, pp. 189–190.)

In the following, the leadership description of the 1980s is demonstrated at four different levels, which are the general leading approach in the nation, the education steering systems, the school decision making and the school leader. First, the general leading approach is discussed. The 1970s leadership analysis demonstrated that the common leading approach was closer to managerialism than leadership. Similarly, in

the 1980s the top-down control could be detected at all organizational levels. Therefore, the organizational policies followed the ideology of *managerialism* (see Ojala, 2003, pp. 27–37).

Secondly, the leadership approach of the steering systems is discussed. At the time, the school control was divided between several institutions and in the middle of the decade the municipalities received the overall responsibility for the implementation of education. Even though the aim had been to change the centralized education into the decentralized form, it did not occur until the late 1980s. (Taipale, 2005, pp. 189–190.) According to Hallinger (2000), the key elements of instructional leadership were the school goals, instructions, and an effective learning culture (Hallinger, 2003, pp. 331–332). Due to this, it can be stated that the steering systems remained *instructional*. The instructions were now placed by the municipalities and schools needed to follow the rules precisely. Therefore, the schools were again directed with the *top-down* model (see Stewart, 2006, pp. 4–6).

Thirdly, decision making in school is demonstrated. Basically, the education system followed the same principles as in the 1970s. Schools received instructions which they needed to follow. The principals were responsible for pedagogical development but in practice teachers did not support their attempts. (Taipale, 2005, pp. 189–190.) The principals worked between administration and their personnel. Even though the curriculum of 1985 stated that it should be considered as the guideline in the school actions, it was still rarely used. (Kuittinen & Suortamo, 2014.) At the school level the principal's job was to establish the school's annual plan with the teachers but otherwise principals and teachers drifted apart (Taipale, 2005, pp. 189–190). It can be stated that only a minor part of the decisions could be made in the school. In addition, decision making was very hierarchical and the principal and the teacher were seen as separate units. However, if the relationship between the leader and the teachers was good, a small amount of decisions could be made in *cooperation*. However, the conclusion is that the decisions were not made together, but the given instructions were followed.

Fourthly, the leadership focus is presented. Previously *trait leadership* and *assigned leadership* were discussed and again in the 1980s they were used as the most important approaches in the principal's recruitment (see Northouse, 2010, pp. 19–40). Moreover, the principals drifted apart from the teachers who considered them to be invisible civil servants (Taipale, 2005, pp. 189–190). This shows that the leader's role

was to ensure that laws and norms were followed. In the 1980s the teacher seemed to have a more important role as a pedagogical developer and also the curriculum was pointed out to be the tool for teachers. (POPS, 1985.) Therefore, the principals were managers and their leading style was *directive*. The instructions were delivered with the top-down model and the leaders did not have time or skills to be pedagogical leaders. (Stewart, 2006, pp. 4–6.)

5.3 School-specific curricula and inspiration era (1994)

Decentralization had taken nearly the whole of the 1980s, and in the beginning of the 1990s the change was finally visible. The National Board of Education was established in 1991 and then, together with the municipalities and schools it ensured the development of the Finnish education. Consequently, the National Curriculum Framework issued by the National Board of Education was launched in 1994. From this time onwards the school-specific curricula were established. (Hämäläinen et al., 2002, pp. 23–25.)

The 1994 curriculum appeared more like a handbook for everyone who was working in the basic education. Most importantly, the detailed instructions had turned to “friendly” pedagogical guidance. In addition, the framework included general guidelines for the local curriculum but now schools were in charge of creating their own curricula. First, the curriculum's table of contents included the decision about the hour division only in the appendices. Second, the context of the curriculum included themes such as the Basic Education Act of 1983 and the National Board of Education, and the guidelines for the school-specific curricula. At the time the importance of society and the reduction of the centralized management were highlighted. The school-specific self-assessment was introduced. The most essential findings of the curriculum are demonstrated in Table 3. Lastly, the leadership findings of the curriculum are presented as a summary.

Leadership themes of the 1994 curriculum		
	Table of contents	Document
The steering system	The hour division in the appendices	The Basic Education Act 1983, The National Board of Education, the school curricula, local decisions, society, the school-specific self-assessment
Decision making in schools	–	The school curriculum
Leader	–	–
Other	–	The student assessment, students as customers

Table 3. Leadership themes of the 1994 curriculum.

5.3.1 Leadership in the document

In the 1994 curriculum the excerpt from the Basic Education Act given in 1983 in Finland discussed the school's role as the provider of general education. The aim of school was to educate balanced, independent but collaborative children who would have a good sense of morality. Additionally, education was to give the possibility to learn versatile skills and increase the students' readiness for life. (Finnish Basic Education Act 1983, chapter 1, section 1–3.)

The Framework Curriculum had been created in cooperation with many interest groups, and the National Board of Education confirmed it in January 1994. The need for a reform was highlighted on the basis of internationalization and changing working life, the major changes in the society, values and the curriculum theory. Basically, it was presented that the reduction of centralized management had been a typical development in society and therefore it was used in the school system as well. The curriculum was described as the foundation of every school, for which the National Board of Education only created the framework, but most importantly, the school curriculum would express the will of the local decision makers. (POPS, 1994, pp. 3–15.)

Although more freedom was given to schools, the curriculum also included a list of issues that should be considered in the local curricula. On that account, it was stated that the schools' individual missions had to be visible in their curricula. Similar to the previous curriculum, this one also had instructions about the division of teaching hours

but now the schools could decide which of the optional studies they would emphasize. Moreover, it was stated that the curriculum should be a continuous process that is developed throughout the year. Consequently, the curriculum now belonged to the society but most importantly the curriculum was supposed to serve the school itself. (POPS, 1994, pp. 15–23.)

As for the assessment, the curriculum presented that the learning outcomes should be evaluated and the role of the municipalities was to create a frame for the evaluation. The target and the criteria of the evaluation should be based on the curriculum even though the schools were able to choose what was evaluated. In addition, student evaluation and the form of the school reports were presented in the curriculum. Again, the curriculum formed the frames for the student evaluation but the schools were to create their own grading scales. The curriculum also included the instructions regarding the certificates. (POPS, 1994, pp. 26–31.)

In the reform, the power and decision making were given to schools and they focused on improving collaboration both inside and outside the school. In addition, the curriculum theory was changed onto the school basis, and the teachers were seen as the major developers in the school system. At the same time, the theory of learning developed and the students were recognized as active members of the school. Moreover, students were described as important members of society and students' individual skills were emphasized. (POPS, 1994, pp. 11–14.)

Moreover, teaching in the form of interdisciplinary issues and subjects was to be increased, for example international education and information technology skills could be linked to subject teaching. In addition, the schools could now profile themselves and choose the most significant themes for them, and student counseling as well as initial teaching were highlighted. (POPS, 1994, pp. 33–42.)

5.3.2 Curriculum and leadership through interviews

Mr Kuittinen described that the time after the 1994 reform was the time of the inspiration. During the same year, he became a principal and remembered how his teachers were amazed by the fact that they could participate in the planning and implementation of the curriculum. Because the teachers received back their influence power, their motivation increased. As a result, the ideas flew freely among the teachers.

In addition, various teams and working committees were established in order to develop the school. The teachers created innovative methods and systems to integrate the different subjects. Accordingly, new and modern ideas were born and teachers worked together for common goals. In addition to the teachers, the regional principals intensified their networks. (Kuittinen, 2014.) Mr Suortamo continued that in the 1990s, the schools started to profile themselves and they became interested in their competitiveness (Suortamo, 2014).

5.3.3 Leadership analysis of the 1990s

In 1991, the National School Board and the National Board of Vocational Education were merged into the National Board of Education, which was tasked with developing, advising, providing information on educational policy and implementation to the education providers. The old steering systems had been abolished and, consequently, the tight instructions and inspections were terminated. Finland received a new curriculum in 1994 and then, the focus was on teaching and internationalization. (Hämäläinen et al., 2002, pp. 23–25; POPS, 1994.)

Firstly, the division between leadership and managerialism is presented. In the 1990s, the centralized management was abolished and the school control was decentralized. In addition, the top-down leading was reshaped with the bottom-up ideology. At this time, *leadership* could be discussed as a general approach because the focus was on humans and development. Moreover, the schools still followed laws and norms but now instead of strict instructions, guidelines were issued for education provision. (Hämäläinen et al., 2002, pp. 23–25; Kruse, 2013, pp. 1–3; POPS, 1994.)

Secondly, the leadership approach of the steering systems is demonstrated. In the 1990s the individuality of the school was appreciated. The strict instruction letters no longer existed, and the schools started to cooperate with other stakeholders. (Hämäläinen et al., 2002, pp. 23–25; POPS, 1994.) Macneill et al. (2005) demonstrate that *pedagogical leadership* prepares students for the real life. Then, it aims to develop functional learning communities in which everybody is a learner. (Macneill, Cavanagh & Silcox, 2005, pp. 3–6.)

Accordingly, it can be stated that instructional leadership was abolished and *pedagogical leadership* was emphasized. According to Alava et al. (2012), the

pedagogical approach demonstrates that the principal is both instructional and supportive to the teachers. Basically, the most important issues in school are the curriculum, the organizational culture, the common goal and the school mission. (Alava et al., 2012, pp. 42–43, 47–48.) Therefore, it can be determined that during the 1990s the education ideology changed a great deal and the steering was changed from the top-down approach to the bottom-up leading. The pedagogical approach could be detected from the steering systems. However, it has to be taken into consideration that the transition took time (see Chapter 2.3).

Thirdly, the school's decision making is discussed. Hoch (2012) states that shared leadership signifies that several team members participate in decision making. Moreover, all group members act as leaders and they also share the responsibility of the results. (Hoch, 2012, p. 161.) In the 1990s, schools received more power, the teachers' motivation and commitment increased, and they participated actively in the planning of the school. Also, in the changing situation, the principals received more trust from their teachers. (Kuittinen & Suortamo, 2014; Taipale, 2005, pp. 191–192.) Therefore it can be stated that decision making followed the principles of *shared leadership* as the principals had to divide their tasks in order to cope with the multiple tasks. Due to this, the teachers also received more responsibilities and decision making was conducted together. The principals maintained the overall responsibility for the schools but now there were experts working at the other levels too.

Fourthly, the leadership approach is discussed through the leader perspective. At the time, the Decree on Qualifications of Educational Personnel (986/1998) determined the *principals' qualifications*. As a result, trait leadership reduced and then, it was more important to find the right persons to the right situations. Moreover, the changing schools demanded for new leadership approaches and therefore transformational leadership turned out to be successful among the school leaders. According to Avolio et al. (2005), transformational leadership values positivity, cooperativeness and morality. It supports charismatic leaders who are able to change others through vision and motivation. (Avolio & Gardner, 2005, pp. 329–330). At the time, principals were the spokesmen of the schools and therefore their communication skills had an important role in their daily actions. Principals needed to act as coordinators and motivators and therefore they needed to use *transformational leadership* in schools. Moreover, these massive changes in the educational philosophy demanded that leaders and followers would work in collaboration. In addition, the schools started to profile themselves and

the school leaders had an important role in creating new visions and supporting teachers' ideas (see Chapter 3.3).

5.4 Principals turning back to managers (2004)

In the 2000s, it was discovered that schools had diverged from each other too strongly. Therefore, the equal education opportunities in all schools could no longer be guaranteed because some of the schools could, for example, offer more optional courses than others. Therefore, the aim in the 2000s was to reduce differences between the schools. Consequently, the new Finnish National Core Curriculum was published in 2004. (Taipale, 2005, p. 193.)

Firstly, the table of contents included leadership issues only in the title of the Government Decree (1435/2001), printed in the attachments. Essentially, the table of contents consisted mostly of instructions and information about teaching. Secondly, the context of the curriculum included a discussion about the Basic Education Act and Decree of 1998. Moreover, the curriculum planning and guidelines were given. The most important findings of the leadership terms are demonstrated in Table 4. Lastly, the leadership findings are presented as a summary.

Leadership themes of the 2004 curriculum		
	Table of contents	Document
The steering system	The Government Decree 1435/2001 (aims and hour division)	The Basic Education Act and Decree 1998, curriculum planning, the school's annual plan, the curriculum guidelines, non-political, the Government Decree 1435/2001 (aims and hour division)
Decision making in schools	–	
Leader	–	–
Other	–	Internationalization, the student assessment

Table 4. Leadership themes of the 2004 curriculum.

5.4.1 Leadership in the documents

The curriculum was based on the Basic Education Act and Decree of 1998. It was stated that the education providers would have to modify the local curricula according to these guidelines. The curriculum included information about the curriculum planning and implementation and it was highlighted that the basic education should be guided by this national frame. In addition, the hour division, the curriculum, the local curriculum and the school's annual plan were emphasized, and a list of issues that should be included in the local curricula was issued. (POPS, 2004, pp. 8–9.)

Essentially, it was demonstrated that the focus of basic education was on human rights, equality, the environment and multiculturalism. The internationalization had an important role in the curriculum and it was stated that Finnish education was based on Finnish culture but it could be combined with the other cultural legacies. Fundamentally, education was described as non-political and secularist. Moreover, cooperation between home and schools was discussed in the curriculum. (POPS, 2004, pp. 12–13, 20.)

The curriculum included a chapter about assessment and this time only student evaluation was presented. Moreover, the model for the certificates was issued. In general, teaching, student-centered learning theory and efficient organizational culture were highlighted in the curriculum. Moreover, the students' holistic growth was discussed. Essentially, this curriculum did not only include descriptions of the subjects but the quality of different subjects was also addressed. In addition, the appendices included examples of the Finnish written alphabet and the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, the Government Decree of 1998 and the division of teaching hours. As a new point, this curriculum also included information on the preparatory basic education for immigrants and on additional teaching for comprehensive school graduates. (POPS, 2004, pp. 260–268, 276–313.)

5.4.2 Curriculum and leadership through interviews

Mr Kuittinen discussed that during the 2004 reform the principal's job description changed enormously. The principals received more tasks and they were now responsible for financial management, leadership and overall actions in the school. In addition, the school's legal responsibilities were transferred from the organizational level to the

school leaders. (Kuittinen, 2014.) Also Mr Suortamo confirmed that the principal's responsibility increased significantly. Now principals needed to be aware of everything that happened in their schools because they were personally liable if anything happened. Typically, in the worst cases, they could have been prosecuted if, for example, accidents occurred in their schools. (Kuittinen & Suortamo, 2014.)

Mr Kuittinen added that tasks were delegated to the principals from the municipal Education and Culture Committee. Therefore, the principals did not have time for teachers because the office management was taking their time. The principals felt that they were drifting away from their pedagogical task and now they acted as representatives of the employer. Moreover, after the 2004 reform the time of innovations continued and the curriculum strengthened its position as a tool for teachers. A new kind of hour division was launched and it allowed more options for teaching. Typically, the teachers had been able to choose freely which textbooks they wanted to use in their teaching since 1990s, and again teachers could use different textbooks even inside the same subjects. (Kuittinen, 2014.) In addition, Mr Suortamo stated that the 2004 reform improved the reputation of the curriculum among teachers. They now felt that it was easy to use, and the schools made sure that it was available for everyone. He continued that from the leadership perspective the situation was worse because in 2004 the school leaders turned back to managers. Moreover, the schools were supposed to develop and, for example, the teachers' in-service training should have been supported. However, it was difficult in practice because the principal needed to maintain the school's tight budget. (Suortamo, 2014.)

5.4.3 Leadership analysis of the 2000s

In the 2000s, effectiveness became visible in the municipal sector, which created new demands on school leadership. The Basic Education laws had been re-established in 1998 and the new National Core Curriculum was published in 2004. Education was again based on several instructions and norms. Moreover, in the 2000s, the school leader's job changed dramatically. The average school size was growing and administration took more and more of the principal's time. (Kuittinen, 2014; Pesonen, 2009, p. 19; Rokka, 2011, p. 32; Suortamo, 2014; Taipale, 2005, p. 193.)

Firstly, the division between leadership and managerialism is discussed. In the 2000s, school leaders received more administrative tasks and education was guided more thoroughly from the top (Kuittinen & Suortamo, 2014). However, it can be stated that the school's strong status did not change and the focus was still on students. Therefore, it can be determined that *leadership* was maintained as an overall ideology.

Secondly, the leadership approach of the steering systems is demonstrated. As it was stated before, the instructional leaders led by directive methods because they also received instructions from the top. In addition, instructional leadership has its focus on rules, goals and effective learning culture (Hallinger, 2003, pp. 331–332). In the 2000s, the education system returned some of the *instructional* style to the steering systems because again the laws and norms were emphasized. The 2004 curriculum aimed to ensure that Finnish schools provided quality education similarly. However, the education system was clearly student-centered and the main focus was on teaching. Therefore, the instructional style was less severe than in the 1970s and 1980s. Besides following the national core curriculum, the schools could still modify their actions. In addition, the education system remained decentralized. (Rokka, 2011, p. 32; Taipale, 2005, p. 193.)

Thirdly, decision making at the school level is discussed. In the 1990s, decision making had been divided between the leader and the teachers. In the 2000s the amount of the principal's administrative work grew enormously. The starting point of the school decision making was already in *shared leadership* (see Chapter 5.3.3) but during the decade the principals needed to divide their tasks even more strongly. (Taipale, 2005, p. 193.) Basically, distributed leadership states that schools have many leaders and principals and teachers share responsibilities. In addition, distributed leadership consists of communication and interaction and supports lateral decision making. (Harris & Spillane, 2008, pp. 31–34.) As a result, it can be determined that during the 2000s the decision making in school has been conducted with *distributed leadership*. The evidence demonstrates that pedagogical development was shared among teachers and principals but in practice principals had less time for the pedagogical issues. Therefore, the planning and implementation of school actions promoted leadership at all school levels. In addition, schools started to work with various stakeholders, who also participated in the planning. Lastly, the principals had the overall responsibility for their school but in reality the teachers needed to act independently during the school days. (Taipale, 2005, p. 193.)

Fourthly, the leader perspective is demonstrated. The Decree on Qualifications of Educational Personnel (986/1998) had determined the principals' qualifications. Moreover, the leaders received more administrative tasks and it was stated that they turned back to *managers* (Kuittinen & Suortamo, 2014). However, the directive methods were no longer supported in education. In the 1990s, the school leaders started to use *transformational leadership* in order to ensure cooperation and the common vision, and the leaders' role was to motivate and encourage their personnel. (Avolio & Gardner, 2005, pp. 315–321, 329–330). The leader had several different roles. On one hand they were managers, but on the other hand they were pedagogical leaders. Northouse (2010) demonstrates that the situational approach requires both instructional and supportive methods. Moreover, situational leadership includes four different leadership behaviours, which are the delegating, supporting, coaching and directing style. (Northouse, 2010, pp. 99–119.) Therefore, it can be claimed that *situational leadership* was present in the 2000s. Consequently, the school leaders needed to be instructional but at the same time they respected the teachers' autonomy. However, the schools' actions were again guided from the top but still the schools maintained some of their freedom. As a result, leaders in the 2000s have benefitted the most from *situational leadership* with *transformational features*. In addition, towards the end of the decade their leadership turned to *change leadership* (see Cloud, 2010, pp. 73–77).

5.5 Principals as ideology leaders (2016)

At the time of conducting the study, the draft of the 2016 curriculum was available on the webpage of the National Board of Education. Firstly, the table of contents of the curriculum included several leadership terms. For example, the significance and implementation of the curriculum and the education provider's obligations were discussed. The importance of the local preparations was emphasized and every chapter included information on what could be included in the local curricula. Moreover, the importance of the school culture was highlighted. Lastly, in the table of contents, issues concerning joint responsibility of the school day, evaluation, certificates and special education were presented.

Secondly, the context of the curriculum draft was examined. The context followed the same order as the table of contents. However, the text cited several laws and acts.

Next, the most essential findings of the curriculum are demonstrated in Table 5. Lastly, the leadership findings of the curriculum are presented as a summary.

Leadership themes of the 2016 curriculum		
	Table of contents	Document
The steering system	The significance and design of the curriculum, the local preparation and principles, the assessment, the education provider's guiding obligations of the curriculum, every chapter ends with the sentence: local issues to be decided, the school culture's guiding principles, the common responsibility for the school day, evaluation of learning and general principles, the certificates, guiding principles of school support	The Basic Education Act and Decree (1998), the obligations of The National Board of Education, the steering systems, the guiding principles of the local curricula, the internal and external evaluation, the education provider's obligations, hour division, the curriculum cited several national and international laws (see Chapter 5.5)
Decision making in schools	–	The learning organization
Leader	–	–
Other	–	Joint responsibility for the school day, the student evaluation, the certificates

Table 5. Leadership themes of the 2016 curriculum.

5.5.1 Leadership in the document

The 2016 curriculum was incomplete at the time of conducting the study, and it was once updated during the time of the data collection in 2013-2014. The final National Core Curriculum is going to be published in 2016, which is why some issues might still change in the official curriculum. In the following, the current draft is presented. The draft had many references to the laws and acts, which will be presented at the end of the chapter as a list.

In the beginning of the curriculum draft it is demonstrated that the reform is based on the Basic Education Law and Decree (1998) but it also relies on other laws and norms (see the list below). It is also mentioned that laws determine the obligations of the National Board of Education. Additionally, the draft implies how the curriculum is an important part of the steering systems, and the guiding principles of the local curricula are presented. Then, the curriculum includes the issues that can be decided in the local curricula. Assessment is emphasized to be part of the development, therefore

schools would have to evaluate their education and also participate in external evaluation. Also the education provider's obligations are demonstrated in the curriculum. (POPS draft, 2014, pp. 4–11.)

The tasks of basic education as well as the national aims of education are presented in the curriculum. In addition, the new hourly division is delivered in the curriculum. The focus is on such themes as multi-literacy in learning, technology, working life skills, entrepreneurship, involvement and sustainable development. The forthcoming curriculum is going to include also statements about the school culture, which supports the learning organizations' aims. In addition, wellbeing, interaction, cultural diversity, democracy and environment are taken into consideration. The text states that the learning environment should support learning positively. New terms, such as integration and multi-disciplinary education are attached to the educational visions. This demonstrates that in the future the individual subjects are going to form joint themes. Essentially, a new learning theory is demonstrated. In it the students are described as active learners and therefore children should be able to use participatory methods in learning, and learning should occur through positive experiences and interaction. (POPS draft, 2014, pp. 12–27.)

The joint responsibility of the school day is highlighted in the curriculum. Accordingly, it is said that the overall wellbeing has to be cherished and students also have their own liabilities as good classmates. Co-operation between various stakeholders, for example home and schools, is discussed, as are cooperation and joint studies between different age groups, which should be promoted. Flexible teaching and, for example, distance learning are recommended to be enabled. (POPS draft, 2014, pp. 28–38.)

It is described in the curriculum that students' evaluation should be established with supporting and constructive methods. The aim is to give supportive feedback and create possibilities to succeed in learning. In addition, the curriculum includes instructions about the certificates. The curriculum also includes that students should be provided with assistance in their studies, and the special education laws to be followed are referred to in the text. Moreover, the students' welfare was issued as a Special Provision Based on Student Welfare Act on March 3, 2014. Lastly, the guidelines of language and culture teaching, ethics education, bilingualism and optional studies are introduced as well. (POPS draft, 2014, pp. 39–82.)

In the curriculum draft, several laws are cited, and in the following they are listed in order of their appearance in the curriculum: the Basic education Law (628/1998), the Basic Education Decree (852/1998), the Government Decree on Amendment to the Basic Education Decree (423/2012), the Government Decree on Amendment to National Objectives and Division of Teaching Hours Meant in Basic Education Act (422/2012), the Constitution of Finland (731/1999), the Equity and Equality Act (21/2004), the Quality criteria for basic education (2012) by the Ministry of Education and Culture, the Pupil and Student Support Act 1287/2013, the Gender Equality Act (609/1986), the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights 1948, the United Nations General Resolution on Children's Rights 59-60/1991, the European Human Rights Resolution 85-86/1998, the United Nations General Resolution on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities 2006, the United Nations Declaration of the Rights of the Indigenous Peoples 2007, the Government Decree on the Amendment to the Basic Education Act (642/2010), (1288/2003), the Governance Act (434/2003), the Governance Implementation Act (586/1996), the Governance Act (45), the Government Bill to Parliament on Legislation of Education (HE 86/1997), the Government Decree on Amendment to the Basic Education Act (642/2010) and the Special Provision Based on the Student Welfare Act on March 3, 2014. (POPS draft, 2014.)

5.5.2 Curriculum and leadership through interviews

Mr Suortamo stated that, at the moment, the whole education system is changing. The National Board of Education is going to change its development direction, which can already be seen in the curriculum process. In addition, municipalities and schools will need to create their own development plans in the future. During the decades, the principal's role has changed from the instruction implementer to pedagogical leaders. He continued that schools would have to be able to profile themselves in the future, and the next curriculum would be updated according to the modern thinking. In addition, change leadership is needed because principals will have to be able to lead their troops in an exemplary way. He continued that this new curriculum is an excellent possibility to improve the Finnish education. Moreover, the students will not have to study things by heart and their learning will become holistic. He discusses that this new education system places a high number of demands on schools. Therefore, leaders will have to

build new school cultures in the future and become process leaders whose major responsibility is to motivate and inspire their teachers. Moreover, they will have to follow the progress and accept new technologies and study methods. In the future, the principals will have to enable the teachers' ideas. Lastly, he stated that in the ongoing planning process, it is essential to reflect what the modern learners need not only today but also the day after tomorrow. (Suortamo, 2014.)

Mr Kuittinen told that the curriculum reform is very different from the previous ones, and for example new terminology is used. The challenge for the developers is that the quality of the education should remain at a high level. He described that after the new curriculum, leadership has to become active. Accordingly, individual thinking will not serve the purposes and therefore “we” thinking will have to be spread to schools and subjects. Moreover, these new processes require things to be accomplished with a united front. Then, the change is going to be a huge challenge to the principals because the whole ideology of education is changing. Essentially, the school leaders need to be aware about the changes, and the process should be already in progress in schools. Moreover, these changes will also set challenges to the Finnish teacher education because teachers should receive a new kind of knowledge and tools for teaching. Lastly, the most important factor in the schools is to establish the continuous education discussions. (Kuittinen, 2014.)

5.5.3 Leadership analysis of 2016

At the moment of writing this study (2014), the Finnish schools follow the 2004 curriculum. In 2016 the Finnish education system will be renewed throughout the national and school level. Hämäläinen et al. (2002) state that the Finnish headmasters follow the principles of quality education. In addition, they have to be good human resource leaders. In the future the principal's status will become stronger and principals themselves will have the biggest responsibility for creating their positions. (Hämäläinen et al., 2002, pp. 38–41.)

Firstly, the division between leadership and managerialism is considered. The current education system is established with decentralized management in which schools participate in the planning. Moreover, schools, teachers and students are seen as the most important elements of the education system. Therefore, the guidance and administration of education follows the principles of *leadership*. Moreover, it has been

claimed that even *pedagogical leadership* will be emphasized at all levels of education in the future. (Opetushallitus, 2014.)

Secondly, the steering systems of education play a distinctive role, and a steering group together with various education experts and stakeholders are developing the next reform. The aim is to develop schools into learning organizations, in which empowerment and interaction are cherished among all members. Therefore, it can be stated that the next reform is going to bring *pedagogical leadership* to the steering systems. In addition, the administration is decentralized and steering will be conducted with the bottom-up approach. As a democratic country is governed by the rule of law, the laws and norms guide the Finnish education but the focus is on humanity. (Opetushallitus, 2014.)

Thirdly, decision making in schools is discussed. The interviews highlighted that the whole education system is changing. The leaders will have to build new school cultures and their responsibility is to be motivators and inspirers to their teachers. (Kuittinen & Suortamo, 2014.) As a result it can be determined that the school personnel are respected as important decision makers and everyone is encouraged to do their best. Besides, Harris and Spillane (2008) demonstrate that distributed leadership ensures that schools have many leaders. Moreover, distributed leadership consists of interaction, which makes leadership transparent. (Harris & Spillane, 2008, pp. 31–34.) Therefore, it can be claimed that decision making is going to be carried out with *distributed leadership*. Accordingly, leaders are needed at all levels of the organization and the focus is on empowerment.

Fourthly, the leader's role is discussed. Currently, the principals' recruitment follows the statement of the Decree on Qualifications of Educational Personnel (986/1998). At the moment, we can only predict what kind of leadership styles will be used after the 2016 reform. However, it has been claimed that *change leadership* and *pedagogical leadership* will be needed in the future. (Opetushallitus, 2014; Suortamo, 2014.) Moreover, it is highly important for the school leaders to receive knowledge and education about the reform and leadership styles so that they can lead their forces in an exemplary way. For example, *situational leadership* and *change leadership* might offer valuable information to the current leaders. (Northouse, 2010, pp. 99–119; Cloud, 2010, pp. 73–77.)

In addition to the leadership styles, it is also essential to share knowledge about how these changes should be conducted. Consequently, Kotter (1995) discussed the

eight different steps that should be used in transition. Accordingly, these steps were information, alliances, clear and shared vision, supportive organizational structures, concretization, shared responsibility and combination of all processes. In addition, leaders should be committed and knowledge should be divided between the older and the younger personnel (see Kotter, 1995, pp. 59–67).

5.6 Conclusion of the research results

In the following, the research questions about curricula development, visibility of leadership and leadership approaches are answered with tables and figures that were formed on the basis of the research findings.

5.6.1 Curricula development

In this research, the curriculum development was investigated. The leadership terms of the different curricula are demonstrated in Table 6.

Leadership themes of the curricula					
	1970	1985	1994	2004	2016
The steering system	The Government, the Comprehensive School Committee, the Basic Education Committee, the School Reform Committee, the Committee Act of 1965, the systematic evaluation, the School Council, the central administration, the regional administration, the local administration, the School Board, the Provincial Government, the Municipal Education, the Advisory Board	The Parliament, the Government, the Ministry of Education, the National School Board, the Basic Education Act (1983), the municipal curriculum, the School Council, the Basic education Decree, the Government statements (preschool and additional teaching), the Ministry of Education statements of teacher's special duties, the school evaluation	The Basic Education Act 1983, The National Board of Education, the school curricula, local decisions, society	The Basic Education Act and Decree 1998, curriculum planning, the school's annual plan, the curriculum guidelines, non-political, the Government Decree 1435/2001 (aims and hour division)	The Basic Education Act and Decree (1998), the obligations of The National Board of Education, the steering systems, the guiding principles of the local curricula, the internal and external evaluation, the education provider's obligations, hour division, the curriculum cited several national and international laws (see Chapter 5.5)
Evaluation (from the theory and the curriculum)	Systematic evaluation; inspections	Municipalities control evaluation; inspections	Self-assessment	Self-assessment, International evaluation (PISA)	Internal and external evaluation
Curriculum	The Curriculum Committee's role, the national curriculum	The Municipal Curriculum Committee, the municipality's obligations, the municipal curriculum	The school's curricula, local decisions	Curriculum planning, the curriculum guidelines, non-political	The Steering Committee of the Curriculum, the guiding principles of the local curricula
School decision making	Pedagogical guidance, the authoritarian regime, authoritative leadership, the school's annual plan, teacher-led	The school's annual plan, joint planning	The school's annual plan, society's importance	The school's annual plan	Learning organization, the school's annual plan
Leader	Principals tasks and obligation in the curriculum and Basic Education Education Decree, principal's and vice principal's offices				
Other	The student assessment, the class and school units' rules, the municipalities' role to provide equipment, the student union, the homeroom teacher	The homeroom teacher, the student union	The student assessment, students as customers	Internationalization, the student assessment	Joint responsibility of the school day, the student assessment

Table 6. Leadership themes of the curricula.

These findings indicate that the steering systems were mentioned in every curriculum. Moreover, evaluation of the school work, curriculum planning and the curriculum itself were noted in the documents. However, the findings of the school decision making were most visible in the 1970 curriculum, which discussed pedagogical guidance as a good leadership model in schools. In the 1994 curriculum, the society's importance in education was highlighted. Moreover, in the 2016 curriculum the schools are considered learning organizations, which can be assumed to affect decision making in the schools. (Komiteamietintö, 1970; POPS, 1985; POPS, 1994; POPS, 2004; POPS draft 2016.)

This table demonstrates that the school leader was only mentioned in the 1970 curriculum. Also the principal's tasks were discussed in it and it was, for example, presented that the principal's office should have an easy access to the teachers' room. In the 1970s, the municipality had the responsibility for providing clothes and shoes for students who could not afford them. In addition, the homeroom teachers' liabilities were mentioned in both the 1970 and 1985 curricula. Moreover, student leadership was indicated in every curriculum. (Komiteamietintö, 1970; POPS, 1985; POPS, 1994; POPS, 2004; POPS draft 2016.)

As a result, it can be concluded that each curriculum had its own nature. The curricula had similarities, for example, in the discussions of the steering systems. However, they varied a lot according to the amount of details and instructions. Typically, the 1970s and 1980s curricula were really instructional. In contrast, the 1994 curriculum was pedagogical and the focus was on the school specific curriculum. Moreover, the 2004 curriculum again included more instructions. The 2016 curriculum has been described as a pedagogical document but it includes citations to tens of different laws. In my opinion the number of laws and norms can be explained with the fact that they are presented there so that they can be found easily. Lastly, it can be stated that the curricula were often directed to the teachers. However, the Finnish principals are previous teachers, and therefore, they can understand the curriculum's message.

5.6.2 Finnish comprehensive school era

Previously, the most important features of the curricula were demonstrated. As a result, it can be determined that each curriculum has had an important role in the Finnish

education. In this research, the different decades were named after the most important features of the era. Firstly, the era of “the Launch of the comprehensive school and teachers as leaders” revealed that in the beginning, the comprehensive school establishment was controlled and guided by the strict rules. At the time, the school leaders were chosen from among teachers. (Kuittinen, 2014; Suortamo, 2014; Komiteanmietintö, 1970.)

The era of “the Municipal control and lost curriculum” denotes that in the 1980s the municipalities received the responsibility of regional and local curricula. Moreover, the task was new to municipalities and therefore the local curriculum got lost. The next curriculum reform was established in 1994 and then began “the School-specific curricula and inspiration era”. The involvement of the school in the curriculum planning increased and the teachers were again motivated. Moreover, schools were encouraged to profile themselves. (Kuittinen, 2014; Suortamo, 2014; POPS, 1985; POPS, 1994.) In the 2000s “the Principals turned back to managers”. Accordingly, principals received more administrative tasks from the abolished school administration. They received overall responsibility for their schools and, for example, financial and legal issues were added to their job description. (Kuittinen, 2014; Suortamo, 2014; POPS, 2004.)

In this research also the forthcoming curriculum was studied in its draft form. As a result, it was discovered that the whole education system is about to change. The next curriculum emphasizes new learning theory and, for example, schools should turn to learning organizations in the future. Moreover, the curriculum presents that the principal’s job is to lead the strategies and vision, and therefore the last era is called “the Principals as ideology leaders”. (Kuittinen, 2014; Suortamo, 2014; POPS draft, 2016.) In the following, the different decades and the documents concerning the principals are demonstrated in Figure 1.

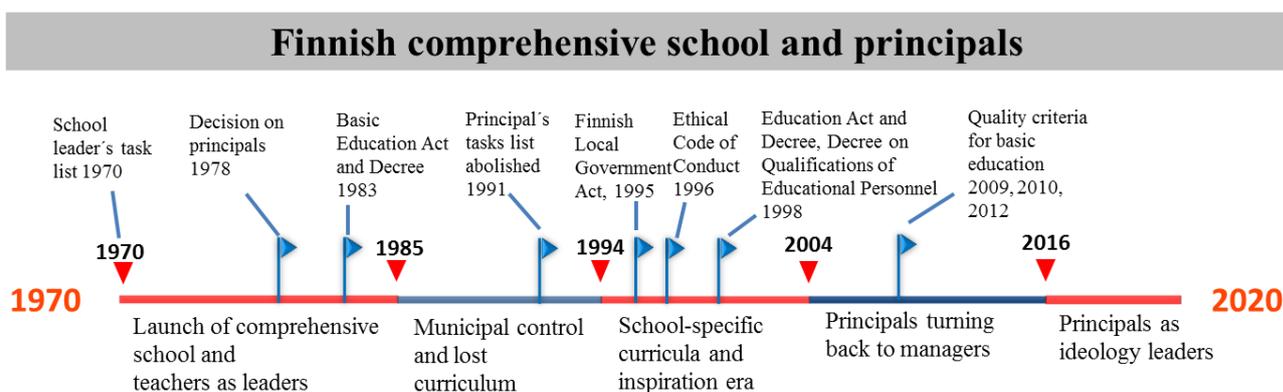


Figure 1. Finnish comprehensive school and principals.

The different comprehensive school periods were described above. In addition, this figure demonstrates the timeline between the different reforms. Accordingly, it can be stated that changes have occurred slowly in the Finnish education and the time between the reforms has varied from nine to fifteen years. Moreover, this figure shows that several documents have guided the principal's work during the different decades. In the 1970s, the school leader's work was secured with a specific list which was abolished in 1991 when the National Board of Education was established. Moreover, the principals' status changed enormously in 1978 when the Decision on Principals was published. Moreover, the Finnish Local Government Act was released in 1995 and it attached principals to the municipal legislation. In addition, the Finnish Principal Association approved the Ethical Code of Conduct in 1996 to be the principal's guideline. Moreover, the Finnish Basic Education Acts and Decrees (1983, 1998) have steered the liabilities of the headmaster. Lastly, the Quality criteria for basic education include instructions for the school leaders (see Chapters 3.4 & 3.5).

5.6.3 Leadership approaches

This research examined the different leadership approaches during the different decades. Firstly, the difference between leadership and managerialism was indicated. As a result, it could be stated that managerialism was visible in the 1970s and 1980s. At that time the effectiveness and norms steered the education system. In contrast, since the 1990s the term leadership could be used in order to describe the general ideology in administering education. In addition to these, the leadership descriptions were divided into the steering system, the decision making and the leader. As a result, Table 7 sums up the leadership styles during the different decades.

Leadership approaches since the 1970s					
Leadership levels	1970	1985	1994	2004	2016
Managerialism vs. Leadership	Managerialism	Managerialism	Leadership	Leadership	Leadership
Steering systems	Centralized administration, instructional leadership	Centralized administration, instructional leadership	Decentralized administration, pedagogical leadership	Decentralized administration, instructional leadership	Decentralized administration, pedagogical leadership
Decision making in schools	Top-down, cooperation	Top-down, cooperation	Bottom-up, shared leadership	Bottom-up, distributed leadership	Bottom-up, distributed leadership
School leader	Trait leadership, assigned leaders, directive	Trait leadership, assigned leaders, directive	Principal's qualifications, transformational leadership	Principal's qualifications, managers, situational leadership with the transformative features, change leadership	Principal's qualifications, change leadership, pedagogical leadership

Table 7. Leadership approaches since the 1970s.

According to the table, we can determine that in the 1970s and 1980s the education administration was centralized. Accordingly, the steering systems controlled schools with instructional leadership and the schools' decision making was done through top-down leadership. Only a small number of decisions could be made at the school level. At the beginning the leader was one of the teachers and planning was conducted together. Then, in the late 1970s, the teachers' and principals' relationship changed because of the Principal's Act. However, the schools' annual plans were planned and implemented together. Therefore, it was claimed that in the 1970s and 1980s principals and teachers worked in cooperation though they could decide only a small number of issues in schools.

However, the 1990s leadership approaches were already very different. The education administration was decentralized, and has remained so until today. In addition, instructional leadership was turned into pedagogical leadership, decision making in the 1990s developed to leadership from bottom-up, and shared leadership was applied. The reason for this had been in the growing number of administrative tasks and developmental responsibilities such as the school curriculum, which were allocated to the schools. During the 1990s, the learning theory changed and schools were at the main focus. The principals were now inspirers and motivators to their personnel, which is typical of the transformational leadership approach in school leadership.

During the 2000s, some of the instructional follow-up was returned to the steering systems. Schools received more guidelines and the amount of administrative tasks

increased again. Therefore, it was pointed out that the steering systems controlled schools again with instructional leadership. Nevertheless, the instructional style did not return to schools and the leading was still conducted with the bottom-up model. Distributed leadership was needed because principals were busy with the administrative tasks. Accordingly, the principals turned into managers. Moreover, they needed to work between the administration and the personnel and therefore they needed situational leadership in their work. Currently, the schools need to change continuously and therefore towards the end of the decade the leaders have benefitted from change leadership.

In the future, the steering systems will again support school-centered ideology and therefore pedagogical leadership will be used at many levels. Accordingly, the decision making in schools will be implemented with distributed leadership. In addition, in the changing situation, the leaders have to become change leaders and pedagogical leadership should be promoted.

Lastly, the principal's recruitment styles were studied, and it was discovered that in the 1970s and 1980s the school leaders were chosen according to their personal traits. They were also often assigned to their positions. Since 1998 the principal's recruitment has followed the rules of the Decree on Qualifications of Educational Personnel, which sets the professional requirements for principals (see Chapters 3.4 & 3.5).

6 RESEARCH EVALUATION

6.1 Significance of the study

Fundamentally, the curriculum has mostly been discussed as a tool for teachers and therefore its relationship to the school leaders has hardly been studied. This study aims to open up our perception about the Finnish curricula as the principal's tool. In addition, the previous studies have examined leadership development in the Finnish education mostly through personal experiences (see Laitila, 1999; Mäkelä, 2007; Pesonen, 2009). Leadership and the Finnish curricula since the 1970s had not been compared this way earlier. Furthermore, this study was conducted just before the new curriculum reform of 2016, so valuable information on the history of the curriculum was collected into one document.

As a result, this research provides valuable information on the Finnish education reforms to those interested in the topic. In addition, the different leadership approaches could be detected and then, the findings can be used as background knowledge in the future reforms. In addition, the education providers could use the information as a reminder of the Finnish education history. Moreover, this study described Kotter's (1995) eight step theory of conducting changes, and two more elements were added into the theory. Accordingly, constant evaluation and further development should be taken into account when the next reform is discussed. Finally, this study provides information on Finnish education to the students of the Master's Degree Programme of Educational Leadership, and last but not least, my own understanding and knowledge concerning the issue grew enormously.

6.2 Limitations and recommendations

During the research process some limitations could be detected. Firstly, when the data were collected from the curricula, it became evident that leadership was not clearly mentioned in the texts. In addition, the school leader's tasks had been written in the Basic education Law and Act since 1983. This study focused only on the official curricula. In the future it could be recommended to include the Basic Education Law and Act to the data. Secondly, two expert interviews were conducted to collect the data. They provided valuable information, and it is recommendable to conduct similar researches for example with questionnaires to the administrative staff of schools who might have a different perspective to school leadership.

Thirdly, this research had limitations because of the language. Most of the historical data could be found in Finnish and it needed to be translated for the study. Moreover, the interviews were conducted in Finnish and later on translated into English. Therefore, some of the official terms or words might have suffered from the translations. In addition, some of the cultural features and symbols could not be translated. Fourthly, in the leadership analysis it became clear that it was challenging to locate a small number of leadership characteristics to a certain approach. Furthermore, leadership theories overlapped and as a solution, a similar research could be conducted from the perspective of a certain leadership theory.

6.3 Authenticity of the study and further studies

According to research ethics, information has to be universal, public, neutral and systematically assessed. In addition, the terms credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability should be used in a qualitative study. As stated above in chapter 4.7, this research was evaluated according to the model of a qualitative research. In addition, triangulation was used in the evaluation. (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2012, pp. 126–129, 134–141.)

In this research, *ethics* remained clear because as a newcomer in the educational field, the presumptions did not disturb the study. Moreover, the research topic was chosen because it was timely and interesting. In addition, the research retained its focus on the relationship between leadership and the curricula. The data collection was

conducted with a content analysis of the curricula and the expert interviews, and their selection can be justified. The key themes of the study were demonstrated with an adequate amount of theory so as not to base the research on one perspective but many. During the research *further recommendations* for study emerged and they were introduced in chapter 6.2.

The research *participants* were chosen among the Steering Group of the 2016 curriculum development group. They were both working as principals at the moment of the study and they had been working in the educational field during the curriculum reforms since the 1970s. At the moment of the research, Mr Suortamo was working in a primary school and Mr Kuittinen in a secondary school. Therefore, the aspects of both comprehensive school levels were supported in the research. In addition, the interviews were conducted respectfully and the participants received information on how their answers would be used in the study.

This study combined theory, curricula data and interview information. All the data were analyzed with the *summative content analysis* because the leadership theme was searched from the data. Moreover, the *duration of the study* was approximately one year. Accordingly, the time used for the data collection and result analysis was adequate to gain enough knowledge and material for the study. Lastly, the final report was written following the *academic guidelines* given by the university. During the process, this study was monitored by the Institute of Educational Leadership and the final result will be *published* by the University of Jyväskylä.

In the following, credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability are discussed. At the beginning of the study, the aim of the study and research questions were created. Throughout the process, new information was evaluated on the basis of these. Accordingly, the research questions examined curriculum development, leadership visibility and descriptions. Then, this study provided answers to the set questions and the research findings were justified. In addition, the research results were based on theory and findings, and therefore the research *credibility* can be accepted. Moreover, the used theory and research findings were indicated and justified openly. The research results were described in the study clearly so that they can be used in other studies. Therefore, this research meets also the requirements of *transferability*.

Moreover, the research is going to be evaluated in the Institute of the Educational Leadership. This study followed the academic guidelines and the *dependability* of the

study was ensured. Lastly, the *confirmability* of the study was secured because it was evaluated thoroughly and triangulation was used as the authenticity measurement.

Accordingly, to evaluate the study, triangulation became a natural choice because this study could not have been conducted without the combination of the theory, the curricula and the interviews. All these elements made sure that the research findings could be rationalized. Moreover, this study could be assessed with the multi-method triangulation. Firstly, the *data triangulation* was used because the research data were gathered from multiple sources. Accordingly, the study used the theory, curricula and interviews as sources. Secondly, *theoretical triangulation* was also used as a measurement for this research. Typically, this study was able to compound many perspectives. The knowledge was gathered from the studies of several researchers and in addition, the documents of the National Board of Education were used as sources. Moreover, this study combined the curriculum and leadership theories. Thirdly, the use of *methodological triangulation* was also justified because the data collection was conducted with the content analysis and interviews. Moreover, the curriculum analysis was conducted with two steps which were the word counting and text analysis. In sum, the chosen methods and data collection tools supported each other (see Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2012, pp. 144–145).

During the time of study, new research topics emerged. Firstly, it would be interesting to continue to examine how the Finnish curriculum of 2016 is going to be implemented in schools. Secondly, the implementation results, schools' practicalities and the leader's role could be studied later on. In this research, it became evident that the current curriculum did not include direct instructions to the principals, and thirdly, it could be examined if the principals would benefit from more detailed job descriptions. Lastly, the Finnish comprehensive school curricula included a number of issues that could be studied separately, for example the teaching methods or even the language of the 1970s curriculum.

7 CONCLUSIONS

The aim of this study was to investigate the relationship between the curricula and leadership. In the beginning of the study, three research questions were formed and they focused on the curriculum development, the visibility of leadership and the leadership approaches in the curricula since the 1970s. In addition, this research aimed to increase understanding on why the forthcoming curriculum reform was needed and what it would entail in Finland.

The research was conducted as a qualitative content analysis with a summative method. Moreover, leadership in the curricula formed the starting point for the study. The data were collected from the official curricula since the 1970s and two expert interviews were conducted. In the research analysis the theory, curricula data and interview answers were combined. First, the research results were demonstrated in a chronological order and second, the research questions were answered in the conclusion of the research results. Essentially, the research was conducted ethically and it followed the principles of a good quality research. Moreover, the theory and the discussion were demonstrated transparently. In addition, the study provided recommendations and ideas for further studies.

The theoretical framework of the study was formed around the curriculum theory, leadership theory and Finnish comprehensive school development. As a result, this research demonstrated the different leadership approaches that could be detected in the Finnish education system since the 1970s. In addition, it was stated that the Finnish education has travelled a long journey since the birth of the comprehensive school, and each reform has had an important rationale in the history. Another essential finding is

that the curricula included only a small amount of information on leaders and leadership. Therefore, it was concluded that the importance of teaching experience for principals was visible in the curricula.

Lastly, this study recommended Kotter's (1995) theory of successful changes to be used in schools when the 2016 curriculum is implemented. All these steps are needed when the reform is conducted. However, as a result it was stated that Kotter's (1995) theory is missing some essential parts and therefore, continuous assessment and further development should be added to the theory. Accordingly, all transitions should be followed and evaluated during the process, and afterwards. Moreover, development is never ready and continuous development should be guaranteed because someday this curriculum becomes old-fashioned again.

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YK:n vammaisen henkilön oikeuksia koskeva yleissopimus 2006. [United Nations General Resolution on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities 2006.]

YK:n julistus alkuperäiskansojen oikeuksista 2007. [United Nations Declaration of the Rights of the Indigenous Peoples 2007.]

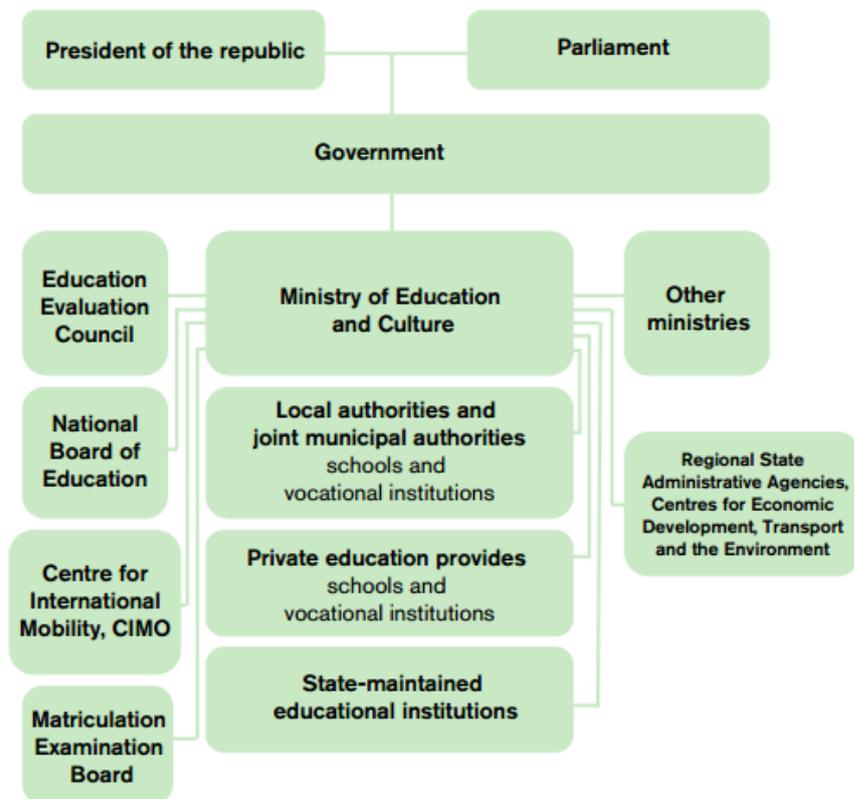
Valtioneuvoston asetus perusopetuslain muutoksesta (642/2010), (1288/2013).

[Government Decree on Amendment to the Basic Education Act (642/2010), (1288/2003).]

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Administration of basic and upper secondary education in Finland

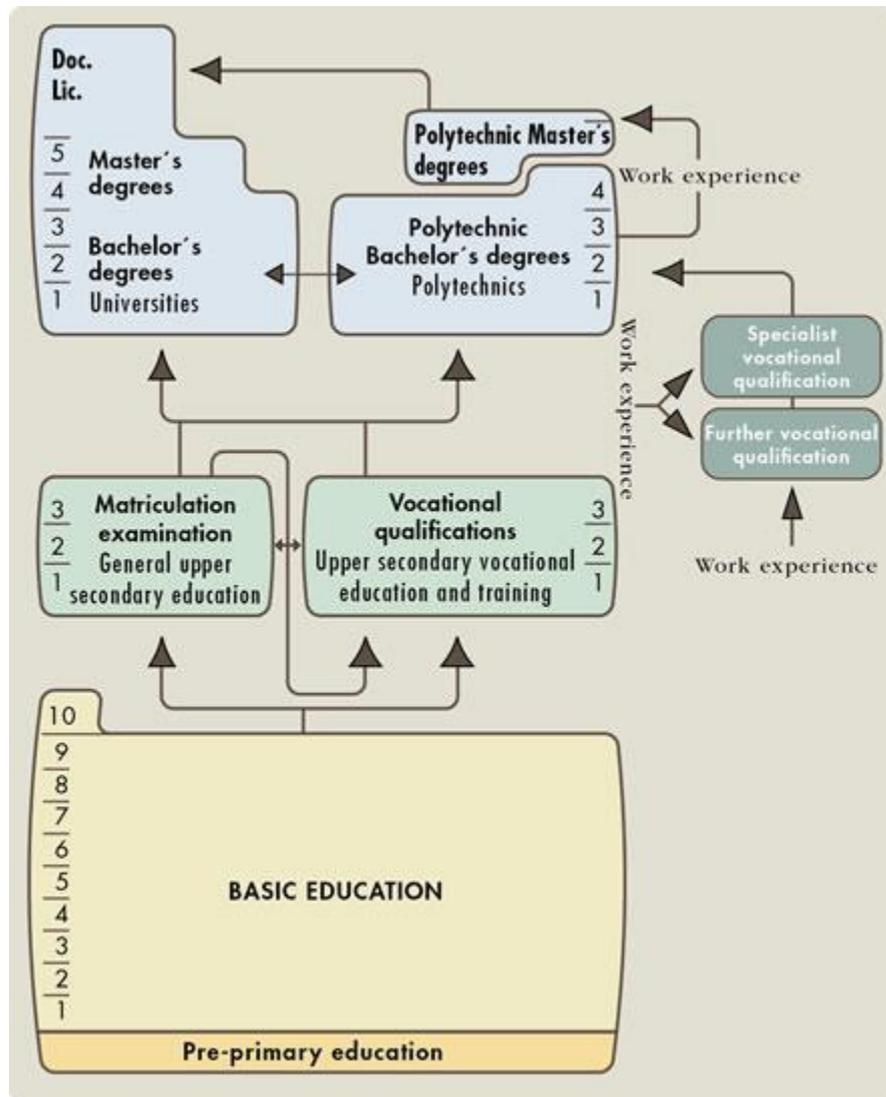
Administration of basic and upper secondary education



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http://www.minedu.fi/export/sites/default/OPM/Koulutus/koulutusjaerjestelmae/liitteet/sv_liitteet/Administration_of_basic_and_upper_secondary_education.pdf

Appendix 2: Finnish Education System



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Appendix 3: Interview questions

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

The study covers the curricula of 1970, 1985, 1994, 2004 and 2016. The interview contains four questions and the responses 1-3 should include information on the different curricula/decades.

- 1) How would you describe educational leadership during the different curricula (1970, 1985, 1994, 2004)?
- 2) What kind of changes did the curriculum reforms cause to school leadership (1970, 1985, 1994, 2004)?
- 3) How would you describe the role of the curricula during the different decades (1970, 1980, 1990, 2000)?
- 4) What kind of leadership is needed after the reform of 2016?

Appendix 4: Example of data collection and analysis.

First, the table of contents was studied. The leadership words were marked and demonstrated in a table. However, it became evident that the leadership findings were minor in the table of contents.

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Second, the leadership theme was searched in the curriculum, and presented as a summary. Then, the findings were demonstrated in the tables.

Leadership themes of the 2004 curriculum		
2004	Table of contents	The curriculum
The steering system	The Government Decree 1435/2001 (aims and hour division)	
Decision making in schools		
Leader		
Other		

1.1 OPETUSSUUNNITELMAN LAATIMINEN

Opetussuunnitelman perusteet on kansallinen kehy, jonka pohjalta paikallisen opetus-suunnitelma laaditaan. Opetuksen järjestäjällä on vastuu opetus-suunnitelman laadinnasta ja kehittämisestä. **Opetussuunnitelmassa päätetään perusopetuksen kaavan- ja opetus-rytityt ja siten määrätään perusteissa määritellyt tavoitteet ja sisältöjä sekä muita opetuksen järjestämiseen liittyviä seikkoja.** Perusopetuksen opetus-suunnitelmaa laadittaessa tulee ottaa huomioon esiopetuksen opetus-suunnitelma ja perusopetuksen yhtenäisyys sekä muut kunnassa tehdyt lapsia, nuoria ja koulunsa koskevat päätökset.

- Valtakunnalliset ja paikalliset perusopetus koskevat päätökset muodostavat perusopetuksen ohjauksen kokonaisuuden. Nämä päätökset ovat:
- perusopetuslaki ja -asetus
 - valtioneuvoston asetus perusopetuksessa tarkoitettua opetuksen valtakunnallista tavoiteita ja perusopetuksen tuntijaosta
 - esi- ja perusopetuksen opetus-suunnitelman perusteet
 - opetuksen järjestäjien hyväksymät opetus-suunnitelmat
 - opetus-suunnitelman perustava perusopetusasetuksen 9 §:n mukainen vuosittainen suunnitelma.

Opettajien tulee opetuksessaan noudattaa opetuksen järjestäjän vahvistamaa opetus-suunnitelmaa.

Opetussuunnitelma voidaan laatia siten, että siinä on kustannuksellinen osio, alustavista tai koulukohtaisista osioista sen lisäksi kuin opetuksen järjestäjä päättää. Perusopetuksen opetus-suunnitelman yhtenäisyys edellyttää eri opettajaryhmien yhteistyötä opetus-suunnitelmaa laadittaessa. Oppilaitsohjeiden on voitava vaikuttaa varsinkin opetus-suunnitelman kaavantoimituksen laatimiseen. Myös oppilaitsohjeita voidaan ottaa mukaan opetus-suunnitelmaryhtymän.

Opetussuunnitelma tulee oppilaitsohjeita sekä kodin ja koulun yhteistyötä koskevat osat laatia yhteistyössä kunnan sosiaali- ja terveysviraston toimintasuunnitelmien kanssa.

5.1.1 Leadership in documents

The curriculum was based on to the **Basic Education Act and Decree 1998**. Moreover it was stated that education providers had to modify local curricula according to these guidelines. In addition, the curriculum included information about the **curriculum planning and implementation**. The curriculum highlighted that it was the national frame and the basic education should be guided with it. The curriculum highlighted the **hour division, curriculum, local curriculum and school's annual plan**. In addition, the curriculum included a list of issues that should be included in the local curricula. (POPS, 2004, pp. 8-9.)

Leadership themes of the 2004 curriculum		
2004	Table of contents	The curriculum
The steering system	The Government Decree 1435/2001 (aims and hour division)	The Basic Education Act and Decree 1998, curriculum planning, the school's annual plan, the curriculum guidelines, non-political, the Government Decree 1435/2001 (aims and hour division)
Decision making in schools	—	—
Leader	—	—
Other	—	Internationalization, the student assessment