Teacher Leadership

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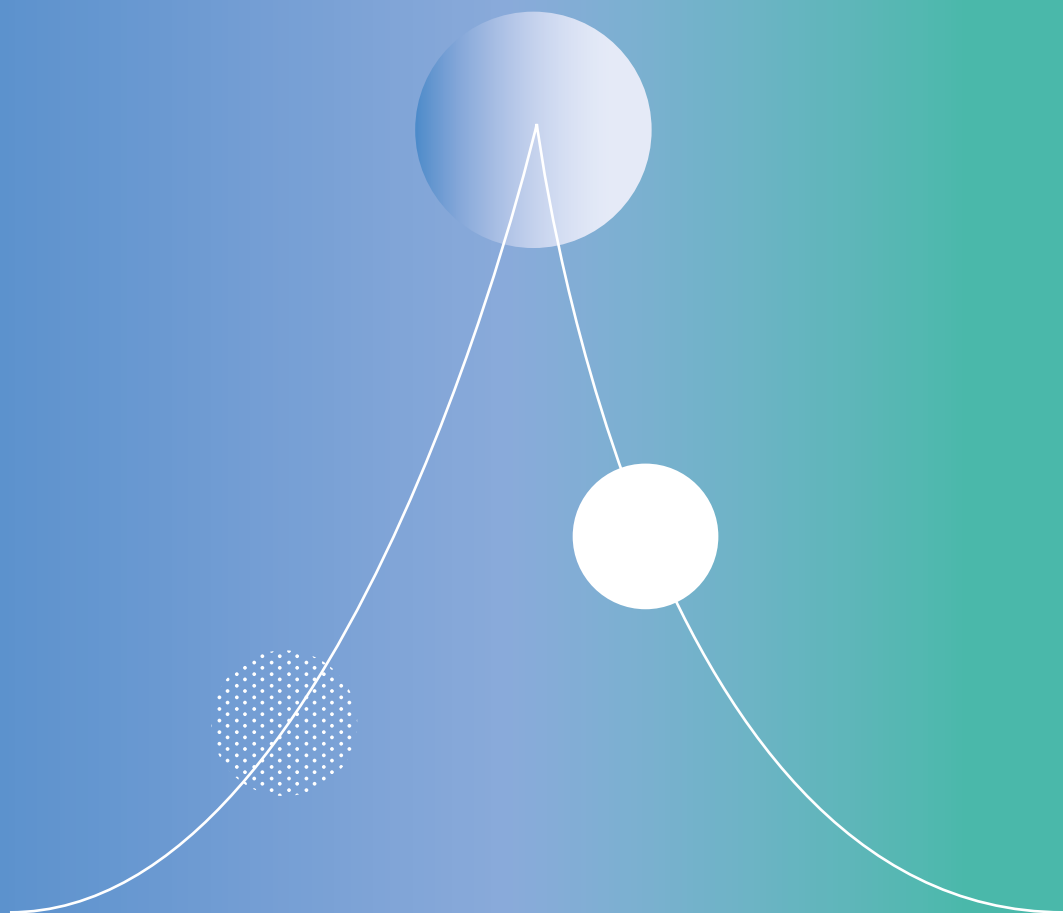
Teacher Leadership

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Leadership

Areas:
Educational Leadership and Change,
Perspectives and Inspirations, International Perspective

Scientific Editor:
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Introduction

This publication is a collection of papers by Polish and international authors devoted to teacher leadership and the role it plays in the development of schools. The main criterion for the selection of texts was their representing the most important issues related to teacher leadership and their quality. The book consists of three closely related parts: Educational Leadership and Change; Teacher Leadership – Perspectives and Inspirations; and Teacher Leadership – International Perspective.

Authors of the book share the belief that teacher leadership does exist, and it has become a reality, which is evidenced in law on education. The picture of teacher leadership is multidimensional and its development should be supported with measures taken by headteachers and attitudes adopted by them coupled with relevant education policy in a given country.

The results of theoretical discussion and empirical studies on the phenomena and processes forming educational leadership of teachers and factors affecting it reflect the great complexity of the topic. The authors have identified opportunities for and requirements that this professional group needs to satisfy. They share their reflections about the essence of teacher leadership and the requirements, which should be set for initial teacher education in a constantly evolving world.

Teacher leadership is related to the agency and responsibility of this professional group for the shape of education. Teacher leadership proves intentional and organised participation of teachers in school development processes. It passes fundamental values, principles and methods of operation aimed at raising the quality of education on the members of professional and other communities, including society at large (and the youngest generation in particular). At the same time,

it promotes cooperation, commitment and understanding, and is detached from alienation, anomy and deprivation. Teachers who act as formal and informal leaders in education are people with ideas and dreams. They are creative, self-driven, proactive, and pro-social. They think about the future, ponder about projects concerning education and focus on the participation in educational and social change.

Because of the complexity of the challenges in the area of education, teachers-leaders who are driven by responsibility, courage, integrity, reliability, agency and creativity are in high demand. Without teachers who are ready to face up challenges and take risks, who are capable of identifying and overcoming the barriers for the development of participants in education processes in school and outside it, it will be difficult to introduce a considerable change at the school.

Factual knowledge, relevant skills and well-developed and shaped attitudes concerning educational leadership and forming leadership competences of teachers are indispensable for taking up educational challenges, introducing changes and bringing about innovation in the school life. Therefore, becoming a leader and mastering teaching profession requires not only devotion to work and commitment to the tasks, but also providing to teachers conditions conducive for their development. Therefore any well-thought out measures aimed at creating conditions, which are conducive for the development of leadership competences in teachers, both at the national and local level and at individual schools, should be seen today as highly desired.

The discussion presented in the publication brings us to a conclusion that a growing awareness of the irreversibility of democratic transformations at schools is an optimistic forecast for the development of teacher leadership. The changes we observe call for the schools, which look into the future and do not look back into the past. However, this promising perspective gives rise to a series of questions. Here are some of them:

→ Are the teachers capable of introducing innovations and changes to schools?
→ What determinants affect the work of teachers, their needs and opportunities to lead other people?
→ What are the actual limits of teachers' autonomy in school education and higher education?

→ How to depart from accountability and focus on educational outcomes in education? How to concentrate on the teachers' responsibility both for teaching outcomes and the process and for creating the conditions for the introduction of innovation and change at the school?

→ How to increase the need to build ethos-based culture at schools?

→ How can teachers - who are themselves the products of a system, which emphasized hierarchy, formal leadership, and did not leave room for leadership based on cooperation and mutual learning - shape other people to become committed, open, and capable of expanding on alternative visions?

→ How to move from the position of power at school to serving others and society as a whole?

→ How to reconcile the top-down transformation and reform of education with bottom-up movement consisting in its socialising and diversifying it?

→ How to trigger interest, motivation, and society- and education-oriented activity in teachers at a time when public recognition of the teaching profession declines?

→ How to work towards new solutions at schools, which are not based old, unchallenged foundations, and avoid accepting some, while rejecting other dogmas?

The questions presented above result from the hope that teacher leadership brings, and from limitations that form an inherent part of it. These questions show the magnitude of problems and the dilemmas posed by the prospect of the democratisation and socialisation of education. They call for identifying what is necessary and possible here and now, and what we should focus on in the future. Without the awareness of the direction, in which we are heading - without a vision of education and the school - it is difficult to think of the concepts for school development. After all, what is happening here and now, what is temporary and often necessary, although fragmentary, cannot and should not in any way disturb the future, which holds a new quality of reality, and a new quality - let's say it a bit solemnly - of the world, in which the next generations will live.

Certainly, the discussion of educational leadership and change presented in the publication, and in particular the deliberations on the

essence of teacher leadership, and the role it plays at the school and in school development, as well as these devoted to the relationship between the leadership of headteachers and the school climate, and between teacher leadership and the development of leadership competences in teachers, form an important source of cognitive and practical inspiration for searching for effective pedagogical solutions aimed at school development. These considerations may become a starting point for the analysis and discussion on the desired leadership model in schools in educational reality of Poland and other countries.

I am convinced that the papers forming this publication will provide valuable material for researchers, academic staff, students of pedagogy and management, and will be of help to headteachers and teachers in performing the complex task of introducing innovation and change to schools. I would like to express my sincere thanks to the authors who have accepted my invitation to work on the book, whose enthusiasm, commitment and self-discipline has made the publication a reality.

Joanna Madalińska-Michalak
Warsaw, 2018

List of Abbreviations

Art.	Article
pt	part
OJ	Official Journal
OJ EU	Official Journal of the European Union
Teachers' Charter	Act of 26 January 1982 – Teachers' Charter (consolidated text: OJ of 2017, item 1189, as amended)
no.	number
par.	paragraph
i.	item
School Education Law	Act of 14 December 2016 – Law on School Education (OJ of 2017, item 59, as amended)
ed.	editor
p.	page
vol.	volume
tłum.	tłumaczenie (translation)
sec.	section

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Educational Leadership and Change

Educational Leadership
- challenges of theory and practice

Joanna Madalińska-Michalak

The paper addresses key issues of educational leadership. There is a particular focus on the challenges of relating theory and practice in educational leadership. The first part of the paper discusses new approaches in the research on educational leadership, analyses and classifies the theories in question, identifies the concept of leadership as a natural concept and asks new questions in relation to core leadership theories. The second part shows the complexity and problematic nature of the development of theory and practice in educational leadership. At the same time, a number of solutions that may foster the development of educational leadership theory and practice are proposed.

Introduction

The question of leadership increasingly attracts the attention of theoreticians who focus on research into efficient team management; interpersonal relationships (especially in the work place); relationships between the characteristics of human activity and behaviour, the achievement of goals and harmonising actions aimed to ensure effective introduction of changes; and providing conditions conducive for important achievements. The body of research into leadership based on the humanities, social sciences, and economic sciences is impressive. Research problems, which are analysed here are becoming more diversified and cover a wide range of phenomena.

The analysis of literature reveals a multitude of approaches associated with defining and describing leadership, including those relating to educational leadership. The existing theoretical knowledge gives us an insight into the nature of leadership and identifies factors determining its effectiveness. It forms the basis for studying and forecasting the complexity of leadership-related behaviours. The wealth of literature devoted to leadership is not only one of the visible signs of the popularity of this concept among theoreticians, but also a reflection of an established conviction that leadership processes play an important role in the development of societies, organisations and individuals (see Madalińska-Michalak, 2012, p. 31).

This chapter discusses the challenges related to the theory and practice of educational leadership. While outlining research perspectives for investigations into leadership, and educational leadership in particular, it presents the complexity of the search for the essence of leadership and of efforts aimed at defining it. It refers to certain theoretical stands in order to present the strengths and weaknesses of existing theoretical solutions and illustrate their application not only in contemporary scientific deliberations, but also in practice. At the same time, it caters for the needs of contemporary pedagogy and research on schools, with special focus on educational leadership. The final part of the paper shows how you can approach educational leadership and what questions you can ask to contribute to the development of educational theory and practice.

Leadership

The analysis of literature on the topic shows that it is difficult to identify at least one theory of 'good' leadership, which everyone would accept. At present, it is more and more clear that not a single theory or concept is the best one. The existing leadership theories and concepts suggest possible approaches to leading other people. Approaches to leadership adopted by individual theoreticians only refer to certain patterns of behaviours displayed by leaders, and therefore each one of them can be considered somewhat narrowed. The numerous theories and concepts can be treated as the elements of a puzzle called leadership.

The analysis of literature on leadership, including educational leadership, shows the multitude of challenges relating to the theory and practice of leadership. Below, the attention will be drawn only to some of them, as I will refer to the results of my research in this scope (see Madalińska-Michalak, 2012, 2015).

Theories and concepts of leadership - systematics

The wealth of leadership theories, concepts and models, which contribute to the development of scientific thought over the phenomenon, reveals different points of view on its essence. Understanding leadership and the role leaders play has evolved along with the development of various sciences; sociology, political science, social psychology and management science in particular. The changes have occurred as a result of evolving reality and challenges that the organisations and their leaders had to face.

However, it is still important to organise the presentation of existing and emerging theories and the concepts of leadership. There are many ways, in which you can present the evolution of views on leadership, depending on the selection of criteria and theoretical approaches by the authors. If we pondered how to relate all these elements to one other, we would probably arrive at a range of solutions in this respect.

A comparative analysis of theories under investigation can prove effective, and would probably give us a deeper insight into matters related to leadership and methods of investigating it.

The concept of leadership – towards natural notions

Review of literature shows that great importance is attached to the category of leadership and that scientific literature abounds in various definitions of the concept of leadership. These definitions originate from opposing theoretical concepts, which often use disparate vocabularies and emphasise different aspects of leadership. As a result, they give various meanings to the phenomenon. Researchers still have not come to an agreement on what leadership is and how it should be defined. There are many contrasting points of view on the essence of leadership and thus there is a lot of disparity in the ways, in which the concept of 'leadership' can be understood (see Madalińska-Michalak, 2015). The multiplicity of theoretical concepts of leadership leads to a situation, in which many readers may feel overwhelmed by the sheer amount of information, opposing views, divergent theories and general lack of consistency in the scope of defining the concept of leadership.

Changes, which can be observed in defining leadership, result on the one hand from the strive to better describe the phenomenon, and on the other are caused by evolving environment and challenges faced by organisations and their leaders. The progressive development of scientific knowledge on leadership has more precisely reflected the essential characteristics of the phenomenon, and has allowed more precise definition of the concept. But this does not mean that its boundaries have been definitely lined.

The multitude of ways, in which you can understand the concept clearly shows that this notion is ambiguous, and can be approached from many different angles, depending on the perspective (see Madalińska-Michalak, 2015). As Gayle C. Avery aptly notes (2009, p. 21), "the concept of leadership remains elusive and enigmatic, despite years of efforts at developing an intellectually and emotionally satisfying understanding".

The situation in this respect leads us to further seeking answers to the question of what lies behind the concept of leadership and why it is so difficult to define. This is an important task, as the existing discrepancies in the way leadership is understood impact on the development of sciences, in which leadership is an important concept. It is difficult to speak of a constructive development of scientific knowledge, including knowledge in pedagogy, when conceptual apparatus is far from indispensable clarity. Possible ways of defining

leadership show the scale of difficulties faced by researchers who wish to provide an analytical definition, which would take into account already adopted way of understanding this concept.

Taking into account the specificity of social life and processes involved in it, and as a result, the specificity of cognition on the basis of the humanities and social sciences, we should not expect that the concept of leadership will be a clear-cut one and that it would include the representation of a set of objects covering all relevant properties of such set, but rather we should direct our attention towards natural (probabilistic) notions reflecting common characteristics, which to a varying degree are attributed to designata of a given category. Therefore, the concept of leadership is characterised in the literature using a set of qualitative characteristics that occur with a differing probability.

Definition of leadership - the question of universality
SThe situation mentioned above draws our attention to the problem of leadership definition universality. It is worth considering if individual sciences focusing on leadership should apply separate, own definitions or if this is not necessary. Should these definitions differ in terms of vocabulary used for the description, yet be treated on an equal footing or should they assign different meaning to the concept of leadership? Undoubtedly, the review of literature proves that an in-depth analysis of the concept of leadership is needed. Efforts should be made to determine cut-off points, in which the phenomenon is still leadership and those, in which it can no longer be described as such. Such an approach could prove helpful in defining the varieties of leadership, such as educational leadership for example.

Search for the essence of leadership - overcoming ambiguity
Undoubtedly, it must be underlined that different trends, assumptions and cognitive orientations expose the understanding of the phenomenon of leadership specific to them, and, for several reasons, make the search for its essence, including the nature of educational leadership, more difficult.

Firstly, notions underlying the concept and practices of leadership have changed over time. Secondly, when people use the term 'leadership', "they may talk about completely different things. Traditional models

of leadership mostly err in assuming that all individuals in a given organisation or society share a common experience and understanding of leadership. However, even employees within one educational institution hold a range of ideas about what it is to be a leader" (Avery, 2009, p. 22-23). Thirdly, there is no generally accepted definition of leadership and the existing ones are rather inconsistent. Researchers disagree on what the concept of leadership should embrace. Fourthly, "much of the work on leadership is currently too simple to reflect the full richness and complexity that practitioners face on the job" (ibid, p. 23).

Therefore, inquiries into the essence of leadership require overcoming the ambiguity, which is deeply ingrained in the language and terminology used by some theoreticians, which are recognised as eligible and conducive for explaining the concept. The status quo associated with the answer to the question what leadership is makes any attempts to define the concept a true research challenge. However, despite diversified stands, efforts should be made to specify this concept more precisely. This task is particularly important in the field of pedagogy, where research into leadership, and in particular educational leadership, which is so important for educators, is still scanty.

Grand theories - asking new questions
In research on leadership the so-called grand theories, including personality theories, theories of behaviour, and situational and relational theories, will always be important. However, the focus on the causative characteristics of leaders connects the majority of modern theoretical approaches to leadership. Despite the many weaknesses of the approach focusing on the characteristics of an efficient leader, it has regained popularity in recent years.

Even if a leader causes the release of only a certain type of energy in team members, his/her participation is indispensable for the success of the team. Without the leader, the team would not have achieved as much as they did with his/her participation. Thus, a question arises whether it is possible to establish a list of ideal characteristics of a leader. If so, which traits would be currently most desired and what important reflections about leadership, including headteacher's leadership, result from the trait theory. When drawing conclusions, it is worth considering if currently you should look for "natural born" leaders with constant

traits or rather analyse the capabilities of persons who potentially can act as leaders.

These questions should be accompanied by the enquiry into the role of charisma in the leadership process and into specific conditions causing the need for having a charismatic leader. It is worth to take into account the fact that the concept of charismatic leadership, although useful in many situations, meets criticism in literature, due to possible risks it carries. Czesław Sikorski in the book entitled *Organizacje bez wodzów. Od przywództwa emocjonalnego do koordynacji demokratycznej (Organisations without leaders. From emotional leadership to democratic coordination) - just like other authors who are sceptical about charismatic leadership - proves that a charismatic leader seduces their subordinates, and by doing so, limits and hinders development.* People affected by a charismatic leader become less capable of thinking for themselves and of taking rational decisions. The author claims: "The more dominant, strong and creative a leader, the weaker and less independent their subordinates" (Sikorski, 2006, p. 35). Charismatic leadership carries several potential risks. In extreme cases, as Czesław Sikorski has shown, it may practically destroy an organisation or society.

In the context of the above questions about the nature of leadership and the characteristics of effective leaders, it must be underlined that personality theories of leadership are criticised for analysing the essence of leadership in organisations from the angle of traits that characterise leaders, which is currently insufficient, since modern times require defining an organisation at least as a 'professional organisation', and not as a 'hierarchical organisation'. So inquiries into leadership made from the perspective of traits that distinguish 'great leaders' and from the point of view of a concept of 'professional organisation" have proven unsuccessful. The most serious limitation of thinking about leadership from the point of view of the traits of a leader, especially if you would like to conduct this kind of research in organisations, is not including a wider context of a manager's performance, which leads to analysing leadership without taking cultural references into consideration. Moreover, this approach is based on a wrong assumption that stable and isolated personality traits are the main determinants of leader's role. This approach does not provide hints about how these

traits are distributed (and how they are inter-related) and about the required level of their intensity.

A current tendency that can be observed in research on leadership is such that you no longer explain effective behaviours of leaders using only just the analysis of certain traits. The results of research into the correlation between analysed traits of leaders and leadership effectiveness have shown that they are usually weak or moderate at most, and therefore such correlations cannot explain too much as far as leadership effectiveness is concerned. This is why more extensive research models are taken into account. The departure from a static approach assuming that you continue to be the same person and your traits are determined at birth is being observed. Now, more emphasis is placed on the leadership dynamics and on the possibility for the modification of leader's behaviour with the passage of time (Sternberg, 2005). Researchers try to seek predicates of leaders' performance (Zaccaro, 2007). Research shows that preconditions for effective leadership include the following attributes: personality, cognitive capacity, motives and values, social skills, efficiency in troubleshooting and tacit/expert knowledge. These attributes interact and taken together ensure performance effectiveness in the majority of situations - regardless of the field in which a leader operates.

Just as trait theories are currently gaining on popularity, the behaviour theories of leadership are rather in decline. Behaviour theories assume that leadership skills consist mainly in predisposition for specific behaviour and, to a large extent, the behaviour itself. However, as Sternberg (2005) demonstrated, a major weakness of behavioural concepts of leadership is simplified understanding of behaviour, which is mainly manifested by disregarding the context, in which a given way of behaving is exhibited.

When considering leaders' performance and behaviour, it is worth asking if it is possible to identify universal patterns of behaviour of effective leaders. Research has shown that when analysing leadership, authors tend to focus on searching for individual leadership styles and on the assessment of leaders' performance and efficiency, and not on their behaviour. As it has been shown, looking for answers to the question which style is the most effective has allowed to identify two classification criteria, namely: *orientation on the task, job or results and orientation on people and relationships.* Attempts made on the basis

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of the so-called situational leadership theory to provide answers to the question why managers take decisions, which are more people- or task-oriented resulted in many propositions, the most important being leader match concept developed by Fred Fiedler, situational leadership theory developed by Tannenbaum and Schmidt, and concepts developed by Robert Blake and Jean Mouton. Research has shown that it is difficult to identify a single universal and effective leadership style, which would be applicable irrespective of team's requirements and performed tasks. Such a situation may hinder the work of leaders at various levels and of all those aspiring to perform the leadership role. On their own responsibility, they must decide which management and leadership style is the most appropriate.

Answering the questions: "Which is better - more democracy or more autocracy, or maybe something in between?", "What leadership style should I adopt and should I modify it?", usually present a challenge, especially to people with little managerial experience. The choice of an appropriate leadership style depends not only on the situation, but also, to a large extent, on the personality of leaders, the characteristics and expectations of subordinates, the rules of conduct adopted in the organisation, and expectations and behaviours of immediate superiors of a given manager and his/her colleagues.

An overview of different views on the effectiveness of leadership performance shows that there is no perfect leadership style, which suits every team. What is the most important for each leader is realising what is their natural style and what other styles may prove more effective in a given team. A leader who is aware of their strengths and weaknesses can modify their behaviour and actions. The most successful are transformational leaders who can adapt their style to the existing conditions and who do not confine themselves to a single model of operation.

Leadership theories which focus on leaders and their behaviours most often combine leadership with formal power within the organisation. However, in many cases people holding formal power are not true leaders in their organisations. Sometimes, it is difficult to distinguish one 'true' leader in the organisation, as there may be many of them.

In literature, you can find many new concepts and models of leadership offering practical guidance for those who undertake to lead

others. However, the leadership model developed by John Adair already in early 1960s is one of the few models, which withstand the test of time and forms a classic theory of management. John Adair's action-centred leadership model shows what true leaders should do in order to effectively play their roles. According to this model, a leader should focus on three overlapping objectives:

→ task performance,
→ team building and development,
→ providing assistance to individual team members in their development.

This model shows that too much focus on the task at hand and striving at better results may mean that individuals and/or teams perceive their needs as being of little significance to leaders. And conversely, excessive focus on the needs of individuals, attempts to please colleagues and avoiding difficult decisions in situations that require them can quickly lead to poor results.

Functional leadership models are linked with the 'group needs' theory (Adair, 2007, p. 23). Their attention is more focused on how leadership is manifested in the organisation and how the leadership role is performed than on who leads a given organisations. These theories define and describe the ways of behaving important for leading an organisation. Distribution of leadership is of paramount importance in the framework functional models, which assume that anyone can participate in the management of an organisation.

In conclusion, it is worth stressing that the grand leadership theories are often considered a priori as outdated. However, thanks to new empirical research, they can regain significance - as it is important what research questions are asked. On the other hand, you should take into consideration the fact that scientific inquiries into leadership are constantly progressing and new ways of interpreting the phenomenon of leadership appear, which slowly transform it into leadership concepts and theories. This is evidenced by transformational leadership, participative leadership, ancillary leadership and competence based leadership models (see Madalińska-Michalak, 2015).

Leadership in organisations – towards participation

Reflection upon prospects for research on leadership draws our attention not only towards searching for the definition and essence of leadership, but also shows that it is important to make the answers to the question about the need or even validity of leadership in organisations, including schools, more profound.

   Analysis in this area direct our attention towards possible risks, which may be associated with leadership. Works questioning the significance of leadership highlight certain weaknesses of leadership understood and exercised in a traditional way (where leadership is attributed only to top level managers and results from the roles performed). These works have shed a new light on leadership itself. At present, various sciences focusing on leadership provide reflections on how to spare leadership possible negative attributes. Thus a new outlook on the question of responsibility related to leadership, which has been proven by such concepts as ancillary and participative leadership models (see Madalińska-Michalak, 2015).

   The latest research reports show that if you relate leadership to formal organisations, then leadership should be closely associated with management (Jeżowski, Madalińska-Michalak, 2015). Modern leaders are mainly driven by the good of other people, support their development, and care for their well-being. Leaders strive to build relationships based on trust, understanding, cooperation and ownership of the leadership process and its effects. They not only design the future, but in great measure act as 'teachers' who assist the development of the organisation and its members, which is mainly evident in such concepts as participative leadership, ancillary leadership, integral leadership or rational leadership.

   The success of a leader more depends on the originality of the solutions to problems applied in a given situation than on following ready-made problem solving recipes. The starting point for the adoption of the most appropriate leadership style that can lead to a success, is, above all, the awareness of the conditions in which you operate and trying to understand the situation that you need to address. Subject to a number of variables, you can adopt different leadership actions. However, this does not mean that there are no principal rules, which could be applied in the leadership process taking place, for example, in organisations and their environment.

Contemporary authors almost unanimously agree that leadership is not so much linked with the actions taken by lonely leaders staying at the top of an organisation, but *is related with the work of competent managers* who combine the efforts of many people targeted both at achieving desired results by an organisation and at the creation of conditions conducive for the attractiveness of the organization and its unity (Madalińska-Michalak, 2015). This kind of approach is of the utmost importance for the development of thinking and practices in the scope of informal leadership, and especially teacher leadership.

Two fundamental assumptions lie at the heart of participative leadership. The first one is related to the recognition of freedom and agency of each person working in an organisation. Recognition of employees' freedom means that you cannot demand anything from anyone and you cannot force them to do anything. Agency is a probability for employees to affect reality. Agency is a precondition for commitment and ownership. The best way to motivate people is to make them realise the sense of their work, ownership, agency and decision making at the company and see the results of their work. Such an incentive system consists in treating all organisation members as partners, regardless of their standing.

The other underlying assumption says that you need to focus on who a given person can become in the future and not on who they are at the moment. Participative leadership stresses the importance of employee education and development and aims at making individual development balanced with the interests of the company. In organisations which provide for full employee participation, every staff member feels they have ample opportunities for growth and development.

These basic assumptions show how big emphasis is placed on the leader's ability to exploit the potential of subordinates. However, this ability is often overlooked in various leadership theories. As Czesław Sikorski (2006a) rightly notices, participative leadership is about "the transition from treating subordinates like objects to treating them as subjects" (ibid, p. 37), which in practice translates into strengthening, both in leaders and their followers/subordinates, the sense of responsibility for discovering the value of cooperation, which forms a part of the process of learning by leaders and their followers. Organisations which aim at full participation, as a rule, make their employees responsible for a larger number of tasks than the ones having

a traditional approach. The ideal employees are those who care for high quality work and are willing to consistently improve their competences. They can see their organisation as a whole, recognise its complexity and the impact of their work on other people. They can think strategically and solve problems. Full participation allows for abandoning something what Ryszard Stocki, Piotr Prokopowicz and Grzegorz Żmuda (2012) call "employee mentality, which in the least drastic form is manifested as focusing exclusively on a small portion of your own work, and not thinking about the organisation as a whole, and in the most drastic form consists in completely ignoring the interests of the company or even acting to its disadvantage" (ibid, p. 37).

Trust, pride and satisfaction with own work are indispensable for full participation. An organisation can become successful only when its employees are passionate and enthusiastic. They want to achieve success and are proud of what they do. "While wanting to fight and win, people must also wish that someone else appreciates what they do - they must be proud of their work" (ibid, p. 42). They need to be willing to show where they work, how they work and what the results of their work are.

Educational leadership

Strong growth of researchers' interest in leadership, coupled with the signs of the increasing popularity of the topic among educational practitioners is in contrast with a situation, where studies attempting to present an in-depth scientific interpretation of the concept of educational leadership are scarce, and poses a great challenge to researchers focusing on it.

When talking about educational leadership, it is worth emphasising once again that the picture of leadership has changed radically over the past years. Leadership used to be associated with biographies of great people who influenced the world history or religions and caused political and industrial changes. However, the latest results of research, especially this in the field of management science and psychology, show the actual shift in scientific inquiries and the search for new tools for solving actual problems in organisations of various types. A similar situation can be observed in the field of pedagogy, as presented in this book by the authors of several articles, especially Julia Rößler and Michael Schratz in *Leadership for learning. Teacher leaders as mediators*

for school-wide innovation and change and Maria Assunção Flores in *Perspectives on teacher leadership*.

Taking into account different theories and concepts of leadership and their possible application in educational practice at schools, it should be stressed that the existing theoretical models reveal some of the ways of describing the category of 'leadership'. They may be very helpful in approaching school leadership, as manifested in seeking answers to the question of effective leadership styles at school or those concerning the effectiveness of using ancillary leadership, participative leadership and competence based leadership. However, they do not form ready-made recipes for implementation.

Reflection about the existing leadership models, both the classic and contemporary ones, is needed to identify opportunities for their use in the area of pedagogy. The complexity and dynamics of the context, in which school operates and the multiple leadership theories make it difficult to identify at least one theory of 'good' leadership and at the same time show how they can be deployed in the daily life of the school.

Teachers and headteachers, when forming school community, have to find their own, most effective approach to leadership. Including theoretical concepts in the picture of leadership can be of help to educational practitioners in developing a vision of leadership in their schools. The analysis of different approaches to leadership in contemporary school is important, because it can form the basis for the identification of prevailing school leader behaviours and can set the directions in which leadership in Polish schools heads. At the same time, it may allow for determining the desired directions for change in leadership.

Due to the multitude of descriptions of the term 'leadership', it is difficult to develop a single definition of the concept of 'educational leadership'. The review of Polish literature in the field of educational sciences clearly proves that until recently there were neither theoretical nor empirical studies devoted to educational leadership in Poland, including educational leadership exercised by headteachers. At present, the need for an in-depth analysis of educational leadership and the attempts to define the concept and to identify its essence take on profound significance.

The attractiveness of educational leadership in the context of the search for its essence, meanings, dilemmas, effectiveness and

efficiency in relation to the place and time in which it is exercised or is about to be exercised, creates an opportunity for opening pedagogy to cooperation with such disciplines as sociology, philosophy, psychology, history, management science, economics and law. Focusing teachers' attention on educational leadership enhances the opportunity to go beyond the bounds of individual fields of science, and minimise differences between scientific disciplines and research areas.

Research papers on educational leadership, which concern the school, open up new and valuable domains of theoretical analyses and show a vast area for empirical studies. Educational leadership provokes research questions, reflection and inquiry and serves as a source of inspiration for thinking about the work of people responsible for leading others; headteachers in this case, and the challenges they face in their everyday work.

Interest in educational leadership stems from the importance attached to this phenomenon. The unquestionable value of educational leadership lies in the fact that it is manifested in the value of school life and actions taken on its behalf; focus on the future by relating current tasks to the ones that will be performed in the future, in the light of objectives pursued.

Educational leadership is characterised by the fact that it is exercised in educational sphere and it is based on the assumption that it is to serve the development of individuals, institutions (not necessarily educational ones), organisations and communities by achieving goals set by educational leaders and their followers.

The ambiguity of the term 'leadership' precludes definite linking it only with the characteristics and qualities typical for leaders or with the skills, talents, and behaviour typical for leaders or with social relationships and social process. The same applies to educational leadership. Different definitions of the term that can be found in literature result from disparate ways of thinking about the nature of leadership.

In the context of work aimed at the clarification and more profound understanding of educational leadership, I suggest moving away from looking at educational leadership only from the perspective of thinking about it as a social phenomenon, which takes place only because of:
→   attributes and features of leaders recognised by their followers in a given place and at a given time (leadership as a trait),

→ innate predispositions in the field of educational leadership and the ability to use them in favourable conditions in order to be a leader (leadership as a talent),

→ experience and competence in the capacity as an educational leader (leadership as a skill),

→ leadership behaviour, having influence on other people in various situations (leadership as a behaviour),

→ mutual influence of leaders on their followers and vice versa (leadership as social relationship),

→ the chain of changes in time, which take place in a specific sequence because of the influence exerted by leaders on their followers in order to achieve specific goals (leadership as a social process).

Each of these points of view is important in the works aiming to increase the importance of educational leadership and in attempts to define them. However, first of all, I would suggest to depart from the fundamental element forming educational processes and to focus on the question of interpersonal relationships and the issues of social impact that are closely related to it. Interpersonal relationships considered in the context of leadership exercised by headteachers form an extremely interesting point, which is related with many issues that remain in the realm of *ad deliberandum*. From among different types of interpersonal relationships at school, where educational processes can be observed, it is worth focusing on the relationship between the headteachers and their subordinates and on the relationships between headteachers and parents of students. I also think that we should focus on a process-oriented type of leadership and on understanding leadership as a complex social process, which promotes the attainment of specific goals by individuals and groups.

Undoubtedly, the quality of relationships and ties and interactions between the headteacher and teachers, who are members interpersonal relationships, is determined primarily by the responsibility towards yourself and responsibility towards others for building such relationships. The quality of these relationships affects the personality of their participants and especially their predispositions, attitudes and mutual aspirations, values they attach and embody, the tasks to be performed and the methods of achieving specific goals. These may be

expressed by phenomena, which are placed in relational space between the headteacher and teachers, such as, for example: trust, cooperation, friendliness, willingness to compromise, sympathy, and, unfortunately: annoyance, rigorism, subordination, aggression, hostility, indifference, conflict, broken contact, manipulation, control, distancing oneself, and many others. Each relationship, which is called by philosophers of dialogue I-thou relationship, involves ethics. In thinking about educational leadership, it is worth placing emphasis not so much on the process of learning, which has been popular for some time due to the spread of the idea of social constructivism in education and the focus on school assessment performed by means of the assessment of learning, which predominates the requirements of educational policy, but on the values that affect the quality of the relationships between people who interact (see Biesta, 2014).

Educational leadership is an intersubjective social phenomenon, which is based on the relationship between the leader and his/her followers and joint action aimed to achieve jointly agreed objectives and plans. Over time, in relationships between leaders and their followers, you can observe certain responses of the followers and those who do not necessarily support the leaders to their leadership actions, skills and qualities.

Looking from this perspective on educational leadership, you can realise that we should rather associate it with **responsibility** for creating conditions for the involvement of others in the leadership process and with the ability to rally supporters, rather than link it with social function and position. Moreover, it does not necessarily - at least in theory - need to involve formal authority (one associated with the position).

In papers systematising knowledge on educational leadership you should pursue - by developing specific analysis tools - to recognize the complexity of this concept. Special attention should be paid to the search for the essence of educational leadership, by recognising its dimensions, attributes, functions and dysfunctions, showing its varieties, defining its links with other types of leadership (e.g. political leadership, business leadership, religious leadership) or by identifying preconditions for it, especially when we talk about effective educational leadership.

Conceptualisation of this concept in relation to school requires identifying "the main dimensions, taking into account the specificities of school management, which consists in cooperation not only with

school staff, but also with parents, local and educational authorities and wider local community – while preserving the focus on students. It is about leadership on many levels – internal one (within formal and informal groups operating in school) and external one (between the headteacher and his/her representatives – group and team leaders – and representatives of school external stakeholders)" (Kwiatkowski, Madalińska-Michalak, 2014, p. 5).

Questions of great importance for the theory and practice, on which research in educational leadership should focus, can be formulated as follows:
- → What does the term mean?
- → What are the characteristics of the concept?
- → What is the ontic sense of educational leadership?
- → What are its designates and equivalents in reality?
- → Who are educational leaders? What features distinguish them from other people?
- → What are the forms of educational leadership?
- → In which situations is the phenomenon of educational leadership expressed?
- → What values are at the heart of educational leadership?
- → What are the preconditions for educational leadership?

Answers to these questions will undoubtedly bring us closer to the essence of educational leadership.

When investigating the essence of educational leadership, we need to bear in mind not only theoretical knowledge about this phenomenon, with its justification inherent in certain views, theoretical approaches and stands, but also the realm of practice and dimension of educational leadership, which form a part of everyday life of organisations, institutions, various groups, circles and communities – places, in which we are dealing with leadership, and people who experience it.

Inquiries into the essence of educational leadership should focus on answering the question: What educational leadership is and what educational leadership is not? In order to understand the general nature of educational leadership, you should eliminate any and all one-sided interpretations.

Research on educational leadership clearly shows the need for a holistic approach to this phenomenon. Any attempts aimed at

understanding educational leadership by dividing it into components do not reflect its essence, because when you focus on elements selected by researchers you can view educational leadership only from the perspective of these components.

Particular attention could be paid to relationship- and process-oriented aspects of the phenomenon, and, as a result, to:

→ persons involved in the educational leadership process and impact relationships between them,
→ bonds and ways to form them,
→ objectives and tasks related to educational leadership,
→ the subject of educational leadership,
→ methods of achieving goals and leadership strategies, especially when taking a longer time frame into account,
→ context of educational leadership, and
→ support provided to leaders.

Questions about the values and conditions for educational leadership are very inspiring. They open up new and broad opportunities for investigating the essence of this concept and for determining its practical implications.

I think that it would be worth to focus on such ontic conditions as: place, time, freedom, authority, the existence of an entity capable of noticing the values of educational leadership and obligations related to it. It would also be worth considering what constitutes the antithesis for educational leadership. How is it manifested in the social macro- and micro scale and how is it viewed in psychological perspective? What are the implications for the theory of education and pedagogical practice, especially in the context of headteachers' and teachers' educational leadership?

Summary

In contemporary science, leadership is becoming an interdisciplinary category, which carries a huge cognitive load. The review of research on leadership shows extensive theoretical background for this category and at the same time reveals difficulties with arriving at a precise definition for it.

The issue of leadership increasingly attracts the attention of theoreticians who focus on investigating and explaining interpersonal

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relations, the relationship between the characteristics of performance and behaviour of people, methods of achieving goals and particularly in formal organisations or methods and scope of harmonising efforts to ensure effective implementation of changes and proper functioning of the institutions. Different perspectives on leadership show that today it is difficult to identify a single, theory of leadership, which would be generally approved and to develop a single definition of the concept.

Although no one doubts today the role leaders play, for example in formal organisations, and it is emphasised that the lack of proper leadership "may even over a short period of time land well-functioning organisations in crisis, the results of which are extremely difficult to overcome" (Mrówka, 2010, p. 11), theoreticians still disagree on the type of leadership we need and on the modes of activity to be adopted by leaders and on the roles they should play. These questions are the more important when we take into consideration the environment in which leaders operate and stakeholders involved. Stakeholders of different types of organisations and formal and informal groups, both those closer to them (local community) and external ones (global society) become more and more 'stormy' and changeable and therefore unpredictable. Ever changing environment makes leadership theoreticians continuously revise the assumptions relating to this phenomenon and practitioners flexibly respond to emerging challenges.

Today, organisations, including educational organisations, need leadership that would respond to challenges faced by the organisations and their stakeholders. Rising to this challenge is possible only if we fully understand what is leadership about and why you need to be a leader. Understanding the phenomenon of leadership can be of help in expanding an organisation and in defining the measures aimed to increase the likelihood of the organisation's success.

To sum up the discussion presented above, it should be emphasised that the concept of educational leadership and the phenomenon itself still seems to be insufficiently described in the field of educational sciences. At the same time, educational leadership is now seen as a highly desirable in schools. A unique value of being a driving force, which can guide a school to success, is attached to it. Headteachers who are efficient leaders can prepare schools for facing current and future challenges.

Therefore, the following questions appear: How to translate the importance of headteachers' educational leadership into specific situations in the school as a workplace? How to correlate leadership of teachers with this of headteachers and avoid conflict at the same time? Can a person who is in charge of a public institution offering a public service be seen by students' parents as a leader in a situation where some of them have attitude towards school, which can be described as detached or even hostile? To what extent the desired traits of a leader complement the qualities expected from a managing director and to what extent does the knowledge in management is of use for social fulfilment of leaders?

Research on educational leadership reveals not only the state of development of the theory of this phenomenon, but also the needs of education practice in this respect. The results of research clearly show teacher leadership is currently one of the topics, which require special attention of researchers.

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The importance of teacher leadership in educational leadership

Roman Dorczak

The development of theory and practice in educational leadership aims to replace approaches that consist in the simple transfer of general leadership theories with approaches that foster specific educational leadership theories based on key values in education. The need for teacher leadership seems to play a major role in determining the specific understanding of educational leadership due to the fact that students' individual development and learning are recognised as the primary objectives of schools as organisations. Teacher leadership is a precondition for the fulfilment of these goals and teachers-leaders must be able to influence their colleagues and, even more so, their students in ways that support the development and learning of those involved in educational processes. Leadership competences must, therefore, become an important feature of teachers' professional identity built from the very start of their initial training.

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Introduction

Recently, the theory and practice of leadership in education have been marked by a growing interest in teacher leadership. On the one hand, this follows the developments in the theory and practice of management and leadership in education, as well as the ongoing search for factors that affect the quality and effectiveness of a school's work. These developments, similarly to those within the general theory of management and leadership, seek to meet the increasingly apparent need to involve the members of an organisation in its management processes, which is a prerequisite for the good functioning of contemporary complex organisations. On the other hand, the focus on teacher leadership seems to arise from a growing awareness of the specific nature of educational processes and the underlying educational values, which require specific educational solutions in the field of management and leadership theory and practice in education.

Recognising that learning and individual development are the essential objectives of schools as organisations and understanding their social character has naturally led to the recognition of teacher leadership as a key component of educational leadership.

The origins and evolution of educational leadership theory

As mentioned above, it can be argued that the emergence of an interest in teacher leadership arises from the natural development of educational leadership theory and practice. This growing interest in leadership has been observed in education and education management for several decades. To many authors who refer to leadership in theory and practice it has become a kind of response to the problems related to the crisis of the traditional managerial methods that have been predominant in the approaches to management in education since the beginning of the 1990s. Many of these authors see leadership as the key to improving the functioning of education systems that strive to ensure a higher quality of teaching and learning in schools (Pont, Nusche, Moorman, 2008; DuFour, Marzano, 2011).

To a vast extent, the promise held by leadership theory and practice has proven true, as shown by numerous studies on the efficiency of education systems, conducted mainly in anglophone areas (Hallinger, Heck 1996; Leithwood et al., 2004). At the same time, it should be noted that a simple reference to leadership theory or, previously, to

management theory that assumes their simple application in the building of management theory and practice in education seems insufficient or even wrong and leads to a distortion in the educational sense of the functioning of schools as organisations (Łuczyński, 2011). Such approaches, although often based on some important needs of schools and entire education systems, cannot fully respond to their needs as individual (due to their primary objectives) organisations (Jurkowski, 2000). These require a specific understanding of leadership aligned to their educational nature and must be built from scratch, taking into account the specific character of schools as organisations seeking to ensure individual development and learning.

Efforts to identify such a specifically educational understanding of leadership have been made for a long time in two different ways: as the selective transfer to the sphere of education of selected leadership theories that 'fit' the specific sphere of education, or as attempts to create new specifically educational leadership theories (Dorczak, 2012b).

The first of these methods assumes a need (and also a possibility) to adapt to educational requirements the leadership theories that are appropriate for and 'fit' into an educational context. This approach is represented, for example, by the advocates of using the concept of transformational or transformative leadership in the field of education, which in their opinion, is crucial when looking at the needs of a school as an organisation that must constantly change in order to meet contemporary demands (Precey, 2008) and affect social change that ensures the achievement of broader social goals, including social justice (Shields, 2009). This group also includes attempts (that are especially important in the educational context) to apply distributed, participatory, collegial and similar leadership theories, which focus on the need to involve in the leadership processes not just the formal leaders of an organisation, but a wider group of its members (e.g. Gronn, 2002; Pearce, Conger, 2003; Bennett, Wise, Woods, Harvey, 2003). We should also note that the introduction of the latter concepts in the field of educational leadership has become an important factor in the emergence of the question of teacher leadership.

The second method, in which specific educational leadership theories are developed based on important educational values, is apparent in various concepts. One of them is instructional leadership (Hallinger,

Murphy, 1985), centred on teaching processes and the factors that affect these. Another example is pedagogical leadership (Evans, 1999), which places the emphasis not only on learning processes, but also on values, such as the students' general well-being and, in a broad sense, their individual safety.

In recent years, two other types of concepts have emerged that refer to the central educational values of learning and personal development. The first of these concepts, which seems predominant in most education systems, is the theory of leadership for learning. It argues that this type of leadership is the central and most important value in education to which educational leadership should be committed (MacBeath, Dempster, 2009). Less popular, albeit according to the author of this paper, more educationally adequate are the concepts that perceive individual development (not just learning, which is only one of the important conditions for development) as a central value in educational leadership. For example, this is how Michael Fielding (2006) sees educational leadership and refers to it as 'person-centred leadership' that provides the conditions for individual development within a school, or more broadly, within an education system. This most educationally adequate perception of leadership can be best described as development-centred leadership (Dorczak, 2012b). Shifting the focus of educational leadership theory to learning and individual development processes, which are social by nature and can occur in the best way during social interaction, has provided another reason for taking an interest in teacher leadership, since it is teachers who, for students, are the source of the interaction and experience that is especially important to their development and learning.

The key features of educational leadership

The section above shows that the discussion on educational leadership features different theories and approaches. Each of these draws attention to an undoubtedly important aspect of leadership, whilst none addresses it in its entirety. Nonetheless, from the point of view of educational leadership, it is possible to identify some elements which, due to the specific nature of educational organisations and the processes taking place within them, seem essential to this type of leadership.

First of all, in an educational context there seems to be a need to understand leadership rather as a social relationship and process than as a skill or characteristic. The need for such an understanding is posited by many authors who study educational leadership and point out that leadership in practice transpires within relationships between people, and as these relationships evolve, leadership takes on the form of a process that is social by nature and interactive (Mazurkiewicz, 2011; Madalińska-Michalak, 2013, 2015).

It is important to stress that the essence of the leadership process is to enable an organisation to achieve its goals by means of some people exerting their influence on others, which is made possible by establishing relationships (Northouse, 2007). This influence should occur in the context of the values that are seen as central and within a certain vision of reality that is consistent with these values (Bush, Bell, Middlewood, 2010). If we accept that a school's central values and primary goals are the students' learning and individual development, and then recognise the social nature of these processes, which means that they can only properly take place within relationships with other people, it becomes clear that educational leadership is a process which involves many different actors, including the leadership of all teachers, not just an individually understood and formally appointed leader.

This view is the second important feature of leadership in education. Educational leadership must be shared between the many members of a school organisation. As mentioned earlier, the concepts that focus on this aspect have become very popular among educational leadership researchers who invoke models that have emerged from the general leadership theory, such as distributed, shared, participatory and collegial leadership. The need for such an inherently team-based leadership, which engages as many members of the school team as possible, is particularly apparent from the perspective of educational leadership practice in schools whose daily complex tasks cannot be performed without the active involvement of many different actors within and outside the schools (Dorczak, 2012a). This is not viable in an environment of individual leadership related to formal school management positions, hence the need for the type of leadership as in the concepts described above, as well as for teacher leadership.

Finally, the third element indispensable to educational leadership, which has already been mentioned several times, is the question of its

central values. Without doubt, these are (or should be) learning and personal development. Once again, it is important to underline that to simply identify these values as central is not enough to properly build leadership upon them. The problem lies in the ambiguity of these concepts resulting from the different learning and development theories that exist both within psychological theories and in the minds of educators.

Learning as a process can be seen in at least three different ways: firstly, as a conditioning process, as behaviourists would like to see it; secondly, as a process of the gradual maturation and evolution of the mental structures, as described by constructivists; and thirdly, as an interactive process of the social construction (and reconstruction) of knowledge, as seen by social constructivists (cf. Dumont, Istance, Benavides, 2013).

A similar approach is presented in theories of individual human development that emphasise the importance of external factors that govern such development, and in mechanical theories. These point to the processes of the gradual emergence of a psyche determined by predispositions, as seen by the theories that are referred to as the developmental stage theories; or to development as the result of a creative process of dialogue between various factors determined mainly by an individual's own activity, as proposed by autonomous development theories (Dorczak, 2014).

If we accept the latter of the above three approaches to understanding learning and individual development, which seems the most appropriate in the light of contemporary psychological theories and research, we also need to accept that the prerequisite for these processes is interaction with other people, especially with teachers, whose role at the school is to influence their students' development and learning. Furthermore, accepting that leadership is about exerting influence to achieve an organisation's goals makes teacher leadership indispensable.

Teacher leadership at the core of educational leadership

As demonstrated in the previous section, teacher leadership, as it is understood in relation to the specifics of its sphere, is a key element of educational leadership, an element without which the tasks and objectives of a school as an organisation cannot be properly fulfilled.

The importance of active and leading teacher roles in the development of the school in order to achieve its goals as an organisation is highlighted by numerous authors who describe teachers as a still unutilised and 'dormant' organisational capital that must be activated if we are to face the challenges of today's extremely dynamic and complex social reality (Hargreaves, Fullan, 2012; Katzenmeyer, Moller, 2001).

However, to most teachers who advocate it, leadership means only the need to formally identify precise roles and responsibilities that are seen as leadership-related (Lieberman, Friedrich, 2008) and need to be delegated to certain teachers holding specific managerial positions in order to improve the effectiveness of schools in their various areas of operation. Within these settings, the term 'informal teacher leadership' is often used. On the one hand, the term provides for the multiplication of different tasks assigned to teachers (York-Barr, Duke, 2004), whilst on the other, it lowers the rank of teacher leadership as something inferior to the formal leadership of headteachers and other members of formally appointed teams who perform managerial roles (Frost, 2014a).

This understanding of teacher leadership does not seem to be educationally appropriate, but rather shows the simple transfer of how distributed leadership is understood within the general leadership theory that has evolved in the context of economic organisations. In the settings of a school as an organisation, it is not appropriate to limit the understanding of teacher leadership to the leadership roles of people who hold headteacher positions or of other appointed teachers (Hargraves, Fink, 2006; Madalińska-Michalak, 2012).

If teacher leadership is to serve the primary purpose of schools, namely the learning and individual development of all students without exception, its proper understanding must, ideally, encompass the leadership of all teachers without exception. Only then can this leadership be genuinely educational in the professional sense (Frost, 2014b). Moreover, only then can it contribute to the best possible extent to the students' educational success, being (as is generally known) even more important than the students' socio-cultural status (Goddard, Hoy, Hoy, 2004). This need to focus the teacher-leader's attention on the students' individual development and the values that foster it should be considered the most important aspect that determines the teacher-leader's description and stands above other aspects relevant to his or her work, such as a good rapport and cooperation within the teaching

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team, which many teacher leadership theorists seem to underscore (Covey, 1989).

It is a paradox that the philosophy of the leadership of all teachers, specifically student-centred leadership, has been present in education since its beginnings in the Ancient Greece (at least in our cultural sphere), when the teacher was called a *paidagogos*: 'the one who leads the child', or in other words, 'a leader.' Today, few authors who specialise in teacher training and professional learning highlight this teacher role or function (Pielachowski, 2007), despite its being a key feature of a teacher's professional identity.

Teacher leadership competences are, therefore, primarily competences related to influencing and modelling relationships with students, as well as their learning and individual development. To properly model these relationships, the teacher-leader must have a good understanding of the core educational values, namely individual development and learning, to be able to adequately affect the organisational culture of a value-orientated school (Muhammad, Hollie, 2012).

However, it would not be possible to fulfil the teacher-leader's responsibilities that serve the development of students without several other leadership competences that make up the teacher's complete professional leadership identity, which cannot be fully described herein. Nevertheless, it seems necessary to stress the importance of at least two key sets of leadership competences that contribute to effective teacher leadership in practice.

The first of these sets concerns the relationships within the teaching team and the aspects of the leadership process that are manifested in teamwork and joint professional learning (Hunzicker, 2012). A teacher-leader is (or should be) a leader in both the interactions with students and with his or her teacher colleagues who, by influencing one another, create the conditions for the building of a professional organisational culture focused on students' individual development and learning (Muhammad, 2009).

The second set of competences relates to the necessity of establishing relationships with other actors outside the school and of modelling these relationships so that they serve the goal of students' individual development and learning at school. A teacher-leader must become a leader in the local community and in various social situations

that impact on the functioning of the school, because only then can s/he create an environment that fosters the development of students' broadly understood potential and competences as active members of the community (Mazurkiewicz, 2011; Kaczmarek-Śliwińska, Szczudlińska-Kanoś, 2015).

Teacher leadership based on these three types of competences should be considered the key element of educational leadership in general. Such leadership can be the most conducive to achieving those objectives of schools as organisations that primarily serve the purpose of students' individual development and learning.

Conclusion

It should be clearly stated that the development of schools and raising the quality of their work actually depends on improving the level of teachers' professionalism, wherein the key component is the growth of their leadership potential (Fullan, 1993). In the existing socio-political context, which pushes for the fulfilment of narrowly understood school goals, this is not a simple task, but one that is necessary if schools are to be a source or even a driver of social change (Fullan, 1994).

This requires the recognition of the importance of teacher leadership competences and the building of a system to support their development, both at the stage of initial teacher training and throughout teachers' working careers in the course of their further training and professional learning. Unfortunately, the existing approaches to initial teacher training and professional learning disregard the question of leadership and focus on subject-related and teaching competences, seeking to train teachers of specific subjects rather than teachers who teach and foster their students' comprehensive development. The task of developing teachers' leadership skills is still one to be undertaken by future education reformers.

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Home

Educational leadership in the context of social ties specific to in-school groups (subgroups)

Stefan M. Kwiatkowski

The paper addresses the subject matter of social ties in school communities. A typical community is divided into school-specific subgroups of teachers, students, administrators and parents. These are used as the setting to identify the potential and prerequisites for effective leadership at schools and within their existing subgroups.

Home

Introduction

The phenomenon of leadership, including all its complexity and unpredictability, is a sign of the times. Objective, but also subjective difficulties resulting from the complicated matter of functioning in an extremely dynamic social and economic reality make us look for people who are able to organise and structure our knowledge of the immediate and more distant environment, in addition to suggesting solutions to emerging problems. In other words, we are looking for leaders whom we can trust, and who can lead us to achieve our individual and group goals. We would like them to display specific traits that distinguish them from a given community, to be outstanding and respectable people of great prestige arising from their hitherto professional success (Wren, 2005, p. 98-100).

The need for leadership is felt in all walks of life. Until recently, predominant in this respect were the economic spheres, where properly understood leadership has been a prerequisite for success in the process of producing goods and supplying services within a competitive market. Today, the need for effective leadership is becoming increasingly apparent and more widely articulated beyond the wider economy, and this includes education at all its levels (Madalińska-Michalak, 2012, 2015).

In this sense, educational leadership is one of the many distinguishable subsets of leadership, which in this case, is restricted to the impacts observed in educational settings. It is, thus, a type of leadership that is defined by the operating area of the groups (or subgroups) which function within educational institutions.

Analysing educational leadership as a subset of leadership allows us, on the one hand, to make references to the general principles concerning how leaders exert influence on people in their environment, and on the other, to stress the importance of specific impacts on the area of education (Michalak, 2006, p. 64-66).

Finally, if we analyse educational leadership at the school level, we should consider which groups (or subgroups) can be identified and what the predominant type of social ties between their members are. These ties are the factor that determines the effectiveness of leadership within the particular groups (or subgroups) and beyond them.

In-school groups

From a sociological point of view, a school is classified as a community organisation which displays the characteristics of an organised group wherein the nature of the interactions between and within the individual subgroups is normative. This is due to the specific character of a school's operations, in particular the precise distinction between the positions of the subgroups, their roles and the ways in which they control performance (Sztompka, 2004, p. 191).

A school community, or in general, the teachers, students and administrative staff (as well as parents) can form two types of groups: large and small. In large groups, the members do not, typically, know one another well and are largely anonymous. In practice, there are no interactions between them or they close themselves off in subgroups. This is the case with large schools and with school complexes. At the other end of the spectrum, there are the not so numerous small groups, which favour closer contacts and the resulting interactions.

It is obvious that the educational leadership we are interested in shows different characteristics in the big and small groups. Leadership in a large community is generally partly delegated to other members of the group. In this situation, there is no possibility or opportunity to get to know the leader directly, even if one is involved in their election. This is not the case in a small community where everyone knows each other well and has daily direct contact with the leader. The members can discuss all decisions with the leader and influence them, which is unrealistic in a large community.

Regardless of whether the school community forms a group that is large or small, these are mostly permanent and maintain their continuity and identity despite changes in membership (especially in the student and parent subgroups). This happens due to a school's specific tradition, as expressed by its organisation and work culture. In a school, as in any social group, there may also be subgroups where sporadic contacts predominate, for instance, brought by participation in a school trip or incidental school activities (e.g. school celebrations or sports events). In each of these cases, we are dealing with a different type of leadership, namely long-term or short-term, as well as generational or transgenerational leadership (Kwiatkowski, 2011, p. 17-18).

More and more often, schools as social groups are perceived as elite or egalitarian. Elitism or egalitarianism apply primarily to the teacher

and student subgroups. An elite school places specific, often high and difficult to meet demands on their teacher candidates and actual teachers. The selection of the best teachers and students, based on the criteria adopted in such a school, acts as a kind of buffer, a highly raised bar. In an egalitarian school, there are no such restrictions: there are no standards concerning the knowledge, skills and social competences of students or the candidates for such. There are also no special expectations formulated towards the teachers. In other words, it is easy to be employed by or to become a student at such an institution. The derivatives of the school types specified above are leadership types, which are different in the elite school and in the egalitarian school. There are also different mechanisms for selecting leaders, especially among teachers.

When analysing a school from the perspective of a social group, it is worth noting that the above-mentioned subgroups of teachers and students, as well as those of the school administration staff and parents display their own internal structure created by:

- → in the teacher subgroup:
  - · headteacher(s),
  - · teachers differentiated according to their level of professional advancement (trainees, contract teachers, appointed and certified teachers),
  - · members of subject-related teams,
  - · teachers of theoretical and practical subjects in vocational schools,
  - · form tutors,
  - · members of the school board;
- → in the student subgroup:
  - · students of individual forms and years,
  - · members of students' the self-government,
  - · members of artistic and sporting groups,
  - · members of the school board;
- → in the administrative subgroup:
  - · secretarial staff,
  - · technicians;
- → in the parent subgroup:
  - · members of the school board,
  - · members of the parents' council.

School leadership, understood as the ability to combine the often-conflicting interests of the subgroups, requires a good relationship between the (formal and informal) leaders and the members of their subgroups, as well as between the leaders themselves. The various types of psychological relationships characteristic of the analysed context are specified in the interactive theory, which explains the mechanisms of dependence and identification between the subordinates and the leader (Jakubowska, 2002, pp. 100-105).

Each of these sub-groups (following some necessary modifications and additions related to, e.g. social relations) can be considered in the light of various criteria. From the perspective of educational leadership, the basic division is that into homogeneous and heterogeneous subgroups.

Teachers are usually a heterogeneous subgroup. They share a level of education, but they differ in terms of their fields of study, seniority, rank in the professional hierarchy (level of professional advancement) and the social status of their families, which depends largely on the professional position of their spouses.

Students are the most homogeneous subgroup, but students may also display different types of dysfunctions (reflected by their special educational needs). They may also differ in their approach to self-learning, and also in their interests and abilities.

Relatively less importance is usually attached to the homogeneity or its absence in the school administrative staff subgroup. This may be justified in small schools which operate in small social groups. Nonetheless, in large schools (in large groups), the community which makes up the school administration is relatively numerous and strongly diversified in terms of education and the degree of identification with the school. Moreover, non-teaching staff employed in schools run by local governments are, effectively, employees of the local government.

Parents are also a very diverse subgroup, not only in terms of their education and social status, but in terms of how they perceive their children's aptitude and their attitude to the school as an institution. An important task is to make the parents interested in the everyday functioning of the school and to involve them in working with the management and teachers. Interaction between parents is also very limited, although this is facilitated, at least in theory, by appropriate formal and legal solutions.

The effectiveness of educational leadership is undoubtedly a derivative of the following factors:

→ age (of the teachers and students),
→ professional experience (of the teachers and parents),
→ professional status (of the teachers and parents),
→ involvement and motivation (of the teachers, students, school administration staff and parents).

The values of the specified variables (regarded as independent variables) influence, first of all, the homogeneity (or its absence) of a given subgroup, and then, the applicable leadership style, which can be autocratic, democratic or permissive (Schultz, Schultz, 2002, p. 251).

Social ties within in-school groups and subgroups. General information

Within a school seen as an organised group, it is possible to identify ties that exist between all the participants in community life, ties between the members of the basic subgroups and ties within the individual subgroups. In each case, the ties are a type of interaction specific to the relationships between the school staff, the students and their parents.

Building social ties at school is a process whereby the effects depend on many interlinked factors. The most significant among these include:

→ the general acceptance of the group (the school and its climate) by all its members,
→ the first impression resulting from initial contacts with the group members, and in particular, with one's own sub-group,
→ the group members' pro-community approach (their willingness to act together, awareness of their own role, openness to others, acceptance of their behaviour, consent to mistakes combined with a credit of trust),
→ knowledge of one's own subgroup members' value hierarchy and that of other subgroups,
→ solving problems together (within the whole group or in subgroups) that are relevant to the school,
→ readiness to partially abandon individual goals in favour of common goals,
→ the type of contact used (direct-indirect and verbal-nonverbal contact).

In this process, several basic steps resulting from the chronology of events can be distinguished:

→ getting to know one another in a group and in subgroups (exchange of personal information and information about one's educational or professional background, achievements and failures),

→ establishing cooperation (first within one's own subgroup and then between members of other subgroups),

→ setting common goals for activities (teaching and learning, character development, infrastructural and organisational),

→ operating within subgroups and the whole school (identification of attitudes, skills, perseverance and social competences of the individual members in one's own subgroup and in other subgroups),

→ expanding contacts to situations and tasks outside the school (community organisations, sports clubs or sharing in leisure activities),

→ a critical analysis of the strength, sustainability and manoeuvrability of the established ties,

→ elimination or reduction of the ties that hinder the proper development of individual subgroup members or the realisation of common projects.

The ties within each subgroup, as well as those between various subgroups, can be seen from the perspective of the strength and frequency of the relationships that make up the subgroups.

In extreme cases, the strength of interaction can be assessed as very high (strong) or very low (weak). Between these extremes there is a whole range of interactions that are specific to the school community. Strong interactions are, in general, affected by emotions, and in practice, these are much more durable than those based solely on shared goals. Achieving an objective or failing to act towards it weakens the interaction among the members of subgroups without any emotional ties. Weak interactions, on the other hand, and of course, the lack of these within the subgroups lead to the marginalisation of some members, and consequently, to their exclusion. In the case of subgroups that display weak interactions, we can observe isolation

and a growing autonomy of their activities, which cause the school community to decline.

The frequency of interaction can be measured by the number of interactions of a specific type (direct conversation, telephone conversation, text message exchange or information exchange through a variety of web applications) within a unit of time, for example, during a week. Importantly, frequency has no direct impact on the level of interaction strength when emotional ties exist. However, frequency is essential in the maintaining of ties within and between subgroups in the absence or insufficiency of emotional ties. It should also be stressed that the frequency of interactions strongly impacts on the sustainability of social ties (even if their strength is low), especially within subgroups operating in schools. This applies mainly to subgroups of students who, after completing school at a given level, move to different types of schools, but still interact and spend time together. A lack of such contacts results in the breaking of the ties, to the detriment of individuals and society as a whole.

Educational leadership in the context of the subject matter of ties

The specific nature of leadership in education consists in the expanding of the typical 'leader, subordinate, situation' system (Schultz, Schultz, 2002, p. 245) to the subgroups of students and parents, who cannot be classified as subordinates in relation to a headteacher. These are the subgroups that informally decide about the character of the school and its opinion in the local community. The students and parents, together with the headteacher and teachers, as well as the school administration staff, make up the school community on the one hand, and the various in-school subgroups on the other. The ties between them determine the quality of education and character development, as do the ties between the members of the individual subgroups (Kwiatkowski, 2010, pp. 15-19).

The teachers, students, school administration staff and parents form subgroups between which there are objective, subjective and behavioural ties. The objectivity of the ties is based on nationality, place of residence and type of work. Their subjectivity relates to and reflects the objective conditions of a given subgroup, such as the economic situation, but is also the effect of a shared value system

and a community of beliefs. The behavioural character of the ties in a community is, in turn, an expression of attitudes in behaviour (Sztompka, 2004, pp. 184-185, 190).

A school is an organisation where defined (normative) relationships exist between the members of the particular subgroups, and thus social positions and resultant roles are determined. If we regard the whole school community as a group, we can attribute to it, as has already been mentioned, the features of an organised group. Such a group demonstrates cooperative skills and is able to ensure the continuity of an organisation's operations through the distribution of functions, which in this case, means the performance of the functions of a school (Gęsicki, 2008, p. 10-17). Any distortion of the objective, subjective or behavioural ties causes difficulties or even makes it impossible to achieve goals smoothly. In practice, the moving of several students from a given form to a new place of residence will disorganise the objective ties, and if a subgroup of teachers of long professional standing is joined by young graduates from higher education institutions of different social sensibilities, the existing subjective ties may be severed. Moreover, the differences in the income opportunities of teachers of various specialisations are also inconducive to the sustainability of these ties. The weakening of behavioural bonds is produced by changes in behaviour within or between subgroups, especially among students. Each of these cases undermines the status of the analysed subgroups as a large social group. The conflicting interests of the teachers (including the headteacher), students and parents lead to the fragmentation of the group and make it impossible to achieve the objectives which are no longer shared.

Furthermore, a moral tie is superimposed on the objective, subjective and behavioural ties. The moral tie shows the strongest correlation with ties of the subjective type and can even be seen as its variation. Educational leadership fits perfectly into the three basic components of the moral tie, namely:
  → trust,
  → loyalty and
  → solidarity (Sztompka, 2004, p. 187).

Trust holds a particular value in the teaching-learning and character development processes. The risks and uncertainties associated with

all educational choices and activities make us long for people and institutions we can have confidence in. The choice of school as a family decision depends on many factors, but one of the most important ones is the trust built up by public opinion, including the opinions of people we believe (often referred to as opinion leaders). After selecting a school, we choose forms and teachers. Such a choice is already limited by educational pragmatism but is, at least, possible in theory. Of great importance at primary school level is the trust that we have in specific secondary schools, and at the level secondary school finals – in specific universities. This kind of trust is called 'institutional trust' because it concerns schools (their types) treated as organisations.

Institutional trust has its source in personal trust and in the authority of a school as an institution. The latter is produced by the headteacher's and teachers' work style and outcomes. In turn, an integrally regarded institutional and personal trust leads to commercial trust. In the context discussed herein, commercial trust manifests itself in educational decisions determined by the teachers' work quality and reliability, as well as their knowledge-based, teaching and character development competences.

Effective leadership within a diversity of in-school subgroups requires trust between the subgroups. It is, therefore, a matter of trust between the headteacher, teachers and the school administration staff, as well as trust between the teachers, students and parents. Trust is a prerequisite for cooperation. Breaking such ties at any point in the relationship chain (especially at the intersection of subgroups) increases uncertainty and risk. If a significant number of members of one of the in-school subgroups lose trust, this will change the perception of the school by groups outside it – in its immediate and more distant surroundings.

A specific type of trust is the parents' trust in the school. This is due to the fact that parents do not have the opportunity to observe or control the day-to-day work of the headteacher and teachers. Parents rely on their children's opinions and the impressions of other parents. They must trust that the results of the school's activities will be appropriate: that these will provide for their children's promotion to the subsequent year and for their moving onto the next stage of education. It should be noted, however, that there is a difference between trust in a school's teaching standards and trust in the value system developed

in the school (Szymański, 1998, p. 9-21). In recent years, with the intensification of violence, (also in schools), a growing importance is being attached to trust in safety – a conviction that school is a safe place (cf. Komendant-Brodowska, 2014).

The opposite of trust is mistrust. If the headteacher does not trust the teachers, he or she will introduce a system of formal control, multiply inhouse regulations, and consequently, restrict the teachers' autonomy and discourage them from innovation. The teachers' mistrust of students will result in a growing number of tests (teaching mistrust) and a more intense observation of behaviour or even interference in the relationships between students (character development-related mistrust). The parents' distrust of their children (students), their intellectual abilities and attitudes is expressed by a tendency to use tutoring and the meticulous 'monitoring' of home, school and social behaviours. Finally, the parents' mistrust of the headteacher and teachers (or even only some of them) will lead to a search for a new school and a new (better) educational environment for their child.

The second component of the moral tie, loyalty, is linked to trust in a way. If someone trusts us, loyalty can be understood as an aspiration to meet our expectations.

Regarding loyalty, we will extend the scope of our reflections to include the relationship between a headteacher and the local government or the educational authority. This is yet another level of interaction that is unnoticeable to or difficult to observe by the representatives of the in-school subgroups. The headteacher, in their pursuit of loyalty to the higher institutions, should first of all identify the expectations of his or her 'superiors' towards them and the institution they manage. The problem, however, is that the headteachers' loyalty is often based on his or her ideas about other peoples' wishes. If these wishes are not clearly (formally) articulated, then the headteacher is guided by intuition, which may be unreliable. Of a different nature is teacher loyalty to the headteacher. As a rule, the headteacher is one of the teachers, a colleague, and until recently a member of a subgroup which he or she now manages (after entering a competition and successfully completing the competition procedure). Thus, there is loyalty to those who, until recently, were colleagues or even friends, to common ideals and projects. How does one remain loyal to all the teachers with whom one has worked before? How does one create

a climate of trust in the school? Is the new 'external' type of loyalty, associated with the school environment, not destructive to the 'internal' loyalty? Does the periodicity of the headteacher's leadership influence his or her in-school relationships? Will those who have put their trust in the headteacher, including parents, not perceive his or her actions as disloyal? It should be remembered that they put their trust in the headteacher in a specific situation which might have changed (Kwiatkowski, 2006, p. 37-46).

The questions concerning loyalty that have been merely outlined above lead us to the notion of a conflict of loyalty, which is usually preceded by a dilemma of loyalty, namely a situation in which an individual (or a subgroup) has to make the following choice: whose side to take if they cannot be simultaneously loyal to all the subgroups involved. In a typical game theory '0-1' situation, opting for either side means not only endorsing one position, but obviously, rejecting the other (and any subsequent ones) at the same time. Inevitably, this leads to a conflict of loyalty with the supporters of the ignored solutions. In order to avoid conflicts of loyalty, the leaders of the various in-school subgroups resort to maintaining an appearance of loyalty shown, above all, to the strongest members, those with whom they want to avoid confrontation at any given time. Apparent loyalty can occur between students and parents (when loyalty to a peer group takes precedence over family loyalty; rarely the opposite), between teachers and parents (in schools where parents have a significant say regarding their operations), and between the headteacher and teachers (with conformism on both sides). Apparent loyalty can turn into the opposite of loyalty, and sooner or later, will lead to manipulation, feeding on half-truths and appealing to the naivety or kindness of those who have trusted us. In the long term, it is mentally devastating for any leader.

The third, and also the last component of the moral tie is solidarity understood as an openness to and care for others, both members of one's in-school subgroup and the wider school community. The essence of solidarity, including educational solidarity, is to go beyond the interests of individuals and of one's subgroup for the sake of the common good. In extreme cases, concern for the common good (community) may interfere with the goals set by the individual participants in school life or by the subgroups operating within the school. Solidarity is a kind of

union in a just cause, and in educational practice it shows mainly an educational and organisational dimension.

A typical expression of character development-related solidarity is a united front in the face of abuse directed at students who, for some reason, are not accepted by part of the group, or in the face of abuse experienced by teachers from their students. In these matters, solidarity often reaches beyond the school walls and becomes a common social movement.

Organisational solidarity is most often present when there are plans to close down an educational institution by groups that are external to the school community. This is when the teachers (with the active support of the headteacher), the school administration staff, the students and the parents come together. They look for allies among other external groups who appreciate the school's achievements and see its development prospects.

In a broader context, solidarity is manifested as the recognition of the 'other' as a person, and the purpose of solidarity can be defined as the awakening of an awareness of the common good, as well as to showing the moral and economic interdependence between social groups.

The absence of solidarity at school, as well as the lack of trust or loyalty, can lead to the loss of moral ties. The in-school subgroups become atomised and focus on the pursuit of their own interests. Selfish attitudes intensify and the level of indifference to the problems of one's subgroup members (and even more so of other subgroups) grows.

To the triad under discussion, namely trust, loyalty and solidarity, which create moral ties, it is also possible to add autonomy understood as an institutional and individual trait.

In terms of institutions (schools) autonomy manifests itself in the developing of a human resources policy (headteacher and teachers) and a recruitment policy (students) that is free from external pressures, in addition to the unrestricted possibility of designing and implementing original curricula and selecting methods of working with the students and systems of their evaluation.

A thus understood institutional autonomy is accompanied by responsibility for the implementation of the existing curricula and compliance with the relevant legislation (the Act on the Education System, the Labour Code).

Individual autonomy, as an expression of self-determination, concerns the members of all the subgroups of the school community discussed herein. In this case too, autonomy must be regarded in conjunction with responsibility.

The absence of or insufficient responsibility, both institutional and individual, will lead to, sooner or later, the restriction or even suspension of the previously granted autonomy. This will have a detrimental effect on the strength and sustainability of the ties within the school community.

Conclusion

Using the above descriptions of the in-school subgroups (and the fringe ones, i.e. parents), one may consider the building of a moral tie in a school. In other words, it is possible to analyse the following relationships: leadership style – trust, leadership style – loyalty and leadership style – solidarity (community), in addition to leadership style – autonomy. This kind of analysis, apart from its theoretical approach, would require, however, some research of an interdisciplinary nature at the intersection of psychology, sociology, philosophy, pedagogy and management. The findings would provide for the selection of leaders to foster moral ties, prepare the students for leadership roles at school and beyond it, in line with the principle that 'the individual is the style' (of leadership), and that style is the outcome of the level of moral ties at school.

Our reflections on the place and role of educational leadership should not be limited to the school as an institution and the social groups that function within it. The building of moral ties at school plays a part in the creation of a social capital that is based on these ties. In the simplest sense, social capital is made up of people and their networks. The foundations of a capital in this sense emerge in educational institutions and are then reinforced in the workplace and during social activity. Social capital at school is a kind of initial capital that is multiplied throughout life. Therefore, it is important to create the preconditions for initiating a network of connections between the students of a given school, and then (albeit simultaneously) between the students and other the groups within the school. This is primarily a task for the school's headteacher and teachers (Kwiatkowski, 2008, p. 18-21). It consists in motivating the students to carry out projects

that serve the school in general and reach beyond it, and to think and act together in the interest of the local community. Projects like this foster the establishment of cooperative ties that integrate all the in-school subgroups (Michalak, ed., 2009).

The erosion of the ties discussed herein within the sub-groups of educational institutions is a step towards the disintegration of an entire group. This, in turn, makes it difficult for the subgroup members to identify their leaders, and for the latter, should they accept the role, to effectively lead.

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Change as the main category of school development

Inetta Nowosad

This paper analyses the category of change, which is meant to facilitate understanding of the possibilities and limits of school development. To this end, a great deal of attention has been paid to the nature of change, its origins and types, all of which may initiate and consolidate the process of school development. In the adopted approach, teachers have been identified as those directly responsible for the type and content of changes that may be conducive to a qualitative renewal of schools.

Introduction

In the majority of highly developed countries, the discourse on education focuses on quality processes and effectiveness of school education. Growing attention is paid to processes taking place within the school, which are interpreted by many researchers as internal reform or school development. Changes occurring within schools, but not those imposed by external authorities, play an important role in achieving better results and in providing better conditions for learning. This fact has formed the basis for discovering or rediscovering the significance and potential of schools; all that determines the quality of its work. According to Maria Dudzikowa, schools which are aware of their potential spontaneously become "bubbles of change" (2001, p. 137-138).

Such an assumption presents the school as a place where quality is delivered and assured. It promotes the appreciation of the importance of processes taking place within the school and of the fact that what is happening in the school may become an obstacle or precondition for education quality, and hindrance or support for the development of children and young people. Looking from this perspective, processes of change, which lead to improved quality and effectiveness of education processes and which cater for the needs of students (the quality of their lives) can be defined as school development.

It can be assumed that in the development of school, the mastery of new tasks by school community, which means progress in entering a new stage and new forms of adaptation, seem to be of prime importance. At the same time, it is the achievement of social and mental adaptation of the members of a given community adequate for a given level. For these reasons, internal processes allowing to create conditions for completing these tasks, and not only socio-cultural pressure factors, are gaining importance. In such a case, we deal not only with the pressure of external factors; cultural processes, but also with the possibility for implementing them as part of new desires, aims, aspirations and values attached by individuals - in most cases - a combination of these factors acting together (Michalak, 2006, 2010; Madalińska-Michalak, 2012).

Any developmental changes are usually explained through specific factors constituting external and internal mechanisms. However, it should be emphasised that these impacts are diverse and depend on the moment, when they take place, and the level, at which a given

object is located. As a result, these factors trigger a quantitative and qualitative development process, and also have an impact on its orientation (Havighurst, 1981).

In this plane, differentia intertwines with maturing, specialisation with integration, qualitative development with qualitative one (Kunowski, 1993, p. 181). However, the direction of changes at school is subject to socio-economic and political relations in the country. It is also dependent on international situation. It can be concluded that "school constitutes a *tension field* for interactions of a variety of forces, (...) its shape and way of functioning is not a simple product of the above. It is not an outcome of various pedagogical practices and is not their pluralist synthesis, (...) it largely depends on factors other than pedagogical ones, and it cannot be defined" (Głażewski, 1996, p. 41). Literature on pedagogy views school development as a process of learning by people and organisations. It justifies the need for constant redefinition of school and emphasises the category of change. However, there is a problem, which results from the inability to define clear proportions between what is constant at school (and decides about the continuity and stability), and what is subject to change and affects its dynamics as an institution, and educational microsystem at the same time.

Change as the main category in construing the world

The category of change has fascinated researchers from the very beginning of human history. The observation of even the closest surroundings showed a huge variety of things phenomena and processes. Such a reflection included existing differences in: appearance, properties, transformations taking place, their duration and specific impact on the environment. The views of Heraclitus who believed that continuous change was the most characteristic feature of reality were typical. "Everything flows", is in continuous movement, nothing is forever. Therefore, "No man ever steps in the same river twice" (Leśniak, 1972, p. 171), because when you enter it the second time, you are already a different person and the river is not the same.

In the pursuit to generalise the output of classic philosophy in the scope referred to in the question of Socrates: "Why do things come into existence and why do they cease to exist and how do they exists?" (Krońska, 1983, p. 131), you can distinguish three main concepts of change (Hempoliński, 1989, p. 234).

→ The concept developed by Heraclitus, in which the opposites, which clash (contradictions) are the source of change, which lead to a transition of an event or a chain of events into their opposites (or a replacement of one element by another). The opposites are the effect and origin of diversity, which is the source of changes and their inevitable consequence.

→ The mechanical philosophy, in which movement (changeability) of a material object is always caused by external factors and is the result of coming into contact with another object, which leads to the movement of the object in space, and thus to its changing position towards other objects.

→ The concept of Aristotle, according to which any change consists in a possibility becoming a reality, i.e. In the act of transition from possibility to reality.

Despite new outlooks on the course of events in the world, a common feature emphasised by researchers is the category of change, i.e. the transition of an object from one state to another. For thousands of years people have been amazed by overwhelming changeability. And today? Although our knowledge differs greatly from this of hundreds of years ago, still the category of change continues to be characterised by many unanswered questions. The effect of 'liquid modernity' noticed by Zygmunt Bauman, which forms a description of contemporary times, which are characterised by an unprecedented pace of changes, only intensifies the desire to know and reach the sources or the causes of things. "Scientific revolution of our times has moved us from the epoch of certainty and dogmatism into the reality of uncertainty and doubt" (Szempruch, 2012, p. 16). In this situation, fascination with the pace and scope of ongoing changes consistently grows.

Change is a concept with broad semantic meaning used to describe certain dynamics. Change is often described as: progress, development, modification, restructuring, transformation, innovation or improvement. Changes, their nature, sources and effects appear to be of paramount importance in any field of science (e.g. technological, structural, cultural change) and to every researcher, regardless of the times in which they live. As I. Kant put it, human is the desire to understand the cause of each event. Throughout history, humanity has faced the challenge of understanding the world and wished to grow accustomed to it. People

have always faced the necessity to understand the essence of changes and to discover its meaning. "If you understand the concept of change and its types, it is easier to determine the source and you can more easily and with more confidence guess its effects, because you cannot anticipate it with precision" (Ornstein, Hunkins, 1998, p. 292).

The typology of changes

In the simplest approach, change processes may take place on two levels, the transition between which is smooth and often imperceptible for investigators. "These levels involve individuals and small social groups (microstructures), such as family, neighbour or peer group; and large social groups (macrostructures), such as social class, global society and nation" (Chlopecki, 1993, p. 30).

The most visible to individuals are changes at the lowest levels, in which people are personally involved in their everyday lives. To note macrostructural changes, you need to look at them from a broader perspective (…), one that involves a long duration" (ibid). Change observed in these processes is related with more or less rapid transformation of an existing social structure, and also defines the direction of change and relevant trends. Then you can talk about change within the system and the change of the system (ibid). The processes of change also have significant implications for individuals, who can be both their subjects and objects and who "create them according to their own measure, shape them from themselves, because of themselves and for themselves" (Legowicz, 1981, p. 71), and become both the source, the agent and the goal of change.

Looking into possible types of change, one can realise their wealth, which is not immediately noticeable due to more or less visible effects determined by their dynamics (Szymański, 2013, p. 55-61). What is more, we very rarely deal with a simple, isolated type of change. Most often, different processes caused by differing interests overlap. This is why, putting them in order is rather a denotative exercise.

In school development, changes purposefully designed by the school community to initiate the revival and improvement processes are gaining importance. The wide array of changes draws attention to the criteria, which underline the essence of change:
  → from the point of view of the source of changes: coming from "outside" of the system (e.g. from outside of the school

community - exogenous ones) and developed in the context of the system (by the school community - endogenous ones).

→ from the point of view of the strategy for the introduction of changes: top-down and bottom-up changes.

→ from the point of view of the course of changes: evolutionary and revolutionary (radical) ones.

→ from the point of view of the willingness to accept changes: acceptable (desired) and unacceptable (unwanted, often these are imposed changes, most often taking the form of formal and legal guidelines and requirements or recommendations of superiors).

→ from the point of view of the introduction of the change: actual and apparent (false) changes.

→ from the point of view of its impact: superficial and profound changes.

→ from the point of view of the range of its impact: changes made within the system and changes of the system.

→ from the point of view of the cognitive criterion: rational and irrational changes.

→ from the point of view of the system identification criterion: functional changes concerning the process and structural changes concerning the model.

→ from the point of view of progress observed: regressive and progressive changes.

→ from the point of view of the continuation of change: incidental, irregular, continuous changes.

→ from the point of view of the involvement of individuals: changes in individuals; changes in small social groups (microstructures), changes in large social groups (macrostructures).

→ from the point of view of the society's attitude to change: unwelcome, contested, ignored, accepted, encouraged.

→ from the point of view of the territorial scope: local, national, regional and global changes.

→ from the point of view of the material scope: marginal, field-related, comprehensive, complete changes.

Change accompany and contribute to the development of education. It is difficult to pinpoint them and their classification is

denotative. In multilateral and multi-faceted transformations, which take place on this plane of human activity, it is possible to identify all types of changes presented above, which constantly overlap. This helps to view educational reality as an evolutionary process, which involves the confrontation of the world of theory and normative rules on the one hand with the world of real behaviours of people involved on the other.

Sources of educational change

In practice, the scope and dynamics of educational changes (at schools) is dictated by socio-economic and political relations prevailing in a given country, however other phenomena, processes and events that have a major impact on the nature, scope and quality of adopted changes are also observed in contemporary world. Among the most important ones is exponentially growing information chaos, which requires rational selection, processing and storage, and also growing pressure that causes tensions and the need to overcome them. In addition, change is not a simple outcome of these sources, but depends on a context formed by history, tradition and culture of the country concerned.

When analysing sources of educational change, you can specify three kinds of them (Nowosad, 2011):

→ Change as a consequence of socio-economic and political factors. It results from social transformation, new individual needs and values defining the priorities of education and the tasks and functions of education (Bogaj, Kwiatkowski, Szymański, 1997, p. 118). Transformation of social and political system in Poland brought up questions about the remodelling of educational institutions, whose role should be transformed from being the tools of dependence and objectification of individuals and social groups to serving as agents promoting and supporting the development of possibly the largest number of people. At the same, the way, in which education and entities participating in it can become players in great social transformation meeting the expectations, hopes and opportunities seems to be of importance (Kwieciński, 2000, p. 7).

→ Change as a consequence of natural expansion of knowledge. As C. Kupisiewicz put it, as a result of it "people are under pressure

of exponential growth of news" (1995, p. 12). As a result of the expansion of knowledge about the world, its scope doubles every six, seven years. Despite infoglut, knowledge maintains a strong position. According to A. Toffler, those who have access to information and the ability to process and use it have an advantage. Knowledge will become the most important value of contemporary civilisation (quoted after: Pachociński, 1999, p. 7). Therefore if a school wishes to participate in the processing of and creating its own knowledge, it must teach how to learn and navigate in this wealth and how to use it by making the right choices. And by making choices, it starts the process of change.

→ Change as a result of clashing opposites, contrasts and differences. Such understanding refers to the perception of contemporary reality, including educational one, as ambivalent, in which unity is opposed by the multiplicity of linearity, multiplication of differences by the dissemination of margins and balance by imbalance. "Thousands of conflicting truths compete with one other for the status of "the sole truth", and become relativised. (...) Canon and difference, local and global, intellectual and affective, popular and elite (...) you can observe it all at the same time" (Melosik, 2000, p. 175). However, the existence of differences is an advantage. Overcoming them may result in triggering the development and progress in a world in which contrasts intertwine with its description. Seeing in the tensions the potential for change can be found in the Report of the International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century under the leadership of J. Delors (1998, p. 12-15). Six types of tensions have been identified in the report: the tension between the global and the local; the tension between the universal and the individual; the tension between tradition and modernity; the tension between long-term and short-term considerations; the tension between the need for competition and the concern for equality of opportunity; the tension between the extraordinary expansion of knowledge and human beings' capacity to assimilate it; and the tension between the spiritual and the material. In other words, these are tensions between "to be" and "to have".

However, external influences make this matter even more complicated. Local environment can pass additional information, communicate new expectations, reward, and cause difficulties. It can be an additional source of tensions and imbalance between the components of the system, and at the same time put the system in motion and direct it towards a balance in new circumstances. Change is a dynamic process that takes place thanks to constant shifting of balance based on problem solving. Reactions to the effects of both internal and external factors seem to be important here. Based on how well the initiators of change cope with that, the change will prove to be either constructive or unnecessary.

At the times of rapid social changes and fast development of technical civilisation, education is one of essential prerequisites for progress. According to Bauman, deregulation and privatisation are the characteristics of modern progress (2006, p. 209-210). Deregulation involves a large number and diversity of proposals for changes, which are not subject to accurate assessment, and the need for constant making of choices that do not imply certainty as to their correctness or rightness. Yet, privatisation stands for the need to make independent choices and introduce changes and to take risk of making errors. An individual needs to independently plan, implement and evaluate personal undertakings and to take decisions on their prospective discontinuance" (Szempruch, 2012, p. 13-14).

Specificity of the change at school - school development[1]

Research on the functioning of the school as a social organisation conducted in 1970s in the English- and German-speaking countries strengthened the view that such organisations as schools were not monoliths and should be seen as 'living organisms'. However, the 'breakthrough', was only seen in early 1990s, when education policies of almost all Member States of the European Union supported the development of individual schools as independent entities providing education services as a result of autonomy granted to them. The search for the concept involving schools in development activities and promoting the concept of organisational development commenced at

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1.   To learn more, see I. Nowosad (2003, 2008).

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that point to become hugely diversifies over time. As a result, new ideas have been tried out (Türk, 1989). As H.-G. Rolff pointed out, analysis of the school is not possible with using one theory of organisation only: "If you are not only to analyse schools, but also to contribute to their development, you need to understand their entire complexity. This requires a broad, multifaceted perspective on the school, which in turn requires - in a new understanding of organisation - not only objective, but also prospective outlook. The school as a whole cannot be subjected to an objective assessment, because it is something more. The school encompasses technical, political and cultural matters, and yet it is not a mere sum of them" (1997, p. 45).

Looking at the school as a plastic system of existing links, which dynamically reacts to changing external conditions was the cause of the search for a new interpretation of the development of the school as an organisation. It emphasises the development of schools from inside, i.e. the development mainly initiated by its members. The management and external process advisers often play a key role there (French, Bell, 1990).

Figure 1. Change as alternating dependence between creative development and adaptation
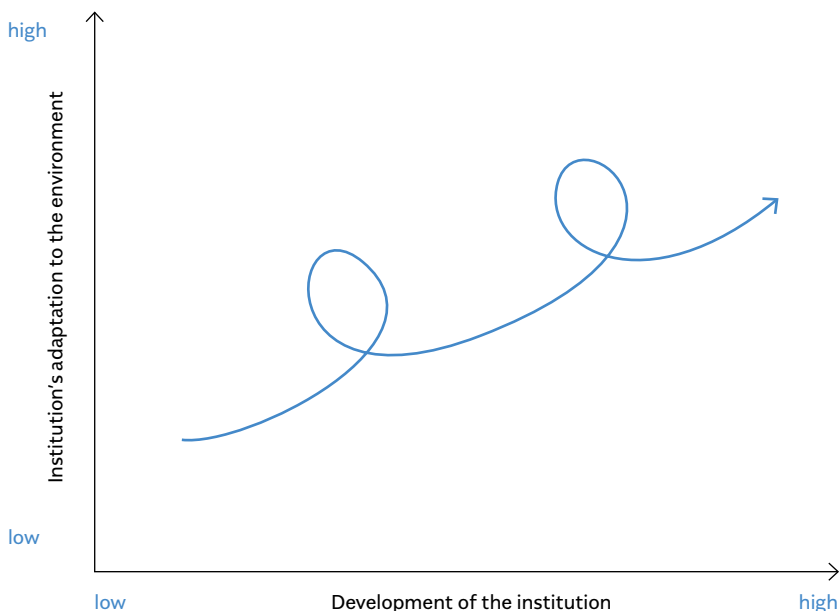
Source: Author based on Dalin, 1997, p. 52.

It is worth adding that the theories of dependences in organisational development adopted for school theory originated from social psychology of K. Lewin and humanistic psychology. At present, evolutionary system theory predominates, which is based both on the systemic family therapy and a system theory in social sciences (Baumgartner, 1988). Already in the early 1980s, H.-G. Rolff and K.J. Tillmann wrote: "this progress cannot be only limited to a simple analysis of school organisation, as is often the case. Certainly, schools are social organisations, but they have very unusual, pedagogical objectives. On the one hand it is subject to the laws concerning the production of "goods", even if the costs of training are limited by dominant financial interests. On the other hand, the objectives of schools are specific, and can be easily distinguished from those of all other social institutions" (1980, p. 249-250).

Organisational development is shown as a "conceptual framework and strategy to support schools in meeting the requirements set for them by changing pluralist society. This includes the theory and tools (in the form of methods), which are intended to help schools as systems in the self-renewal and self-management. Organisational development helps schools in their attempts to increase mutual understanding, commitment and cooperation between teachers, parents, pupils and citizens" (R. Schmuck, after: Warnken, 1997, p. 78).

H.-G. Rolff, R.V. Buhren, D. Lindau-Bank and S. Müller (1999, p. 15-18) interpret the development of the school as involving its grass-roots forces. This brings them to three important components: personal development (alternatively determined in other publications as personal mastery), development of teaching-learning processes and organisational development. In terms of interdependences of systemic relationships, the development of specific areas of an organisation permeates other initiating further changes in them. The systemic relationship is presented by Rolff who says: "you cannot expect the improvement of the quality of the teaching-learning process without personal development of teachers and the development of the organisation; you cannot expect organisational development without personal development and the development of teaching and learning; you cannot expect personal development of teachers without organisational development and the improvement of the teaching-learning process" (Rolff, 1998, p. 306). At school, a change in one

area impacts on other areas. However, apart from intended results, all activities entail more or less unpredictable side effects. In such a case, the solution to one problem implies the need to face another challenge The functioning of the school appears to be a sophisticated phenomenon, which cannot be described in a mechanical or linear manner as a simple "action - reaction" relationship.

The interdependence between organisational development, the development of teaching-learning processes and personal development are based on the assumption that the system of a single institution is changing, if changes take place in the subsystems: "organisation", "teaching - lifelong learning", "teachers" and "students". Systems consist of components and mutual relationships taking place between them. It appears that complex tasks to be completed by the school cannot be achieved only on the basis of changes of the components themselves, but, above all, as a result of interdependencies between these elements. One element affects the other and vice versa, forming feedback between them. As a result, one phenomenon can both act as an obstacle and aid. The synergy effect may occur only if two subsystems in a positive way complement and support each other (Rolff, Buhren, Landu-Bank, Müller, 1999, p. 15). Based on this assumption, in order for actions to spur development, they must be oriented in the same direction. However, speaking of the school as a system, we must remember that it is formed by active people who not only react to situations, but also create and alter them by setting goals for themselves. The human factor is of paramount importance at the school. Schools are formed by people who are not mere components of the system, but its members who differently interpret the reality around him. This fact has been well reflected in the words of Goethe: "is not eyes that look, but a man".

According to H.-G. Rolff, school development incorporates three planes, on which these processes should take place. These are: individual plane, on which you can shape values, standards, and knowledge of persons forming the community; teaching plane, where such standards and knowledge are translated into actions, and organisational plane, which provides structure for restricting or promoting a given activity. It is worth stressing that this systemic relationship can be observed within the school and should be complemented with external influences. Among school stakeholders are parents, and also work

places and universities, which are the 'recipients' of graduates. The press, city authorities and supervisory body, they all exert impact on the school. Due to the fact that the school as a system can be viewed as a closed system (in the operating area of teaching and education) on the one hand, and on the other as an open system, which cannot remain indifferent to what is happening in the environment. Looking from this perspective, the school remains dynamic. Falling under external influences, it actively responds to them by modifying the surrounding environment. Looking from this perspective, conclusions can be drawn concerning school development. Adaptation of the school to constantly changing conditions in its environment means that the development process does not end at a specific time, but lasts as long as the school operates.

The development of the school may be initiated from the inside by the members of the organisation or from the outside; i.e. schools can develop both on their own or be supported by external consultants (Dalin, 1997, p. 53). In both cases you can identify certain tasks and problem areas, which take the form of phase models depicting organisational development processes.

All phase models are based on a 3-stage model initially developed by K. Lewin, which primarily refers to processes within the organisation and activities of its members. At the first stage, which initiates the process, existing patterns of behaviour are being questioned. Dissatisfaction with existing attitudes is used to search for new solutions, always with taking into account the currently existing attitudes, values and structures of operation. At the next stage, pre-planned measures aimed to develop new creative attitudes or interventions, which support identification with them, appear. At the third stage, you can observe the stabilisation of the new status and resulting structure. Next, the new behaviours and attitudes are established in daily practice of the school. Over the past decades, the K. Lewin's model, which is considered the basic one, has been expanded and diversified.

Opponents of the 'stage-based' approach claim that the organisational development comes down to mechanical actions automatically following one another. However, the identification of certain stages has its practical implications, because they feature different starting points, needs, contents and conflicts. Individual stages of organisational development create certain structures, and

systematically show new requirements and needs for the use of specific methods or instruments.

In the 1980s, P. Dalin and H.-G. Rolff transferred the stage model of organisational development to the area of schools. Just like other researchers, they assumed that development processes occur cyclically (1996, p. 52-53). Their programme of institutional development of schools involves five basic stages. The first one describes the advisory procedure from the time of establishing contact until working measures are adopted. It is important to establish a steering group, which should represent various interests of the school and present expectations. At the second stage, you should arrive at a common diagnosis, for example on the basis of data collected as part of surveys. This naturally leads us to the third stage, in which perspectives for the development of the school are identified. At the fourth stage, projects aiming at achieving specific objectives are being developed. Members of the steering group transfer the developed knowledge to the sections, which coordinate the change process. Knowledge and qualifications of advisers and leaders must be reflected in the school. The fifth stage consists in evaluation, i.e. full assessment of project outcomes.

The stage model of organisational development developed by P. Dalin and H.-G. Rolff emphasises the importance of systematic "accompanying" the process of changes. The authors do not offer a ready-made concept, but intended to create a new, improved framework for communication within the organisation. However, just as it is the case with many concepts, there are many critics of the model. Views are expressed that popular methods and projects concerning school development do not focus on the people who are responsible for taking relevant measures, and this aspect should be taken into consideration. As Mietz puts it: "Focus on individuals appears to be (...) at best only an approximation to humans, but it does not stand for recognising them as the driving force behind all development processes" (Mietz, 1994, p. 56). Incorrect understanding of organisational development appears when it is identified only with the methods and projects, i.e. with the technical part of the image. It is important, but it does not predominates the orientation on humans, which should be the main focus.

The considerations concerning the development of schools also involve other problems, which have drawn the attention of

researchers and appeared in the reflection on setting the directions for such development. What interests should be regarded as the most important ones? What objectives should be ultimately set? Other misunderstandings result from the question who is the actual "driving force" for the development - what is the power, which triggers activity? Unusual in the development of the school is the fact that teams, which cooperate with one another and are internally related, and not "single" teachers should be seen as the driving force behind development. Some call the forming, strengthening and promoting independence of such teams 'the royal path' (French, Bell, 1990).

Therefore, the development of school can be understood as providing advice on the development of the system, which is often referred to as systemic advice. It includes advice on school management and working with school steering groups, making joint diagnosis and plans, and conducting self-evaluation of schools. However, all this may not be brought down to a single technical procedure. It seems important that as part of each of the above mentioned procedures, teachers act in a professional manner and shape their schools using their own autonomy and the autonomy of the institution. Looking from this perspective, organisational development can be seen as a concept for the professionalisation of teaching.

Thanks to P. Dalin and H.-G. Rolff, in late 1990s, the concept of the school as a learning organisation (*lernende Organisation*), in which the focal point is change and how school community deals with it, became popular in Poland. The concept of learning schools was included in the education system reform introduced in 1999. Since then, several works by P. Dalin and H.-G. Rolff and by other researchers have been translated into Polish. During training, teachers were encouraged to adapt the concept of 'learning organisation' to the conditions typical for Polish schools. 'Learning schools' are capable of changing. They consistently develop to meet new requirements in the rapidly changing society. Therefore, it is not only students , but the entire school community who learn (Hildebrandt, 2001, p. 62). From this perspective, schools have to play a unique role in defining the quality of learning, and as a result they should always consider the requirements they have to meet from the angle of their vision and mission, and shape their future in this way. Spontaneous and authentic renewal of schools is the result of direct involvement of all school staff and students in defining the

needs and establishing goals for the development programme. However, as Dalin stresses, the adoption of such a point of view is only possible when autonomy is formally established. The level of school autonomy granted by the state is the major factor in the strategy for organisational development aimed at the renewal of schools (ibid, p. 64).

P. Dalin and H.-G. Rolff (1990), eminent researchers focusing on organisational development of schools, believe that from 1990, at the latest, the schools, i.e. single institutions have been considered 'the driving force behind the development of the system of school education", and it has been teachers and headteachers who were mainly responsible for its efficiency, and other institutions have rather played a supporting and ancillary role. Research, which has been consistently intensified, and also political will have played an important role in the shaping of a new approach to schools. Also cyclical processes in the development of the school, knowledge of the effectiveness of school reforming processes and the theory of education, as well as social changes observed in recent years have proven to be of significance. Combined together, they have created a favourable climate for a new outlook on the institution of the school. Furthermore, the diversification of all spheres of life, polarisation of social relations and placing emphasis on individual development - these phenomena also contributed to the fact that central control processes were no longer feasible. What takes place in the classroom and what actually happens there cannot be "accomplished" outside of it. "The school does not surrender unconditionally to the planners" (Warnken, 1997, p. 75). Thus, school leadership cannot order, and what is important, can only facilitate getting the results and support processes, or at best initiate them (Dalin, 1997, p. 55). This does not discredit the central level, on the contrary, an important role is still assigned to it in the process of change, because it is important to have a combination of pressure and support (Rolff, 1998, p. 314-315). More importantly, however, we need to understand that the processes of change are disseminated through dialogue and real influence (Hubermann, Milles, 1984, quoted in: Dalin, 1997, p. 55).

Teachers' attitudes to change

How people cope with new reality, requirements and obligations is at the heart of educational changes (Fullan, 1982, p. 82). This reflection rests the responsibility for the essence of transformation with the

teachers, along with the related burden. In this case, the reform does not determine the actual change - but is a record of guidelines committed to paper and not a real reflection of change.

Therefore, even today we can firmly state that the processes of educational changes[2] will be very slow, as they will depend on individual perceptions of new experiences and on the change in the attitude of individuals to themselves (Arends, 1995, p. 320). In order to take place, a change must affect a teacher and his/her inner life. Only after some time, students will notice this and adapt to the new reality, making personal sense out of the new pedagogical situation offered by the teacher.

It seems that an important regularity in taking into account the process of change is the observation of its sense - understanding its essence and becoming familiar with something that was previously unknown. Such an approach requires continuous experiencing yourself in a new manner and looking at educational reality from a new perspective, from the angle of change within you. This means that changes in you happen later than changes in perceiving others. As a result, the majority of people cannot change only as a result of receiving new information or instructions showing the direction for new action or being presented the advantages of the new. Only through their own experiences, they can replace the 'old' with the 'new'.

In such an approach, teacher awareness and the ability to discern change is given priority and, as a matter of fact affects the opportunity for bringing it about at schools. Paying greater attention to teachers' thoughts, opinions and reflections on the contemporary world and its development, and on their place in it and the role they play at school gains importance then. H. Kwiatkowska assumes that "teachers' actions aimed at producing change (including developmental changes in students) are the more effective, the more teachers themselves go through developmental processes, and the more they are aware of themselves and of the way the school caters for their professional (cognitive and skills-related) and existential needs (e.g. the need to gain recognition and to be given autonomy)" (1997, p. 52).

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2.   Reference to the transformation of education after 1989 and further changes, including the reform of education in the school year 1999/2000

Researchers of change claim that teachers do not immediately take the full advantage of 'the new'. People who start doing something new, they do it gradually, "piece by piece". No sooner do they decide to take full advantage of the innovation than they understand it and gain confidence in their ability to act in accordance with the new rules. G.E. Hall enumerates the following stages of using innovation: inactivity, orientation, preparation, mechanical use; and next: routine or further improvement, moving on to integration as a community action 'with' and 'on behalf' of others and again further improvement in search for any further modification (Hall, Loucks, 1977, p. 266-267).

Teachers' attitude to change shows off their expectations. Six stages of an attitude to innovation are quoted, which correspond to the efforts to attribute personal sense to change. These stages are: awareness, information, individualisation, implementation, consequences, and also a cooperation phase in order to coordinate actions and rationalisation stage as a reflection on prospective further, more refine changes (Arends, 1995, p. 421-422). Regressive and progressive forces clash in the reality experienced by teachers today. On the background of these different, and not always positive feelings, teachers' attitudes to change are shaped and are manifested in the overall relationship between conviction and action, and between the use of what they **know** and **what they believe in**, and to make decisions about **what to do** (more: Pearson, 1994) (Figure 2).

Figure 2. The forces model

Combined forces
→ government's pressure
→ values observed by the society
→ technological progress
→ knowledge explosion
→ administrative actions

Conflicting forces
→ fear of the unknown
→ threats to authority and competence
→ outdated knowledge and qualifications
→ traditional values
→ limited resources

Source: Ornstein, Hunkins, 1998, p. 293.

Home

The adoption by the teacher of a new, modified method of work should be supported by expertise, which is to play the role of a stimulus for pedagogical ingenuity and, at the same time, a factor, which rationalises dreams and aspirations. This imposes certain restrictions on diverse, but at the same time necessary emotions, visions and desires. "However, the professional mission of the teacher cannot be dominated by the fetish of methodology and praxeology. After all, building of the future does not consist in improving the institutions, but on giving meaning to lives and goals of individuals" (Pilch, 1999, p. 163).

From the teachers' perspective, the innovation process requires their identification with change, which needs to make sense to them; having a firm outlook on the nature of change; experiencing and trying out the innovation. In addition, it is worth emphasising the significance of the school climate, which can trigger and support bottom-up initiatives, and which contributes to the appearance and development of new symptoms, which, with time, can impact on the school community. Without the conditions, which allow teachers to work 'in a new way' the effects of innovations cannot last long. Because each schools, as a social system, responds to changes in a system of complex connections, where which each element is closely linked with others, and neither of them operates in isolation. When you change one element of these connections or when only one teacher is replaced, all the other must change. Research into this theoretical orientation was carried out in the United States as early as in the 1960s by S. Sarason (1971) and developed by subsequent researchers. However, we can still experience its relevance today, because change, whether we like it or not, transpires slowly, thanks to these few people who accept it ahead of others.

Reflections on the possibilities to introduce changes makes us aware of the great power of teachers as the originators of change. H. Giroux and P. Freire (1993) believe that teachers should not be excluded from works on producing and implementing changes. Reflective teachers are aware of the assumptions on which they base their action and thanks to them changes can take up significant meaning. It goes without saying that from among people working in education it is teachers who have the broadest knowledge about the practical side of pedagogical activities and who can share their experiences. Being a part of the system of education, they are the only link displaying pedagogical training coupled with predisposition and calling to introduce the desired

modifications. Along with the progressive commitment of teachers, their conviction that participation in change does not end with the introduction of 'the new' is firmed, because institutions operating in educational space constantly change and develop (Ornstein, Hunkins, 1998, p. 308).

The assumption that teachers' becoming the subjects of their own professional practice is related to the participation in learning and exercising critical judgement, and next to responsible and daring changing the elements of educational space indicates that the first stage resulting from the above reasoning, and at the same time the precondition for further consequences, is to recognise the need for change. Change is inextricably linked with identifying it, i.e. with a special opportunity to grasp your own situation and the role personal agency plays in it, and to discover what and how can be done. According to M. Czerepaniak-Walczak (1998, p. 293), such recognition can affect "the quality of teachers' action research as an integrated way of thinking and acting and as a cognitive process of change". The author lists three stages of the conduct: decision (change), discussion (with others who notice similar phenomena) and informing (about the results of your own discoveries and projects concerning further changes). The essence of such a process of transforming school reality is personal involvement in planning and implementing changes in the area forming the subject of individual research, which also form the basis for investigating educational reality. The process advocated by the author constitutes, as she puts it, "a three-phase plan for the development of science" (ibid.), which is expressed in a sequence of subsequent actions focused on cognition and change. Cognitive curiosity and the desire for change can then become a sufficient reason to make further efforts and renew the procedure.

By initiating the process of integrated cognition and change, teachers have a chance to actually and consciously transform their own activities, despite a pervasive complexity and dynamics of accompanying processes. The change plan itself seems important, as it is an expression of critical judgement of the existing status quo and a reflection of an individual path of practical activity or a proposal for altering individual professional practice. Taking part in the creation of educational reality or, in other words, by giving certain ideas sense for their existence, teachers have an exclusive opportunity to

learn and discover what you can and should do in order to introduce improvements. It is worth adding that in the process of implementing changes an individual may be affected by them either by imitation or by participating in the experiences of other people; in this case the process can be both intentional and unintentional. The adaptation and identification process resulting from change occurs in three planes:

→ prescriptive one, when it concerns the adaptation to new standards and models,
→ communicative, when it concerns the exchange of information,
→ functional, when it concerns the performance of tasks (Radziewicz-Winnicki, 1995, p. 38).

Teachers who see the room for improvement and aim for a change, have an opportunity to perceive their work in a broader context. And this applies not only to their school, but also to immediate and more distant environment. Persons responsible for the introduction of changes must also be familiar with their properties and take into account the resistance resulting from the incomprehension or the lack of need for a change. "What we consider needed reflects our value system. If the change appears to be consistent with it, it is easier for us to see the need for its introduction" (Ornstein, Hunkins, 1998, p. 304). Overcoming the resistance and winning over supporters for new solutions involves enlisting persons wiling to engage in something new, expand their horizons, explore new territory, and to encourage their colleagues to build at the school a community of supporters of programme innovation.

In the process of fostering change, it is important to overcome many concerns and hazards. It is also necessary to have a belief that the change covers with its scope everything that teachers appreciate and believe in and what they want for the school, their students and for themselves. However, teachers have been trained to to adopt empty slogans and not to keep their word. So how are they to trust anyone and whom? These doubts are difficult to overcome, because they result from the experience gained in the course of their entire professional career. The words alone will not be enough. Tangible evidence and real support are needed. By increasing teachers' work load and presenting additional requirements without offering anything in return, you can only further disturb the equilibrium and risk increasing

the dysfunctionality of the school, which will result in losing the vision of human integrity and 'humane aspects' of the school. "Striving to change the reality of education must take into account the change in attitudes of its subjects, which can only be achieved as a result of and in the course of **active work** on behalf of change" (Szkudlarek, 2000, p. 288). Change cannot be 'imposed' by theory and decreed by any ideology. In this case, the radicalism of thinking about education comes down to recognising the importance of bottom-up initiatives as the basis for democratic self-organisation of the society and incessant interpretation of reality.

Growing structural and functional complexity of modern societies increases the need to augment human capacity to respond to diversified environmental influences. So if the future holds for us the need to accept changes - such acceptance cannot be unconditional, as a compromise must be stuck between what one can, wants to and should do (Radziewicz-Winnicki, 1995, p. 35 and 191). The examples of human activity as presented above are interpreted by the philosophy of personalism as a powerful imperative and moral duty, as well as a subjective good of each person taking such action. It can be assumed that teachers' participation in educational change, and in formulating and producing it becomes teachers' duty, just as it is the case with the planning of the teaching process.

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The future of educational leadership. Only dead fish follow the current

Grzegorz Mazurkiewicz

To fulfil the task of preparing young people to cope with the future, the school must change and become adequate for their needs. In order to achieve this aim, educational leadership should also change. Unfortunately, all changes are hampered by the mental models shaped during the period of the industrial revolution and the one-class schools, supported by, so common nowadays, neo-liberalism and the belief that competing is the primary form of interpersonal relations in the globalised world. To change schools, we require both dialogue and the answers to the following questions: what kind of schools do we need, and why do we need them?

Introduction

Despite the various disasters experienced by humanity, we still want to believe in the possibility of unlimited growth and continuous improvement of our hitherto achievements. Perhaps it is naivety that is expressed through this desire, perhaps it is ambition, or perhaps it is experience. It is difficult to evaluate the world that we live in. Different, contradictory information comes to us on a daily basis. Traditional sources of knowledge about the world, such as the media, various publications, authorities and public opinion leaders, institutions of public trust, people who are close to us, all seem to be lost in the huge amount of data that surrounds us. They reproduce or create content that is of questionable veracity and often there is a lack of available tools to verify it. They sometimes manipulate the data to achieve specific political or economic benefits, and can often voice completely contradictory opinions about something, leaving us in uncertainty, and in doing so, in a sense, they also prove that 'everything' is a matter of interpretation.

Nowadays one can try to prove the theorem that "things can only get better" or that "things have never been so bad". Pessimism prevails in the assessment of our situation, despite the fact that progress is visible, both globally and locally, when we compare historical statistics with those of today. It is also strange that in times of technical progress, development of medicine, decline in poverty, long-term economic growth, dissemination of education, improvement of health and extending the average life expectancy, optimism is so difficult to come by. Criticism of what is happening around us prevails. An increasingly difficult set of challenges and disturbing signals about the fatal state of our planet, our societies, poverty and economy, along with unfavourable forecasts for the future of the human race only intensify the anxiety (Bregman, 2017). This is linked with the wider access to knowledge about how others live, as well as with growing expectations resulting from both increasing awareness and popularisation of the idea of human rights, not only as an existing legal document, but also as the situation of specific people in the real world.

Regardless of how we assess today's state of affairs, when we face a situation in which proven methods of dealing with reality fail, it disturbs our faith in man, in reason and in the possibility of continuous civilizational development. In situations like this, we most often turn

to traditional solutions and we keep trying to do 'even better', in that which we are already doing, which is what probably led us to the point where we are at in the first place. Instead of looking for completely new, different solutions to a given problem, we call for improvement of the quality of what we have been doing so far, although this method is no longer effective.

Among such proven solutions, we certainly can mention the formalised educational systems that have been shaped over the last two hundred years and which completely dominated the organisation of the learning and teaching process. In crisis situations, we look to schools with hope, believing that inside them we will find the formula for both the present and the future. Although the experiences of the first dozen or so years of the 21st century do not confirm this hope, they do not completely override it either. Therefore, there are currently no proposals to organise the school in a different way, but there is an expectation that the existing formula will eventually start to bear fruit. The school is still an institution to which we turn for solutions. This is the first assumption on which the author intends to base the logic of this study: schools are important for societies, because societies believe that schools help them deal with challenges (although it is not so certain that this is the case).

Schools must change in order to be able to successfully meet the expectation that they will become an important element in the process of solving the problems of the modern world. The postulates of changes in the systems of education, schools and processes occurring in them are known and accepted. What remains is to answer the question of how to change them. One of the mechanisms for improving education according to proven algorithms, but also one of the sources of innovative ideas for dealing with educational reality is its internal system. This is traditionally referred to as its administration and management system, and it enables the control of this complex structure. Whenever we talk about reforms of education, we also think about the role of the administration in these reforms and changes in administrating and managing as such. Unfortunately, due to various factors, the majority of reforms do not bring the expected results. The second assumption, which is helpful in constructing this paper, was the statement that in order for schools to help societies to cope with challenges, the schools

themselves have to change, and as a result, internal mechanisms, such as administration models and management, must also change.

Using the aforementioned assumption regarding the impact of education on the fate of societies and the prevailing belief of the recovery potential of administrative structures as the starting point, this paper brings up two reasons for failure: the first being a too conservative approach to the problem – based on the aforementioned approach of doing the same thing, only better, faster and cheaper, and the second being too much discrepancy between the accepted ways of dealing with a given problem versus the proposed changes necessary to achieve the desired results. By doing so, the paper attempts to illustrate the root causes of this situation.

As a summary of the intentions related to this study the context in which modern societies and their schools function will be presented. While expressing the demands for schools that will help to adequately address the current needs, it will describe useful transformations related to school management and the shifting of the centre of gravity towards educational leadership, which will enable change in schools. It will present historic sources of mental models that constitute the main obstacles to the proposed transformations, and finally, it will describe, not new, but still unrealised actions aimed at changing the current situation.

Education as a mechanism of development during times of chaos?

Education is an important element of social, political and economic life. This is also evident when one looks at it as a separate economic category; an area generating profits, for example, just like the entertainment industry, which in some places has become more profitable than heavy industry. Cities which have in the recent past invested in the development of universities are thriving, in comparison with those that have focused on, for example, the car industry. This phenomenon can be observed, for example, in the Midwest region of the United States (also known as the Rust Belt), where the Columbus State University generates an economic impact of 2.4 billion dollars per year (High Points, 2015).

Traditionally, contributing towards the development of human capital has been recognised as the most important function of

education. Along with the popularisation of the neo-liberal perspective in the interpretation of social phenomena and in the process of making political and economic decisions, this function became more and more important for the economy. Industrial development and the development of general education were inextricably linked. Although there is no clear evidence that economic growth results from what people learn in schools and the fact that it has also never been proven that increasing economic productivity triggers qualitative changes in education - the relationship between the economy and the school is noticeable. Throughout the 19th and the beginning of the 20th century, a part of the huge economic profits generated by industrialisation was invested in education, which, as it was believed, was becoming more and more important for the socio-economic successes of individuals and for the development of industry at the regional and national level (Carl, 2009). This conviction is still visible today, as governments all over the world invest an enormous amount of their resources into education in attempt to stimulate economic growth. Selected statistical data confirms that the higher the level of education, the easier it is to find a job (OECD, 2017, p. 100-101), that societies with a higher level of education are wealthier, healthier and happier (OECD, 2012), but it is not exactly clear which one is the result, and which one is the cause.

The significance of education is also linked to the fact that it is regarded as a public good, which results in the involvement of the governments in control of compulsory education or the inflow of teachers to the profession. Citizens' consent to finance education stems from the conviction, which is unlikely to reflect the reality, that the education system will equip young people with skills that will increase productivity and, consequently, the profits that can be used to reward those who funded education at the beginning of the cycle (Glavan, Anghel, Avrigeanu, 2010).

Contemporary societies, and especially education, are facing enormous and often unrealised challenges. This is particularly the case when we accept the assumption of education's leading role in dealing with reality - not only the economic one. The school system will only make sense if it is designed to function adequately to meet the needs arising from these challenges. Therefore, the first step to improve the school is to raise awareness of the challenges in order to embed the school into the socio-economic context.

The subjective choice of the greatest challenges will be briefly presented here. It includes problems to be solved, as well as the questions that need to be answered so that we can still believe that people can continue to live on the Earth happily and prosperously. These problems are intertwined in a very complex way, affecting each other and concerning (in varying intensity) all countries, and therefore, all people. These are global challenges that should be tackled simultaneously at both global and local levels. In no way does the author intend to suggest that the school can cope with these problems in isolation without major social, political and economic changes, but it can nevertheless initiate these processes.

To the list of the most important problems raised by societies, experts, politicians, teachers, activists, 'ordinary people' and already discussed in hundreds of publications or shown in documentary films, in journalistic programmes or in various projects, the author would add: the degraded natural environment, social inequalities, diversity that is raising concerns, the end of the economy based on minerals and competition, and growing disappointment with the state of democracy, all of which can be widely sensed.

We are witnessing an ecological catastrophe, which manifests through the extreme weather phenomena caused by global warming, extinction of many species and the reduction of biodiversity along with the increasing presence of nitrogen caused by industrial agriculture and the mass use of artificial fertilisers. Great migrations, conflicts caused by the fight for the access to clean water and air, rising ocean levels, hunger and many other consequences of this catastrophe will make the Earth a difficult or even impossible place to inhabit (Klein, 2016). At the same time, our schools do not prepare students to responsibly use the resources that we have left.

The social crisis caused by increasing social inequalities is presenting a problem. The gap between rich and poor is becoming drastically wider year by year, and the unfair mechanisms of accumulation of wealth and calcified social structures make it impossible to change the current situation (Piketty, 2015), although research shows that inequalities damage entire societies and not only the poor strata. The costs of education, health care and public services, the level of crime, the level of social solidarity and many other aspects affecting the quality of life depend on the extent to which societies care for equality and

justice (Wilkinson, Pickett, 2011, Patel, 2010). Unfortunately, instead of supporting social advancement and equalising the standard of living of members of society, schools reproduce an unfair social reality and class system through their own structure, interpersonal relationships, dividing students into categories, strengthening rivalry and offering different services to students coming from different social classes (Apple, 2013, McLaren, 2015).

Another problem that must not be forgotten is the lack of ability to deal with diversity, with the rising tide of nationalism and the vocalised belief in the necessity to function in homogeneous societies fuelled by not only the fear of engaging with those who are different, but also by the rising terrorist threat. Huge groups of people are excluded from participating in profits or from working together, simply because they have a different skin colour, religion, gender, sexual orientation, age or other characteristics. It is worth remembering that to a certain extent we depend on whether we manage to overcome these limitations. It is only the arduous task of cooperating across borders and cultures which will give us a chance to deal with the intertwined problems of the modern world, and not - as Richard Sennett (2013) called it - tribal cooperation based on joint action with those similar to us, against those different to us. Without agreements beyond divisions and interdisciplinary approaches to problems like, for example, the use of fossil fuels or industrial cattle farming, we cannot cope with the issue of climate change. Without solutions to some global scale problems, such as: poverty, social inequalities, access to education, or the production and proliferation of the arms trade, it is impossible to solve the problem of terrorism or the exploitation of various groups.

A series of economic earthquakes, from Asia, through both Americas, to Europe and the ongoing struggle of Africa to build a stable economy, all illustrate the problems we are facing in the field of economy. Some researchers, such as Jeremy Rifkin (2016), argue that the dominant role of capitalism is coming to an end because of the development of technology, logistics and methods of obtaining energy. Although it may still take years, the era of capitalism is inevitably ending. We will be left with the problem of production, replacement of rivalry with cooperation, generation and distribution of profits and all other aspects which are determinants of a healthy economy. Rifkin writes about the collaborative commons and the Internet of Things, as the phenomena that determine our future.

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These are, for the time being, extrapolations which have been made based on observation of trends or even only loose speculations about the economic and social future, but it cannot be denied that we need to reinvent the approach to economic and financial relations as well as the relations within the energy and production sectors.

To some extent, the economic crisis, or, rather, the crisis of the paradigm according to which we have organised economic life over the past 250 years, is connected with the last problem I have mentioned, which is the crisis of democracy - a problem presently waiting for a solution. One of its indicators is the low level of trust in politicians and in each other, the low level of participation in social and political life, and the general reluctance to get involved. Perhaps, as in the case of the economy, it is all about the radical change of the model of the democratic system. Unfortunately, changes are happening at a faster and faster pace, and we have no idea how to deal with them, how to react, or what to change in our behaviour. Zygmunt Bauman (2017) speaks of a dangerous period of interregnum, in which the old mental models and ways of solving problems no longer work, but we have not yet generated the new ones. Often we are not even aware of how much we need a fundamental social change and a new societal order without a dominant 'elite' (Judt, 2010). The question is; who can help to achieve that?

We have not yet been able to find a better means of raising awareness and, at the same time, the ability to solve problems than through the process of education. Although it does not necessarily have to be school education, it is, as the most common form of organised education, becoming the addressee of the postulates, questions and recommendations. One can have the impression that among the many social institutions that are changing and are subject to destruction or loss of trust, such as: the state, the police, the health service, the church or the family, the school - despite constant criticism - is still considered as the best antidote for observed ills, or even perceived as a magical measure in a form of a fabled golden fish that fulfils all wishes.

Schools, being complex organisms which, to a certain extent, are determined by various groups, including: politicians, educational leaders and managers, teachers, experts, authors of textbooks and teaching materials, designers and producers of new media, architects, and also in an indirect way: school students and parents, traditional and social media, religious leaders and opinion leaders - are expected to

accomplish many tasks (which are mentioned here without indicating what is considered the most important). The school is expected to prepare young people for work (although it is not known what kind of labour market they will be entering and what professions will be required), to equip them with problem solving and critical thinking skills. It is also expected that the school will teach them the use of algorithms, comprehensive reading and mathematical thinking, will equalise opportunities, prepare students for continuous change and uncertainty, give them grounds for functioning in society,. Other expectations are that by enabling learning of languages, philosophy and history the school will support the development of deeply moral people who will cope well in complex situations and will be able to cooperate, and that it will prepare them for the meaningful use of artificial intelligence. Finally, it is expected that the school will develop the ability of young people to think critically and that it will help them to understand that nowadays there is no level of education that provides a guarantee of social security and success (Herold, 2017). Are these expectations achievable?

Can education offer any solutions? Previous reform proposals focused on the effectiveness of organisational solutions, or on increasing the accountability of schools, and ultimately on their financial efficiency. What we need today is a critical reflection and unconventional solutions that will propose an approach contradicting the current knowledge based on a common-sense approach. Can educational leadership be the factor that will facilitate the opportunity for changes in education, which will lead to the necessary social changes allow for more effective coping with contemporary threats? Does such functional thinking still have a reason to exist today at all?

My approach lies with the assumption that education is the area of human activity that has the appropriate potential and is important for building our ability to deal with problems. It can also occur in new, unprecedented ways. That is why change is inevitable for schools. The paradigm in which they operate has already been exhausted. Schools lack inspiring goals. Organised based on the factory model, they become more hermetic, instead of opening to the world and looking for new solutions. I also assume that it is educational leadership that can become a mechanism that will support the development of education with imagination, creativity, in an innovative, although responsible way. In order to be able to efficiently fulfil our given function, it is necessary

to understand the reality in which we operate, as well as to get to know opinions, positions and theories as well as assumptions about this reality (this is especially important in the case of those groups making decisions regarding education). Without this step, even the best ideas will fail, because changes cannot be made against the dominant ideologies and human beliefs which are the cause of people's preference towards the well-known and repeatedly tested ways of acting.

In the subsequent part of this study, I will try to present the recommended directions for development of educational leadership, but also, above all, the barriers that prevent the introduction of genuine change in schools.

Educational leadership: proposed directions of development

For many years, the task of fixing the education system has been considered as the domain of the administration. In the twentieth century we could observe the extremely dynamic development and even the dominance of educational bureaucracy. The school bureaucracy consisted of the application of managerial techniques, i.e. management instruments used in business companies[1], in order to create a teaching and learning process modelled on industrial production processes. In a similar way to companies, private schools became increasingly complex organisms; they were larger, centralised and bureaucratically managed. The quality of education, as it was believed, was associated with standardisation, procedures and low operating costs. It is worth remembering that it was largely thanks to the introduction of bureaucratic and scientific methods, including external tests, that the methods of teaching were positively influenced by introducing, among other things, measurable learning indicators[2].

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1. Management through goals, delegation of power, strategic management, change management, time management and others, were tried with varying results.

2. One of the best examples is the PISA programme (Programme for International Student Assessment), co-ordinated by the OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development), an international study, the purpose of which is to obtain comparable data on the skills of pupils who are 15 years of age, aimed at improvement of the quality of teaching and the organisation of education systems. Despite the implementation (at least partial) of this goal and the provision of reliable data, the programme is criticised both in terms of the methodology and the outcomes - instead of focusing on improving quality, governments and societies focus on ranking and comparing with others. The same applies to the issue of the standardised tests in the many countries which have decided to introduce them.

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The last decades have brought considerable popularity to the term 'educational leadership', which is evident in the huge number of publications, research and teaching programmes at universities[3]. Administration, understood as ways of organising work (not as a set of related institutions), very close to management in its meaning, and bureaucracy, i.e. the organisational system, both faced impassable limits that could be overcome by a leadership approach, granting the opportunity to solve 'unsolvable' problems in an innovative way. Management, answering the question 'how?', and the leadership, answering the questions 'what?' and 'why?', were granting a better chance for the balanced development of educational organisations when combined together.

Educational leadership is a specific form of leadership which is characteristic to education. It is a complex and long-lasting process linked with teaching and learning, which takes place in groups of people. Thanks to educational leadership, the potential of people involved in a specific activity can be externalised. It should serve the purpose of jointly designing and creating situations enabling learning and problem solving, while the goals and the manner of implementation of the educational tasks should depend on the system of values adopted in a given community. Due to the fact it is a group process that requires time and proceeds according to accepted values, visions created by heroic leaders are less important than those negotiated and agreed within the group. Therefore, the potential of educational leadership is linked not with the charisma of individuals or with their authority, but with the ability of the organisation (often designed by smaller teams) to increase the participation of its members in the decision-making and in the learning process. This way, thanks to the leadership, a community of learners is being formed (Mazurkiewicz, 2015).

In Poland, at the end of the twentieth century, after the systemic transformation in 1989, there was a debate regarding the concept of the headteacher's role: whether s/he was supposed to be more of a teacher or a manager. This discussion ended with a partial compromise - the headteacher was meant to be the "first teacher

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3.   Authors and researchers, such as (I will mention only a few names): Thomas Sergiovanni, Carl D. Glickman, Arthur Costa, John I. Goodlad, Linda Lambert, Rodney Ogawa, Kenneth Leithwood, Andy Hargreaves, John MacBeath, Mike Bottery and many others.

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at school", as well as fulfil the function of a manager (Więsław, 2011). Unfortunately, the concept of educational leadership has not penetrated into the mainstream way of thinking about the role of the headteacher and other leaders functioning in the education system. There is not, and never was, a coherent educational leadership policy in Poland, nor universal and professional discourse. At most, there are some individual attempts, or sporadic - and therefore non-systemic- initiatives, which are focusing mainly on research, less on designing educational leadership, which is barely visible[4].

There is, however, a dispute regarding what is best for pupils and students; what works in schools. Despite multiple attempts to reform the education system, as well as the extensive literature created on the basis of scientific research, it has not been possible to create a stable and coherent model of agreed and commonly used educational practices. The problem of fluctuation of ideas regarding education is faced by societies all around the world. Invariably, in many countries, but not necessarily in Poland, placing educational leadership at the centre of all reforms is one of the main postulates proposed to instigate the change in education, so that it becomes adequate and responsive to the needs of humanity. These voices present the widely shared, though often differently understood belief, that it is educational leadership which has the greatest potential in designing and implementing the expected changes. Without it, it is impossible to change anything (English, Papa, Mullen, Creighton, 2012).

It has been especially emphasised that educational leadership should focus on creating various conditions for learning. This is much

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4.   One should mention researchers such as Antoni Jeżowski, Jarosław Kordziński, Stefan M. Kwiatkowski, and Joanna Madalińska-Michalak, whose research and creative efforts are associated with educational leadership, but unfortunately their works do not yet create a mature culture, discourse or even a coherent voice of researchers that would have a strong influence on the educational practice. It is also worth mentioning the project „*Przywództwo i zarządzanie w oświacie – opracowanie i wdrożenie systemu kształcenia i doskonalenia dyrektorów szkół/placówek*" (Leadership and management in education - development and implementation of the education and professional development system for headteachers of schools/educational institutions) implemented by the Jagiellonian University (Department of Management in Education, Institute of Public Affairs, Faculty of Management and Social Communication) in partnership with ORE (Centre for Education Development) in 2013 -2015, the aim of which was to propose a new leadership model, as well as educate and train leaders (unfortunately, after achieving the project objectives and running a pilot programme, no measures were taken to put these models into practice).

more important than any other managerial functions, bureaucratic goals or accountability of teachers and students. The difficulty lies in not revisiting the old, tried and tested models, but instead to create new models in anticipation of future needs. It will not be possible to design teaching and learning processes or to introduce a new educational leadership model without taking into account, for example, the development of new technologies and the impact they have on societies. It is not enough to merely 'own' or 'have access' to them, it is also necessary to incorporate the new technologies into the thought process as well as into the learning and management processes.

On the one hand, educational leadership uses knowledge to try to understand reality, formulate a critical analysis and take adequate action. On the other hand, it accepts the ambiguity and complexity of the school environment. It does not try to judge or pass judgments, does not make the mistake of micro-managing or introducing ready-made solutions wherever there is a need for reflection. Each change additionally increases the ambiguity and uncertainty for the individuals involved in relation to the significance of the upcoming changes. One way to reduce the anxiety around educational change is to involve teachers in the process of designing those changes. Teachers know best what they need in order to help students learn. It is therefore imperative that they engage in the leadership process. The school can become a self-managing organisation only if the managers can avoid the temptation to lead this process (Hoyle, Wallace, 2005).

Educational leadership which is focused on learning requires an understanding of the teaching and learning process[5]. It is necessary to build an organisational culture of schools that is focused on the processes of learning, teaching and development. A group or a learning community which is cultivating knowledge regarding how we learn and develop is the most important goal when designing leadership tasks and processes. This type of community also understands the connections between applied concrete pedagogical practice and

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5.   It is not my goal to present the latest achievements in this field, but it is difficult to imagine success in this area without internalised knowledge, information and guidance from such sources as the results of research by John Hatti or the OECD publication entitled: The Nature of Learning: Using Research to Inspire Practice.

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theoretical perspectives. Furthermore, it utilises evaluation in order to measure the effects of those practices.

The measure of the professionalism of educational leaders is their continuous learning, investment in development and hard work, not the talents obtained as a result of the genetic lottery. This is especially true when it comes to the leadership potential existing within groups of people, not the ability or charisma of individuals. In the traditional way of thinking about leadership, the role of a leader was normally reserved for outstanding individuals (usually men), who were historically, unfortunately, mostly unsuccessful, or in the end led to failures or even humanitarian catastrophes. Educational leadership of the 21st century should emerge from cooperation, solidarity and respect for others, and it should also involve as many allies as possible. Leadership should be learned. Leadership potential is constantly being developed and acquired, and its specificity stems from context and from the responsible way of responding to this context. That is why it is so difficult to set one defining, uniform leadership pattern. There is also no single scenario for educational leadership, although there are specific elements from which leadership can be built. Eric Hoyle and Mike Wallace (2005, p. 23) are keen to stress that one should accept the idea of the ambiguity and uncertainty that fills those who are going off the beaten track. It is difficult to fully understand new ways of operating before you try them out. Nobody knows how to work differently before they actually start doing it. No amount of preparation will help, because knowledge of how to do something differently only emerges from new methods of working.

Critical thinking and reflection on the state of the world are the starting points. Educational leadership should lead to constant reflection on the conditions for functioning of schools, accepted values and needs of the community which the school serves, social tendencies, philosophy and the approach to the learning process. This reflection results in activities which are adequate for the context. In an organisation with high leadership potential, there are prevailing beliefs about the sensibility of activities carried out at school, the desire to seek new solutions and an acceptance of the possibility of mistakes resulting from being active, not from being negligent.

Educational leadership constantly demands, and indeed supports itself on, the participation of all employees, as well as students and

parents, in both the dialogue and the decision-making process. Through this, the directions of the school's operation are defined. The reality of schools cannot be changed by precepts, but only by working together and building an organisational culture in the day-to-day struggle with reality. Leaders can understand the needs and emotions of others, but they are also aware of themselves, which allows them to serve people without fear of losing their prestige, and with the conviction that they will not achieve success without full commitment. Such leaders act primarily for the benefit of others, support them in their development and care for their well-being. Being of service requires people and organisations to be focused on the implementation of the vision and the long-term success and requires the perception of goals related to the community and the environment (Bezzina, Madalińska-Michalak, 2014). They do not work in isolation, but in a group that is able to take on leadership duties depending on the situation and needs. Educational leadership should be a group experience as well as a democratic one.

Educational leadership is also linked with respect for autonomy and diversity, even if it is difficult to accept, different from the mainstream. Leaders, therefore, try to use the potential of everyone, especially those whose differences seem to be a hindrance to the organisation's work. Various perspectives, customs and, above all, values, combined with a skilful approach to the situation of diversification, can support an organisation's development (Mazurkiewicz, 2015).

Let's not focus on the reorganisation of the hierarchical structures, but on encouraging teachers and students to work with the current leaders and managers to make the learning process more adequate to the context that it exists in. This is a postulate of those educational leaders that are also educators who are trying to find ways to add energy to the debates on the subject of pedagogy, not law or finances. Let's give leadership to teachers (i.e. the headteachers as well), giving them freedom, calling forth and reminding them that it is the teachers who have unique knowledge regarding the teaching process and the school itself, as an organisation. It will probably also increase their involvement in the process of introducing changes and give them a chance to differentiate their career paths (English, Papa, Mullen, Creighton, 2012, p. 101-107).

Unfortunately, it will not be possible to implement the above postulates in real life without the presence of trust within the society and its institutions. Trust is an essential condition for the emergence of management and leadership that benefits organisations, the people working in them, and society as a whole. Trust enables and strengthens credibility and predictability in relationships between people and organisations. In principle, we trust that others will do what is expected of them and that they will do it in a fair, just and transparent way. When we trust each other, we are also willing to trust the other person, even when there is some misunderstanding, because when we trust others, we believe that we will both be willing and able to solve those misunderstandings. From the perspective of a "something for something" economic exchange, trust reduces risk, increases innovation and is necessary during all negotiations (Cerna, 2015).

Trust occurs when the competences of those involved and the values that influence people's behaviour are visible.

It is then possible to encourage others to support educational leadership aimed at building a common vision in schools which is focused on the learning process of all students and employees, to demand cooperation and learning as a group, to build a culture of reflection through conducting research, evaluation, data collection and looking into the school and its surroundings.

Let's face the truth – about what irks us

It is difficult to understand the co-relations between the school and society if it is not understood how society is built and according to what mechanisms. On the contrary, it is impossible to understand how the school and the teaching profession evolved, how students behave, or how the model of school administration and leadership developed, if one does not understand society. It is only the process of making continuous attempts to understand the world, which gives an opportunity to all of those working in the field of education to become reflective practitioners and to be able to look critically at what they are involved in. Our world is so diverse that it is difficult for teachers and educational leaders to fulfil their tasks without a social, or rather, a sociological perspective. The first stage of reflections on the relationship between the school and society can consist only of realising the interdependent levels of analysis of this relationship. This

is a necessary step in understanding the extent to which all actions, and therefore also reforms of the education system or areas such as educational leadership, depend on a wider social context.

The first level consists of the general social structures, including the political and economic systems, the level of social development, the system of social stratification and institutionalised inequalities. It is at this level that the dominant structures and social ideologies are shaped, according to which educational systems are built, and subsequently, the decisions regarding the organisation of school work or curricula are formed. The second level is the institutional level, which includes institutions such as: family, church, politics, government, companies, all sorts of business entities, media and, of course, schools. At this level, specific dilemmas are being resolved and questions regarding educational structures, theoretical concepts and educational ideologies are being answered. The third level is the interpersonal level, containing processes, symbols, interactions, gestures, rituals and habits on which everyday life depends. This is the realm in which the expectations of teachers towards pupils, each other, men, women, children, various professions or social roles, as well as towards the school as a workplace, are shaped. Thousands of interactions shape the school's reality. The fourth level is the internal, mental level, consisting of the beliefs, convictions, thoughts, values, feelings shaped by social institutions and interactions, which are to a large extent shared in groups (at least the dominant ones). Also included are ideas about oneself. All of this affects the cognitive processes and understanding of what the learning processes and outcomes are (see Sadovnik, Cookson, and Semel, 2006).

One of the most important processes, which shaped the existing social structures and ideologies, i.e. the first level of analysis of the school-society relationship was industrialisation, which had an impact from its very beginnings in the second half of the 18th century. The expansion of public education is closely related to it. The importance of education was obvious - more 'instruction' made sure that people would be less prone to superstition and more orderly at the same time. With the development of industry, the support for public education increased, turning something that was very elitist into something widely available. It was industrialisation which introduced the basics of exact and natural sciences to schools. Just prior to industrialisation, the main tasks of the school were to strengthen the civic spirit and social control. In any case,

education was not in the slightest the subject of any interest for the entrepreneurs, capitalists or managers of the early industrial era. Skills were acquired through apprenticeships or on account of social capital; meaning the people with whom one worked or lived. In the United Kingdom, for example, public lectures and membership of scientific societies were of greater importance for the dissemination of scientific thought (Carl, 2009).

Nevertheless, the demands of making education available to the masses became more and more popular due to the growing demand for child labour, as well as the fact that the majority of the population working in the fledgling industrial sector had no education at all. The technological changes of the first industrial revolution contributed to enormous social changes, especially among the poorest members of the working class. By changing their place of residence and by assigning them new tasks in factories which differed from the agricultural duties previously familiar to them, their pre-industrial experiences, traditions, wisdom and morality were taken away from them. There was, therefore, a need to offer them something in return. The reformers therefore focused on building an education network for everyone. However, both industrialisation and mass education very quickly contributed to the deepening of class differences. Workers called for strengthening of the primary schools. The middle class focused on the secondary schools and universities for their own children while simultaneously supporting the opinion that the primary schools were more appropriate for the masses. The admiration of mass schools linked education with the factories. In the nineteenth century, attempts were made to find ways to create the cheapest possible education for as many children as possible. At the same time, it was argued that hundreds of children of different ages and different levels of readiness could be taught in one classroom thanks to the division of work used in the intellectual process (Carl, 2009). This belief over the years has affected the organisation of the educational systems and the education process. Nowadays, it is difficult to introduce changes in the realm of educational leadership as well. Deeply ingrained customs, supported by strong, although often unconscious beliefs, make reforms difficult to implement.

Looking at the first level, this cultural and organisational software of the mind , as Geert Hofstede (2000) called it, it is impossible not to notice that from the end of the 20th century it dominates the

neo-liberal vision of the world, social systems, and thus education, according to which all elements of the social system are dependent on the economic decisions regulated by the free market. Additionally, almost imperceptibly, the assumption was made that competition is the only lawful principle organising social life. Most policies and practices remain under the overwhelming influence of the global economy, which means that we see social and economic trends as unavoidable events resulting from the process of uncontrollable evolution impacted by the invisible hand of the market. In addition, although neo-liberalism, like many other concepts, is man's creation, we seem to have forgotten this fact and have begun to treat its tenets as objective truths. As a result, social injustice is also treated as an effect of objective processes and is associated with the potential of individuals, not with systemic solutions. Therefore, when it comes to education, there is a belief in free choice and promotion of the autonomy of schools. This autonomy, unfortunately, concerns not so much the matters pertaining to education, as the fight for the 'client', with the deep conviction that healthy competition has only a positive impact on education (Fielding, Moss, 2011). In this situation, the main reform trends refer to market models based on deregulation and privatisation (Ball, 2007) or, as is recently the case in Poland, the trends focus on the structural aspects of the education system, which are considered irrelevant from the perspective of social development. This makes the implementation of the above-mentioned direction of educational leadership's development almost impossible, but on the other hand it justifies even more strongly the expectations placed on leaders to engage in the process of rebuilding social solidarity and using education as a route towards social change.

The second institutional level and the third interpersonal level are largely connected, as institutions are created by people, and people acquire knowledge and shape their habits by operating in institutions. What happens in the institutions and between people, outside of educational context, affects the organisational solutions and the nature of the relationships in education. Regardless of whether we believe that the actions of individuals are determined by external conditions or that individuals can quite freely shape the reality in which they function, while acting in the area of education one should always be aware of social circumstances. Leaning towards the position that people have free will and the ability to shape reality in accordance with their own

suppositions (realised or not), I assume, however, that this occurs in the conditions specific for a given place and time in the history. Despite making autonomous choices, people remain subject to certain influence by external forces.

These different contexts, different people with different experiences and visions as well as different effects of the human interactions, cause each school to be very different from another, even when they function in similar countries, cultures or places. I have in mind here the factors influencing organisational culture, such as the professionalism of teachers or management style, which then determine how people in schools react to successes and failures, to the suggestions of changes; how the roles of students and teachers are perceived; what type of learning and teaching styles dominate or how decisions are made. This diversity causes specific consequences. On the one hand it grants the opportunity to try out different solutions and to learn from one another. On the other hand, it contributes to the lack of coherence in the educational system. If this diversity does not find a platform on which to communicate, it will never be used for the purpose of learning but will instead cause fragmentation. In those instances, different approaches to proposed reforms and completely different ways of implementing them emerge, and finally, something that is the subject of discussion in this text, occurs: the impossibility of introduction, and in a sense 'inhabitation' of the previously described educational leadership in schools.

The reasons for this 'dispersion' are known. First of all, the majority of social and political assumptions regarding education stem from the past; both from the naive-idyllic times and from the times of the aforementioned industrial revolution. Despite their distinct differences, in both cases the images are dominated by the black and white and deeply simplified views as to the role of the school and how it can or should function. The naive version refers to the small, often rural schools, where teachers ruled unilaterally and independently, spreading their maternal or paternal care around children of various ages, mostly with no ambitions to study abroad, to attain a PhD or to secure a well-paid job as a professional. Teachers in this type of school were responsible not only for the teaching, but also for the maintenance of it (cleaning, minor repairs etc). It was a type of 'service' work, low paid, but highly respected (Lortie, 1975). Everything that was going on at

the school depended upon the teacher. If the given teacher wanted to teach something, they taught it, and if they were teaching it in their class, it was happening all over the school, because that class was the whole school.

This heritage of independence, isolation and privatisation of pedagogical practice remains visible in most of the schools today. Instead of one class per school, nowadays there are a number of classes, but equally isolated, as was the case with the small schools. Teachers, for the better part of the day, only see their pupils in their class. Although teachers are no longer separated by kilometres, this mental distance still affects the way they think and act. Unfortunately, the practice of privacy, popular in many schools, has nothing to do with the research results which indicate that students are more likely to succeed in those schools where the teachers are encouraged to cooperate and to conduct professional dialogue, thereby reducing their isolation (Glickman, Gordon, Ross-Gordon, 2013, p. 17). Effective schools are schools in which teaching is a collective activity, in other words, is the type of activity that modern educational leaders are encouraged to undertake. Unfortunately, attempts to introduce elements of cooperation, learning from critical reflection, exchange of experiences and observation of others into those schools which cultivate the traditions of the past will be doomed to failure. This will occur especially as school traditions are strengthened by the beliefs shaped in society, and which recognise rivalry, competition, rankings and privatisation of experiences as useful and serving development.

In order to build a learning community that is jointly and critically reflecting on its actions, it is necessary to minimalize the aforementioned isolation and individualism. Robert Dreeben (1973) already indicated almost half a century ago how much the architecture of the given school, the isolated classes or the organisation of the day make it difficult for teachers to observe one another at work. Several minutes of contact with their peers during the day does not allow teachers to build knowledge about how others teach, or how to work with students at school. Both architectural and organisational solutions are the legacy of times when teachers worked alone in isolated, small school buildings or taught in large schools according to the patterns modelled on what was currently happening in industry. There are also psychological consequences resulting from such isolation. Among the

teachers who, after all, did not consciously choose such a form of work at the beginning of their career, one can notice a tendency to limit their responsibility only to their 'own' class, their own pupils, their own actions and, consequently, to resist cooperation and dialogue with other teachers (Glickman, Gordon, Ross-Gordon, 2013, p. 18).

Those beginnings of mass schools which are strongly embedded in our culture (I am thinking here about the European and American context) have contributed to the building and strengthening of beliefs that are fundamental to education, expressed in the form of isolation, routine activities, inadequate introduction to the teaching profession, inequality, lack of appropriate stages of professional development, lack of professional dialogue, lack of commitment to the decision-making process, lack of a shared professional culture and in the form of conservatism of the teaching staff. Many people working in the education sector are convinced that these are inseparable features of schools and, even if they do not like them, they do not protest, nor do they try to change the reality that disappoints them (Glickman, Gordon, Ross-Gordon, 2013).

Another effect of the specifics of teachers' work is the simplification of reality and their own activity, reducing it to procedures, well-known methods or simple techniques. During the course of the day, each teacher meets from several dozen to several hundred students and engages in countless interactions of a different character: asks questions, answers questions, gives instructions, checks and controls, disciplines, and at the same time works with the awareness that all these activities are to lead to students' learning, which will be subjected to external evaluation processes. Being aware of the difficulties of their own task and the comprehensiveness of the teaching and learning process, teachers usually postulate giving themselves more time for specific tasks, reducing the number of students within the class, but also, often for the benefit of their own mental health, they reduce these tasks to routine activities where there is no room for critical reflection, cooperation or dialogue with others. Accustomed to the procedures, a bit bored, but feeling confident in the working style developed over the years, teachers are reluctant to respond to calls for critical reflection in the context of education, the condition of the world of the school, and at the same time they perceive, rightly so, that taking responsibility for what is happening at school can be highly dangerous. Educational

leaders should be aware of the determinants and inherited mental models of teachers about what their work looks like, and subsequently ask themselves, to what extent the practices which were considered acceptable in the past can still be deemed adequate in today's situation, but also, to what extent it is possible to implement practices which seem useful today.

Carl Glickman and his associates (2013) indicate an inadequate introduction of teachers to the profession as one of the reasons why the traditional (but nowadays useless) understanding of the school and education is preserved. This also involves the institutional solutions. In this very difficult profession, it is those who are at the beginning of their career who tend to work in the worst conditions. Due to the fact they often cannot yet manoeuvre in the school's network of social connections, they do not have access to the resources which are available to more experienced teachers; they end up in the least popular classrooms and with the equipment that others did not want. It often transpires that they are assigned the most difficult tasks, teaching or becoming a form tutor in large classes or working with pupils perceived as being challenging in their behaviour, often burdened with bureaucratic duties, all of which can be perceived as a kind of 'baptism' or rite of passage into a new job. We encounter a belief that this is an indispensable element of the socialisation to the profession, which is a specific selection mechanism that allows the emergence of the strongest individuals and development of appropriate habits. Without the support of the management and experienced staff, novice teachers complain about the lack of clearly delineated expectations towards them, lack of clear instructions and guidance, and being left with no support to deal with the demands of various groups (management, students, teachers, parents). The shock associated with entering this reality contributes to embitterment and abandonment of the ideals or vision of education which they initially brought to the school. The fear that they are completely unprepared for unexpected duties paralyzes many beginner teachers, which in effect leads to their passivity, a worse opinion of students and themselves, professional burnout, and often results in them leaving the profession.

We are struggling with similar problems in the area of educational leadership. Headteachers and other individuals holding educational leadership functions in Poland create an educational environment in

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an intuitive way, without proper training or embedment of their own practice in scientific research. Fearing comparisons and criticisms, the leaders create the appearance of acting for the realisation of worthwhile objectives and in a way that is useful to their students. At the same time, they are heavily burdened with the workload, because, by using the word 'appearance', I do not mean a situation in which these people do not work, but rather, I state that they work hard, but at the same time, in an irrational manner (Mazurkiewicz, 2012).

An educational leader is a person who cares for the professional development of teachers, deals with the development of teachers and the provision of the appropriate conditions for its occurrence. Such an individual regularly visits all teachers, observes them, discusses things with them, organises and conducts meetings, provides feedback, monitors, supports teachers and aids the cooperation between them, facilitates the training process, cares for sensible evaluation and reflection, respectively designs and manages the decision-making process that involves teachers and pertains to teaching and learning, helps to create and to coordinate the school curricula, co-creates the school atmosphere and motivates others, helps people to set up a vision of education, and deals with many other tasks focused on teaching and the learning process. Unfortunately, in modern reality, there is usually no time for all of this, for a variety of reasons which I will not delve into, although some of them have already been raised earlier. If the headteacher deals with something that he or she considers important in school, it rarely concerns the learning and teaching process.

Most of the headteachers who participated in my research entitled: *Przywództwo edukacyjne – modele mentalne* (Educational Leadership - Mental Models) from 2012 listed controlling the work of the teachers (!) (As if the teachers themselves were not responsible professionals) among the most commonly mentioned headteacher's tasks, alongside taking care of finances and managing the day to day functioning of the school, which in practice, however, mainly meant taking care of the school infrastructure, such as working conditions, repairs, extensions of the school buildings, equipment, and additionally ensuring the existence of the appropriate documentation. Such activities are aimed at ensuring the safety of themselves and teachers rather than the intellectual development of students (Mazurkiewicz, 2012).

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Nowadays, when disappointment associated with education systems increases, the school administration is also being criticised, however alternative ways of administration are still sought after. After all, we want to believe that the leaders of the schools are not only a structural element of the education system, but also an instrument for change, a tool of all reforms (English, Papa, Mullen, Creighton, 2012). From what I am trying to present here, with a significant degree of difficulty, it follows that the mental models, serving as thought structures which are helping us to understand reality and professional duties, hinder, rather than help to realise the belief in the potential of 'new' educational leadership.

It is worth mentioning yet another element which is shaped in the historical process of the development of education systems, influencing the schools and determining the effectiveness of the introduced changes. This element is the discipline and obedience that we expect from citizens, employees and students. Our societies demand discipline. The institution which is a model example of utilising discipline for its smooth functioning was, and still is, the army. The school system accepted various procedures for subordinating people developed in the army. Michel Foucault (2009, p. 131-157) has emphasised the political utility of various techniques for controlling and manipulating society. Schools were a link in a chain of procedures focused on isolation, segregation and order which were designed for the army, with its hierarchy, plans, time management, buildings and equipment. They were designed as highly specialised mechanisms, or even factories of teaching and training. Supervision has become an important economic factor, an integral part of the production process, combined with political power. Exams were introduced to categorise students in accordance with their abilities and behaviours, which then determined their place in the social stratification. The obsession with controlling time has influenced pedagogical practice and a vision of life in which learning has been separated from adult life and work.

Thanks to an education system which has been organised in such a fashion, modern industrial societies have been slotted into a framework of procedures aimed at the accumulation of capital and adoption of management procedures which have allowed the costly and brutal protocols derived from military traditions to be detached from everyday life and transformed into more subtle subordination

techniques (Foucault, 2009, pp. 178-187). In schools presenting obedience as a desirable value and a personality trait, the hegemony of the bourgeois, as well as that of the dominant ideology, was strengthened. Subconsciously, therefore, today we value discipline and subordination towards the imposed order more than daring reformatory ideas, innovativeness or the creativity that we so much demand and expect in schools. The domination of the free market, methods of work organisation derived from industry, isolation, lack of contact with other professionals, rivalry, control, division and manipulation -- the effects of these phenomena can still be experienced today.

Swimming against the current

No reform will be easy. It is, however, essential. I will not propose anything new, but it is not straightforward. I think that the school, just like society, nowadays, needs to change the paradigm according to which it operates. This will not be achieved by individuals, politicians or experts. Even if they had the best ideas that, when implemented, would bring the expected results, it would still not work. Deep change requires legitimacy in the process of deliberation and co-deciding. Not in a referendum, but in painful, albeit democratic, negotiations. We are not sure what kind of school we need, but this is not a problem. There are quite a few different proposals that we can and should consider. Let's not do it behind the closed doors of politician's and expert's offices. We require a widespread and serious conversation about the values of democracy, solidarity and justice. It is necessary to talk about why we need schools, what goals should they pursue, how they are supposed achieve them. Educational leadership can help in finding answers to these questions, but also to the problems posed at the beginning, relating to the natural environment, inequality, diversity, economy and democracy.

Let's initiate the talks and work on the reconstruction of the dominant metaphor of education. The metaphor describing education as a production process should not continue to dominate the discourse on the design and practice of education. This is difficult to achieve in a world that constantly reproduces the visions of industrial society. However, constant economic growth, built on exploitation, does not have to be our goal; discipline and obedience do not have to be our fate; the appearance of democracy - our destiny; a stranger is not necessarily

a threat, and the natural environment is not an inexhaustible resource. Education systems and schools can become places open to democratic practices, where people want and can take the responsibility for themselves and for others.

We know that we need democratic societies in which engaged citizens cooperate to carry out tasks for balanced development and social cohesion. People want to do things for their own development and for the benefit of others, and not just to maintain their job. They no longer want to work in organisations which have been built based on the model of a factory and production line (Godin, 2008). We are, however, stuck somewhere between the fear of the unknown, or of making a mistake, and the traditional mental models and solutions which may have been useful in the past, but have latterly ceased to be so. We should encourage ourselves and others to heresy, to challenge the belief that this is "how it should be". Let's focus on those who dare to question the *status quo*. Everyone can lead, and leadership is not difficult, but we have been persuaded to avoid it (Mazurkiewicz, 2015). Calling for talks, encouraging our peers to contest the existing order and getting involved in the building of a new one is a risky activity today, and certainly not very effective. It is not only Poland that is divided by strong internal conflicts, not only Poland that is struggling with establishing good relations with foreign partners, it is a global problem. However, we have no other choice.

There is no room for quick solutions. We need to be reorganised so that we can decide for ourselves what is happening around us. Self-organisation requires effort, time and determining what is most important. The truth comes together through dialogue (Tischner, 2009). Democratic society is a society in which the purpose of education is not imposed from the outside, but is subject to constant discussion and deliberation (Biesta, 2007). Driving this discussion cannot be solely the task of the education sector. It is necessary to involve larger social groups and their leaders, citizens, organisations, associations, politicians, and finally global society that maybe, at last, will show the political will to include education in the mainstream deliberations regarding the future of humanity. This conversation should be led by educational leaders, that is, the teachers who understand the needs of modern societies, see the need to transform schools and are not afraid of the responsibility associated with leadership. In this way, the postulates

of Paolo Freire (1993) concerning dialogue will be implemented. Freire argued that dialogue is not a way to exchange information, but an existential necessity, because through dialogue we create reality, which.

Dialogue is a rare commodity in today's world. Societies polarise, and the language of public debate is escalating, limiting exchanges with the 'enemy camp' to hostile polemics. But dialogue, as an act of creation, cannot serve the domination of some over others. Dialogue cannot exist in the absence of love for the world and its people. As an act of courage, love cannot be sentimental, and as an act of freedom it cannot be used to manipulate. Dialogue cannot exist without humility. Dialogue breaks down if the parties lack humility. Dialogue requires faith in humanity, belief in the possibility of building and rebuilding the world (Freire, 1993, pp. 69-73). We need dialogue. Where, then, to initiate dialogue, if not in and around schools?

Young people must have the chance to achieve successes in their personal lives and at work, but they must also have ideals. Teaching for freedom and democracy is teaching respect for yourself and others, expressed in the ability to carry out activities adequate to the context, in accordance with accepted principles. Therefore, the most urgent task of the leadership in education is creation of space for authentic dialogue, enabling the emergence of critical communities of citizens aware of the importance of their interactions in the process of the transformation of reality. The school will never again be a place detached from reality, somewhat farcical in the way it is stuck in the past, boring with its bureaucracy and its minor conflicts about the core curriculum, a bit horrifying because of the way it is wasting the time and the energy of people, who instead of sitting at school desks could be changing our fate in the real world. The educational leadership of the future is a 3D leadership - sharing power, implemented in dialogue, serving democratisation – swimming against the current, but sensibly.

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2

Teacher Leadership – Perspectives and Inspirations

Teacher leadership - legal premises

Antoni J. Jeżowski

Research and projects carried out at the nexus between science and educational practice show that antinomy of school management and educational leadership has been observed for some time, now. On the one hand this issue is determined by the legal framework governing education in Poland, and on the other, a great interest in deformalising the management of Polish schools in favour of a more humanistic educational leadership has been observed. Yet, the questions arise: are the two approaches mutually exclusive? Does the management preclude the use of techniques and styles typical for leaders and conversely should leaders never, in any situation (or should not they) take any action typical for managers? The analysis of selected fragments of legislation in these areas leads to interesting conclusions.

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Introduction

In the life of the school, formal leadership resulting from legislation is important, but informal leadership is equally significant, because it affects the way teachers get on with their colleagues and students and the roles they play in and out of school. Due to the large diversification of roles teachers can play, they can find the ones that best suit their competences, talents and interests, as well as their personal needs and needs of the school. Regardless of their roles, teachers-leaders create the culture of their schools, enhance learning by their students and impact on the work of other teachers (Madalińska-Michalak, 2012; Madalińska-Michalak, 2015).

At Polish schools, leaders need to fight their way, as the legislation binding in the country focuses more on setting tasks for teachers than on regulating specific situations and recommending specific courses of action. This is most probably an outcome of the command and control system dating back to the 1940s. For example, in the past era it was easier to operate a centralised system of pedagogic supervision, because the activities both of the supervised and supervisory bodies boiled down to running a simple binary system - any interpretations, clarifications, explanations and justifications were inessential. Without any doubt, this is putting it simply, but the author is saying that from his personal experience as a teacher and a staff member of a supervisory institution (acting in the capacity as an instructor).

Political transformation has brought the postulates for the autonomy of school organisation and operation, and as a result the autonomy of teachers and headteachers. Teachers have gained independence, but have not been given relevant powers. What is more, even nominal independence causing some sort of action was immediately altered by the expectations of the environment, and in particular by the parents who finally became empowered and who always had some ideas about teachers' work. Given this freedom, parents became vocal and even sometimes ruthless. However, headteachers were granted great powers; apart from managing the school, they have finally been authorised to hire teachers (previously it was a power of the Department of Education) (but not to fire them), manage school's 'own' financial resources, administer property, etc. As soon as they completed training courses in education management and relevant postgraduate studies and grasped the topic, did they realise how much energy, work and

responsibility this area of their activity involved and how their freedom was limited. They started to hear signals, and later clear calls to focus also on leadership, as this is what science, Europe and the world expects from them.

This article attempts to present an analysis of a fairly complex new role imposed on teachers and headteachers, which they initially distanced themselves from and sometimes even apprehended. Of course, it goes without saying that at Polish schools teachers, and headteachers in particular, should act as leaders. Let us leave conclusions concerning the challenges and consequences to pedagogues, sociologists, psychologists and even management and marketing professionals. The challenge is to look at the current situation in Polish schools and reflect about the existence of premises for taking such actions, above all, legal ones.

Let us have a look on the outline of comparative studies first.

A short and rather selective analysis of the latest OECD publication entitled *Education at a Glance 2016. OECD Indicators* (OECD, 2017), which has been recently published, can be quoted as an example of such a comparative study. Based on the results of the TALIS and PISA surveys, the authors of the report make an attempt to present the question of educational leadership in a systemic way by making qualitative and quantitative analysis. In 2001, the PISA school questionnaire included 21 questions concerning leadership at school, of which 13 formed the basis for certain indices. In the last school year, headteachers were asked to indicate the frequency of these actions and behaviours in their schools. Six categories of responses included: "They did not occur", "1-2 times a year," "3-4 times a year", "once a month", "once a week", "more often than once a week". The PISA 2012 questionnaire included questions addressed to headmasters about the frequency of different actions and behaviour related to school management (including the participation of teachers in school management) that had taken place in the previous school year (ibid. p. 458).

Headteachers replied to three questions concerning the involvement of teachers in the management of schools: giving staff members opportunities to make decisions concerning the school, involving teachers in building the culture of continuing professional

development at school, and encouraging teachers to participate in the analysis of school management practices. The answers to these three questions were combined to develop an index concerning the participation of teachers in school management. This index has an average value amounting to zero with a standard deviation amounting to one for OECD countries. For example headmasters from Turkey and Brazil reported that teachers were involved in school management to a greater extent, while headteachers from Switzerland, France and in Poland reported that teachers were involved in this activity to a smaller extent. The following figure shows the range between the highest and the lowest values of this indicator.

Figure 1. Index of teacher participation in school management (PISA 2012)
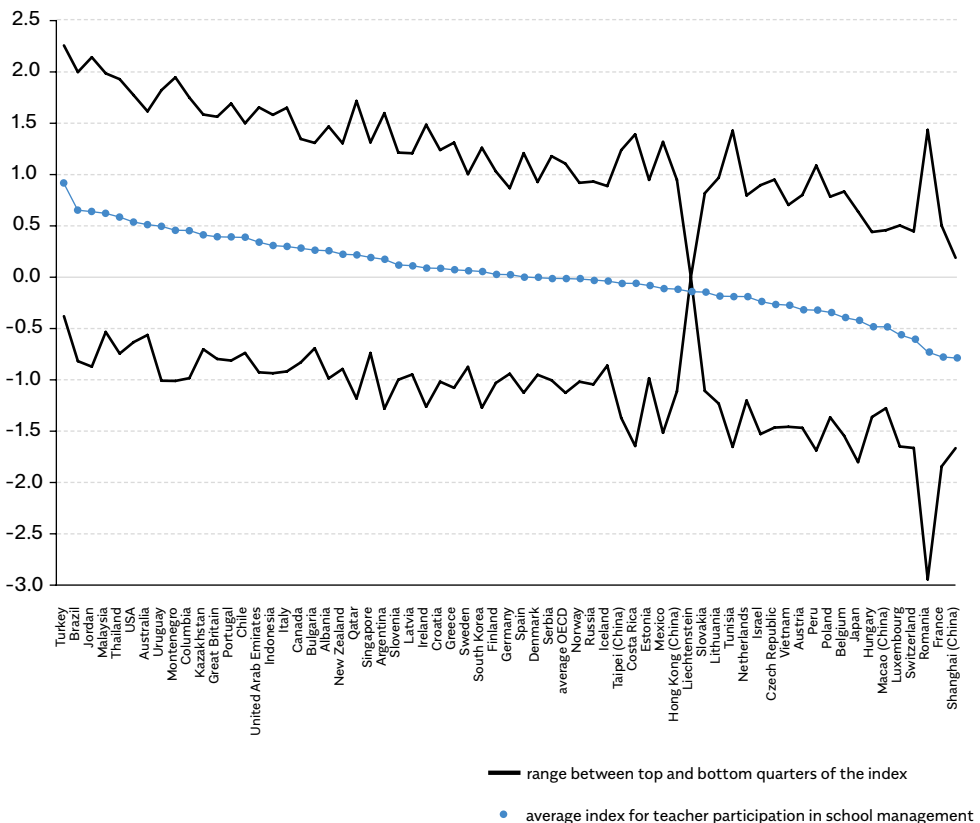
range between top and bottom quarters of the index

average index for teacher participation in school management

Source: Author based on *Education at a Glance 2016. OECD Indicators* (OECD, 2017).

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At the same time, the TALIS data indicates that the headteachers who take part in professional development more often engage in distributed management, although the nature of the activities in the area of professional development associated with distributed management varies in different countries. The same data indicates that when the headteachers show greater commitment to instructional leadership in schools, the teachers are more committed to cooperation. This suggests that if headteachers take action to promote cooperation with teachers aimed at developing new teaching practices, teachers are more inclined to such cooperation.

The authors also note that due to the complex organisation of school's work, headteachers' work more often involves responsibility, which is or should be more widely distributed. Distributed leadership reflects the fact that school management is not the result of headteachers' work alone, but also other people in the organisation can act as leaders (ibid. p. 456). It should be noted that teaching and distributed leadership are considered relevant for creating and supporting professional education communities and for creating climate conducive to learning by students. Instructional leadership includes leadership practices focussing on planning, evaluation, coordination and improvement of teaching and learning, whereas distributed leadership reflects the situation, in which leadership at schools is not only the result of the work of headteachers, but also other members of the organisation act as leaders (ibid. p. 456).

It is also worth quoting another fragment of the above mentioned report devoted to cooperation between headteachers and teachers in the area of pedagogical supervision.

In order to clearly present data on cooperation between headteachers and teachers working at upper secondary schools in Poland as compared to these in other OECD countries (TALIS, 2013, p. 453) it is divided into three separate figures.

Figure 2. The percentage of headteachers declaring that over the 12 months preceding the survey, they "often" or "very often" observed instruction in the classroom
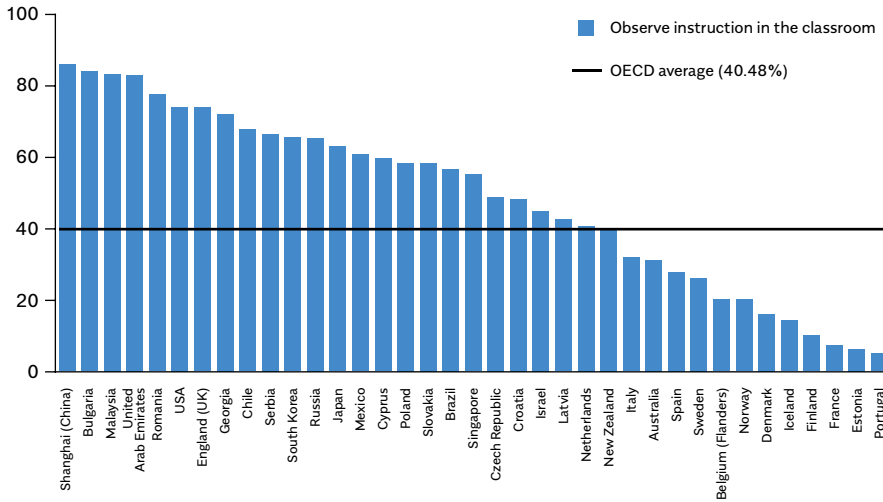
Source: Author based on *Education at a Glance 2016. OECD Indicators* (OECD, 2017).

Figure 3. The percentage of headteachers declaring that over the 12 months preceding the survey, they "often" or "very often" were committed to supporting cooperation between teachers in order to develop new teaching practices
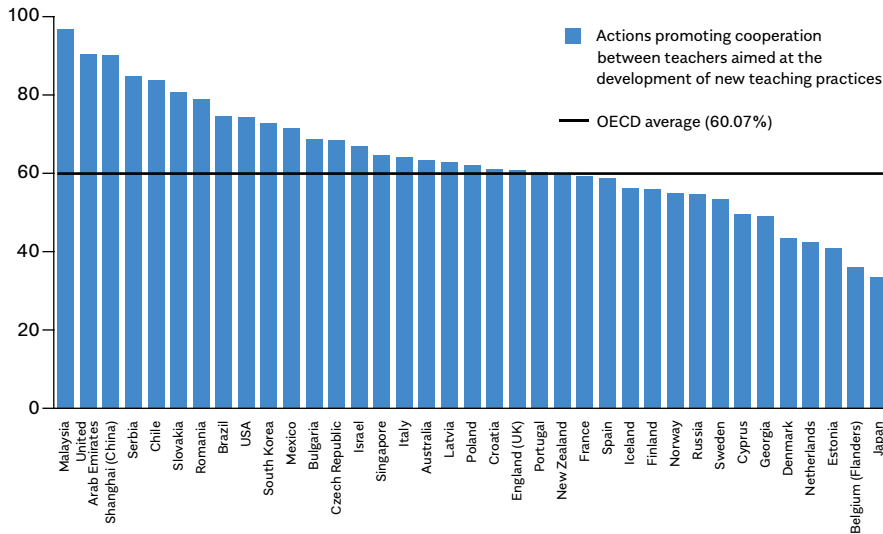
Source: Author based on *Education at a Glance 2016. OECD Indicators* (OECD, 2017).

Figure 4. The percentage of headteachers declaring that over the 12 months preceding the survey, they "often" or "very often" were involved in activities to ensure that teachers take responsibility for improving their teaching skills
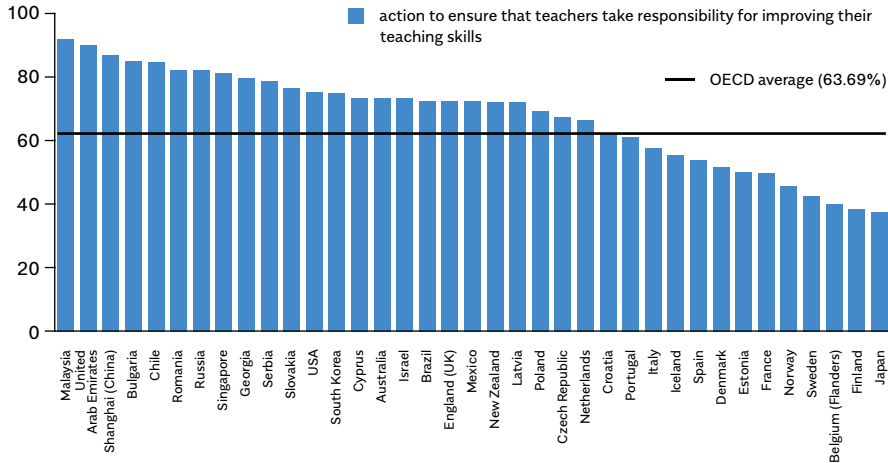
Source: Author based on *Education at a Glance 2016. OECD Indicators* (OECD, 2017).

The figures presented above show that Polish teachers working in this type of schools (upper secondary) in each of the three answers were placed in the group of the countries above the average for developed countries. This is of course a reason for satisfaction in a situation, where - as it has been mentioned - leadership has neither been a priority area for legislation in Poland, nor a topic of political agenda.

At the same time, Polish headteachers highly rated their engagement in using student performance and student evaluation results (including national/international assessments) to develop school's educational goals and programmes. 94.8% of Polish headteachers (OECD average - 89.3%) reported that these activities were conducted on the above basis, while 94.7% of them (OECD average - 77.4%) declared their participation in the drawing of school development plans. As a result (see figure 5), Polish headteachers were included in the group of ten the most engaged headteachers in OECD countries.

So, if OECD's report highly ranks leadership actions in Polish schools, why here and there in this publication you can read about dissatisfaction with it? Is the situation really so good that we cannot

appreciate the strengths of the organisational structure of Polish schools? Or maybe theory and practice do not tally? Are the authors writing about leadership at Polish school familiar with its reality and with relevant legislation, in particular? Or maybe despite nit-picking attitudes and superficial assessments to be found - leadership is at a fairly satisfactory level? Or maybe the perception of teachers differs from that of headteachers, as the above data would suggest?

Figure 5. The participation of headteachers in preparing development plans for upper secondary schools
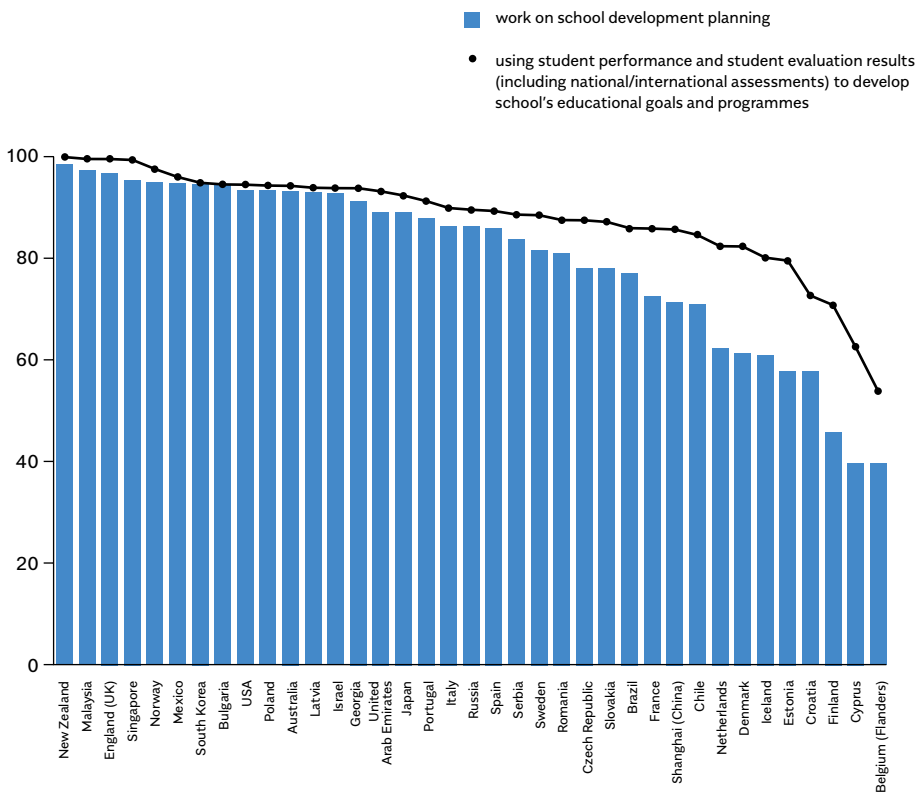
Source: Author based on *TALIS 2013 Results: An International Perspective on Teaching and Learning* (OECD, 2014, p. 454).

However, a few general reflections should be presented.

When having a discussion on leadership, especially in education, where in principle we are dealing with people only and other factors, such as facilities and available funds etc. are of secondary importance, we should ask several questions in order to avoid implicit statements and disappointment. So who is the leader, and educational leader in particular? And what about parents? What role do they play at school in relation to leaders? Do parents-leaders support the school or maybe disrupt its operation?

Another question is legal liability of a headteacher and his/her social responsibility in the role as a leader; Towards whom are they responsible, to what extent, and with what consequences? What are the benchmarks of a perfect, model, and adequate leader and who can be called a hopeless leader? When drafting legislation, we anticipate the future and try to forecast situations to be governed, supported or prevented by the law. Therefore, we set standards of behaviour and determine penalties for breaching them. And what about leaders? Can leaders have criminal, civil or statutory liability? It sometimes happens so that leaders are outside the system, do not participate in the structures or act as tribunes. They can be parents or local activists who impose or force things, but in principle 'are nobodies and come from nowhere'.

The law stipulates over one thousand tasks to be performed by headteachers as part of their every day duties in order to prove that they are good, effective and efficient leaders (Jeżowski, 2009). So what is the relationship between being a leader and performing administrative and managerial tasks? (Jeżowski, Madalińska-Michalak, 2015). Are leaders simple executors of tasks who happen to have charisma? If this is the case, why do we need to complicate things so much? And if this is not the case, where is the 'catch'?

Henryk Mizerek writes: "Market discourse has created an opportunity for aggressive entry of economic jargon into the area of education. In practice, it has replaced the language of contemporary humanities (including pedagogy) as a tool for describing and interpreting the phenomena observed at the school. Today, educational discourse is becoming more of a market discourse. The Truth, Good, Beauty - the triad of values to be fostered by the school is being supplanted by a new trinity - Customer, Market, Service. The key categories of

pedagogy have been replaced by economic concepts. Education processes have been reduced to mere provision of services. Schools as providers of educational services compete against one another in a free market. Students and parents have been replaced by consumers (until recently called "clients"). The metaphor of the school as 'the temple of knowledge' or 'education clinic' would be soon replaced by the metaphor of 'edumarket'" (Mizerek, 2012, p. 17). It is really difficult to present sensible counter-arguments for such statements. Should headteachers of Polish schools disregard the requirements imposed on them by the law and focus on ideas? Surely, these are important and fundamental, but we must remember that not all students share the view that they go to school to pursue the Truth, Good and Beauty. Maybe this was the case when the school was optional, but today it is compulsory...

Sometimes, you can have an impression that an educational leader is more of an ideal, an intellectual structure developed in the minds of theoreticians who seem slightly detached from reality. And we must admit that it is difficult to find models and examples in practice. Perhaps the presence of educational leaders in postulative descriptions of Polish system of education results from the imperative to root this role in Polish reality in order that we can be perceived as more European or worldly-wise. However, in the light of Brexit, following British example and transplanting English terms into Polish may not be the best idea.

Also another question appears: are Polish teachers capable of being leaders? Or maybe what they do is only directing educational and care taking processes, as they are no longer just the transmitters of encyclopaedic knowledge. But suspecting them of leadership inclinations? And another question: are headteachers of Polish schools true leaders? Are they fit and theoretically or mentally prepared for that role? Does the appointment to the position take into account prospective leadership function? Or maybe there is an attempt to impose a new role on the currently acting headteachers? A few years ago, professor Madalińska-Michalak and I tried to reconcile these seemingly contradictory positions in a not very extensive, but important study entitled: *Dyrektor szkoły – koncepcje i wyzwania. Między teorią a praktyką* (Headmasters - concepts and challenges. Between theory and practice) (Jeżowski, Madalińska-Michalak, 2015). It was an attempt at a syncretic combination of the two approaches showing that they

do need to be contradictory, and to the contrary, can beautifully complement each other at Polish schools.

The dilemma about whether we need 'in-house' leaders who are committed to leadership activity on full-time basis or whether leadership can be form of professional duties accompanying the tasks, which are precisely stipulated by the law will probably remain unsolved. Or maybe on the contrary, in order to be credible, leaders must work hard in the area of management to prove that they are effective and there is no contradiction in the fact that a leader not only shows the way, but also follows the set path, because they are well prepared for all surprises that may be encountered as a result of new legal regulations, for example.

Hence the dilemma: whether a headteacher's role is to manage (Griffin, 2004) and/or be in charge (Stoner, Wankel, 1994) and administer (e.g. personal data) or to lead? In Polish reality, the question is if the meaning of the term *management* (too much) associated with the production of goods and provision of services? This term may denote profit orientation, which in the case of a school may be inappropriate. And how does this relate to legal solutions binding in Poland and every day work of a Polish headteacher?

After all, management involves a set of activities (including planning, decision-making, leading; i.e. managing and controlling people) focussing on the organisation's resources (human, financial, material and informational ones) performed to achieve the objectives of the organisation in an efficient and effective way (Griffin, 2004, p. 6). And managerial leadership is the process of managing and influencing the activity of group members associated with their tasks. Now, three important conclusions need to be drawn: 1) leadership involves other people - be it subordinates or supporters. Because of the propensity to submit to the guidelines of the leader, group members contribute to establishing his/her position and allow the operation of leadership processes. Without the subordinates, all leadership qualities of a manager would be negligible; 2) leadership is linked to unequal distribution of power between leaders and group members. Leaders have the power to control certain actions of group members, however the latter cannot control actions taken by leaders. However, group members can impact on these activities in many different ways; 3) In addition to the power to give orders to the subordinates and followers, leaders can also impact on their subordinates (Stoner, Wanker, 1994, pp. 382-383).

Intrigued by controversial statements and questions, equipped with scanty information on research results and knowing the outlooks of management experts on the tip of the appealing iceberg, we will try to subjectively analyse selected fragments of Polish legislation, which is wrongly and rather thoughtlessly called law on school education[1].

Teachers in the school community

The act of 26 January 1982 – Teachers' Charter[2], which was incorporated into Polish legal system in 1982, mainly stipulates the rights and obligations of teachers. However, among its 102 articles you can find a few whose normative nature is somewhat polarised. You can read that "teachers are required to diligently perform tasks related to their position and basic functions of school: teaching, educative and care giving, including tasks related to ensuring the safety of students during classes organised by the school[3]." But what does 'diligently' mean and what are these tasks? Probably the legislator counts on the autonomy of teachers who in every situation can evaluate whether they act in a diligent manner or not. Does this diligence impact on other teachers? Does it impact on students and other members of school community? Indeed, you can inspire others not only with words, but also with actions, attitudes, and by setting an example.

The Charter stipulates that teachers are obliged to "support every student in their development[4]." And it is again up to the addressee of the postulate to determine the meaning of the term 'support'. Indeed, you can provide support also with words, actions and by setting an example. In a given situation, can teachers serve as an inspiration for students or other teachers to support a student with special educational needs or the one who suffers disadvantage in his or her young life? Will these activities result from a scope of duties described for a particular profession or maybe will a group of volunteers established at a school to support disadvantaged colleagues follow the instruction of the teacher who inspired them?

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1.   In contrast to the Act of 14 December 2016 – Law on School Education (OJ of 2017, item 59 as amended), which entered into force on 1 September 2017; hereinafter referred to as School Education Law.

2.   Uniform text: OJ of 2017, item 1189 as amended, hereinafter referred to as: Teachers' Figureer.

3.   Art. 6(1) of the Teachers' Figureer.

4.   Art. 6(2) of the Teachers' Figureer.

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Two subsequent provisions, which are rather general, but well sounding at any point in history, stipulate that teachers should "teach and educate young people and promote love for the country, duty to obey the Constitution of the Republic of Poland, the spirit of freedom of conscience, and respect for every human being"[5]. They also should "shape in students moral and civil attitudes in accordance with the idea of democracy, peace and friendship between people of different nations, races and with different world views"[6]. Not even attempting to dispute the rightness of the above regulations, it is difficult to deny teachers the right to freely interpret them and consequently enjoy autonomy in their application in the teaching practice. It will be the wisdom, attitudes, ethics and predispositions of individual teachers that will determine if their actions are reliable and successful or if they only act as transmitters of core curriculum contents to sceptical young men.

The catalogue of requirements listed in the act includes the regulation reading: "In their teaching, educational and care giving activities, teachers are required to be driven by the well-being of students, concern for their health and moral and civic attitudes, and to respect the dignity of students"[7]. Some of these recommendations are quite clear, whereas other undoubtedly need to be redefined, because how do you define the well-being and dignity of students? So again, it was left to the experience, pedagogical sense, and personal (leadership?) traits of teachers to judge an immense area of tasks focussing on students, which without appropriate predispositions cannot be successfully performed.

The act outlines the scope of responsibilities of teachers who are obliged to perform teaching, educational and care giving tasks addressed directly to students or on their behalf, as well as other tasks and activities resulting from the statutory responsibilities of the school, including care giving and educational activities, which take into account the needs and interests of students[8]. And it is clear that when taking such actions, some of the teachers will avail not only of their knowledge

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5.   Art. 6(4) of the Teachers' Figureer.

6.   Art. 6(5) of the Teachers' Figureer.

7.   Article 5 of the School Education Law.

8.   Art. 42(2)(1) and (2)of the Teachers' Figureer.

of subjects taught and methodology. They will focus on the attributes of a good teacher, which include setting an example, acting as a role model, displaying commitment and respect for the students, etc. So the question arises: aren't these features the characteristics of a good leader? Can a teacher who does not show leadership inspire students and make them like the subject s/he teaches? Or is s/he only a foot soldier who diligently performs his/her work?

The act grants considerable autonomy to teachers. So the fact that the act stipulates that teachers employed on the basis of appointment, and in the previous school year this group constituted 77% of all teachers in employment, are not subject to the regulations, which are otherwise binding on other appointed public officials[9] confirms that they are ensured professional independence and autonomy. The act also sets out that when teaching the curriculum, teachers are free to apply such methods of teaching and education, which they consider to be the most appropriate from among the ones postulated in modern educational science, and have freedom to select textbooks and other teaching aids from among the ones approved for school use[10]. Of course, you can say that these standards apply to all teachers, but it is worth noting that teachers who are charismatic leaders can use their strengths to elegantly and in a stress-free manner walk students through challenging areas of current knowledge and prepare them for the acquisition of the future body of knowledge.

At the end of the past century, a new role has been added to the set of responsibilities of some teachers - the one of a trainee teacher supervisor. In this case, the activity of teachers does not focus on their traditional subjects (students), but on their younger colleagues. The task of a trainee teacher supervisor is providing support to novice teachers, in particular in the drafting and implementation of a professional development plan, which novice teachers prepare during their induction periods, and drawing a draft assessment of professional achievements of teachers during their induction periods[11]. This role requires from a teacher-supervisor displaying features typical for a mentor, tutor and

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9.   Art. 12(1) of the Teachers' Figureer.

10.   Art. 12(2) of the Teachers' Figureer.

11.   Art. 9c(1)(3) of the Teachers' Figureer.

leader. Without them, trainee teacher supervisors will not only be unable to prepare young colleagues for performing respective professional tasks, but also may cause them (and the school) harm, which will be difficult to repair in the future. Trainee teacher supervisors are also members of qualifying committees, which interview teachers applying for the promotion to the grade of a contract teacher[12].

A slightly different approach to the role of the teacher in the school has been applied by the legislators in the act on the system of education. The education law stipulates that schools and education institutions shall take all necessary measures in order to create optimal conditions for the performance of teaching and educational activities, as well as other statutory activities, provide to every student conditions necessary for his or her development, improve the quality of work of the school or educational institution, and contribute to its organisational development. The minister shall determine what is the desirable level of teachers' commitment to the school's or educational institution's operations[13].

An implementing regulation was adopted in August 2017[14] and it is worth discussing it here, as, without doubt, each teacher-leader will find inspiration for taking action in it. Also a shift in terminology should be noted; teachers need to satisfy requirements and no longer are obliged to perform tasks. This is a slightly different approach to teachers. Undoubtedly, tasks imposed on teachers by the act must be strictly fulfilled, whereas more soft 'requirements' (may) leave room for situations, where someone is not up to the task, although should be. There is also one more significant difference between the act and the implementing regulation; the requirements are laid down for teachers acting in teams, and not as individuals. This creates another situation: either a team leader is appointed to ensure that the team works efficiently or a natural leader is identified. The requirements set out in this way may contribute to such situations.

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12.   Art. 9g(1)(3) of the Teachers' Figureer.

13.   Art. 44(1) and (3)(4) of the School Education Law

14.   Regulation of the Minister of National Education of 11 August 2017 on the requirements for schools and educational institutions (OJ of 2017, item 1611).

Table 1. Requirements for teachers in selected schools and educational institutions, and their description

REQUIREMENT	DESCRIPTION OF THE REQUIREMENT
1. Requirements for nurseries	
Processes promoting the development and education of children are organised in a way, which facilitates learning.	→ Teachers work as a team. They collectively plan educational processes, cooperate on their implementation and analyse the results of their work. → Teachers help one another and jointly solve problems.
Children are active.	→ Teachers create situations that encourage children to take up various activities.
When planning their work, nurseries take into account the conclusions of the analysis of external and internal studies.	→ Teachers plan and adopt educational actions and strategies with taking into account the results of internal and external studies and conclusions resulting from them, including external and internal evaluation.
2. Requirements for primary schools, secondary schools, arts schools, continuing education institutions, practical training centres, further training and in-service training providers	
Educational processes are organised in a way, which facilitates learning.	→ Teachers, including teachers working with one form, cooperate with one another when planning, organising, carrying out and modifying educational processes. → Teachers help one another and jointly solve problems. → Teachers motivate students to learn actively and support them in difficult situations. They create atmosphere conducive for learning. → Teachers shape the ability to learn in students.
Students are active.	→ Teachers create situations that encourage students to take up various activities.
3. Requirements for non-school educational institutions and arts institutions	
The work of such institutions is organised in a way, which facilitates the achievement of their objectives.	→ Teachers and other staff members responsible for fulfilling the tasks of the institution cooperate when planning, organising, performing and modifying its operations. → Teachers and other staff members responsible for fulfilling the tasks of the institution take account of the opinions of their students in order to improve the work of the institution.

Source: Author on the basis of the Annex to the Regulation of the Minister of National Education of 11 August 2017 on the requirements for schools and educational institutions.

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The formula for the work of pedagogical teams has also changed[15]. The new solutions were announced in the act, which sets out that the minister responsible for education will determine detailed organisational structure of public schools and public nurseries with taking into consideration successful achievement of goals and performance of tasks of schools and nurseries, including the conditions and mode for the appointment of teacher teams dedicated to carrying out statutory tasks of the school[16]. Headteachers can appoint teacher teams for a definite or indefinite period of time. Team leaders appointed by school or nursery headteachers at the request of the teams manage their work. At the request of a team leader, a headteacher can appoint other teachers, specialists and other staff members of a school or nursery to perform a specific task or tasks of the team. Also individuals other than staff members of a school or nursery can contribute to the work of such teams[17]. Here, a classic solution for the appointment of team leaders has been applied, as it is a teacher team who selects its leader and a headteacher appoints him/her. The powers of team leaders are considerable. They can appoint new team members, select working methods and are responsible for end products of teams' work. After all, it is the team who defines its work plan and tasks to be performed in a given school year. Each team's work is summed up during the last teachers' meeting in a given school year.

Such an organisation of teams can prove problematic at small schools, where teaching staff is not numerous. Several staff members work at such schools for a few hours a week and do not have a strong bond with them. The possibility for expanding such teams with members from outside the school translates well into this demand and allows for stakeholders' involvement in the life of the school.

The new task teams form an important step towards formal operation of school leaders for a period of at least one school year, as

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15. And not teachers' meeting, because it is an internal body of a school that should operate *in gremio*, unless its regulations provide for derogations from this rule.

16. Art. (111)(5) of the School Education Law.

17. Regulation of the Minister of National Education of 17 March 2017 on detailed organisational structure of public schools and public nurseries (OJ of 2017, item 649), par. 4(1-3); hereinafter referred to as the regulation on school organisational structure

informal activities have always been feasible. And it is not forbidden to continue their work in subsequent years.

The law also assigns a number of mentorship roles to teachers. For example as part of bottom-up activity, students themselves appoint their self-government supervisor. The act stipulates that students' self-government has the right to appoint a teacher who would act as its supervisor[18]. Depending on personal characteristics of a given teacher, their role may be only formalistic, but they also can act as guides or informal leaders who direct students through school democracy. This role cannot be overestimated in building the relationship between the body representing the interests of students and other school bodies.

Another role of the teacher is that of a form tutor. The act stipulates that a form is a basic organisational unit of a school, except for arts schools offering artistic education only, and a form is supervised by a form tutor. It is also recommended that in order to ensure the continuity and effectiveness of form teacher's educational activity, s/he supervises a given form throughout the entire stage of education[19]. The regulation includes a similar solution applying to nurseries. It stipulates that a nursery headteacher appoints one or two teachers who are responsible for a given form. The number of teachers depends on the working time of the form and tasks performed by it. Making such appointments, headteachers take into account the suggestions of the parents of children attending the forms. At the same time, in order to ensure the continuity and effectiveness of teaching, educational and care giving activities, it is recommended that the same teacher supervises a given form throughout the entire stage of education at the nursery[20]. Leadership of a form teacher, be it at a nursery or at a school, is unquestionable. Of course, you can limit this role to mere satisfying formal requirements (running a class register, checking attendance, verifying leaves, collecting money, organising meetings with parents, etc.), but you can also inspire children to take up activities, which will remain their hobbies for their lives.

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18.   Art. 85(5)(6) of the School Education Law.

19.   Art. 96(1-3) of the School Education Law.

20.   Par. 12(2-3) of the regulation on school organisational structure.

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Working with students with special educational needs, especially with the gifted ones, is a unique situation, which involves developing passions or talents outside the school. In such cases, at the request or with the consent of parents or a student him-/herself (provided they are of age), a headteacher can give permission for individual teaching or individual programme of study and appoint a mentor for such a student. In similar cases, a headteacher of a school offering artistic education only can give permission for individual teaching or individual programme of study for such a student under the supervision of the teacher of the main subject[21]. And also in this case, a mentor of the student to whom individual teaching is provided or who follows an individual programme of study can only stay on the sidelines and intervene only in situations when something goes wrong with student-school interaction or can guide the student and his/her development, stimulate the interaction, and take action. And that means going beyond the role of the mentor and becoming a creative leader.

This superficial overview of teacher roles, which based on legal premises can place them somewhere between a professional teacher and a perfect leader, proves that teacher leadership is not prohibited at Polish schools. What is more, the legislator often knowingly creates situations, in which a willing, trained and aware of his/her role teacher can reach beyond the duties of a public officer[22] and play the role of a discrete leader. This surely proves beneficial for Polish schools and students. Although probably does not win broad recognition...

Headteacher - a teacher playing a specific role.

It is usually a teacher who acts in the capacity as a headteacher. Statistics shows that out of 27,000 headteachers working at schools and other educational institutions, roughly one hundred are professional managers (Jeżowski, Madalińska-Michalak, 2015, pp. 13-14). So talking about headteachers in Poland, we mean teachers playing the special role. The law says that it is an appointed or chartered teacher entrusted with a role of a headteacher who manages a school or educational

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21.   Art. 115(1-2) of the School Education Law.

22.   Art. 63(1) of the Teachers' Charter.

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institution[23]. This assumption has been probably based on the fact that headteachers and other teachers holding managerial positions exercise pedagogical supervision over teachers working at their schools and educational institutions. The same authority is extended over practical training instructors working for vocational training providers and employers offering vocational training[24]. This is a very significant task, as the question of pedagogical supervision[25] is officially regulated and sounds like a serious responsibility. But practical experience shows that headteachers, being at the lowest level of the supervisory ladder, can sometimes take off their supervisor uniforms and perform their oversight in a more friendly manner, obviously without becoming overfamiliar. Certainly, some headteachers display this skill, as no regulation says that their powers must be exercised in a formalised or bureaucratic manner. However, too permissive approach may distort the entire idea, function and roles of pedagogical supervision. Therefore, what is needed is wisdom, common sense and significant experience... Headteachers who are true leaders will understand that.

The law places numerous responsibilities on headteachers, and some of them are undoubtedly related to leadership. Legal regulations stipulate that in particular the role of a headteacher of a school or educational institution[26] is to manage the operations of the school

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23. Art. 62(1) of the School Education Law.

24. Article 60(7) and Article 62(3) of the School Education Law.

25. Art. 55(1) of the School Education Law. Pedagogical supervision consists in: 1) observing, analysing and evaluating teaching and educational processes and the effects of teaching and educational activities and other statutory activity of schools and educational institutions; 2) assessing the status and conditions for teaching and educational activities and other statutory activity of schools and educational institutions; 3) providing assistance to schools, educational institutions and teachers in their performance of teaching and educational tasks; 4) inspiring teachers to improve the existing or introduce new solutions as part of the education process using innovative programme, organisational or methodological approaches, the aim of which is to develop students' competences. Ibid. Article 55(2). Within the scope specified in par. 1(1 and 2) the supervision focuses in particular on: 1) holding by the teachers the required qualifications to perform the tasks they are entrusted with; 2) the implementation of core curricula and framework teaching plans; 3) compliance with the rules for the assessment, grading and promotion of students and for staging examinations, and compliance with the regulations on compulsory schooling and compulsory education; 4) observance of the statutes of the school or educational institution; 5) observance of the rights of the child and the rights of the student and dissemination of knowledge of these rights; 6) providing students with safe and hygienic conditions for learning and being educated.

26. Article 68(1) of the School Education Law and Article 7(1) of the Teachers' Charter.

or educational institution; represent it before external stakeholders; provide care to students and ensure conditions for their harmonious psychological and physical development by actively promoting their health; carries resolutions of the school or educational institution council and these adopted by the teaching staff council; manages funds assigned to the school or educational institution in its financial plan; performs tasks related to ensuring the safety of students and teachers during classes organised by the school or educational institution; creates conditions for the work of volunteers, associations and other organisations at the school or educational institution; is responsible for implementing recommendations resulting from a special needs educations certificates issued to individual students; works with a school nurse, hygienist, doctor and dentist who are responsible for preventive health care over students. This extensive list requires reflection.

It is clear that the performance of the above mentioned tasks alone, may reduce a headteacher to an unapproachable, formalist, cold or even unfriendly officer, but they can also adopt a different, less formal approach and ask at least some of the teachers to take over some of these duties, because they have relevant experience, knowledge, authority, know-how and competences. Of course no one can absolve the headteacher of responsibility for the proper performance of their tasks, but the cooperation model can help integrate the team and make everyone feel responsible for their school.

Similar dilemmas and opportunities arise when we you look at typical tasks performed by headteachers in Poland. A headteacher is the director of a work place where teachers and non-teaching staff are employed. The headteacher of a school or educational institution decides in the following matters[27] in particular; s/he hires and fires teachers and non-teaching staff; awards bonuses; imposes penalties on them; files applications for awarding them distinctions, prizes and other awards. Headteachers working at schools across Europe, maybe except for Scots, have little experience in this area. However, this does not mean that Polish headteachers need to act as ruthless bosses, as they can opt for a leadership option here. This paper is not a treaty on leadership, and the author's role is only to prove that the multitude

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27.   Art. 68(5) of the School Education Law.

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of headteacher's tasks and responsibilities can be performed as part of adopting leadership style of management. And maybe 'style of management' is the keyword, which properly defines the attitude of a headteacher concerning these and other matters. Obviously, without prejudice to their other roles.

The next two examples prove that Polish law not only indicates specific tasks to be performed, but also suggests specific styles of operation. How can you otherwise interpret the stipulation that when performing his or her tasks a headteacher of a school or educational institution cooperates with its council, teaching staff council, parents and students' self-government[28]. It seems difficult to decree cooperation in a piece of legislation, and as far as standardisation is concerned, how can you definitively state that they cooperate or not? How often do they do that? What is the desired level of cooperation and what actions prove exceeding the standards? Most probably, the intentions of the legislator were different. A headteacher is superior to all the above mentioned bodies and, out of the sudden, legislator says that they should cooperate. So perhaps, already 25 years ago, the legislator signalled a more compliant and empathic role of a headteacher. And maybe it was a step in the direction of leadership at the school?

So this was an example of cooperation within school. Another example pertains to cooperation with external stakeholders, which is more formalised. A headteacher of a vocational school, acting in agreement with the school's governing authority, determines occupations, in which the school will offer training, but s/he does that only after having consulted the labour market council at the county and province level about the compliance of such offer with the needs of local labour markets[29]. Such a requirement appears to be logical, but it is worth looking at it from the perspective of external relations; headteachers of vocational schools cannot confine themselves to school reality and only focus on making sure that teachers have work, but need to understand the requirements of local labour market and manage their institutions in such a way that they contribute to local development. You do not need to hear the examples of individuals' good

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28.   Art. 68(6) of the School Education Law.

29.   Art. 68(7) of the School Education Law.

will to see that a communicative leader can achieve this task more easily than a public officer sending out official letters without leaving his or her office for a moment.

A headteacher of a nursery school also is required to perform similar tasks. It is a headteacher's role, acting together with the nursery school board or parents' council, to request that the school's governing authority determines working time of the nursery school[30]. Remarks concerning a headteacher of a vocational school also apply in this case.

The official practice of the teaching profession treats the challenges faced by a headteacher in the categories of his or her responsibilities, which is understandable, because for trade unions a headteacher is simply an employer. Hence these regulations do not sound amicably. The act stipulates that, among other things, a headteacher is responsible[31] for: the quality of teaching and education offered by the school; creating conditions for the development of autonomous and independent work of students; providing assistance to teachers in their professional development; ensuring, as far as possible, appropriate organisational conditions for the performance of teaching and educational tasks; and ensuring safety of students and teachers during classes organised by the school. It is difficult to avoid the impression that this act was not adopted by politicians and lawyers, but rather by trade union activists, although probably this wasn't the case. However, the author is convinced that a charismatic school leader also here can find a potential for non-formal activity.

For the purpose of this analysis, attention should be paid to the fact that a headteacher is the chairman of the teaching staff council[32]. In this role, a headteacher organises and chairs meetings of the teaching staff council and is responsible for notifying all its members of the date and agenda of such meetings, in accordance with the rules of the teaching staff council[33]. At least twice a school year, a headteacher submits to the teaching staff council general conclusions resulting from the pedagogical supervision and information about the operations

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30.   Art. 102(1)(10) of the School Education Law and Par. 12(1) of the regulation on school organisational structure.

31.   Art. 7(2) of the Teachers' Charter.

32.   Art. 69(4) of the School Education Law.

33.   Art. 69(6) of the School Education Law.

of the school[34]. Special attention should be paid to this area of the headteacher-teaching staff council relationship.

The legislation stipulates more such roles and relationships, which are very intricate. A lot depends on the knowledge, manners and tact of a headteacher, and also on the attitude they adopted concerning the relationship with other teachers. Certainly leaders will prove more successful... The more so that in crisis situations, for example in the case of a conflict with the teaching staff council, a headteacher is authorised to suspends the implementation of resolutions of the council, which in his or her opinion fail to comply with the law[35]. And by doing so, they simply follow the procedures.

Summary

Based on the presented analysis, the following conclusions can be drawn:
- → In the Polish law, you can find a few dozens of examples where teachers, including headteachers are expected, maybe not under law, but in accordance with pedagogical tradition, to display leadership skills in their work and effectively use them for the benefit of students, schools, and themselves;
- → Polish law on education does not regulate the work of educational leaders and does not use terminology related to leaders' presence in the school; The constitutional, substantive and procedural provisions concentrate on teachers and headteachers, and mainly stipulate their tasks and powers;
- → The scope of responsibilities of headteachers working in Poland is much broader than this of their counterparts in other European countries. As a result, making comparisons between them is very difficult. Polish headteachers need to display knowledge of law, including administrative law (regulations, resolutions, administrative decisions, protocols...), public finance law (not included in this analysis, because the margin of flexibility is fairly narrow there), and labour law;

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34.   Art. 69(7) of the School Education Law.

35.   Art. 71(1) of the School Education Law.

→ The law does not prevent headteachers from assuming leadership roles at the school or in the community, apart from playing an administrative and managerial functions. However, it must be remembered that neither the system of initial teacher training (study programmes) nor the competitive procedures leading to their appointment prepare headteachers for assuming leadership roles;

→ Recently adopted laws, apart from stipulating tasks, focus on requirements for and promote team work among teachers. As a result, you can notice some polarity in the positions taken by decision-makers, which contributes to leadership performance.

The functioning of educational leaders at schools today does not result from their performance of tasks assigned to their positions or from discharging responsibilities set out in legislation, but rather is the expression of their needs, knowledge, experience, manners and social context, which can be called a work style. And this WORK STYLE of some individuals who maybe unknowingly and without having the sense of purpose creates the picture of Polish school and leads it in a completely new direction. However, with the indifference of the system of initial teacher training and lack of interest on the part of decision- and policy makers, for many years to come the leadership of teachers and headteachers may remain only a phenomenon forming the subject of case studies conducted by researchers.

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Teachers as informal leaders

Malwina Magdalena Kałużyńska

Contemporary schools often do not fit into modern times. Therefore, they require effective leaders (not only managers) who will serve as an inspiration and a stimulus for didactic, social and mental changes. Reflexive, autonomous and responsible teachers can fulfil this challenge by proposing and implementing bottom-up initiatives within the schools. Thanks to their professionalism, through the mechanism of sharing their vision with others, they can stand on the 'captain's bridge', even if they do not possess the formal authority to do so. The purpose of this paper is to present the results of the author's own research regarding the informal leadership of teachers, which demonstrates the opportunity offered by, among others, the empowerment of teachers in schools. Another aspect discussed within this paper will be the introduction of the author's typology of different approaches to educational change (named as: 'Decorators', 'Reconstructors' and 'Restorers') which gives a notion of how the concept of a good school can be identified.

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Introduction

Many teachers, parents, children, academic lecturers, educators, politicians and journalists are united by the belief that the Polish school in its present shape does not correspond to the current needs (of both society and individuals) and does not meet set expectations. It is difficult to hear voices that would unequivocally evaluate the education system positively in Poland. More books, reports, articles and speeches are created that point to the fact that the school as an institution does not follow civilizational changes or modern knowledge regarding the learning processes (Żylińska, 2013). It 'kills creativity'[1], 'destroys the integrity of so many people' (Juul, 2013, p. 35), and is a place of symbolic violence (Kopciewicz, 2011). The common criticism of the school is, however, accompanied by various visions of change and many proposals for solutions that underlie the fundamental questions: What can we do to make things better? How can we, as a group, re-forge chances and opportunities (for example human and organisational potential) into educational success and happiness of the youth? In other words, how do we build a good school[2] (assuming of course, that we do not negate its existence as such)?

The postulate of a good school contains many different, irreducible dimensions, and each of them is of a great importance. We are therefore talking about issues related to, among others, the vision of education and educational values; advancement of individual development spheres (cognitive, socio-emotional and physical); equalising educational opportunities and eliminating deficits; supporting talents and developing student's interests; methods of using the school space and didactic aids; preparation of teachers, curriculum and work methodology; interpersonal relations as well as school climate. It is not an easy task to incorporate all these aspects simultaneously. This will not occur through the decisions made by a single individual. An educational change is a long-lasting process that requires the cooperation of many responsible people, as well as reflection and continuous mutual learning. Not all postulators of

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1. The term used in speeches by Ken Robinson, amongst others, during the TED Talks.

2. The title of the conference NPSEO *Jakość edukacji, czy/i jakość ewaluacji* (Quality of education, and/or quality of evaluation) organized by *Ośrodek Rozwoju Edukacji* (Center for Education Development), Jagiellonian University and *Era Ewaluacji*, which took place in Krakow, on 28-31.03.2015.

change, however, agree with each other about its direction and its very essence. Some people talk about the 'quality' of education – setting out standards and implementation procedures that are aimed at helping to achieve measurable effects (for example a centrally controlled school evaluation system). Others abstain from universal norms and top-down directives (which are for them the manifestations of domination and objectification), pointing to the local and contextual dimensions of school work assessment based on the 'meaning' given by themselves (Dahlberg, Moss, Pence, 2013).

Regardless of the dominant discourse, teachers devoted to work (often identified with 'calling'), put in a lot of effort on a daily basis, to ensure that their students can gain knowledge, develop according to their capabilities and become better people. Although positioned in the epicentre of educational transformations, teachers are not always able or willing to engage in their course. Meanwhile, it is their attitude and specific actions that will determine whether the above-mentioned expectations will be implemented, or if their work will gain new meaning - in other words, whether anything will change in school practice (not only on paper). That's why it is worth to question teachers and review their work not only to evaluate it, but also to look for inspiration, learn from good practices, broaden perspectives by looking at education that occurs behind the closed doors of the classrooms, as well as in the space outside of the school.

This study can be treated as an invitation to regard teachers not only as implementers of the changes ("external procedures that deal with school policy, structures or practices": Zellermayer, Margolin, 2005, p. 1302, as cited in Day, 2014, p. 143), but also as the potential initiators of changes adopted by people in new ways of perceiving phenomena, 'the internal process of reorientation and transformation' (ibidem). Their voice: *Nihil de nobis sine nobis!* should be heard, because often, beyond mere objection, it also brings with it a certain value derived from knowledge, experience, passion for teaching and the ability to unite people in the name of a common goal, or leadership.

In this chapter I will present a number of my own reflections on the role of teachers in educational transformations and perceptions of these transformations. I will also refer to the results of my qualitative research on manifestations and areas of informal leadership of teachers (Kaczyńska, 2015).

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Visions of the school in the face of change

Educational changes taking place in schools may have both didactic and social character. While the former ones relate to the teaching and learning processes (they can be based, for example, on the introduction of pedagogical innovations), the latter ones relate to the building of a network of interpersonal relations that, apart from the people connected by them, can also transform the whole environment and its culture. The mere change in the ways of working with students (its external form) may not be enough to change the attitudes of teachers, to give meaning to their own activity. What is required is a deeper knowledge and understanding of not only colloquial pedagogy – meaning personal beliefs about the 'nature of the mind of students' and the phenomena occurring at school, but also the foundations on which it is built, and the culture in which it operates (Bruner, 2006).

Author's research and the conclusions drawn from it show, that among those who criticise the current system of teaching and education, we can specify three significant groups of people: The Decorators, the Reconstructors and the Restorers[3]. Each of these groups perceives a different character of distortions, sees sources of problems in different areas and operates on different levels of understanding of the meaning of educational interactions. Although all advocates of change usually have a noble goal, they present different diagnoses and, as a consequence, come up with a different prescription.

The first group (the "Decorators') primarily perceive deficiencies in the 'supplies' and the methods of work. They do not deny the idea of the school as such, but state that in its present form it does not fulfil the expectations of the "ideal" that would meet modern requirements. The "Decorators' focus more on the restoration of the school, 'rearranging the furniture' in a sense, rather than on destroying its foundations. They focus on aspects that are the easiest to change and which can generate effects that can be quickly perceived – therefore, they focus above all on the resources (tools) and their methodical use. They want to reorganise the space to accommodate their vision of modern education by presenting programmes and packages based on attractive 'innovations'

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3. The inspiration for this distinction were selected approaches to educational changes described by Theodore Brameld (see Gutek, 2003, p. 281-295, 311-325) – Restorers can be associated with the perennialism, and Reconstructors with the reconstructionism.

(which tend to be secondary and are not always an expression of the actual need). Some of the "Decorators' want to limit teaching aids to the bare minimum, advocating a return to natural and ecological sources, while others place emphasis on the interactive boards and the 'tabletisation' of schools. The changes proposed by this group are an attempt to keep up with the pace of quite chaotic socio-economic changes, which may be cursory, often almost cosmetic, however can sometimes also be ground-breaking. In this context a 'good school' is not a permanent and immutable creation, but a very flexible one, susceptible to educational trends and the demand prevailing in a given trend (or discourse). The 'Decorators' are most often heard in the public space, because they demonstrate a rather convenient short cut. They offer ready-made solutions explaining 'how' and skip the debate about "why', an area which often requires deeper consideration. They can, however, be the driving force of change.

The second group (the 'Reconstructors'), unlike the previous one, clearly perceives the structural errors within the concept of the school as such, which is why it postulates a complete refurbishment of the foundations on which it was once built (most often meaning breaking off from the Prussian model of the education system). The 'Reconstructors' do not identify themselves with the institution of the school in its present form, therefore they want to demolish it and build it from scratch based on their own vision, which they propagate most often as socially just and libertarian. Their vision arises from critical theory and the attitude of rebellion against all forms of real and imagined oppression, which also exists in the guise of external forms of authority and control. A 'good school' is simply their school – a school in which everyone has the same (equal and indisputable) right to decide on its fate, democratic at its foundations, but not allowing the scope of its autonomy to be limited. Alternative schools or various forms of de-schooling can be the manifestation of such 'reconstructionism'.

The third group does not wish to build a new school or revive the current one. The 'Restorers' study school construction plans carefully, and above all they focus on the philosophical and ideological foundations of education. They do not intend to destroy the existing order, which they believe is based on lasting foundations in the form of superior ideas. They appreciate the value of the achievements of previous generations (most often referring to the tradition of classical

philosophy and scholasticism) – which is for them a determinant of what a 'good school' should be in its nature. Therefore, in their visions of the future, the "Restorers' repeat (preserve) patterns from the past (in their opinion the only true ones), while at the same time worrying that the modern world is increasingly separating itself from its sources. In their opinion, the school itself is not bad, but it should become better and better, and should serve the growth (especially the spiritual growth) of individuals who no longer have the support of the postmodern, controversial world.

The outlined visions of changes at school in each of the listed groups have both advantages and disadvantages. A summary is presented in the table below (table 1).

Table 1. Strengths and weaknesses of the different visions of educational changes

	THE DECORATORS	THE RECONSTRUCTORS	THE RESTORERS
STRENGHTS	→ following the needs of the changing world, they place great emphasis on the organisational and practical aspects of education *(techne)*	→ they notice disturbing social phenomena and mechanisms governing society and the schools involved in them	→ being based on foundations (of socio-cultural achievements) gives them a solid point of reference in the process of constant search for 'improvements'
WEAKNESSES	→ they offer inconsistent and cursory actions, often 'for show' (in line with public opinion and variable fashion) → they lack a deeper reflection on the essence of education and its meaning	→ they postulate the destruction of existing foundations and reject tradition without offering anything but a negative freedom in return → they want to impose their own, often hidden vision of 'a better world'	→ attachment to specific ideas may narrow their perspective on education → the real change in educational practice does not have to follow philosophical reflection

Source: Author.

The visions of the abovementioned groups seem to have little in common - each one of them is based on different values and focuses on other aspects of the school's work. However, it is impossible to overlook

the fact that each and every one of them brings a new perspective on education and indicates a lack of satisfaction with regards to certain fundamental needs. The 'Restorers' want to find (regain) the truth about humans, a permanent point of support that will help the individuals to maintain balance in an uncertain and undetermined world. The 'Reconstructors' are fighting for humans' rights to dignity and self-determination. The 'Decorators' draw attention to the external (expressive) dimension of human functioning and its position in contemporary reality.

Each vision can be reflected in the ways in which schools and teachers work. The vision of the 'Decorators' will be expressed, inter alia, in the emphasis on: changing the way lessons are delivered, re-designing the set-up of desks in the classrooms or developing new methods of work and teaching aids. The 'Reconstructors' manifesto will strongly emphasise the importance of social change, the empowerment of all people and their inclusion in decision-making processes. In turn, the 'Restorers' will organise a series of meetings and debates addressing the most important issues related to the role of the school in its traditional meaning, showing the changes taking place in it and their consequences.

Directions of change versus teachers' autonomy and responsibility

At the nexus of various educational discourses and visions, there are ready-made proposals for changes. They can be either 'top-down' or 'bottom-up' changes (Steffy, 1993). The first type of change results from formal authority and is based on imposed requirements; for example, in the form of regulations or official orders. Its implementation is a subject to control and is not a subject of discussion. The "top-down' changes do not have to relate to the critical attitude of their implementers, who may not be taking over the responsibility for the effects of their own actions. A statement of one of the teachers may serve as an example: 'We are a team, but we do not necessarily work as a team' (Kaczyńska, 2015, p. 28, Dorczak et al., p. 58). These words may indicate that the mere establishment of task teams in the institution will not automatically mean that the work within them will have the characteristics of real cooperation and will bring the expected results. The second type of change ("bottom-up') is in turn inseparably

connected with the sense of responsibility and internal motivation. It entails personal justification for the undertaken actions and the perception of sense of one's own work.

As indirectly demonstrated by the study of professional experience journals[4], teachers subjected to external pressures (whatever they may be) in their work can adopt the attitude of a 'governor' (or, as Legowicz would described it, 'a foot soldier', see Legowicz, 1993, p. 19), who may or may not identify with the values and goals that were set without his/her involvement. Using a metaphor, teachers can choose, as I showed in my research (Kaczyńska, 2016a, p. 241-247), a role focused on the implementation of the programme 'Cruise ship', a non-reflective 'Drifting ship' or 'methodically seduced'[5] 'Modern yacht'. The 'Cruise ship', corresponding to 'being in the role' or 'identifying with the role' of the teacher (Kwiatkowska, 1997, p. 74-75, Kwiatkowska, 2005, p. 85), is meticulously fulfilling the tasks entrusted to him/her. Although highly dutiful and effective, it lacks its own initiative and often falls into a routine. The 'Drifting ship', reminiscent of 'being unreflective' or "anomie identity' (ibidem), is characterised by inertia and a lack of full awareness of one's aspirations (one can say that it 'drifts with the current'). In turn the 'Modern yacht' concentrates so much on the tools of work (methods, forms and means) that it becomes a goal itself, not a means to an end. The route of each vessel looks different: it either sails back and forth - conforming to what the schedule brings, or flows unknowingly, surrendering to the waves, or ends up going in circles, while chasing the changing wind (trends). These teachers' attitudes make it difficult to implement changes (and transformations) both within themselves and at school.

The chance for the 'bottom-up' development of education can be fulfilled by teachers, who can metaphorically be placed on the 'captain's bridge'[6] (Kaczyńska, ibid., p. 242-243). A teacher temporarily

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4. The study was conducted on a sample of 18 journals of early education teachers, written without the intervention of the researcher, analysed in the layer of the narrative presented and categorised using the phenomenographic method.

5. I adopted this term after Małgorzata Lewartowska-Zychowicz (2009, p. 178).

6. Different images of teachers emerging from the Journals of professional experience were also analysed in another article by the author: M. Kaczyńska (2016b), *Nauczyciele wczesnej edukacji – między pasją a cierpiętnictwem* [in:] M. Żytko (ed.), *Skąd przyszliśmy – dokąd idziemy?* Pedagogika wobec wyzwań współczesności (p. 125–142), Warsaw: Wydawnictwo Naukowe Katedra.

acting as the captain (which does not mean being captain), as a 'reflective practitioner' or an 'autonomous subject' (see Kwiatkowska, 1997, p. 75), sets his or her own goals and is personally responsible for achieving them. Based on the knowledge and experience (of his or her own, but also other people) and constantly examining various interaction factors, they can lead their 'crew' in the chosen direction. This type of the teacher has authority, which is not only due to his or her function, but also (or rather primarily) because of the expert power they possess, inspiring respect and being a role model when it comes to referent power[7] . The concept of a teacher standing on the 'captain's bridge' can be associated with formally recognised, legitimate power, therefore creating a sense of distance, but it is actually not. It is, however, complementing it. Instead of trying to devalue their superiors, they try to actively support them, which differs from the image of the teacher-captain, who is present in cinematography in the form of John Keating in the film "Dead Poets Society". The latter, despite the fact that he was guided by the best intentions (awakening the students' true passion of life and teaching them independent thinking), concentrated his energy on actions of a subversive character - undermining the authority of superiors, breaking the existing patterns and destroying the existing order (therefore taking actions based on rebellion). The goal of the teacher on the 'captain's bridge' is not to stand in opposition to his superior, but to 'man the helm' jointly – he or she is in a sense involved in 'managing the ship' and 'guiding the crew' on the principle of distributive and participative leadership models. A teacher is more of a 'second captain', a person enjoying trust and autonomy of actions, as well as a large scope of responsibility. Such a teacher can be referred to as an informal educational leader.

Informal leadership of teachers in theory and research

An informal leader is a person who has influence in an informal group (Sikorski, 2006, p. 33), undertakes leadership activities (both task-oriented as well as focused on interpersonal relations) complements formal authority, but at the same time, is not "formally recognised by the organisation or a group"[8] (Griffin, 2004, p. 283). As a 'natural' leader,

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7.   The division of power sources according to John French and Bertram Raven (1959, pp. 155-195) is supplemented by: the coercive power and the reward power.

8.   In literature, you can also find the term 'invisible leadership' (see Donaldson, 2007, p. 26).

he or she "derives the power of influence from the personal advantage over the other members of the group in terms of qualities relevant to the realisation of values considered important in this group ', the advantage, however, is determined by the 'subjective belief' of this group (Holly, 2000, p. 250). What distinguishes teacher leadership is its educational character and the attitude towards change.

The educational character of this type of leadership assumes 'enabling school employees to search for the meaning of what needs to be transformed and what can be changed' (Smyth, 1986 as cited in: Schratz, 2014, p. 22). Educational leadership - as a process - allows the individual to discover and manifest the potential of people and enables them to solve problems in accordance with shared values and respect towards others (Mazurkiewicz, 2015, p. 28). Wenner and Campbell, following on from other researchers (Curtis, 2013, Leithwood et al., 2004; Muijs, Harris, 2003, 2006), express the belief that teachers are the most influential educational leaders. The values of teachers' leadership and their translation into practice in various countries were also covered by, among others, Frost (2011) and Flores (2014), as well as the Teacher Leader Model Standards document (Teacher Leadership Exploratory Consortium, 2010). I personally would like to quote a Leithwood (2005, p. 104-105): teachers can successfully perform informal leadership functions through the implementation of such tasks as: sharing knowledge, helping colleagues to fulfil their duties in the classroom, supporting the development of educational practice by encouraging others to experiment and search for more effective solutions, or to attribute leadership traits to people who take responsibility for their professional development, promoting both the mission of the school and the activities for its development, as well as the development of the entire education system. In addition, Leithwood indicates that teacher leadership is not only defined by personal traits, but also: the capacities, the abilities as well as the outcomes of the teacher's work (ibid., p. 105-107). The latter concerns primarily their contribution to the development of the continuous learning of the school community as well as building the community spirit within the school. Similarly, researchers Wenner and Campbell (ibidem), indicate that teachers-leaders, in addition to taking responsibility for teaching in their class (at all stages of general education), also take over responsibility for leading outside of the classroom, though still within

the school perimeters (ibidem, p. 7). They also draw attention to the importance of their peer's effect and affordance for understanding the specificity of the given environment and knowledge of its limitations (ibidem, p. 8). Hattie (2015) writes about 'school leaders' who, using the 'power of influence' in their environment, among others: initiate joint lesson planning, monitor and discuss achievements, strive for continuous self-improvement and, above all, shape mindsets. Their impact on others (co-workers, headteacher and other members of the school community), aimed at improving the practice of teaching and learning at school, is what defines teacher leadership (York-Barr, Duke, 2008). Without promoting leadership in education by teachers, it is difficult to talk about improving achievements at school (Little, 1988, p. 78).

In the literature on the subject we can find many ways of defining leadership. One of them, worth paying attention to, is the concept of leadership understood as a social relation. It emphasises, among other things, the importance of communication between people and cooperation in the implementation of common goals (Madalińska- -Michalak, 2015, p. 36 and pp. 40-41). Anderson (2004, p. 100), defines relational leadership as: "a fluid, interactive process of mutual influence between the leader and his followers"'. This point of view assumes that leadership is not only reserved for formally designated individuals, but is available to virtually all people, depending on the context and the demand that arises. This is 'an attribute that is not only used by leaders, but also by their supporters' (Madalińska-Michalak, 2015, p. 36). From this perspective, any teacher embarking upon interactions with others for the purpose of change can become a potential leader in his or her school and beyond. This type of leadership consists of 'setting out directions and making others choose them' (Anderson, 2004, p. 100). It's worth mentioning here that the relations between teachers-leaders and their supporters should rely on inspiration and appeal to the needs of the 'higher order', therefore based on the internal motivations of both parties. This style of leadership is called transformational (Burns, 1978, as cited in Madalińska-Michalak, 2015, pp. 87-89)[9]. Its value includes, among other

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9.   The second style of leadership, referred to as the 'transactional', refers to the needs of the
       'lower order', is based on external motivation and is mainly aimed at subordination of the staff
       members.

things, the fact that it can change the entire culture of the organisation, and therefore change the direction in which the school is developing. Teacher leadership itself can thus be identified as "collective agency and common professional actions aimed at a pedagogical goal" (Muijis, Harris, 2003, p. 3). Polish research shows that 'teachers would like to participate in school management to a greater extent than at present' (Tołwińska, 2011, p. 109). However, they can only play an important role in building the school's organisational culture and participate in power if the headteacher adopts the 'school is us'[10] approach and takes into account the 'chain of leadership' extending to the entirety of the school (Fullan, 2006 as cited in Michalak, 2010, p. 19).

My exploratory study on the manifestations and areas of informal leadership in schools and kindergartens (Kaczyńska, 2015; Dorczak et al., 2016) showed the ambiguity of ways in which to define a teacher - educational leader. This study included a qualitative analysis of auditorial surveys in terms of the previously asked open research questions related to the following issues: self-perception/ recognising someone as a leader, teacher leadership, suggestion and implementation of changes at school and the headmaster's attitude towards these changes. The focus group was selected from a pool of teachers showing a higher than average level of engagement and displaying the need for personal development (they were participants of the pilot training programme entitled *Przywództwo Edukacyjne* (Educational Leadership) for future headmasters of schools/educational institutions and a conference on the quality of education and evaluation). Based on 75 anonymous questionnaires, a comparison and a categorisation of responses were made.

In the respondents' opinions, the concept of the educational leader includes both informal leaders, i.e. people chosen by the co-workers as their representatives (and the individuals coming up with their own initiatives - the 'natural' leaders), as well as persons formally appointed by the headteacher to perform the (social) function of his/her deputy or the coordinator (manager) of the task teams appointed by him. This is, therefore, a discrepancy within the definition, that requires further clarification.

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10.   The term used after Małgorzata Żytko (2009) which is the opposite of the term 'school is me'.

The surveyed group of teachers, referring to their subjective feelings ('I like it'; 'I feel good in the role of a leader'; 'I think I can do it'; 'I hope I possess leadership qualities/predispositions') and specific tasks accomplished by them, pointed to several personality traits and acquired competences, which in their opinion proves that a given individual is a leader in a school. Those traits and competences include: self-esteem, certainty of purpose ('I know what I want'), internal readiness and willingness to lead as well as willingness to make decisions, ability to lead others and lead the group, responsibility for themselves and others, readiness to learn, own activity (participation in the tasks proposed by themselves, sharing own ideas), charisma and facilitation (inspiring and motivating others), being an example to follow, the ability to convince others of your idea, creativity, good communication skills and the ability to listen to others, tolerance, good knowledge of the school's environment and the didactic environment, promoting development around them and representing others (for example as a team chairman).

Surveyed teachers often identified leadership with management, while they are two different (although - as Madalińska-Michalak 2015, p. 175, points out - complementary) areas of activity. The most often indicated manifestation of leadership skills was, according to them, the possession of organisational skills. Respondents mentioned tasks such as: preparation of plans and schedules, coordination of activities, monitoring of results or analysis of results (for example in the area of internal evaluation). The indications concerning leadership in a strict sense; that being teamwork and building a network of cooperation, were appearing less often. The following areas of activity are specified in this field: motivating, facilitating, consulting, conducting internal training, professional development planning, lesson observations, working out a strategy, school vision, planning the work of student's self-government together with students, "bedding in' of new teachers ; peer observation (peer to peer training, job shadowing)', solving didactical problems (for example:' analysis of students' behaviour, their problems, ways to help'), as well as:' cultural and educational activities (organisation and moderation of the cultural life of the teaching staff)'. One of the teachers wrote: "In the laboratory team, I organise observations of pupils, subsequent to which I lead a meeting where we work on action points (...), I run mini-training sessions, during which I share with my

colleagues knowledge obtained during various training sessions I have attended".

The respondents themselves pointed out that in order to be a leader, there is no need for an official, top-down appointment - often recognition in the eyes of other people is enough. This recognition, however, can be both a great ennoblement or an attempt to transfer the responsibility on to a more active and/or less assertive person who does not necessarily enjoy this 'distinction' ("people cooperating with me expect new ideas from me - they wait for me to come up with something, make a proposal [they define me as a leader], when they need help"). The requirement of being involved and accountable for the effects of work linked to leadership may discourage some individuals from taking on this kind of role (especially if it is imposed by others). Nevertheless, many teachers feel the need to do something more than what is generally expected from them and come up with their own proposals for changes in various fields.

Changes proposed by teachers

Teachers as informal leaders, regardless of the formal authority of the headteacher, can influence the direction in which their school is heading. Even without having legally guaranteed power, they can make their own demands and propose pro-development projects and try to implement them in cooperation with other interested parties (agents of change), for example, developing their own didactical solutions and stimulating the learning of the entire school community by sharing these solutions with others. In other words, by coming up with their own initiatives, teachers can instigate 'bottom-up' changes themselves, and then disseminate them in their schools and local environments. The above-mentioned research on manifestations and areas of informal leadership in schools and kindergartens (Kaczyńska, 2015) showed that these changes can take place on two levels, can have a distinct character and cover different dimensions of school work, as shown in the figure below.

Figure 1. Scope and diversity of the changes proposed by the surveyed teachers
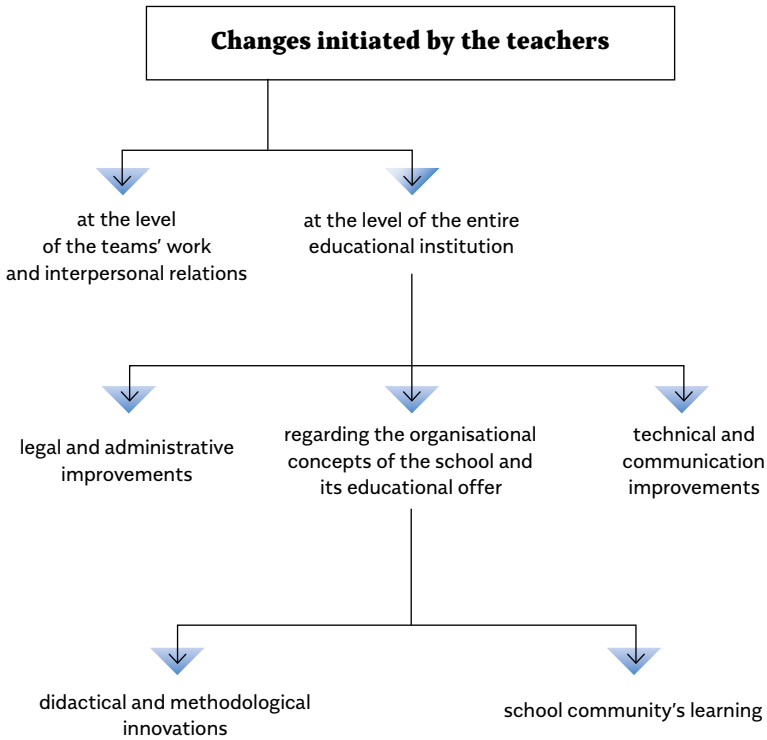
Source: Author (as cited in Kaczyńska, 2015, p. 28, Dorczak et al., 2016, p. 63).

Some of the changes proposed by the group of surveyed teachers had an organisational and task-oriented dimension. These changes were therefore related to the management of the school and its work. Teachers pointed to two main groups of improvements in this field, which can be described as: legal-administrative and technical-communication ones. As part of the first group, there were responses related to changes in the regulations applicable at school/kindergarten, such as: procedures ("intervention procedures, statutory changes - organisation of teamwork"); work plans, lesson plans and trips plans ("all form tutor classes at a given level are conducted at the same time - i.e. the opportunity to meet the whole level without changing the organisation of the school's work"); rules regarding the implementation of programmes, carrying out

exams/competence tests and assessment systems; psychological and pedagogical assistance or social fund management; and :real influence on the shape of projects" . One can also mention the proposal of more frequent team work "with external support and joint organisation of tests for the 3rd grade students, with participation of the parents, and activities on the school pitch'. The second group of proposed changes pertained to the informatisation of the school; that is, equipping it with the necessary computer equipment required for efficient information management, and pointed to the "development, implementation and maintenance of documentation electronically; collecting documentation in the 'cloud'; facilitating communication between members of the teaching staff; installation of monitors in school halls for projection of educational presentations during breaks; methods of collecting information regarding the choices (or their lack) of the sixth graders".

Another area of change was related to the concept of the way the school works and its educational offer. The surveyed teachers wrote, amongst others, about: 'new profiles' of schools or forms, 'opening up of the institution/broadening of the educational offer; inviting lower secondary school students to participate in the students clubs in the pre-professional area' or 'the permanent formula of the School Day and proposals for individual meetings with students and their parents".

Many of the proposals initiated by the teachers concerned didactics and methodology, including pedagogical innovations ("Expeditionary teaching and more out-of-class learning, introduction of individualised classes (...) according to the Dalton plan, joint child–parents workshops for various groups'). Some of them pointed to their achievements, for example: 'nation-wide programmes', proprietary programmes, pedagogical projects and experiments ("school skills support programme; development of two experiments to be implemented in the upper secondary school; a cyclical project in the field of global education, which is being carried out by the students; bringing the school to obtain (10 times) the title of 'Ecological school' of the district'). One individual encouraged others to work with the *'Gramy w Piktogramy'* ('We play pictograms') programme, another indicated a change in the positioning of benches in the classrooms, yet another one organises "Meet the Author' days at their school and 'inter-school competitions'. Among the answers, there was also the initiative of sharing knowledge and experience by creating a 'teaching aid compendium – lesson scenarios, etc.'.

Apart from the organisational issues and didactic changes, the respondents also pointed to the leadership activities, emphasising the role of team work as well as the learning of the whole school community. Teachers mentioned such initiatives as: 'open lessons, educational walks, self-education teams called *Laboratoria Praktyki Edukacyjnej* (Educational Practice Laboratories), *World Cafe*' or even 'filming the lessons'. Some suggestions were modelled on the Formative Assessment and on the programme entitled: *Szkoła Ucząca się* (Learning School) ("Incorporating student's self-government into the work of the subject teams (...); training for new teachers on the subject of peer observation"). Teachers asked if they perceive themselves as leaders stated that their leadership can be demonstrated by: inspiring and motivating others; willingness to cooperate ("We go together into the future"); advising; sharing knowledge, experience and ideas, as well as implementing the ideas of others. Teachers also wrote about change itself: its initiation and implementation, persuading others and acquiring allies for its implementation. In one of the surveys, attention was paid to soliciting 'mental change' in other teachers.

Provided answers also indicated that the initiated changes do not have to concern the entire school. They can include only selected groups/teams of teachers cooperating with each other. For example, development of new forms of internal communication, such as: "changing the formula of meetings of class teams, working meetings of teachers, introduction of work organisation based on leagues-teams-tasks model, introduction of information notebooks *(Polish: zeszyt informacji)*, or a change in the nature of the team's activities from individual ones to teamwork based." In this area, the respondents emphasised the importance of activities focused on the integration of the teaching staff and the concern for good interpersonal relations and the atmosphere at work. One of the solutions given was to support the "spirit of the teaching staff through activities, outings, informal meetings, and celebrating together".

At this point, it is worth emphasising that the changes proposed by the teachers may not have come into force if it was not for the support of the headteacher of their school/kindergarten. As many as 2/3 of the respondents received the headteacher's support for their ideas, half of whom described their attitude as 'accepting', and the other half said that the headteacher has actively assisted them in the implementation. Nobody admitted that it was completely forbidden to introduce a change, however several people indicated that their superiors generated some

obstacles or partially hindered the implementation of their ideas. It is interesting to note that one individual, despite the headteacher's open objection, managed to achieve the intended goal (by doing so, however, "exposed themselves to great dissatisfaction!").

Perception and interpretation of teacher leadership

From the above-mentioned exploratory research on the ways of understanding the informal educational leadership of teachers by both the teachers themselves, as well as by the people tasked with their professionalisation, it follows that the term 'teacher leadership' brings many different associations and interpretations. Sometimes even from the opposite ends of the spectrum (see Madalińska-Michalak, Kołodziejczyk, 2015). The rationale behind this discordance may be the lack or insufficient state of research in this area in Poland, as well as social awareness of the lack of real autonomy of teachers in Polish schools.

This conceptual ambiguity is also confirmed by a different internet survey, carried out by myself, on a small sample of 24 people. This time, respondents (people actively involved in education at all levels) were asked to give answers to two open questions: *What do you associate with the term 'teacher-informal educational leader'? What role can they play at school?* The respondents identified the said person with someone who: seeks change or innovation (6 people), 'sets the direction' (manages the course of the education process) (6 people), is competent in what he does (5 people), has authority (4 people), stands out with charisma (3 people), inspires others (3 people), can influence/influences others (3 people), also shows enthusiasm and 'wants to do more'. To characterise this kind of person, the respondents used interchangeable terms such as: learning leader, leader of change, motor force of change, visionary, initiator, innovator, signpost, lighthouse, master, model, authority, personality, guide (in the education process), coach, teacher-ambassador, enthusiast, practitioner, interesting person and friend. For a few of the respondents, the teacher is, above all, the leader for the students - not necessarily for other teachers. It was difficult for them to see the informal activities in their work, not directly linked to the function of a class teacher.

The respondents also specified a number of tasks that, in their opinion, the teacher - educational leader could be responsible for in the school. These tasks are part of the three main areas of activity: supporting co-workers in their development, working with students, and leading the

change in the school (see Figure 2). The first area included such tasks as: peer to peer training, providing other teachers with advice and help and inspiring others through their leader's personality and through his or her actions (that extends to inspiring teachers of other subjects too) by, for example, introducing new methods of work and convincing others to use innovations, encouraging the introduction and improvement of teaching methods, showing new paths and opportunities, as well as acting as the head of the group and boosting the sense of confidence and strength of the group. The second area can include activities such as: shaping the educational paths of students, helping them find the 'right way to develop', instilling and arousing curiosity and passion, engaging in hard work, building an emotional bond and being supportive for students. In turn, the third area concerns such tasks as: encouraging others to change, determining the direction of changes and introducing/implementing changes. The respondents also pointed to other roles they had in mind for the teachers-leaders in schools: the head of a subject team, the head of training, student recruiter, methodologist, educator, as well as the headteacher's "right hand man' (allegedly an informal leader).

Figure 2. Areas of activity of teachers-educational leaders
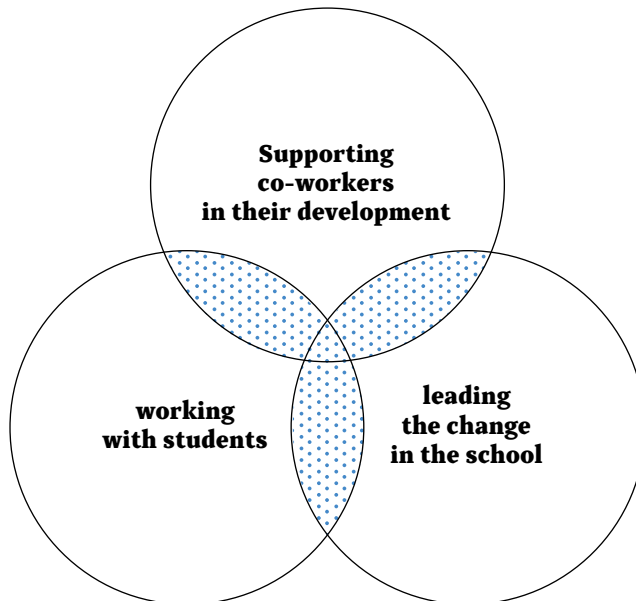
Source: Author.

It is interesting to note that some of the respondents have also noticed the negative side of teacher leadership: causing regression or stagnation, slowing down changes in the face of a crisis, rebelling for changes, introducing bad changes, and even 'discouraging an open approach to self-improvement and development". These individuals have not explained, however, what exactly these activities would involve in the education context, which in principle is serving the development. Others have pointed out that teacher-leaders may, to some degree, challenge external demands and work according to their own vision, not necessarily accepted by colleagues and directors ('work in isolation from imposed programmes', 'go beyond the set framework', 'teaching how to think outside the box'), not being someone who 'thoughtlessly regurgitates' guidelines.

Summary

Leadership focuses more on defining vision and setting out long-term goals than on current tasks. It allows us to find the anchor point that the 'Restorers' are looking for. The fact that it underlines the value of cooperation and is looking for new, sometimes innovative solutions, should be appreciated by the 'Decorators'. In turn, supporters of 'quality' and the 'Reconstructors' should be pleased with the argument in the OECD report (Pont, Nusche, Moorman, 2008, p. 9): 'effective educational leadership is necessary for (…) equal access to education'. It seems that the surveyed teachers more than on social changes and ways of thinking about education (in its essence and foundations), focus on didactics and on practical (organisational) aspects of school work. However, their actions aimed at building a culture of cooperation and mutual learning is in itself a step towards a grassroots transformation of the education system with a social or even fundamental meaning. The culture of a 'closed classroom' is slowly transforming into a community of autonomous people who are ready to 'stand at the helm' in order to guide the development of the school community. The effectiveness of actions taken by teachers may in turn make them reflect on its meaning and on the importance of education in general. Such teachers do not have to be 'heroes' of extraordinary abilities at all, and their leadership does not have to be formalised, as Donaldson points out (2007, p. 27), but may have a relational character and thus happen in a way 'in space' between people who are members of the school community.

Educational leadership creates the conditions for youth's development, because "it is the second most important factor, after teaching in the classroom, that influences the student's learning process" (Leithwood, Harris, Hopkins, 2008, p. 27). The 'climate' of the class reflects the 'climate' of the school, therefore, in order to be able to lead effectively, the teachers themselves also need a supportive environment that will enable them to realise their potential, visions and ideas and share them with others. Distribution of leadership or broadening the sphere of influence and autonomy (also understood as empowerment - after: Blanchard, 2013, p. 58), gives teachers a sense of agency. It is still difficult to adequately measure the importance of the headteacher's support for the implementation of the bottom-up initiatives (referring to previous comparisons - an admission of the teacher to the 'captain's bridge'). Regardless, it seems that an informal educational leader who is determined and resistant to unfavourable circumstances may have a chance to convince others to implement their vision (in the study described above, the vast majority of people managed to gain allies among their colleagues and implement the proposed changes). Nevertheless, there are also internal dispositions that will help informal educational leaders deal with resistance to change and will allow them to keep initial motivation, commitment and professional fulfilment (Kaczyńska, 2016b). On the flip side, teachers not possessing those qualities, who at the same time are denied the right to self-directed actions and taking responsibility for them, may feel frustration and lose the sense of their own work (ibidem).

Regardless of which discourse ('quality' or 'giving the meaning'), and which of the specified visions of educational changes we will adopt, planning subsequent ones, we should not forget about teachers - their main executors. If we entrust them with the youth - and with it, the future of the country and the world, why not also make them co-authors of these changes? By creating optimal working conditions based on trust in their competence, a readiness to cooperate and the sharing of knowledge and power, we can help teachers- enthusiasts to maintain their passion and commitment and to awaken it in those who lack it. Looking at the scale and variety of changes initiated by teachers, we can confidently say that it is worth looking for (prospective) informal leaders among them and that it is worth supporting them, because they work not only for their students but also for the entire school community.

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Home

Headteacher leadership and school climate as a foundation for teacher leadership development

Jakub Kołodziejczyk

The paper focuses on the analysis of the connections between leadership styles and the school climate, which can facilitate or inhibit the conditions for teacher leadership development. The conducted study of leadership dimensions was based on the GLOBE scale, and the school climate was analysed using the school climate questionnaire developed in the *Zdrowa Szkoła (Healthy School)* project. The study was carried out in 28 lower secondary schools in large cities and included 28 headteachers and 521 teachers. Whilst the findings do not provide any solid arguments in the form of strong correlations between the coincidence of the analysed leadership styles and features of the school climate, they do present a basis for drawing conclusions as to the impact trends of headteachers' leadership styles. The analysis indicates a positive correlation between three leadership dimensions (team-oriented, charismatic and participative) and the school climate, and a negative correlation between the autonomous style and the school climate.

Home

Introduction

A review of teacher leadership definitions presented in literature in the last decade suggests that there are five aspects which researchers have been focusing on. These concern teacher leadership that (1) goes beyond leading students and teaching in the classroom; (2) supports professional learning at school, for example, by leading various forms of teacher development; (3) should be involved in policy and decision-making at certain levels of governance; (4) is linked to improving the learning process and raising students' success; and (5) should work towards the improvement and reorganisation of a school as a whole (Wenner, Campbell, 2017).

Initially, research on teacher leadership was conducted without any reference to theoretical premises (York-Barr, Duke, 2004). Today, researchers make greater use of different conceptual frameworks, most of which contain references to distributed leadership, and less so to other concepts, such as democratic/constructive leadership, parallel leadership or transactional leadership (Wenner, Campbell, 2017).

An important aspect that is given much attention in teacher leadership research is the conditions that influence it. Based on a literature review, York-Barr and Duke (2004) identified three areas affecting teacher leadership:

- → school culture and context,
- → roles and relationships (between teachers, and between teachers and headteachers), and
- → a school's organisational structure.

Researchers emphasise that these areas are interlinked, for example, with the structure of a school, and that relationships can affect teacher leadership, but can also depend on the school culture. Wenner and Campbell (2017), while reviewing the literature from the last decade, identified a number of factors that support or inhibit teacher leadership in school. The factors that facilitate teacher leadership mentioned in these publications include external training and support for teacher leaders, support for the school administration, a school's climate and structural factors that allow teacher leaders to do their work better, in addition to clearly specified accountability and recognition for their work. The inhibiting factors include lack of time, poor relationships with

other teachers and/or the school administration, climate and structural factors, and personal characteristics (Wenner, Campbell, 2017).

The paper pays particular attention to two factors that affect teacher leadership, namely (1) the leadership style of school heads, which can play a role in the forming of relationships between teachers and headteachers, and (2) the school climate regarding aspects which may involve the conditions that are conducive or inhibitory to teacher leadership. Above all, we will be interested in the coincidence of leadership styles among school heads and in the intensification of the school climate factors that can form the basis for teacher leadership development.

The leadership style practiced by headteachers can play an important role in the formation of relationships between them and the teachers as well as the wider school climate. According to Schein (1986), the only role played by leaders is in creating and managing culture (Leithwood et al., 1999, p. 82). This is supported by research into the models of leadership exercised by school heads, which makes a case for the position that the headteachers' impact on educational outcomes is indirect (Hallinger, Heck, 1998), and depends on other individuals, events and organisational factors (Leithwood, Anderson, Mascall and Strauss, 2010). The headteachers' activities influence the school-specific climate, which is understood as the subjective perception of school life by members of the school community (students, teachers, parents, headteachers and other staff)[1], and suggests that the nature of this phenomenon is perceptual (psychological) (Kulesza, 2011; Van Houtte, 2005 in: Ostaszewski 2012).

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1.   Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Education, www.education.oxfordre.com/view/10.1093/acrefore/9780190264093.001.0001/acrefore-9780190264093-e-89

The author's research

The presented analysis uses data from a study of the impact of school leadership on aggressive behaviour and violence among students[2]. In addition to measuring the dimensions of leadership, the study collected data on teachers' perceptions of various aspects of the school climate.

For the purpose of this paper, an analysis was carried out of the correlation between the six dimensions of leadership observed by the headteachers and the school climate as perceived by the teachers. This will be used as the premise for answering the question of the mutual relationship between two factors that can have a facilitating or inhibitory effect on the conditions for teacher leadership development in schools.

Measurement of leadership styles

In recent years, the *Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Research Project* (GLOBE) has carried out the most extensive study on organisational cultures and leadership.

The aim of GLOBE was to increase the available knowledge that can be important to intercultural interactions. The research, which focused on managers, was conducted in some thousand organisations across 62 countries. The findings provide insights into nine dimensions of organisational cultures and six dimensions of leadership behaviour.

GLOBE defines leadership as the ability of an individual to influence, motivate and enable others to contribute to the effectiveness and success of their organisation (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, Gupta, 2004, p. 15). The study identified 21 leader characteristics or behaviours that are commonly perceived as making leadership effective, 8 that are commonly considered as impeding leadership, and 35 leader characteristics or behaviours that are seen to support leadership in

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2. The research project *Wpływ przywództwa w szkole na zachowania agresywne i przemoc wśród uczniów* (Impact of School Leadership on Aggressive Behaviour and Violence among Students) is conducted as part of the statutory research carried out by the Institute of Public Affairs of the Jagiellonian University. The aim of the project is to determine the impact of the leadership exercised by headteachers on a school's performance in relation to indicators other than those predominating in contemporary research (i.e. academic achievement), namely social behaviour (i.e. aggression and violence). The surveys were carried out in lower secondary schools in big cities, and included the headteachers, teachers and students.

some cultures and to inhibit it others (ibid., p. 14). Ultimately, six dimensions of leadership were identified:

→ **Charismatic/value-based leadership.** This dimension of leadership reflects the ability to inspire, motivate and set high expectations when referring to fundamental values. The charismatic leadership dimension consists of six sub-scales: (a) vision, (b) inspiration, (c) dedication, (d) reliability, (e) decision making, and (f) task-orientation.

→ **Team-oriented leadership.** This dimension underlines the role of team building and the setting of common goals by team members. The team-oriented leadership dimension includes five sub-scales: (a) cooperation orientation, (b) team integration, (c) diplomacy, (d) hostility (reverse), and (e) administrative competence.

→ **Participative leadership.** This dimension refers to the extent to which a leader involves others in making and implementing decisions. The participatory leadership dimension consists of two sub-scales: (a) autocracy (reverse), and (b) non-participation (reverse).

→ **Humane-oriented leadership.** This dimension refers to supportive and tactful leadership, whilst also including compassion and generosity. The humane-oriented leadership dimension consists of two sub-scales: (a) humane orientation, and (b) modesty.

→ **Autonomous leadership.** A distinct dimension of leadership that refers to leadership independence and individualistic features. This dimension is measured on a single scale, namely (a) autonomy.

→ **Self-protective leadership.** A newly defined leadership dimension that plays a role within the Western perspective and defines leader behaviour focused on ensuring security and protecting oneself and one's group by enhancing one's status and image. There are five sub-scales in the self-protective leadership dimension: (a) focus on a good image, (b) social status awareness, (c) confrontationality, (d) self-focus, and (e) bureaucratism.

The survey was based on *Kwestionariusz ankiety badania kulturowego kontekstu grup społecznych i organizacji* (Questionnaire to explore the cultural context of social groups and organisations), a tool adapted from the GLOBE project by R. Porzak, M. Sagan and M. Zub

(Porzak, Sagan, Zub, 2011; Porzak, Sagan, 2015), which was used with the authors' consent.

The examination of leadership styles involved a questionnaire featuring a list and short descriptions of leader behaviours and characteristics (e.g. trustworthy - you can rely on them, they keep their word). Each item was accompanied by a field in which the respondents entered their chosen score on a scale from 1 to 7 (between 1: 'this trait makes it extremely difficult for him or her to become an outstanding leader' and 7: 'this trait is extremely helpful in becoming an outstanding leader').

Examination of the school climate

The study used a selection of questions from the school climate questionnaire used in the project *Zdrowa Szkoła* (Healthy School) (Woynarowska, Sokolowska, Lutze, Woynarowska-Soldan, 2007). The questions about the teachers' impact on school life related mainly to the headteacher's role. Examples of the particular items included: 'The school leadership asks teachers their opinions on matters concerning school life and work,' 'My opinion on school life and work is taken into account' and 'The school leadership is open to teachers' suggestions and ideas.' Another three questions concerned the relationships between teachers, and the items were, for example: 'The relationships between teachers are good,' 'I trust most teachers in my school' and 'I feel accepted by other teachers.'

The items used to study the school climate were measured on a five-grade Likert scale.

Respondents

The research was conducted in lower secondary schools from two big cities (over 200,000 and over 800,000 inhabitants). The survey involved the headteachers of each school (n=28) and the teachers (n=521). Among the school heads, 18 women (64%) and 10 men (36%) took part in the survey. Among the teachers, 83.5% were women, and 16.5% men. The schools differed regarding the return rate of the questionnaires, which ranged from 9 to 56 filled questionnaires.

Findings

According to the headteachers, the leadership qualities for success were linked primarily to the leadership styles that are team-oriented (mean score: 6.0) and charismatic (mean score: 5.79), and to a lesser extent to humane-oriented leadership (mean score: 4.88). The headteachers ascribed a similar level of usefulness to the traits of autonomous and participatory leadership (mean score: 4.34 and 4.32 respectively). The least valued traits for successful leadership were those related to the self-protective style (mean score: 3.53). A comparison of the mean scores for the particular leadership styles is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Leadership styles: mean scores
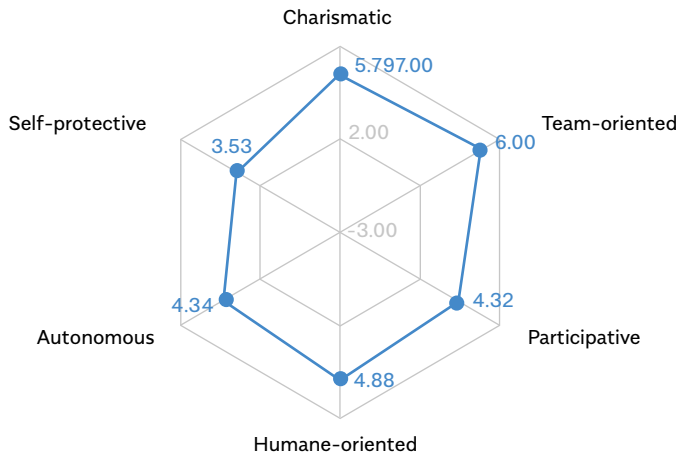
Source: Author.

A closer look at the descriptive statistics (see Table 1) shows that the headteachers displayed the most diverse views on team-oriented leadership and autonomous leadership, which were characterised by the greatest breadth and dispersion of results around the mean. On the other hand, the headteachers were the most consistent in how they perceived the importance of the leadership styles that had the higher mean scores (i.e. charismatic and team-oriented leadership) and the lower ones (i.e. participatory and self-protective leadership).

Table 1. Leadership styles: descriptive statistics

LEADERSHIP STYLE	N	MIN.	MAX.	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION
Team–oriented	28	5.01	6.75	6.00	0.551
Charismatic	28	4.57	6.61	5.79	0.448
Humane–oriented	28	1.50	6.63	4.88	1.141
Autonomous	28	2.00	6.25	4.34	1.354
Participative	28	2.54	5.46	4.32	0.716
Self–protective	28	2.43	5.07	3.53	0.666

Source: Author.

Most of the teachers held a positive opinion of the school climate features used in the analysis (see Table 2). The description of the results took into account two extreme positive scale elements, namely 'largely true' and 'entirely true.'

The first group of questions concerned the relationships between the teachers and the school heads. The teachers who participated in the survey were of the opinion that the headteachers were friendly towards them (72.3%) and showed an interest in them (60.9%). Most of the teachers also felt appreciated at school (58%). Other questions concerned the teachers' impact on school life. Two-thirds of the respondents stated that the headteachers asked them for their opinions on matters concerning school life and work. The same percentage believed that their views were taken into consideration. A slightly lower number of respondents observed the headteachers' openness to the teachers' suggestions and ideas (59.4%).

The research also showed that the teachers highly valued various features of the school climate with regard to relationships between teachers. The respondents felt that they were accepted by other teachers (73%), from whom they could receive help, if required (69.6%). They also held a positive view of the relationships between one another (64.8%) and their willingness to cooperate (61.2%). The lowest scores (albeit still positive from most of the respondents) were given to the teachers' willingness to participate in meetings and events together, and to their trust in their colleagues (57.7%).

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Table 2. School climate features as ranked by teachers

	ENTIRELY UNTRUE		SLIGHTLY TRUE		TRUE TO SOME EXTENT		LARGELY TRUE		ENTIRELY TRUE	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
I feel appreciated at school	16	3.1	62	12	139	26.8	157	30.3	144	27.8
My opinion on school life and work is taken into account	11	2.1	52	10	112	21.6	171	32.9	173	33.3
The school leadership is open to the teachers' suggestions and ideas	16	3.1	63	12.1	132	25.4	154	29.6	155	29.8
The school leadership seeks the teachers' opinions on matters concerning school life and work	11	2.1	52	10	112	21.6	171	32.9	173	33.3
The school leadership shows an interest in me as an individual	30	5.7	55	10.5	119	22.8	131	25.1	187	35.8
The school leadership is friendly towards the teachers	8	1.5	36	6.9	100	19.2	157	30.1	220	42.2
The relationships between teachers are good	7	1.3	43	8.2	134	25.6	199	38	140	26.8
The teachers are willing to cooperate	2	0.4	56	10.7	145	27.7	209	40	111	21.2
The teachers are willing to take part in meetings. events and trips together	9	1.7	69	13.2	143	27.3	191	36.5	111	21.2
I trust most teachers at my school	11	2.1	67	12.8	143	27.3	190	36.3	112	21.4
I feel accepted by other teachers	2	0.4	28	5.4	111	21.3	242	46.4	139	26.6
I can count on other teachers' help if I need it	1	0.2	32	6.1	126	24.1	256	48.9	108	20.7

Source: Author.

The correlation analysis was based on teacher data to which the leadership scale scores of the teachers' respective school heads were assigned. The correlation between the school climate features as perceived by the teachers and the leadership scales was low, ranging between r=0.199 and r=0.260 (see Table 3).

Table 3. Correlation between the surveyed features of the school climate and leadership styles

	CHARIS-MATIC	TEAM-ORIENTED	SELF-PROTECTIVE	PARTICI-PATIVE	HUMANE-ORIENTED	AUTONO-MOUS
I feel appreciated at school	.121**	.169***	-.093	.172***	.042	-.169***
My opinion on school life and work is taken into account	.165***	.174***	-.054	.234***	.077	-.177***
The school leadership is open to the teachers' suggestions and ideas	.035	.077	-.075	.087	.041	-.136**
The school leadership seeks the teachers' opinions on matters concerning school life and work	.043	.052	-.024	.094*	.042	-.116*
The school leadership shows an interest in me as an individual	.187***	.230***	-.106*	.260***	.097*	-.256***
The school leadership is friendly towards the teachers	.107*	.136**	-.074	.196***	.115*	-.199***
The relationships between teachers are good	.098*	.125**	-.060	.165***	.050	-.057
The teachers are willing to cooperate	.025	.088	-.070	.084	.043	-.036
The teachers are willing to take part in meetings. events and trips together	.071	.084	-.068	.034	.079	.051
I trust most teachers at my school	.096*	.148**	-.175***	.195***	-.008	-.110*
I feel accepted by other teachers	.095*	.132**	-.033	.201***	.073	-.062
I can count on other teachers' help if I need it	.001	.028	-.086	.117*	.016	-.074

*** Significant correlation at the level of 0.001; ** significant correlation at the level of 0.01; significant correlation at the level of 0.05

Source: Author.

Among the surveyed leadership styles which, in the opinion of the headteachers, contributed to a leader's success, participative leadership was the style that shows the strongest and the most statistically significant correlation with the highest number of school climate features as perceived by the teachers. This leadership style correlated the most strongly with the teachers' sense of the school leadership taking an interest in them (r=0.260) and their belief that their opinions on school life were taken into account (r=0.234). In all cases, the correlation was positive, which means that the headteachers' participative style of leadership accompanies a more positive school climate.

Similarly to the participative leadership style, albeit to a lower extent of coincidence and in relation to a smaller number of the surveyed school climate features, team-oriented and charismatic leadership displayed a positive correlation with most of the school climate items used in the analysis. Team-oriented leadership correlated the most strongly with the teachers' sense of the school leadership taking an interest in them (r=0.230) and their belief that their opinions on school life were taken into account (r=0.174). The charismatic style correlated the most strongly with similar elements of the school climate, but at a slightly lower level (r=0.187 and r=0.165 respectively).

The least correlated with the school climate were the humane-oriented and self-protective leadership styles, which displayed statistically significant correlations in two cases only.

However, there was a fundamental difference between these styles regarding the correlation trends. Humane-oriented leadership correlated positively with certain school climate features, such as the school head's interest in the teachers (r=0.097) and with friendliness towards them (r=0.115), whereas the self-protective style correlated negatively with the school head's interest in the teachers (r=-0.106) and with trust between the teachers (r=-0.175).

The coincidence of the autonomous leadership style and the school climate features as perceived by the teachers was clearly different, and in most cases, the correlation between these showed a negative trend. This means that a higher level of this leadership style coincides with a poorer perception of the school climate. Autonomous leadership showed the strongest and statistically significant correlation with the headteacher's interest in the teachers as individuals (r=-0.256), with

the perception of the headteacher as friendly towards the teachers (r=-0.199), and with the belief that teachers' opinions on school life and work were taken into account (r=-0.177).

It should be noted that activities undertaken together with other teachers (cooperation and participation in meetings) did not correlate at a statistically significant level with any of the leadership styles.

Conclusions

The conducted analysis does not provide any solid arguments in the form of strong correlations between the coincidence of the surveyed leadership styles and the school climate features that may be associated with teacher leadership. Nonetheless, it does provide a basis for drawing conclusions as to the impact trends of the school heads' leadership styles.

The first of these conclusions concerns three leadership styles, namely team-oriented, charismatic and participative leadership, which support a school climate that is conducive to teacher leadership. This means that leadership qualities and behaviours, such as vision, inspiration, dedication, reliability, decision making, task orientation, cooperation orientation, team integration, diplomacy, friendliness, administrative competence, participation and lack of autocracy, contribute to creating a climate for teacher leadership in schools. It is important to note that the leadership style which displays the strongest coincidence with a school climate that supports the conditions for teacher leadership is the participative style. This, however, is not the style that the headteachers identify as one the most conducive to the success of school leaders.

The findings also show that the autonomous leadership style has a negative impact on creating the conditions for teacher leadership. In other words, the independence and individualistic behaviours and traits of a headteacher obstruct teacher leadership development. A similar effect, albeit in relation to a much lower number of the studied school climate features, is observed with the self-protective style that is oriented at maintaining security and protecting oneself and one's group by strengthening one's status and image.

Another important issue in teacher leadership, especially in relation to going beyond leadership in the classroom, is cooperation between teachers. The analysis shows that participatory, charismatic and team-

oriented leadership is positively linked to relationships between teachers and their mutual acceptance and trust, whilst the self-protective and autonomous leadership styles are negatively linked to trust between teachers. In this context, none of the surveyed leadership styles are significantly connected to the teachers' perception of their willingness to cooperate and take part together in meetings, events and trips.

Conclusion

In the light of the presented findings, it is understandable that researchers combine different concepts of leadership exercised by headteachers (e.g. dispersed, democratic or parallel) with teacher leadership (Wenner, Campbell, 2017). It seems that teacher leadership requires the creation of a supportive environment which is inspired and to some extent shaped by the actions undertaken by the headteachers. From this perspective, the results show the need to consider not only the particular factors that influence teacher leadership in schools, but also how these factors interact.

Finally, the author would like to present a reflection on the relationships and cooperation between teachers, which can be a factor in supporting or inhibiting teacher leadership development. Numerous studies prove the existence of positive relationships and good cooperation between teachers in schools (Tłuściak-Deliowska, Dernowska, 2016), in addition to a belief in teamwork (Wlazło, 2010; Kołodziejczyk, 2013, 2013a). Nevertheless, it is worth noting that there are also studies that show some negative phenomena related to relationships and cooperation between teachers that, in general, have been conducted from research perspectives other than leadership or the climate of an organisation, for example from that of stress in the teaching environment (Pyżalski, 2010) or the self-evaluation of one's work (Kołodziejczyk, Kołodziejczyk, 2015). This critical perspective should be included more widely in the research on teacher leadership in the context of cooperation and teamwork.

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School climate and its importance for teachers' roles and leadership tasks

Karolina Malinowska

The school climate and, in particular, its two components: the leadership style presented by the school's headteacher, and the interpersonal relations between the headteacher and the teachers, as well as the relations among the teaching staff, are important factors in relation to the uptake of engagement in various leadership roles and tasks by the teachers at school. Research shows that in Polish schools, headteachers are not very willing to share leadership with teachers. In turn, both headteacher-teacher and teacher-teacher relations are very well evaluated by Polish teachers. Certain issues can only be identified in the scope of open discussion addressing problems and highlighting difficulties, of both pedagogical and educational nature. Thus, the barrier for the emergence of school leaders may be the reluctance of headteachers to share leadership, as well as the unwillingness of teachers and the headteacher to share with others their own experiences related to difficulties at work. Therefore, the leadership style adopted by the school's headteacher, as well as greater emphasis placed on building trust in mutual relations, are both of great importance in reinforcing teachers' leadership.

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Introduction

The role of a teacher is, in essence, a leadership role. It is the teacher who guides students, directs their work during lessons, inspires students to develop, defines the principles of joint activities, etc. However, it is also possible for teachers to perform leadership roles and tasks other than those related to students. The determinants of taking up such roles and duties by teachers can be sought in legal, institutional, organisational and psychosocial factors, including individual ones, which rest both on the part of teachers themselves and other members of the school community, in particular on the part of the headteacher of the school.

In the search for an adequate perspective that captures this multifaceted issue, I chose to analyse the school climate and its importance in the emergence of school leaders. It is worth delineating at the outset that this type of analysis can only give a partial answer to the question of the conditions in which leadership roles and tasks can be undertaken by teachers, and a more complete extraction of the leadership potential from amongst the teaching staff.

School climate and its dimensions in the context of teachers' leadership

School climate is a concept, like many others in the social sciences, defined in various ways by researchers and theoreticians. As part of this analysis, I will use a definition consistent with the definitions of the organisational climate, from which the concept of school climate originates. This concept relates to the perception of objective reality, social environment, school conditions and school culture shared by different people, and not the objective reality itself in which students and teachers function (Przewłocka, 2015a, p. 3).

School climate includes multiple dimensions taken into account to a different extent by various researchers. Among them are:

→ The quality of social relations (teacher-student relations, care for the student's wellbeing, relations between students, friendships, relations between teachers and between teachers and the headteacher, relations between the school and parents, and between the school and the local community).

→ Safe and well-maintained environment (state of the building and classrooms, availability of teaching aids, safety at school, attitude towards aggression or other forms of bullying, emotional security

during lessons, creative freedom, respect for differences - e.g. religious ones, equality in the observance of school's rules and regulations).

→   Learning environment (focus on academic achievements, high expectations with simultaneous support for students, attractive interactive teaching methodology).

→   Participation in school life (management style, conditions for the active participation of teachers, students and parents in school life, teacher autonomy, division of duties and competences, participation of students in extracurricular activities and informal education) (Blum, 2007, In Ostaszewski, 2012, p. 27).

It seems that among the listed school climate dimensions, those of particular importance for taking on different roles and leadership tasks by teachers may be: the quality of social relations and participation in school life. I will commence the analysis with the issue of the role of the headteacher, and thus their leadership style and creation (or not) of conditions for teachers to actively participate in decision-making.

Shared leadership in schools

In recent years, the concept of shared leadership, dispersed leadership or participative leadership has become popular in literature on educational leadership (Michalak, 2011; Madalińska-Michalak, 2015; Elsner, 2015; Mazurkiewicz, 2010; Hernik et al., 2012; Tołwińska, 2011a). Regardless of the adopted definition and name in the above-mentioned concepts, the essence is the participation of teachers in leadership at school, therefore the distribution of leadership (Michalak, 2010).

In the literature on the subject, it is postulated to extend the teacher's professional promotion system to include the leadership paths of professional development, for example, in the form of horizontal promotion this may include the creation of functions such as: mentor (which exists in Poland under the guise of placement supervisor, which, as such, require more appreciation), school mediator, promoter of youth talents or a school project coordinator (Hernik et al., 2014, p. 149). In many schools in Poland there are teachers performing such functions. Nowadays, teamwork is not only desirable in schools, but it is also a legal requirement, and hence, there is a need for the emergence of leaders of various teams, such as subject teams, teachers teaching in one class, educational teams,

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teams aimed at developing individual forms of assistance for students with special educational needs or other task teams. In addition, teachers can have many other leadership roles of an informal character.

It is worth noting that, as research shows, including teachers in the leadership process at school has a positive impact on their effectiveness and students' engagement (Harris, 2011). This type of leadership assumes a great opportunity to release the potential of teachers, support their development, strengthen the sense of responsibility, which also translates into work with students. In addition, sharing leadership can support cooperation among the teaching staff.

However, it is difficult to assess the extent to which in Polish schools this relatively new style of leadership is a valid practice, and how much still only a postulate. The *Teaching and Learning International Survey* TALIS 2013 attempted to capture the extent, to which the headteachers make decisions on their own, and to what extent other entities or persons are responsible for particular matters. The survey has revealed the image of Polish headteachers as people who are, on one hand, overloaded with their duties, without sufficient support and commitment on the part of parents, struggling with insufficient financial and other school resources, and on the other, leaders who take on more and more tasks without sharing responsibility and power with others (Hernik, 2015). Kamila Hernik, analysing the results of the TALIS 2013 survey, points to the tension in the attitude of headteachers between the desire to maintain control, where it is possible, and the inability to deal with it, and hence the difficulty in focusing on leadership activities. It seems that the solution in this situation could be at least a partial sharing of tasks with other entities; in particular, teachers.

The TALIS 2013 survey has also shown that in Poland slightly more than three-quarters of teachers declare that the headteacher "gives them the opportunity to actively participate in making decisions regarding the school", but only about 12 percent of them strongly agreed with this statement (Przewłocka, 2015b).

Therefore, among the factors supporting teachers' assuming various roles and leadership tasks, one should certainly mention the attitude of the school's headteacher, including the style of leadership they adopt. If the headteacher is strongly attached to the hierarchical structure of authority and is solely responsible for most of the school matters, it can create conditions in which teachers lack the motivation to take on more responsibility. It may also be that the headteacher is simply reluctant to let

teachers participate in taking actions or decisions outside of the classroom, and in such instances an initiative on the part of teachers would require a lot of strength and motivation on their side.

## Teachers' and headteacher's relations

Both the leadership style and the interpersonal relationships prevailing at school form the school climate and are relevant to the discussed issue. As Bożena Tołwińska (2011b) points out, the school is a specific organisation, whose main value is people, and the interactions which are carried out in direct everyday contacts between them. As a result, interpersonal relations are one of the most important factors supporting or hindering the development of schools.

The undertaking of various roles and leadership tasks by teachers depends, among other things, on how they feel among other teachers and on their relations with the headteacher. Relationships within the teacher's group and between the headteacher and teachers, including factors such as the level of trust and openness, undertaking cooperation and mutual support all affect the teachers' engagement and professional satisfaction, and hence also the readiness to take on additional roles and tasks, including leadership ones.

Data in this area is provided by *Instytut Badań Edukacyjnych* (The Educational Research Institute), which conducted the study entitled *Bezpieczeństwo uczniów i klimat społeczny w polskich szkołach* (Student Safety and Social Climate in Polish Schools) (Przewłocka, 2015c). The study focused on students, form teachers, school psychologists, other teachers and headteachers at primary schools (from the 4th grade), lower secondary schools, upper general secondary schools, technical schools and basic vocational schools. As it turns out, the vast majority of teachers highly appreciate the headteacher and his/her relations with the teaching staff (Figure 1.), where headteachers in small schools are assessed better than those in the larger schools. Over 80 percent of all surveyed teachers declared that the headteacher of their school treats teachers with respect, helps them in difficult situations and is open to their suggestions. A similar percentage stated that the headteacher leaves decisions regarding working with students to the teachers, but in this matter the respondents' answers are not as decisive: while in the case of previous statements, about 40 percent chose the answers "definitely yes" and "rather yes", in the issue of

leaving decisions to the teachers, only 20 percent chose the strong option. About 70 percent of teachers confirm that the headteacher appreciates the work of teachers, treats them fairly and trusts them. At the same time, what is worth emphasising, is that almost a quarter of teachers indicate the problem of reluctant admission to the didactic and educational problems before the headteacher (Przewłocka, 2015c).

Figure 1. The percentage of teachers agreeing and disagreeing with the statements regarding the relationship with the headteacher
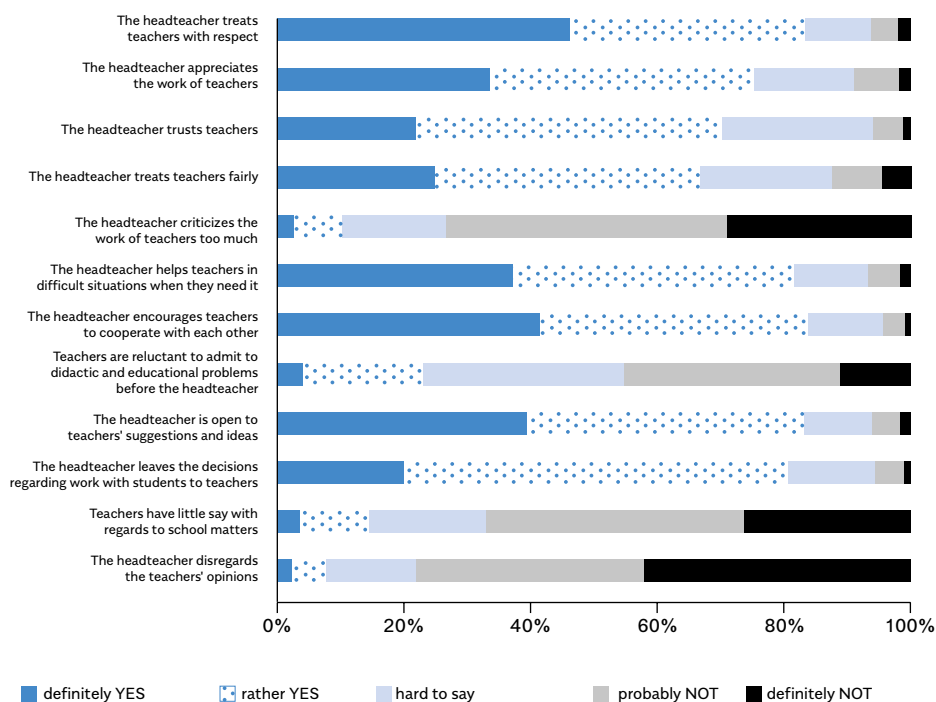
Source: Przewłocka, J. (2015), *Bezpieczeństwo uczniów i klimat społeczny w polskich szkołach*, Warszawa: Instytut Badań Edukacyjnych, p. 100.

Relations among teachers

Similarly, the majority of teachers assess positively the relations within the teachers group. Over 80 percent of teachers confirm that they often help each other in solving educational problems (figure 2). At the

same time, every fourth respondent claims that teachers are reluctant to disclose their problems to other teachers. 30 percent of respondents declared no opinion on this matter. Therefore, the problem of admitting difficulties exists, according to a significant percentage of teachers, both in relations with the headteacher and other teachers.

The majority of the teachers assess positively the potential of getting help from colleagues in the event of having to take on an increased workload. The level of trust, however, ranks much lower, with just over half of the respondents confirming that teachers trust one another, from which only every tenth chose the answer "definitely yes". There were very few negative opinions pointing to rivalry or a bad atmosphere; however, over 40 percent of teachers confirm that the teaching staff is divided and there are clear groups holding together. As Jadwiga Przewłocka points out, both the level of support and trust is the highest in small schools. In large schools, in turn, competition between teachers is higher (Przewłocka, 2015c).

Figure 2. The percentage of teachers agreeing and disagreeing with the statements regarding relationships between teachers

Source: Przewłocka, J. (2015), *Bezpieczeństwo uczniów i klimat społeczny w polskich szkołach*, Warszawa: Instytut Badań Edukacyjnych, p.99.

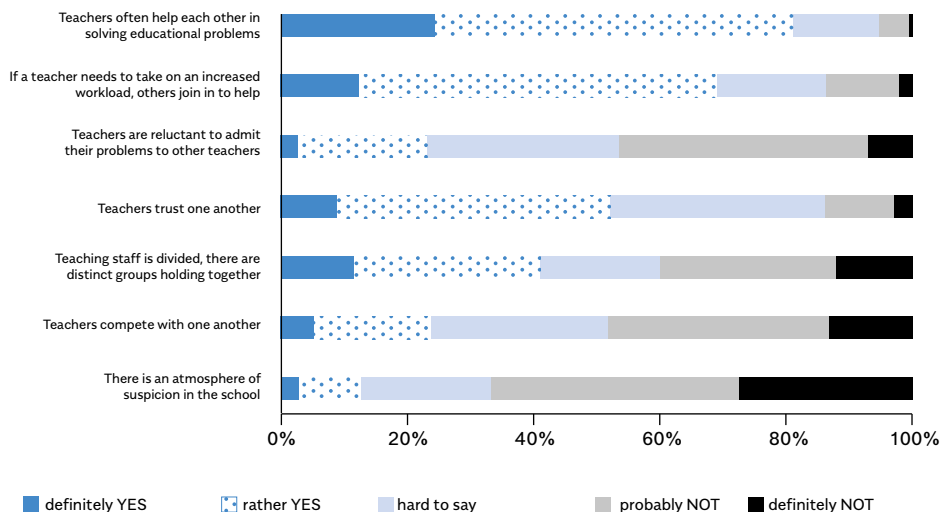The opportunity to discuss problems openly, to uncover both pedagogical and educational difficulties as well as the obtainment of support by teachers are important components of a positive school climate. The TALIS 2013 survey confirms some problems at Polish schools in this area. Although almost all school headteachers in Poland (93 percent) declare that "school employees openly talk about difficulties", they rarely affirm strong positive belief that this is the case, compared to headteachers from other countries. Among the headteachers of lower secondary schools, only 18 percent chose the answer "definitely yes", yet for example in Slovakia and Romania this figure was 41 percent, while the average TALIS for headteachers from all surveyed countries is 26 percent. The study showed a similar result in terms of responses regarding "mutual respect for ideas of other teachers" - almost all headteachers confirm its presence in school, however only 13 percent strongly express their opinion, while the average for headteachers from all countries amounted to 23 percent (Przewłocka, 2015b).

Returning to the school climate study, the analysis shows that relationships with work colleagues have a big impact on teachers' satisfaction and well-being (Przewłocka, 2015c). An even greater impact was noted in the case of a relationship with the headteacher. Most teachers declare satisfaction with work in their school, more than three-quarters declare that at school they "feel at home", the same number recommends it as a good place to work. Only one in six teachers often feel stressed in their school (Figure 3).

Figure 3. The percentage of teachers agreeing and disagreeing
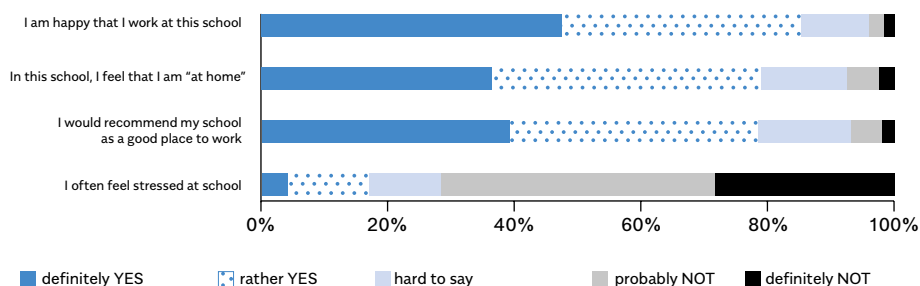
with the statements regarding job satisfaction

Source: Przewłocka, J. (2015), *Bezpieczeństwo uczniów i klimat społeczny w polskich szkołach*, Warszawa: Instytut Badań Edukacyjnych, p.101.

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One other aspect complementing the school climate data in the context of taking up roles and leadership tasks by teachers may be the results of the study regarding work time and working conditions of teachers entitled: *Badanie Czasu i Warunków Pracy Nauczycieli* (Federowicz et al., 2013), which shows that teachers who act as leaders of subject teams or other task teams in school (they made up ¼ of all surveyed teachers), are much more often likely to be form teachers, as compared to other teachers. What's more, teachers who act as team leaders devote more time to the preparation of lessons and extracurricular activities than other teachers. The authors of the report indicate possible explanations for this situation: perhaps this is the reason why these teachers are chosen as team leaders or vice versa, as leaders they feel obliged to undertake more thorough preparations. Either way, they generally devote more time to the daily preparation for classes or marking students' work (Federowicz et al., 2013). This result may indicate that school leaders are individuals with a special approach to work, more so than others involved in the same vocation and feel responsible for the school, both in its teaching and educational roles. It seems, however, that these attitudes cannot be understood only as certain individual features found in a given teacher. The school climate may also influence the development of such an active attitude. John Fischer and Jeff Taylor (2012), show that teachers who enjoy their work, feel satisfaction with it and have a sense of their own importance, are usually more engaged and achieve better results. Positive attitude and energy allows those teachers to accomplish more tasks, and, as a result, achieve more goals. Strengthening this type of attitude among teachers by both the school headteacher and the teaching staff themselves, as well as students, their parents or representatives of local governments, can bring many benefits to school communities.

Summary

To sum up, it seems that in many Polish schools there is the potential for headteachers to share leadership with teachers. This stems from, among other things, positive interpersonal relationships and the generally good atmosphere among the teaching staff.

However, the resistance of teachers to share their difficulties at work with others may be a barrier. Admitting that something is not working out is difficult, it presents a problem, exposes teachers to judgement.

In turn, assuming roles and leadership tasks requires a lot of trust in colleagues at work and the headteacher, and importantly, the ability to reach out for support when necessary. Another barrier may be the headteacher's attitude and the lack of willingness or ability to transfer responsibility for school matters to teachers. It is therefore not enough to have a good atmosphere at schools. It is not without reason that the foundation of many leadership concepts is trust in interpersonal relations (Tołwińska, 2010). The leader is responsible for creation of an environment in which members of the organisation can feel safe, because this is a condition of trust and involvement in any activities. A lack of trust destroys the willingness to do such activities and is a serious barrier in communication, even when the competences of employees are high (ibid.).

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Developing teacher leadership competences during transnational learning mobility in Erasmus+ projects

Liliana Budkowska

The paper addresses the question of developing leadership competences in teachers who participate in transnational learning mobilities under Erasmus+ education projects.

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Introduction

The paper addresses the question of developing leadership competences in teachers who take part in transnational learning mobilities. The participation of teachers in international education projects is conducive to the development of schools, which is reflected by a wider educational offer, better integration of the teaching staff, enhanced teaching materials and cooperation with the widely understood local environment in which a given educational institution operates. International education projects are carried out mainly by teachers, albeit of great importance are also the attitudes and commitment of the project coordinators (also teachers), who strongly impact on the effectiveness of the project activities and on the production of the final results, both in the form of outputs, such as publications or lesson plans, and the development of key competences.

The text consists of reflections on the project method, which is widely used in contemporary Europe, on project types, teacher competences, and in particular, on the approaches to leadership among teachers during transnational mobilities under international education projects.

The project method in the context of mobility

As Stefan M. Kwiatkowski rightly points out, "educational problems know no borders. Hence, it is appropriate to consider the national priorities in this area (and the conditions for their implementation) within a wider European setting." (2006, p. 10).

It is worth noting that the European Union only sets objectives, frameworks and directions for education policies, while the Member States develop their national education policies individually, and it is they who take appropriate action. The European Community encourages Member States to cooperate in the field of education and to support the organisation of education systems, taking into account their cultural and linguistic diversity. Article 149 of the Treaty on European Union and the Treaty establishing the European Community state explicitly that "the Community shall contribute to the development of quality education by encouraging cooperation between Member States and, if necessary, by supporting and supplementing their action, while fully respecting the responsibility of the Member States for the content of teaching and the organisation of education systems and their

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cultural and linguistic diversity" (2006, p. 112). Leaving so much of the development and implementation of education policies to the discretion of the Member States is an acknowledgement of their diversity and the need to preserve it. This is best described in one of the Community documents entitled Education in Europe, which reflects the wealth of languages, cultures and systems inherent to the identity of the European countries and regions. Educational systems have developed over many years under the specific social and cultural conditions of the countries concerned. This is why in individual countries and regions there are different educational institutions, different recruitment principles, different times of starting and ending education, as well as different qualifications, titles and degrees that reflect the diversity of the curricula and the education and training systems. All countries hold this diversity in high regard and it is the Europeans' common good. They should, therefore, be able to benefit from this diversity without any restrictions, and this requires more cooperation and mobility.

Types of education projects

The project method is designed to give teachers and pupils a high degree of freedom, both in terms of the project scope and type, as well as the way they organise their work. Consequently, there is no single division into project types in the literature of the subject. Due to the fact that a project may take different forms and thus be implemented in different ways, the most common criteria are: the purpose and nature of the measure, the participants' age and number, duration, and the teachers' methodological skills.

According to Mirosław S. Szymański, it is possible for various types of project methods to coexist. Szymański has proposed three options featuring different 'degrees of flexibility' (2010, p. 89):

→ A 'let's do something' project wherein the main objective is to develop communication and problem-solving skills. The subject of such a project derives from the students' interests or the surrounding reality.

→ A 'let's implement curriculum guidelines' project wherein the subject results from the curriculum. The students and the teacher become familiar with the curriculum of a given subject, and seek interesting topics and problems, which may take on the form of projects. In these projects, the students

work on a subject-related project divided into 'sub-projects' implemented by smaller groups.
→ A 'let's work on specific jobs' project, which may be commissioned externally, for example by another school, preschool or a local government, or internally by the given school, for example to prepare a ceremony or activity.

A slightly different division of project types has been proposed by Krystyna Chałas who sees the nature of the measure as the main criterion and identifies two groups of projects:
→ focused on cognitive activities,
→ focused on practical activities.

Among the projects focused on cognitive activities, understood as a description of the natural, social or technological reality, there are projects of the 'describe' type wherein the basic source of data is observation and literature, in addition to projects of the research type consisting in collecting and systematising information under a research procedure. The results of such projects are studies presented by the students.

Projects which focus on practical activities feature projects that serve the school or the local community, as well as technical projects aimed at improving an activity. However, the author emphasises that most of these projects do not occur in their pure form. This is because projects oriented at practical activities are often preceded by the implementation of cognitive projects of the 'describe' type (Chałas, 2000, pp. 17-18).

A similar approach to project types is presented in the guide *Jak zorganizować i prowadzić gimnazjalne projekty edukacyjne* (How to organise and deliver educational projects in lower secondary schools) by Jacek Strzemieczny, who distinguishes between research-based and job-based projects. The first type features a problem in the form of an open question. These projects teach how to search for and analyse information, to think critically, to make and check hypotheses, and to present and defend the selected solutions. Consequently, the students make a real intellectual effort and learn in a deeper way about a fragment of reality that is important to them and, therefore, interesting. According to Strzemieczny, job-based projects are different

in that the students' practical activities take precedence over research and analysis. The issue which the students address aims to solve a real-life problem by taking specific action (Strzemieczny, 2010, pp. 27-28).

Reassuming, it can be said that the project method offers a great many activity options and flexibility in using time and educational space. It determines many different divisions into project types, considering both quantitative criteria, for example, the number of people involved, and qualitative criteria concerning the project content and subject matter.

Teacher competences

PThe concept of competence is usually used in two ways. Firstly, competences are identified with qualifications, and secondly, the term 'competences' signifies a scope of powers. In this paper, teacher competences are understood as the qualifications necessary for the effective performance of the teaching profession.

There is no single, precise definition of competences in literature (see Czerepaniak-Walczak, 1999; Madalińska-Michalak, Góralska, 2012; Jurgiel-Aleksander, Jagiełło-Rusiłowski, 2013; Madalińska--Michalak, 2015, 2016). When talking of competence, we usually refer to an individual's traits. Hence, it can be said that a competence is a developed ability to do things well or an ability necessary to deal with problems. It seems that the most complete description of this concept is the one according to which competence is a harmonious composition of knowledge, efficiency, understanding and desires (Czerepaniak--Walczak, 1999). Therefore, it is a combination of a teacher's different attributes which form the foundation for their successful work, whereby they use their professional knowledge and skills in specific working conditions and are guided by professional values.

Robert Kwaśnica (2003, p. 298-302) has divided competences into two groups. The first group comprises practical and moral competences which include, for example, competences related to communication. The second group, namely technical competences, differ from the first one in that they determine instrumentally understood performance and have a defined range of application. These include normative, methodological and implementation competences, with the latter understood as the ability to select the means and create favourable conditions for achieving objectives. This division distinguishes abilities

of an ethical nature from those related to the teaching sphere. It is worth noting that the author clearly emphasises the practical dimension of these abilities, which confirms not only their importance, but also their connection to pedagogical activity.

According to J. Madalińska-Michalak (2016), in the study of competences as a pedagogical concept one should pay attention to the concept's following features:

→ Its subjective nature: Competences are owned by an individual or a collective entity (e.g. society, a group of people or an organisation).

→ Its complex structure: Competences display different structures depending on type. Their structure is determined by various factors, such as knowledge, skills, personality traits, value systems, experience and work motivation.

→ Its gradable nature: An entity achieves their competences at different levels, and this affects, for example, their ability to perform a specific job, whereas the entity's specific level of competence is determined by the development level of the particular elements that constitute a given competence (e.g. the level of knowledge or skills in a given field).

→ Its dynamics as manifested through changes in the conditions of the particular correlates of a competence. This may lead to a change in the entire competence, which signifies its potential to evolve.

→ Its potential to evolve: Competences are regarded as an outcome of an entity's learning process in the course of acquiring and producing educational experiences that are important to the entity during their lifetime.

→ The disclosure of competences in a specific situational context (the situational nature of competences): Competences become apparent when an entity undertakes to perform a job in specific circumstances.

→ The interactivity of competences with the conditions in which a given entity operates: Competences are constantly updated in line with the context (new experience affects the development of an entity's knowledge, skills and attitudes; the latter become apparent when the entity acts).

→ The transferability of competences to other situations and
systems of reference: This leads to a widening of the area of
freedom and responsibility and, at the same time, to the ability
to perform new jobs (Madalińska-Michalak, 2016, p. 12).

The European Commission is currently working with the Member
States to strengthen 'key competences,' namely the knowledge, skills
and attitudes that will help students find personal fulfilment and, in the
future, find employment and participate in society. The main objective
of the review is to update the Recommendation on key competences
to ensure that it reflects the political, social, economic, environmental
and technological developments that have occurred since 2006. It may,
therefore, propose amendments to better reflect recent developments
in various areas, such as multilingualism, cultural diversity and diversity
of communication, in addition to issues pertaining to migration,
citizenship and sustainable development. Another objective of the
review is to better understand the needs of the stakeholders in order
to use the framework in the future and to identify useful tools and
processes that can assist policy makers and practitioners in their
work. In addition, the review aims to ensure that, eleven years after
its adoption, the Recommendation on key competences remains an
important tool for the development of education and training systems
in Europe. By updating and developing the Recommendation on key
competences, the European Commission intends to further promote
competence-based learning and teaching throughout Europe. The
updated Recommendation will continue to support efforts to develop
key competences for all – at national, regional and local level and in
formal, non-formal and informal learning for citizens of all ages.

When these provisions are referred to teachers, it is important
to remember that in order to be able to develop competences in
students, the teachers must display them themselves. In Poland, one
of the documents describing teacher competences is the Regulation
of the Minister of Science and Higher Education of 17 January 2012
on the standards of initial teacher training[1], which defines the image
of an initial teacher training graduate. The regulations contained in

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1.   OJ of 2012, item 131.

this legal act describe the skills that form the foundation of teaching competences. A teacher who displays the required skills:

- → possesses the psychological and pedagogical knowledge that enables them to understand developmental, socialisation, character development and teaching-learning processes;
- → has knowledge in the field of teaching methods and detailed pedagogical methodology supported by experience in their practical application;
- → possesses the skills and competences necessary for the comprehensive realisation of a school's teaching, character-development and care-related responsibilities, including the independent preparation and adaptation of the curriculum to the needs and capabilities of students;
- → demonstrates the ability to learn and improve their pedagogical skills using modern means and methods of acquiring, organising and processing information and materials;
- → shows good communication skills and uses various communication techniques, both with the subjects of their pedagogical activity, and with other persons with whom they cooperate in the teaching and character development process, as well as specialists who support the process;
- → displays ethical sensitivity, empathy, openness, reflection, prosocial attitudes and a sense of responsibility;
- → has been practically prepared to carry out the professional tasks (teaching, character development and care-related) resulting from the role of a teacher.

Among these seven skill groups, several refer to leadership. Hence, it should be assumed that if a new teacher is equipped with these skills, the realisation of international projects and any resultant learning mobility will foster the development of many of these skills, especially those related to leadership attitudes.

Leadership competences in teachers who take part in transnational learning mobilities

A teacher, like anyone who wishes to take on a leadership role, should start with self-diagnosing their own professional knowledge-based, pedagogical, psychological and methodological preparation.

It is also worth remembering that the road to public victory leads through private victory. Therefore, it can be assumed that public victory resulting from leadership is based on continuous personal development and successful contacts with others, which means that any activity should be started with a view of to its completion, and that it is necessary to be proactive and to do the most important things first (Covey, 2007).

The multidimensional character of leadership, including teacher leadership, requires teachers to be pedagogically accountable, which involves a standard of ethical behaviour and is the effect of teachers managing their own actions towards students (Madalińska-Michalak, 2015). Such accountability consists in the relationship between the educator and the outcome of their actions that enables the assessment of their work. There are three levels of this accountability: legal accountability for compliance with the legal provisions applicable to teaching and character development; professional accountability for the proper performance of professional duties and obligations (i.e. pedagogical performance skills); as well as ethical accountability manifested in an attitude that pursues children's interests, needs and welfare, and in a sense of responsibility for the children and their development (Michalak, 2004, pp. 785-786).

When speaking of teacher leadership competences, one should assume that these should consist of at least three types of competences, namely strategic, social and personal ones (Madalińska-Michalak, 2016). Strategic competences, based on knowledge and the ability to view the learning and teaching process in a holistic way, signify the ability to subordinate one's activities to specific goals. Social competences indicate the ability to build relationships with others, to be oriented at the needs of others, to manage crises and to resolve conflicts. In this respect, an important role is played by component competences, such as those pertaining to communication, conflict management and teamwork. Personal competences are linked to the individual way of performing tasks, which is equivalent to features such as openness, self-confidence, foresight and the ability to motivate others, as well as empathy, commitment, perseverance, strong internal motivation and adaptability to change, optimism, an innovative approach to problems, and a creative attitude in life. The level of these competences affects the overall quality and effectiveness of one's tasks and determines how

fast one undertakes action and how involved one becomes. Personal competences include external and internal personal competences (ibid.).

The analysis of final reports from education projects that involved the transnational mobility of teachers and were funded by the Erasmus+ Programme[2] (Key Action 1, schools) confirms that transnational mobility is conducive to the internationalisation of schools in Poland. The school leadership and teachers are given the opportunity to learn about modern and innovative methods of working and managing educational institutions, including the development of leadership attitudes. This makes it possible to achieve the main goal, which is to improve an institution's work quality in areas it has identified as requiring change, and to deepen international cooperation.

Every school or educational institution involved in an international education project presents a *School Development Plan*, which identifies areas for improvement, the conformity of the project activities with the institution's needs and character, and the long-term benefits of participating in the project. The objectives of the project are defined jointly by the teachers and the headteacher on the basis of analysis of the school's and its staff's needs, so that the benefits of the mobility are not only experienced by its participants, but by the organisation as a whole. Among the most frequently specified goals, there are also those from the area of leadership, such as effective communication, solving difficulties in a creative way and cooperation.

Under the projects, the participants receive financial assistance to take part in various forms of support, for example in teaching assignments (activities that enable teachers to conduct classes in partner schools), staff training (organised courses or training abroad), job shadowing and conferences or seminars. Subsequently, teachers display leadership attitudes that involve a school's or educational institution's entire teaching staff in the process of change, as well as the school's stakeholders, or in the broad sense, the local environment.

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2. Erasmus+ is an EU initiative supporting education in the European Union, the pre-accession countries and the EFTA/EEA associated countries. The Programme was established pursuant to Regulation No. 1288/2013 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 11 December 2013. Its offer for school teaching staff includes various forms of professional learning, in addition to job shadowing and teaching opportunities in educational institutions abroad.

Through transnational mobilities, teachers develop leadership competences. The teachers who coordinate the projects are expected to be responsible, capable of setting and achieving goals, and to encourage and motivate others to work together to carry out the projects. Effective international project coordination includes the implementation and maintenance of an efficient communication system, the implementation and observance of established rules of conduct during activities that are essential to the achievement of project objectives, and the implementation of changes needed to achieve the objectives and meet the set requirements, whilst maintaining the project's integrity.

The Foundation for the Development of the Education System has conducted research on the effects of transnational projects (Pachocki, 2016). The findings show that leadership attitudes among teachers involved in mobility are already evident at the planning stage, as the decision to join a project is often an expression of individual initiative and directly results from the needs declared by specific teachers. At the same time, the choice of areas to be improved abroad forms most often a response to current problems and a diagnosis of the needs of the whole school. The European School Development Plan, which is required at the application stage, encourages the joint activity of the teaching staff in planning the developments, which also identifies the school leaders already at the stage of preparing the participants for the mobility. In this process, the emphasis is placed on aspects such as agreeing on the contents of the mobility programme and getting to know the context and education system of the country and region where the transnational learning mobility is to take place.

The participants' leadership attitudes are apparent primarily in new proposals to improve their schools' work quality and, at the same time, to encourage teachers to become involved in their own professional development and in the development of their schools. After returning from mobility abroad, the teachers often inspire others to introduce new ideas in their daily work, and to establish groups that undertake initiatives to improve the work quality of their schools. This is most often brought about by the fact that during transnational mobilities teachers have the opportunity to learn about the specifics of their colleagues' work in different European countries.

Conclusion

It can be said that due to its specific nature, the Erasmus+ learning mobility offer (Key Action 1, schools) supports the implementation of the education system reform objectives. Undoubtedly, it features work based on the project method enhanced by the aspect of multiculturalism, international mobilities of the teaching staff and the development of key competences, primarily those concerning foreign languages and information and communication technologies (Budkowska, 2011, p. 102). In addition, the main goals for the participants are to learn new approaches to and methods of working with students, to improve their foreign language competences and their knowledge of the subjects they teach.

By taking part in transnational mobilities, teachers learn about new work methods and techniques which they can use in their classes on a daily basis to make them more diversified. The classes can be more responsive to their students' needs and individual learning styles as the teachers use interactive and activating work methods. Participation in mobility also raises teachers' awareness of the need for continuous improvement of their professional competences. The participants of transnational mobilities appreciate the possibility of professional learning and language skills development abroad, which offers the opportunity to meet their colleagues from other countries where different education systems are in place.

Furthermore, through the dissemination of the achieved results and acquired skills, participation in international mobility also helps attract teachers from other schools to professional learning opportunities abroad. The benefits of in-service teacher training abroad have a direct impact on the home institution. When the teachers who took part in a mobility use innovative teaching practices and methods, their students improve their skills and competences in a diverse and active way. Introducing a student-centred learning approach based on individual learning styles enhances the attractiveness of the class, stimulates internal motivation and ensures quality education. It can also guarantee sustainable outcomes.

The experience of transnational mobility shows that school leaders can play a key role in the process of change, since their activity and involvement indisputably contribute to the success of reforms in the education area, not only in Poland, but also across Europe.

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The impact of leadership attitudes on the development of Polish schools. Teaching staff experience of transnational learning mobility

Michał Pachocki

The paper presents the findings of a transnational impact study on the outcomes of teaching staff mobility projects. It also attempts to diagnose the extent to which participation in transnational mobilities affects the development of leadership attitudes and how teacher leadership determines changes in the project participants' home institutions.

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Introduction

Modern reflection on the role of leaders in the functioning of schools puts a strong emphasis on the manifestation of leadership attitudes in everyday teaching, and on the relationships between the teaching staff and the school leadership. However, teacher leadership-related themes are less frequent in the context of the internationalisation of schools and opportunities to improve competences offered by participation in training for teachers abroad.

The paper presents the results of a study on international mobility projects for teachers, which were co-funded under the Erasmus+ Programme[1]. The study was carried out under a joint international project coordinated by institutions responsible for the implementation Erasmus+ in schools in Lithuania, Estonia, Finland, Germany and Poland.

Research activities were carried out in all the above-mentioned countries to a standardised methodology (Balčiūnas, Damkuvienė, Valuckienė, 2015). The paper focuses on the results of over 5,200 questionnaires and 17 group interviews conducted in the countries covered by the study. The study included 288 schools, which received co-funding for the implementation of their projects and at the time of carrying out the research activities had already completed all the planned training courses abroad.

A quantitative survey was conducted by means of questionnaires addressed to four main respondent groups, namely the participants of training courses abroad, other teaching staff who did not participate in the mobilities, students (aged 15+) who took part in the lessons delivered by the mobility participants, and parents who had been actively involved in school life on a daily basis. Such a broad target group of respondents resulted from the premise that participation in professional learning for teachers makes sense when it leads to, above all, a reflection on the quality of their teaching, both in the context of teaching practice and in relation to the quality of a school's operations as an institution (Postholm, 2012). Furthermore, a qualitative analysis concerned mainly the data obtained from group interviews and research

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1.   Erasmus+ is an EU initiative supporting education in the European Union, the pre-accession countries and the EFTA/EEA associated countries. The Programme was established pursuant to Regulation No. 1288/2013 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 11 December 2013. Its offer for school teaching staff includes various forms of professional learning, in addition to job shadowing and teaching opportunities in educational institutions abroad.

material collected during the development of case studies regarding selected good practices[2].

The survey aimed to answer the question whether professional learning abroad impacted not only on the teachers involved, but also on their home institutions and their stakeholders. The research focused on whether the offered form of competence development had a real effect on changing professional attitudes, assuming that teachers' professional development translated not only into an increase in their knowledge, but also and above all, into the ability to apply this knowledge in their teaching practice (Avalos, 2011).

The key objectives of the surveys were to determine the extent to which the results of international staff mobilities were sustainable and potentially significant in the process of developing educational institutions. In addition, the surveys showed that within the process of changes, which took place at schools following the completion of mobility projects their participants also played an important role in the school community. In this context, it became apparent that of particular importance was the extent to which the mobility participants displayed leadership attitudes, which often determined the involvement of the entire teaching staff and other people functioning within the school environment in the process of change.

The role of leaders in diagnosing school's development needs

The survey results revealed that in the process of international professional learning, leadership attitudes among the teachers who took part in mobilities were already apparent at the mobility goal planning stage. Often, the decision to join a specific project was an expression of individual initiative and resulted directly from the needs declared by specific teachers. However, even in these situations, the choice of the area of training was preceded by an additional analysis of current problems and a diagnosis of the entire institution's needs. Only after such an analysis had been carried out did the school leadership

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2. In Estonia, Finland, Lithuania and Poland, the questionnaires were conducted in all the planned target groups. In Germany, the survey was limited to teachers only (it was not conducted among students and parents). Furthermore, the German part of the survey did not include the qualitative component (focus groups and case studies of selected good practices).

or the entire teaching staff begin to look for an area which could be addressed through international professional learning. According to the survey respondents, the content scope of the projects resulted mainly from the home institutions' existing development needs, and transnational mobility was regarded as a potential remedy for their specific problems or the new challenges they faced.

Not without significance was also the strong presence of school leaders at the stage of preparing the participants for the mobility. In line with the Erasmus+ guidelines, this is a crucial project component and a prerequisite for a high-quality mobility experience[3]. This was confirmed by a vast majority of the respondents who mentioned as particularly important such aspects as agreeing on the mobility programme content and learning about the systemic context of the host country or region (more than two thirds of the respondents familiarised themselves with the teaching system in the partner country before departure). Almost every mobility participant tried to expand their general knowledge of the country of destination (in Poland, only less than one percent of the respondents declared that they had not carried out any preparatory activities before travelling abroad). The survey also showed that the teachers who had put more effort into the qualitative preparation for their mobility were later the ones who displayed leadership attitudes by sharing their knowledge and disseminating the project results.

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3.   The principles for the formal and qualitative implementation of the projects were specified in the *Programme Guide* and in the additional guidelines provided to the beneficiaries during meetings for applicants and training for beneficiaries of mobility grants.

Figure 1. Activities undertaken before a learning mobility. Questionnaire for mobility participants [the question allowed more than one response]
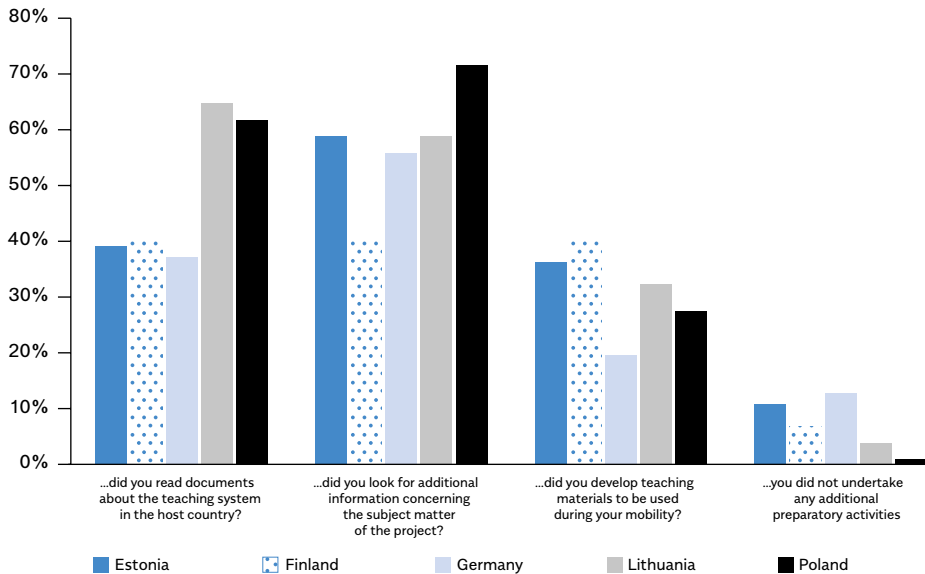
Source: Balčiūnas, Damkuvienė, Valuckienė (2015).

Qualitative preparation for a mobility determined not only the project implementation quality, but above all, helped the participants acquire new competences later on, which translated into real changes in the mobility participants' home institutions. Better and more reliable preparation for the mobilities was conducive to a fuller observation and reception of the organisational and systemic solutions abroad, which, in the opinion of the interview respondents, often meant a higher level of acquired competences and clearer changes in the functioning of the participants' home institutions.

Leaders in the face of change

The results of the survey showed that despite the different systemic contexts and specific functioning of educational institutions, leaders played an important role in the process of change in schools in all the surveyed countries. If a leader emerged at school, it was more likely that bottom-up initiatives to improve school performance would also

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emerge, and subsequently, that areas for change or improvement would be identified. Many respondents to the interviews declared that if it had not been for the school leader, the changes in their schools, as well as the mobility that had initiated them would probably never have happened.

The participants' leadership attitudes were apparent mainly in the declared new initiatives aimed at improving the schools' quality of operations and work organisation, raising the quality of teaching, and inspiring others to take up new activities and become more involved in the life of their home institution.

In some countries (e.g. in Estonia), mobilities produced a significant increase in the number of training courses organised by teachers for other members of the teaching staff at a given institution. Following their own initiative, the participants often contributed to the dissemination of knowledge by providing training not only to other teachers at their school, but also beyond it. Ultimately, the projects were conducive to obtaining benefits not only in the area of the mobility participants' development, but also in the context of entire institutions.

Figure 2. Dissemination of professional learning outcomes by mobility participants

[the graph shows the percentage of respondents from both groups who agreed with a given statement]
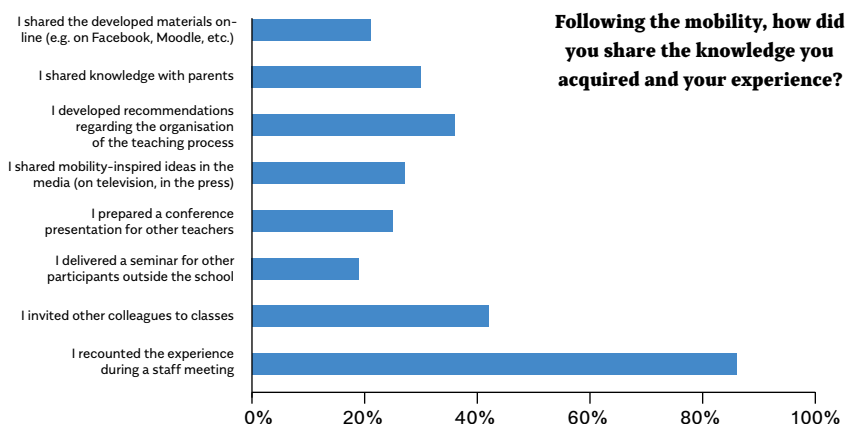
Source: Author.

It is worth noting that in all the surveyed countries, the mobility participants held a positive view of their leadership competences. On average, 70% of the respondents who were mobility participants believed that their activities inspired others to use new ideas in their daily work, and on average, one third of the respondents said that they also worked towards creating initiative groups to facilitate the implementation of new solutions. A slightly smaller group also declared that they tried to take active part in the planning of professional learning activities at their institutions to support their colleagues' competence development.

Figure 3. Mobility experience (percentage of teachers who have participated in professional learning abroad; questionnaire for mobility participants)
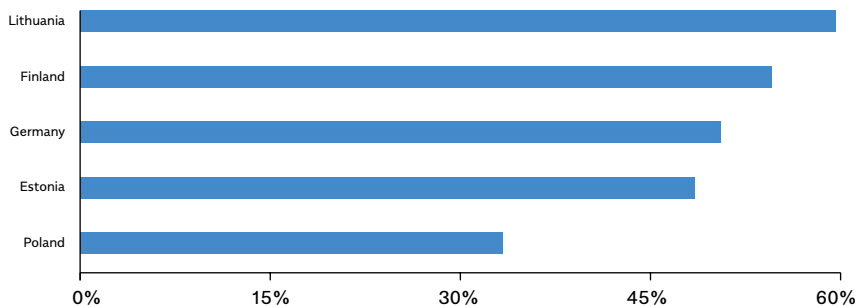
Source: Author.

Moreover, leadership attitudes varied according to the local education system contexts and the way the schools operated. While declarations of building teams to work towards change were more frequent in Germany and Lithuania, Polish teachers were more likely to involve parents and seek various forms of support for the change process outside the school. This was certainly caused by the specific character of the system (i.e. the involvement of governing bodies in the process of making strategic decisions). The high activity of the Polish participants in disseminating project results may also be explained by their less extensive experience with similar projects. While in other countries around half of the respondents declared that they had

participated in professional learning abroad before, in Poland only one in three respondents had benefitted from this form of improving their professional competences.

The role of leaders in ensuring sustainable outcomes

The study also made it possible to assess how the mobility participant's expression of leadership attitudes affected the sustainability of project outcomes.

The findings showed that stronger leadership declarations from the mobility participants determined stronger declarations of changes at their home institutions as a result of the projects.

In all the surveyed countries, the most common way of disseminating the outcomes and sharing the acquired knowledge was the recounting of the mobilities during meetings with other teachers (e.g. during formal staff meetings or conversations in the staffroom). Two fifths of the respondents invited their colleagues to take part in open classes, whilst one third of the mobility participants shared their knowledge by posting the teaching materials they had developed on the Internet.

Figure 4. Project impact on the participants. Questionnaire for
mobility participants [the graph shows the percentage of respondents
who agreed with a given statement from both groups]

Following the mobility, I use the new ideas in my work
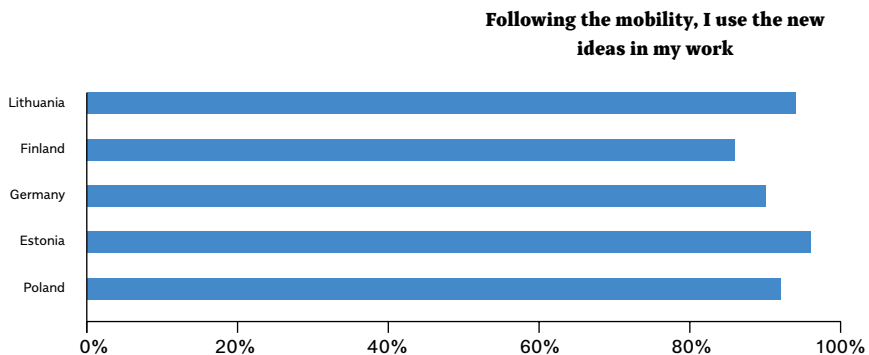
Source: Author.

The study did, however, reveal some considerable differences in how mobility outcomes were used following project completion. The findings showed that the way the outcomes were used depended largely on the teachers' own initiative. According to the interview respondents, this process often went beyond specific schools (the project participants organised training for teachers from other institutions and wrote articles in which they shared the knowledge they had acquired and their experiences). These activities also contributed to increasing the popularity of professional learning abroad within the participants' professional environment, and positive accounts of the mobilities encouraged leaders from other institutions to take similar initiatives in their schools.

Figure 5. Expression of leadership attitudes among mobility participants [the graph shows the percentage of respondents from both groups who agreed with a given statement]
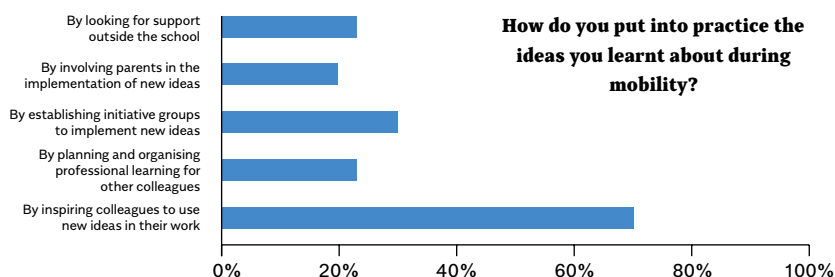
Source: Author.

It should be stressed that in individual countries covered by the survey, many models of changes and reactions to the proposed solutions were observed. The different needs of both the schools and the actual participants were evidenced not only by the diverse areas of change, but also by different approaches to sharing the acquired knowledge. While among the respondents from the new EU Member States, which are still undergoing systemic transformation (i.e. Estonia, Lithuania and Poland), declarations concerning various types of dissemination activities were much more frequent, in Finland and Germany these activities seemed to be less frequent.

Differences in this area were particularly noticeable with regard to the declared measures to involve parents in the change process and, in the case of Germany, also with regard to inspiring other teachers and co-organising the education process at the home institution. The differences can be explained by the level of development of education systems in individual countries, and by the level of satisfaction with the work quality at the school. Finnish and German teachers were more likely to treat professional learning abroad as a means to improve their own professional competences rather than an innovation transfer opportunity at the institutional or systemic level, since they did not see a particular need for such changes. The latter approach seems to be more typical of participants from those countries where the changes taking place at school as a result of European projects are perceived as part of a wider systemic change related to economic and social development after the fall of communism.

Participants from Poland turned out to be particularly active in the field of dissemination activities. According to the respondents, more than 95% of mobility participants shared the knowledge they had gained during their mobilities. Almost all the respondents also confirmed that they used the experience from their visit abroad in their daily work. A vast majority of the respondents also tried to encourage their colleagues to use new ideas not only to improve their students' competences, but to contribute to the development of their home institutions. Over two fifths of the Polish respondents tried to involve their students' parents in the implementation of the new ideas.

The role of school leadership in the creation of leadership attitudes

The study revealed that successful projects required good relationships between the teaching staff and the school leadership. Good relationships were shown to be particularly important already at the stage of designing the project objectives in order for a mobility to meet the teachers' training needs, whilst also contributing to the fulfilment of the developmental needs of the schools. The role of school leadership in promoting teacher leadership must not be overlooked, since changes in schools (even bottom-up ones) require the approval of their headteachers.

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Simultaneously, the data collected in all the surveyed countries showed that the formal role of a transnational mobility participant in their home institution often determined how and to what extent the results of a project were used. Headteachers who took part in professional learning abroad were more likely to declare that they shared the experience they had gained during the mobility both in their home institutions and beyond them. Such declarations were much less frequent among other respondents, regardless of whether they held the position of a deputy head or teacher or worked in another educational role.

Figure 6. Role of school leadership in the change process following a transnational mobility, as perceived by teachers. The compilation includes responses from respondents in Poland [the graph shows the percentage of respondents from both groups who agreed with a given statement]
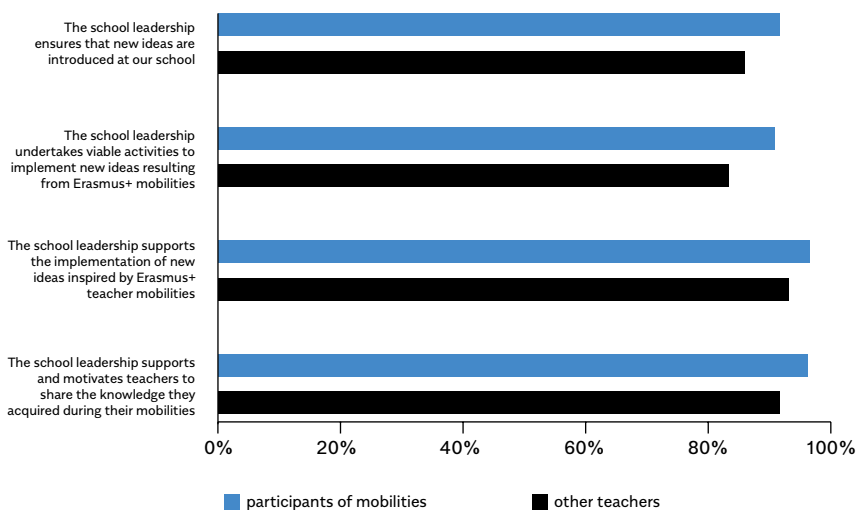
Source: Author.

The survey made it possible to compare the respondents' declarations regarding the school leadership's role in the implementation of changes proposed by the transnational mobility participants. According to the

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respondents, headteachers generally supported the teachers' new ideas and tried to implement them. The teachers also appreciated the school leadership's endeavours to create a good climate for potential change, for example by motivating the staff to continue their efforts to improve their students' quality of learning and their school's performance.

The answers given by the respondents also seem to largely confirm that the headteachers of the surveyed institutions were often involved not only in the implementation of projects, but also in the process of designing their goals. Furthermore, according to the respondents, the school leadership's demanding approach to ensuring a high quality of the project activities often had a significant effect on the quality and level of the subsequent changes. This correlation was particularly evident in aspects such as a fair recruitment process of the project participants (who met its formal and qualitative criteria) or the proper preparation of the mobilities which, as mentioned above, largely contributed to the sustainability of their outcomes.

Leaders in the school environment

The respondents emphasised the impact of the projects on the school environment and its immediate stakeholders, as well as on a change in the attitudes of people involved in the life and culture of their schools.

Many respondents noticed that the more a given project involved the teachers, the more beneficial it was to the students (the teachers were more willing to use the methods they had learnt in class), and sometimes, to other people involved in an institution's immediate surroundings.

Figure 7. Perception of institutional benefits resulting from mobilities. The compilation contains responses from mobility participants and other teachers who had not taken part in professional learning abroad [the graph shows the percentage of respondents from both groups who agreed with a given statement]
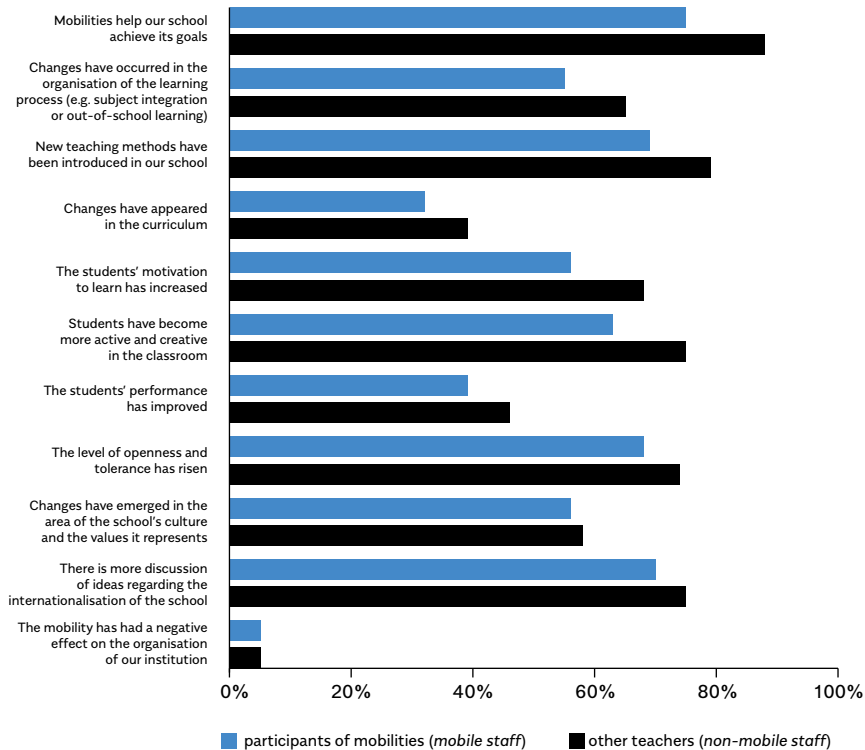
Source: Author.

The questionnaire results showed that both the mobility participants and the other teachers displayed a similar perception of the project benefits. In other words, the outcomes of the professional learning mobilities were reflected in a qualitative improvement of the schools' operations and were observed in real terms not only by the actual project participants, but also by other members of the teaching staff. However, some of the interview respondents observed that the role the school leaders played in the projects was challenging, and that their enthusiasm and initiative was not always supported by others.

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The information obtained from the interviews with the mobility participants confirmed that the respondents also paid attention to the differences in the specific character of teaching in various European countries, whilst transnational staff mobility often encouraged reflection on the status of the teaching profession and the working conditions of teachers in Polish schools. These observations also included the social context in which the teachers play a social role at school and within its surroundings, as exemplified by the completely different perceptions of the teaching profession, which in many countries enjoys greater respect and prestige than it is the case in Poland, which is manifested not only in a correspondingly higher salary, but above all, in much better working conditions.

In the respondents' opinion, the declared lack of respect for the teaching profession in Poland, the primacy of grades over actual learning outcomes and the absence of extrinsic motivation for students to learn are not conducive to strengthening the leadership traits of the school management or to discovering leadership attitudes among the teaching staff. Moreover, these reflections were, to a large extent, brought about by the direct observation of completely opposite trends in schools in other European countries. The surveyed teachers pointed out that the schools in partner countries supported the smallest manifestations of leadership attitudes, as well as bottom-up initiatives for change both in the scope of education processes and the organisation of the schools.

Figure 8. Role of the teaching staff in the process of change following a mobility project. The compilation contains opinions from mobility participants and other teachers. The compilation includes responses from respondents in Poland [the graph shows the percentage of respondents from both groups who agreed with a given statement]

Source: Author

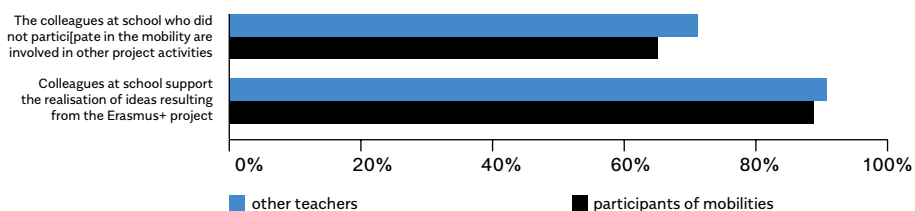The respondents from Poland also reported that one of the fastest visible effects of transnational mobilities was an improvement in the relationships between the teachers and students. Getting to know different standards of teaching made the teachers more open to their students' needs and much more willing to use unconventional teaching methods. Furthermore, in the respondents' opinion, the students themselves were much more willing to engage in classes and school life if they felt motivated by new interesting ideas and work techniques. This was also confirmed by the results of the survey conducted among students. Almost all of the respondents in this group declared that it was important for teachers to use new teaching ideas learnt abroad. There were also many declarations of willingness to participate in projects with students from other countries and in international student exchanges. The students perceived cooperation between teachers from different countries as important.

The students' opinions on the rationale for the internationalisation of schools were confirmed by those of their parents. The prevailing opinion among this group was that the benefits of mobilities to the school far outweighed the potential disadvantages. It should be noted, however, that this group was the one to point out with a considerably higher frequency the risk of neglecting a school's educational function caused by the teachers' absence due to professional learning mobilities. Nonetheless, the surveyed parents confirmed that it was important for children to acquire competences in the field of international cooperation.

The respondents also observed a correlation between mobilities and their schools' development, and above all, improved student performance. They recognised the role that certain aspects of the internationalisation of educational institutions played in the schools. They also confirmed that their children's schools involved them in these activities.

Figure 9. Evaluation of the benefits produced by mobilities for the home institutions' surroundings as perceived by parents (distribution of responses to the questions section: 'What is your opinion on the internationalisation level of your child's school?'). The compilation includes responses from respondents in Poland [the graph shows the percentage of respondents from both groups who agreed with a given statement]
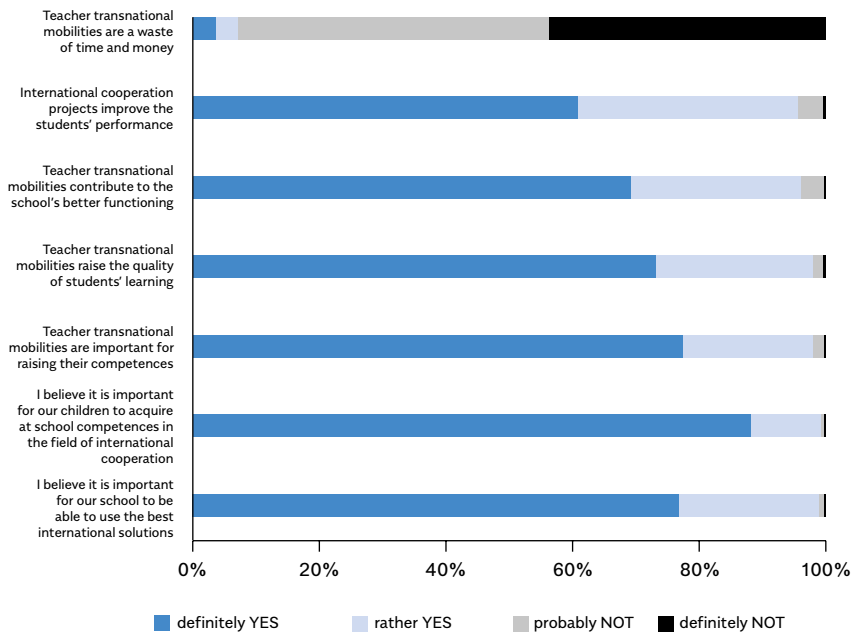
Source: Author.

The surveyed teachers also identified cooperation with the school governing authorities as a significant problem area regarding the implementation of changes (this was particularly problematic for those who had previously submitted similar applications individually and had not encountered any bureaucratic obstacles). In the opinion of some respondents, the governing bodies did not always sufficiently support the school leaders, both at the project realisation stage and in the process of implementing the achieved results. There were also voices that the officials responsible for supervising EU projects on behalf of the governing authority often lacked sufficient knowledge to clarify doubts

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or meet formal requirements. Moreover, bureaucratic difficulties often appeared to be a major factor in preventing headteachers from deciding to join projects or from engaging their schools in international activities.

Conclusion

In view of the current discussion on the necessity to make changes in Polish system of education, it should be stressed that measures aimed at improving the quality of teaching and the functioning of schools are often a result of regular staff training, whilst projects supported by European funding make it possible for their participants to share new knowledge acquired abroad.

The majority of the surveyed project participants perceived the possibility of gaining experience in other European countries not only in terms of personal benefits, but above all, from an institutional perspective, since the results of such projects enhanced the potential of the teaching staff as a whole.

More importantly, the representatives of almost all the surveyed schools confirmed that the effected changes would not have been possible without school leaders. The respondents often declared that if it had not been for the school leaders' initiative, any positive changes or the actual projects would never have happened.

The respondents' observations also showed that the leaders' activity ensured, above all, that project outcomes were sustainable and thus contributed not only to the development of the teachers' competences, but also, to a significant extent, to the schools' work quality, both in Poland and in other European countries. This allows one to hope that the funds allocated to individual mobilities will prove to be a good investment not only at school level, but also in the context of the changes in Polish system of education.

The experience of transnational mobility shows that school leaders can play a key role in this process, since their activity and involvement determine the changes taking place in schools in Poland and across Europe.

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Academic teacher – leader, expert, master or guide?

Mirosław J. Szymański

Higher education institutions are large organisations. Their functioning requires the employment of many academic teachers with diverse qualifications. In such communities it is necessary to designate leaders. They are formally appointed, yet nonetheless informal leaders are also present. This article characterises four distinguishing groups of academic teachers. These are: leaders, experts, masters and guides. It is recognised that all of them play an important role in the higher education institution. In fact, they are essential for the proper functioning of the institutions themselves and the groups of academic teachers therein, as well as for educating students. However, despite the achievements of many academic teachers, there should not be too much distance between them and the students. After all, they also foster creativity and participate in research. It is beneficial to build social capital together. What makes this possible is the existence of well-understood partnership relations between the academic teachers and their students.

Introduction

Academic teacher is a term used for teachers working at higher education institutions. In fact, it could be postulated that this term is only available to some of these teachers and is limited to the group of teachers who work at universities – meaning higher education institutions with the authority to conduct the first (undergraduate), second (postgraduate/master's) and third (doctoral) cycles of studies. It would be a reasonable distinction, because it is only these higher education institutions which possess the full range of academic authority. In practice, however, a broader understanding of this term has been adopted. It currently includes all teachers employed in higher education institutions as research and teaching, research and teaching staff members. These are academic teachers who hold master's degree (Polish: magister), doctoral degree (*doktor*) or post-doctoral degree (*doktor habilitowany*), as well as the title of a professorial titles. Based on this, as well as other factors, they can be employed in the position of an assistant, assistant professor, professor, lecturer or senior lecturer. In total, their number exceeds 100,000. It is therefore a relatively large professional group.

Traditional universities were hierarchical organisations ruled by professors. During the Middle Ages, there was also a different model of universities in which the power belonged to the students; it was them who employed professors and chose the rector from among themselves. However, yet another model of the university, known as Parisian, became popular. Professors prevailed in such universities. The highest authorities of the university: the rector, vice-rectors, members of the senate were elected from among them. Nowadays the professors share power with representatives of other groups of academic teachers and other university staff, although the managerial functions (such as: rector, dean, head of the institute or head of the department) at the leading universities are still entrusted to professors. In such universities no-one becomes a professor by accident, and most likely, as a result, professors receive recognition and due respect.

In the course of my academic work, I came across a case which occurred during my tenure as the elected head of an institute. I was required to put forwards recommendations for two individuals who would take up the position of my personal deputies, subject to the outcome of a vote at the end of the week. During this process, a student

came to me with a proposal that I should put his name forward for one of the deputy posts. In legal terms it was possible, but before the vote, in which all employees and representatives of the students had to take part, the young man withdrew. He most likely came to conclusion that his chances were too small.

Nowadays, despite the fact that universities have more democratic character and representatives of junior staff, service staff and students are part of collegiate university bodies (senate, faculty council, institute council, etc.), it is still the case, especially in the group of academic teachers, that the formal and informal leaders therein are almost always academics holding professorial titles and postdoctoral degrees. Naturally, not all of them are, or can become, such leaders. Therefore, we must ask, what is it that determines that an academic teacher can become a leader among his colleagues, and also play this role within both the students' and the entire university's community?

In my opinion, it is difficult to provide an unambiguous answer. The decisive factors are: the personal make-up of a given individual, as well as the reasons and traits that make him/her charismatic and authoritative. This is related to what distinguishes a given academic teacher from the others, namely - the fact that in the eyes of other members of the academic community that individual is seen as a leader, expert or guide. In the further part of the article I will try to introduce the concept of these types of academic leaders.

Leadership of the academic teacher in the higher education institution environment

The term 'leadership' comes from the word 'leader'. It emphasises a leader's activities, which consist of exercising managerial functions, leading and directing others. It is therefore connected with the issue of exercising power. In scientific analyses, deliberations regarding leadership appear in various disciplines: sociology, social psychology, political science, management sciences, and others. Leadership can be considered either as a process of influencing other people or as a leader's attribute. In the first instance, attention is focussed on the correctness of an action and its effectiveness, starting from the stage of formulating objectives and choosing a strategy of action, to assessing the obtained results. The second aspect concerns the personal qualities

of the leader and his/her social competences, especially interpersonal ones, which promote an effective impact on others.

According to Burns (1995), it is possible to speak of leadership when people are involved in the process of achieving a set goal within a given system or environment, under the influence of a leader. In this approach, the issue of social influence occupies a central place. What is important here is the relationship between the leader, his supporters, and the social situation in which the social interactions take place. Not every manager or supervisor deserves to be called a leader. Andrzej K. Koźmiński and Dariusz Jemielniak (2008, p. 18) are of the opinion, that this is due to the rare occurring personal qualities that must characterise the leader. Thus, they state: "Leadership is the ability to lead larger or smaller groups of followers. Such ability consists of the capacity to indicate and communicate a vision of future goals towards which the group must work together. This vision must be attractive enough to create amongst the leader's supporters the state of strong emotional desire to implement it. This desire is only to a certain extent based on a rational calculation of future benefits. It must refer to »higher« motivations, such as a desire to distinguish oneself and one's group, sometimes to »make up« for past failures, or to implement an ideological mission, to achieve something extraordinary and innovative ".

This brings us to the interesting topic of the leader's charisma. For the leader's presence and activity to cause such a tremendous effect, the followers of the leader "must be convinced of his/her »exceptionality«, that is, extraordinary talents, skills, knowledge, predictive abilities, moral superiority over others, etc." (ibid., p. 17). This is especially true during a period of rapid change, which is currently the case, when many individuals increasingly experience a subjective sense of uncertainty, danger, chaos and risk, people look for charismatic leaders. The prestige of such leaders, however, decreases significantly along with the return of periods of stabilisation (Kwiatkowski, 2010).

In recent decades, leadership research has been characterised by a comprehensive approach. Studies regarding this matter have shown that the effectiveness of a leader depends on his/her personality, experience, the set of values recognised by him/her, the expectations and behaviours of subordinates, the nature of the undertaken task, and the organisational culture. The latter factor is particularly strongly exposed in the latest research (Michalak, 2006; Madalińska-

-Michalak, 2012, 2015). It is desirable that leadership is based on lasting principles. According to Alicja Korzeniecka-Bondar (2011, p. 97), such leadership ensures not only honesty, friendliness and efficiency, but also effectiveness.

One may wonder whether leadership in education has its specificity. Education is an area in which relations, processes and activities are of a social nature. Both their initiators and beneficiaries are people. Educational activity, however, is not limited to the 'donor – recipient' or 'expert – client' relationships, which are currently not one-sided systems anyway. It is increasingly evident that the teachers in primary and secondary schools, and the professors in higher education institutions are not only potential leaders, but also in many areas can be experts, guides and student's partners.

In the teaching - learning process, academic teachers and students are the active subjects in higher education institutions. The social environment is also active, which is an important social context of every school. It is created by the whole society, nation, religious groups, local community, social groups, and the local administration. The influences of popular culture in its various scopes and dimensions, as well as the impact of the media and the virtual world, which is gaining more and more importance, are also of great relevance. Moreover, politicians, presidents or directors of business institutions and corporations, people from the business world, representatives of foundations and associations, and representatives of workplaces play a significant role in higher education institutions. As a result, even the exemplary professional performance of a teacher, and, in the higher education institutions - an academic teacher, is usually not enough to become a leader. The leader must be able to use external influences flexibly and selectively in order to achieve his/her plans and goals. He/she must be active in many fields, mobilising not only him/her self, but also colleagues as well as students, and include various institutions, organisations, and societal forces in the undertaken activities.

Educational leadership in the higher education institution is not only important for the work of that particular institution. Due to the specific functions of education, which include supporting the development of individuals, preparing and improving human resources for the economy, and readying citizens for social life, it is important for the overall functioning of society. One of the tasks of the higher education

system is shaping the social elites. This is a task traditionally undertaken by universities. Presently, due to the social transformations and the changes in the functions of universities and other higher education institutions, it requires a new approach. Certainly, it is not limited to the tasks related to shaping and developing individuals. The tasks concerning the preparation of staff for institutions functioning on the principles of a market economy, as well as the preparation of modern educated intelligentsia to operate in a democratic society are becoming increasingly important. While the first of these tasks is sometimes too strongly reflected in the work of universities, the second one is poorly recognised in our country, often hardly visible.

The profound social change that we are currently dealing with means that leaders and the people who cooperate with them should be able to read the essence of the change, anticipate its immediate and further effects and have a vision of the future. This applies in particular to the realm of educational leadership, as pupils and students will take full social and professional activity after a number of years, possibly even a decade or two, at which time the human world and the entire economic and social context surrounding it will change significantly. Therefore, one must agree with both the arguments of Michael Schratz (2014, p. 11–36) that leadership should nowadays be understood as learning from the emerging future, as well as with the words of Grzegorz Mazurkiewicz (2014, p. 37), who has said: "Our future is decided today. For this, it is necessary to have an understanding – of yourself, of other people, entire societies and various phenomena, that is, understanding of the world. We must probably accept that this understanding will never be full, and that the search for it will never cease. However, the desire to reach an agreement, willingness to exchange, readiness for learning and development - are our chance to change."

Is this the case in practice? So far, the choice of leaders in academia is more often determined by their professional achievements, not by how they perceive the future, how they analyse it, and what conclusions they draw from it. At the higher education institutions, the leaders are primarily people who stand out, who have achieved mastery in at least some areas of their professional activity. Back in the day, every graduate of a university became a *Master of Arts*, and according to this term could have been considered a master. This is not the case anymore. This has been caused by the popularisation of education, by the fact

that higher education is no longer elitist. The level of education of the population has increased significantly, as a result, a graduate of a higher education institution does not surpass others in terms of knowledge, skills and competences, as was the case half a century ago and in prior eras. Currently, even professors are not always able to be considered masters in their field. This phenomenon is also associated with the rapid increase in knowledge, emergence of new types of skills (for example: IT), and at the same time the fulfilment of the high requirements necessary to recognise someone as a master.

Master among academic teachers

Mastery - according to the definition contained in the Dictionary of the Polish language (edited by M. Szymczak, vol. II, 1979, p. 186) - is "the highest degree of proficiency in performing something, proficiency, artistry, craftsmanship". The master is in turn "a man superior to others in the skill of something, proficiency in something, unsurpassed in some field" (ibid.). Therefore, the master impresses those who watch him/her or learn from him/her and becomes for them an undisputed authority and a model that is worth following.

"It is clear - says Witkowski (2000, p. 365) - that the principle promoting »being Number One« has many advantages and brings didactic and educational benefits. It is not a coincidence that the idea of mastery and the virtues of authority (not confused with authoritarianism) have been appreciated in pedagogy for a long time. It allows us to specify and grade competences in the scope of promotion of specific roles. This principle is most easily translatable into clear methodological templates, criteria of organising the lesson time and execution of the knowledge acquisition (even if the results are merely bland reiteration)".

We can also mention other advantages, such as the value of the conveyed message, unambiguity of expectations and requirements, clear definition of the exemplar, avoiding many conundrums and dilemmas related to the choice of research path and evaluation of solutions. Real masters are deeply needed in the modern university. Without them it is difficult to imagine the leading role of the higher education institutions in building a knowledge-based society (Szymański, 2002, pp. 235-242). This brings to mind the words of Sergiusz Hessen: "the professor is the better, the more he stands as a scholar" and Jerzy Kmita, who expressed

the opinion that "university teaching requires a »scholar–creator«, who will influence his listeners by using himself as an example" (as cited in Brzeziński, 1997).

The influence of the master has also its downsides. It is no coincidence that the studios of eminent painters have created a great deal of efficient copyists and only a few artists. The master can overwhelm with the strength of his influence as a role model, limit the development of the individuality and creative attitudes of his pupils, and make it difficult to overcome accepted conventions and schemes. Another downside is, lets again refer to Witkowski (ibid.) - that the idea of mastery means "to incorporate into the functioning of the school the level of competence, also moral, described by Kohlberg and also Habermas as reaching, at most, the level of »conventionalism« and »identity of the role«. Situationally, it also gives results from the level of anomie, provided that fear and reward become a way of perpetuating the irreversibility of the teacher's priority in every situation."

A master - in the case of the higher education institutions – a professor or other academic teacher - may be, though doesn't have to be, a guide for students. The decisive factors in fulfilling the role of a guide are - apart from intellectual values and wealth of knowledge – the personality traits of a particular person. These include - I believe – character traits that are appealing to the students, the ability to create appropriate interpersonal contacts, and pedagogical abilities necessary for developing students' interests, as well as the effective transfer of knowledge.

The master must display excellence at least in some important areas of his work. With reference to the academic teachers, these are: scientific creativity, didactic work, organisational and management activities. It is possible to be recognised as a master in the entire discipline (e.g. in philosophy, sociology, physics or automation) or its component parts (e.g. sociology of the family or quantum physics), as well as in the methodology of social or natural sciences, in quantitative or qualitative research.

Academic teacher as an expert

Growing specialisation brings the position of the master close to the role of an expert or a specialist, who may display expertise, author expert evaluations, scientific opinions, act as a consultant or an appraiser.

Home

Expertise is understood as expert skill or knowledge (which allows experts to establish the cause of an aircraft accident or determine the viability of locating a skyscraper in a given area). Expertise is indispensable to issue an expert opinion or evaluation, which is a result of an expert's work, for example taking the form of final conclusions in the case of determining the mental state of a person at the time of committing a crime or examining social moods on the eve of elections.

In the context of the higher education institutions, an expert is a scholar and academic teacher with formally or informally recognised proficiency in a specific field, which is expressed both in mastering the theory and practice. Experts are therefore the professors who are entrusted with the evaluation of doctoral dissertations, as well as scientific achievements of candidates for the postdoctoral degree and the title of professor. A similar role, although in a different scope, is also fulfilled by the members of the Polish Accreditation Committee (*Polish: Polska Komisja Akredytacyjna*), which makes assessments and gives opinions on the whole course of activity in a given field of study within the higher education institution. It also examines the organisational and legal aspects related to the functioning of the higher education institution, faculty and individuals. Although the expert's activities rely on the collection of information necessary for issuing opinions and assessments, included in their realm of expertise, the expert's work is also subject to evaluation. As a result of that, the position of an expert either strengthens or weakens, which may lead to retainment, reinforcement or loss of this role.

It is obvious that an expert has or should have authority. In the higher education institutions, this is scientific authority or the authority of an academic teacher as a teaching and learning specialist, based on the opinions of superiors, fellow teachers and students, often also reinforced by graduates, readers of their publications, as well as speeches at conventions and conferences, dissemination activities, and presentations in the media. If the teacher performs managerial functions or plays an important role in the management of the higher education institution by performing the function of the rector or vice-rectors, dean or deputy dean, head of the department or section, member of various collegiate bodies (senate, faculty council, institute council, rector's committee, etc.), these types of activities may also contribute to obtainment (or not) of authority.

In an increasingly complex society, called the post-modern society, the network society or the risk society, people find it increasingly difficult to orientate themselves in the world. Thus, the role of intellectuals, including the elite of academic teachers from various fields, is to warn the broad social circles against new, previously unknown dangers caused by globalisation, subsequent phases of scientific and technical revolution, market economy, consumerism, aggressive and often harmful politics, media expansion as well as the delusions and traps of the virtual world. They are also expected to indicate the right path, where the ability to take advantage of the benefits of the enormous scientific and technical progress will be harmonised with the democratic order based on the principles of democracy and humanism, in which human rights and ethical norms will become the basis of the existing order. The new obligation of those who 'know more', comes down to taking the role of guides more often, alongside other forms of scientific and didactic activity.

Academic teacher as a guide

The guide is a leader. He/she must therefore be able to take on leadership roles, have the courage to take responsibility for decision making, determine values, set paths for scientific cognition, and resolve disputes. As a result, he/she requires some expert skills. His/her role is rendered favourable by having authority and leadership qualities. When those attributes are successfully incorporated, the effects are visible in the fact that both him/her self and the junior researchers, academics and students who follow in his/her footsteps, are successful, have objective testimonies and a subjective sense of their progress. Such an academic teacher can enjoy well-deserved esteem and great authority.

The guide should also be prepared for difficult moments, if his/her knowledge or strategy turns out to be incorrect (many such cases occurred in the period of the transformation after the collapse of the Soviet Union and the entire bloc of communist countries), when the perception of the world changes radically, bringing the need for new values and new ways of understanding the meaning of life.

Given the huge difficulties that are associated with fulfilling the role of master and guide, more and more academic teachers, especially younger ones, assume the role of a friendly partner for students in their quest to learn about values and acquire knowledge. They are

open to dialogue, offer advice and help, but they do not claim to have a monopoly on the truth and the validity of axiological choices. Trying to preserve a sense of their own 'self', they fully respect the subjectivity of students, their different personalities, ways of thinking, ideological reasons and lifestyles. Partnership fits well with the general relationship model shaped in a democratic society. Partnership relations foster authentic studying, motivated by the cognitive interests of the person conducting the classes and those of the participating students, and are not imposed by external rigours, artificially inflated discipline or the usual fear of exams and repressions by an academic teacher.

However, despite appearances, the partnership style of work at higher education institutions is very difficult. The undisputed authority of the academic teacher is also indispensable, so that in the atmosphere of democratic relations with the students he/she can achieve the goals and tasks of didactic and educational work. Otherwise, partnerships may drift towards ill-conceived camaraderie, cause a decline in the sense of duty and discipline of academic youth, signify the difficulty of enforcing requirements and the appropriate rhythm of work. Such states of affairs, as a result, invariably lead to low didactic effects, and sometimes also to inappropriate student attitudes and behaviours.

It is difficult, therefore, to determine unequivocally what a modern academic teacher should be. The traditional model of the master is slowly expiring, because often the authoritarianism and willingness to constantly impose meanings do not fit the needs of an increasingly democratic society. The role of the guide, though glorious and valuable from the pedagogical point of view, can be difficult to fulfil, especially in a period of rapid social change and an equally fast increase in the level of knowledge. In turn, the partner position in relation to students, although well integrated into the reality of civil society, may fail in some cases.

Perhaps, in the conditions of a complex and changing society, there is no single desirable formula for an academic teacher. Leaders are required in every environment, and therefore also in the academic community - focused on set, but also constantly modified, goals. Even if we criticise directive and authoritarian pedagogy, it is difficult to rule out the possibility that some of the young people also require these types of influence. By promoting the subjectivity of all citizens, and naturally also students, it cannot be questioned that the tasks, as well as the

knowledge, skills and competences of the individuals participating in university life are not the same, therefore it would be good if academic teachers acted as guides or student leaders as much as it is possible. Experts play a similar role - their knowledge and skills can impress and encourage students to engage in intensive study. However, there shouldn't be too much of a distance between academic teachers and students, as they too should actively participate in research. It is therefore hard to underestimate the importance of well-understood partnerships between teaching staff and students. The key is to ensure that it results from the requirements and capabilities of both groups of the academic community, and at the same time, that it serves the objectives set out in the study programmes.

Modern higher education institutions need leaders, experts and masters, as well as guides of the academic youth, and academic teachers who are students' partners. It is also possible to integrate the characteristics of all aforementioned types of academic teachers into the activities of single individuals. However, this is not easy to achieve. Some people say that only a few can be true leaders – individuals who are endowed with charisma. Current experts will in time be replaced by better ones, we only happen to be masters sometimes and we fill the role of the guide many times, but it is not always possible. Partnership with students is desirable, but it also has its own determinants and boundaries.

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3

Teacher Leadership – International Perspective

Perspectives on teacher leadership

Maria Assunção Flores

In this chapter, I address the ways in which Portuguese teachers look at conditions and opportunities for them to exercise leadership, particularly at a time marked by an increase of the workload and bureaucracy and the deterioration of their working conditions including their social economic status. In the first part of the chapter I look at international literature on teacher leadership in order to clarify the concept which is subject to different interpretations. Then, I address the methodological features of the research project on which the second part of the chapter is based. Findings are presented according to the key themes emerging from both quantitative and qualitative data. The chapter ends with a discussion of the findings and their implications for teacher professional development.

Introduction

In the context of Europe, the core elements of teacher education programmes tend to i) subject competence; ii) pedagogical competencies; iii) the integration of theory and practice; iv) cooperation and collaboration; v) quality assurance; vi) mobility; vii) leadership; and, viii) continuing and lifelong learning. A report drawing on European Commission documents points to the importance of issues such as research-based learning, self-development, student exchange, learning European languages, understanding different European cultures and so on for the internationalization of teacher education in Europe. However, what tends to be neglected in the documents from European member states are mobility, leadership, and continuing and lifelong learning (Piesanen & Valijarvi, 2010).

More recently, Huang (2016, pp. 222-223) argues that "the relationship between teacher leadership and teacher education tends to be overlooked" and that there is a need to foster the link between the two because "professional development is highly situated and teacher agency has gradually come to be regarded as a significant feature of teacher change" (original emphasis). Also, Flores (2017, in press), drawing upon empirical research, discusses four key issues that she considers to be key elements in unpacking teacher quality. The starting element is the concept of teachers as leaders of learning which stands at the core of being a teacher including issues such as motivation, innovation of practice, commitment and resilience. In a recent book, Frost (2017) states that teachers' work has been shaped by policies and therefore teachers are asked not only to lead change but also to play their role in shaping those policies. Within this context, Frost (2017, p. 174) argues that "empowering teachers as agents of change is an urgent necessity".

In this chapter, I address the ways in which Portuguese teachers look at conditions and opportunities for them to exercise leadership, particularly at a time marked by an increase of the workload and bureaucracy and the deterioration of their working conditions including their social economic status (see: Flores, 2014). In the first part of the chapter, I look at international literature on teacher leadership in order to clarify a concept around which there is little consensus. Then, I address the methodological features of the research project on which the second part of the chapter is based. Findings are presented according to the key themes emerging from both quantitative and

qualitative data. The chapter ends with a discussion of the findings and their implications for teacher professional development.

Why is teacher leadership important?

The literature on teacher leadership (TL) is vast and lacks consensus. Different perspectives and understandings of TL may be identified (Davis, Leon, 2009; Alexandrou, Swaffield, 2012). However, despite the variations in the use of the term, TL has been seen as a key element in improvement efforts in education.

Stevenson (2012, p. 345) states that much of existing literature on teacher leadership "is rooted within mainstream discourses of education leadership and management and fails to address more fundamental questions about the nature of leadership in an educational context". The author identifies two main problems linked to this literature: i) teacher leadership continues to be seen within a managerialist perspective located within managerialist tradition and hierarchies, linked to roles and structures and remaining essentially conservative and orthodox; ii) the literature stresses the contribution of teacher leaders to educational change but, as the author argues, seldom questions the "fundamental nature of these changes" (2012, p. 345). Similarly, Fairman and Mackenzie (2012, p. 244) suggest that referring to aspects of teachers' practice as 'leadership' may be problematic: "Labelling the work teachers do as <<leadership>> may, in fact, discourage teacher involvement in leadership activity because teachers' conception of leadership comes from a more traditional model of formally designated roles and specific responsibilities and because of the persistence of egalitarian norms in teaching".

By and large, it is possible to identify in existing TL literature both a formal and an informal dimension, including different levels of intervention and diverse stakeholders. For instance, York-Barr and Duke (2004, p. 288) argue that teacher leadership constitutes "an umbrella term that includes a wide array of work at multiple levels in educational systems, including work with students, colleagues, and administrators and work that is focused on instructional, professional, and organisational development".

Huang (2016) distinguishes traditional views of leadership and informal leadership, the former focusing on authorised individual (usually the principal or head teacher in the school), and the latter

pointing to those who do not play a formal position in an organisation. Formal and informal teacher leadership has been discussed in different ways in existing literature. Formal teacher leaders are those who play a role in the organisational structure of the school (e.g. head of departments, curriculum coordinators, mentors, etc.), whereas informal teacher leaders refer to those who, not serving a formal function in the school, do influence others (pupils, colleagues, parents) in the context in which they work. Thus, informal leadership is associated with the different ways in which teachers make a difference in their workplace by interacting, leading and influencing others in a diverse manner. For instance, Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001, p. 5) define teacher leaders as those who "lead within and beyond the classroom, identify with and contribute to a community of teacher learners and leaders, and influence others towards improved educational practice". In a similar vein, Frost (2012) argues for a non-positional view of teacher leadership, one which "does not assume leadership is automatically linked with positions in the organisational hierarchy of the school" (Frost, 2012, p. 210). More traditional views of leadership draw on top-down, hierarchical and more individual frameworks which tend to overlook the collective and collaborative dimension of leadership (Harris, 2003).

Within the view of schools as learning communities (Forte, Flores, 2014), teachers are encouraged to exercise leadership and to engage in improvement efforts in the settings in which they work by leading projects, influencing and mobilising others inside and beyond their classrooms and schools. In this context, Poekert (2012, p. 171) highlights the importance of this definition as it draws attention to the centrality of leadership that is built "on influence and interaction, rather than power and authority".

Fairman and Mackenzie (2012) point to the dynamic and context-dependent nature of teacher leadership. A number of conditions for teacher leadership to be successful has also been identified: a culture of trust and support, structures that support teacher leadership, clear and transparent, strong leadership head and engagement in innovative forms of professional development (Muijs, Harris, 2006). Also, according to Durrant (2004, p. 27), it is important that "teachers' vision and values are articulated and then that they are involved both in setting the agenda for change and in exercising leadership to make it happen". Huang (2016) discusses the self-empowerment approach to discuss

the nature of informal leadership which is developed by those who do not hold a formal position in the school structures. As Hanuscin, Rebello, and Sinha (2012, p. 17) state, "there are many informal ways in which teachers exert influence and make a positive difference in their schools".

For Huang (2016) in the case of informal leaders more autonomous actions from the part of the followers may be promoted. The same author, drawing upon a study carried out in Taiwan, concludes that TL is a stretching process from the key leader to core members, then to general followers. The same study has shown the critical characteristics of key leaders such as their strong and autonomous will, which seemed not to be related to any kind of organisational or positional intention. Moreover, key leaders seemed to adopt the "tone of *invitation*" (original emphasis) to build collaborative relationships and professional dialogue (Huang, 2016). Similarly, Hunzicker (2012, p. 268) states that "teacher leaders are best prepared through a combination of job-embedded professional development and collaborative experiences." Issues of collaboration and strategic teacher leadership have also been identified in the literature (Frost, Roberts, 2004).

The potential of TL to change schools and to transform educational practice has been documented in various ways (e.g. Flores, 2013, Flores *et al*, 2016), an example of which is the book recently edited by Frost (2017). In this book, a theory of non-positional teacher leadership is illustrated by the voices and stories of teachers from different contexts. It is possible to see why TL matters and how it works in schools, for example, in integrating technology in learning at a school in Cairo (Elfouly, Eltemamy, 2017), in developing strategies to improve mindset in mathematics in England (Sakatis, Wootton, 2017) or in cultivating hope in challenging circumstances in Portugal (Flores, Richmond, 2017).

The study

This chapter draws on data from a wider 3-year project (January 2011 - June 2014) funded by *Fundação para a Ciência e a Tecnologia* (National Foundation for Science and Technology) (PTDC/CPE-CED/112164/2009). The project was developed at a critical time for the teaching profession within the context of austerity and economic crisis. Issues such as intensification, increase of the workload, bureaucracy, deterioration of teachers' working conditions including their social

economic status are but few examples. Drawing from the major research project, this chapter addresses the following research questions:

→ How do teachers see teacher leadership?
→ How do other stakeholders at school, namely pupils and head teachers, perceive teacher leadership?
→ What are the conditions for teachers to exercise leadership?

A mixed-method research design was devised. Data were collected in three phases. Phase I consisted of a national survey in which 2702 teachers participated. In order to analyse further the main findings from the quantitative data, 11 schools located in different regions of the country participated in phase II which included semi-structured interviews with the 11 head teachers and focus group with pupils (n=108) and with teachers (n=99). The third phase involved a professional development programme in 5 schools located in northern Portugal, in which 66 teachers participated (phase III). In this chapter data from phases I and II will be reported. More information on phase III may be consulted at www.teachersexercisingleadership.com.

In total, 2702 teachers from mainland Portugal participated in the national survey which was administered online. Out of the 2702 participants, 78.5% were female; 42.8% were between 40-49 years old, 28.6% were between 50-59 years old and 25.5% were between 30-39 years old. Only 1.7 were between 20-29 years of age. This is in line with the most recent "General profile of the teachers 2014/2015" published by the Ministry of Education (Direção-Geral de Estatísticas da Educação e Ciências, July 2016) whose statistics reveal that less that 2% of the Portuguese teachers are 30 years of age or younger. As far the teachers' qualifications are concerned, the majority of them held a *Licenciatura* degree (59.3%) and 21.4% held a master's degree (21.4%). The majority of the teachers had between 11 and 20 years of experience (37.6%) and between 21 and 30 years (34.9%). The vast majority of them had a permanent post at school (83.3%). In addition, the majority taught in urban schools (51.1%) and in all sectors of teaching (from pre-school to secondary school: 3 to 18 year-old pupils).

As far as the 99 teachers participating in the focus group (22 in total) are concerned, the majority of them were female teachers (76.8%). As for their age, 31.3% were between 51 and 60 years old and 27.3% between 41 and 50 years old. The participating teachers came from all

sectors of teaching, from pre-school to secondary school, and taught various subjects. In regard to their experience as teachers, 36.4% had between 21 and 30 years of service, 26.3% between 31 and 40, and 22.2% between 11 and 20 years of experience.

Out of the 11 head teachers, 54.5% were female and they came from all sectors of education, including big clusters of schools (from pre-school to secondary schools) (63.6%); 36.4% only taught in the secondary school sector.

In regard to the 108 pupils participating in the focus group (23 in total) most of them were female (52.8%). Most of them were aged between 11 and 15 years of age (39.8%) and between 16 and 20 (30.6%). The participants came from all sectors of teaching, from Kindergarten, primary school, elementary school and secondary school. Out of the 108 pupils, 32.4% were in secondary school and 25.9% in elementary school (students aged 10 to 15).

Quantitative data were analysed statistically with the use of SPSS (version 20). The process of qualitative data analysis was undertaken according to two phases: an analysis of data gathered in each school through the voices of teachers, pupils and the head teacher. A second phase was then carried out according to a comparative or horizontal analysis (cross-case analysis) (Miles, Huberman, 1994). In this phase, it was possible to look for common patterns as well as differences. A semantic criterion was used to look for key themes arising from the qualitative data by the research team.

Main findings

The project generated a wealth of data. Due to length constraints, findings will be presented according to three main themes: i) the co-existence of different leaders at school; ii) good teachers as leaders of learning; iii) classroom as a key context for the exercise of teacher leadership.

The co-existence of different leaders at school

When asked about "Who are the leaders in your school?", the participants spoke of a diversity of leadership roles. In other words, leadership was described as a plural dynamic at school led by different agents. Despite this, the most recurrent view in teachers' accounts is associated with its formal dimension, particularly related to those who have a role in the school management structure as it is the case of the

head teacher and senior management team. Teachers also talked about the role of the head of departments and subject coordinators.

> "The head teacher has a key role in this school in terms of leadership".
>
> (Secondary school teacher, 23 years of teaching)

> "The head teacher is the key person as far as leadership is concerned".
>
> (Elementary school teacher, 20 years of teaching)

> "In my view, the key leader is the head teacher. She has a key role in the school. Of course, there is a group of people that support her and help her... and they end up leading the school too."
>
> (Elementary school teacher, 18 years of teaching)

Other teachers stress the role of the head of departments and tutors as well as the coordinators of projects at school:

> "I think that leadership at school is sort of pre-defined. You have the coordinators of each department, they can bring some kind of dynamic to the school. There is discussion at the meetings, participation and communication..."
>
> (Elementary school teacher, 28 years of teaching)

> "Leadership at school is not only about the head teacher. You can also talk about leadership at the intermediate level, for instance the head of departments, the tutors, the coordinators of the tutors, etc. All of them are very important..."
>
> (Elementary school teacher, 34 years of teaching)

> "I think what makes the school dynamic is the role of the coordinators. Of course the school leadership is important, but those who deal with the day-to-day issues are the coordinators..."
>
> (Secondary school teacher, 32 years of teaching)

> "The coordinator of the teachers plays a key role. He/she tries to develop a certain dynamic at school, building teamwork, he/she is

a facilitator of teachers' working together. Life in school is tough these days and the coordinator is the linking element in order to keep the pressure away from the teachers and to support them. The teachers need to feel that the coordinator is there for them and he/she is good at what he/she does and knows what do to."

(Primary school teacher, 26 years of teaching)

The role of the teacher tutors in making the connection between the school and families is also highlighted in teachers' accounts. The participants spoke of their leading role in the ways in which they interact with pupils, parents and teachers. Similarly, the coordinators of projects at school are also seen as key players when it comes to teacher leadership at school.

"The tutors play a key role at school... they are involved in linking the work of the school and the families, they work with the pupils, the teachers and the parents. They care for the kids and work beyond the classroom context. Their work is important in enhancing pupil behaviour and achievement..."

(Elementary school teacher, 18 years of teaching)

Although a formal dimension of leadership is prevalent in teachers' accounts, it is also possible to identify a broader understanding of teacher leadership, even if this view is less frequent. Teachers also spoke of the teachers who make a difference in their schools which points to the informal teacher leadership and a non-positional view (Frost, 2012). Teachers' accounts are eloquent when they talk about this kind of leadership at school. They refer to influence, mobilisation, motivation, innovation and action. This can be seen in expressions such as "true leadership", "ability to get people involved and to mobilise people", "being able to lead people and get them motivated and involved at school", "take the initiative" and "making others believe that something is possible":

"In my opinion, there are people at the school that, even if they do not play a formal role, they are listened to and they are respected by everybody. They are asked about their opinion about issues, they are people who know what they are talking about... this is the true leadership"

(Secondary school teacher)

> "In my group I know the people who are able to get other people motivated and are able to mobilise others. They lead others in projects and activities. (...) whenever I have a doubt or a difficulty I ask their opinion."
>
> (Secondary school teacher)

> "I am aware that it is not the formal role that makes the school work. It is the other two hundred and something teachers who do that..."
>
> (Secondary school teacher, 20 years of experience)

> "I feel like a leader sometimes when I think about a given idea. I want to develop it and I make a suggestion to my group and when I manage to involve them in a project I feel like a leader. I am able to get them involved in a project and to believe that it is possible to do something for the pupils and for the school."
>
> (Elementary school teacher, 25 years of experience)

Thus, teacher leadership is not only related to formal roles. For some of the participants informal leaders do exist at school and they do make a difference in leading others due to their knowledge, expertise and wisdom. This is the case of teachers who influence their colleagues, who develop innovative projects at school and who are engaged in activities that make a difference in the contexts in which they work.

Good teachers as leaders of learning

The participating teachers emphasise their key role as leaders of learning, especially in the classroom context. They also spoke of the different ways in which teachers can make a difference in their school contexts when they are able to influence and mobilise others, by leading projects, by interacting with parents and the community, etc. Teachers are therefore seen as agents of change and leaders of pupils' learning and also of their own learning.

> "In the classroom I see myself as a leader."
>
> (Elementary school teacher, 27 years of teaching)

"As a teacher you need to be a leader in the classroom context, right? Everyone is a leader in his/her own way…"
(Primary school teacher, 26 years of teaching)

The participants highlight that teachers are leaders of teaching and learning in the classroom when they suggest and develop pedagogical activities. This kind of leadership is also visible in the pedagogical interaction with the pupils which is associated with the capacity to mobilise others, to influence them and to make a difference in their lives.

"As a teacher you may influence your colleagues and your pupils. You may also be led by your pupils. (…) You have to be a leader in the classroom…"
(Secondary school teacher, 33 years of teaching)

"I consider myself as a leader. I like to lead things in which I believe."
(Secondary school teacher, 17 years of teaching)

In a similar vein, the head teachers participating in the study also emphasised the role of teacher leaders, their ability to influence and mobilise others, to get people motivated and to lead others in their workplace:

"Teacher leaders are able to motivate, to get people involved for instance in a project or within a group of teachers… they are able to get people engaged and making them doing things at school."
(Head teacher, 19 years of experience)

"A teacher leader is able to bond to others and to foster a good climate at school. You get people engaged at school."
(Head teacher, 23 years of experience)

Pupils were also able to talk about leadership as a key element in their teachers' work. Issues such as inspiration, motivation, and passion are at the forefront of their accounts:

"A leader is the one who is able to motivate you, someone that you respect and respects you. You feel like doing what they say and do…"
(Pupil, 16 years old)

"He inspires you and you feel like working with him…"
(Pupil, 12 years old)

"Teacher leaders are competent. Many of their characteristics come from them being good teachers, they have a good relationship and they are able to maintain a formal but not strict relationship with their students."
(Pupil, 16 years old)

Classroom as a key context for the exercise of teacher leadership

Linked to the informal dimension of leadership is the classroom context. For the participants, teachers are leaders of learning and teaching in the classroom through the pedagogical activities they undertake and lead. This kind of leadership is also visible in the pedagogical relationship with the pupils that includes their ability to mobilise, influence and make a difference in their lives.

"The teacher needs to be seen as a leader in their pupils' eyes, right? Each teacher is a leader in his/her own way".
(Primary school teacher, 26 years of experience)

"You can see leadership led by teachers through the ways in which they are able to get their pupils motivated and/or be led by the pupils themselves. I think the key issue of leadership in this school does not relate to the school leader. As a teacher you need to be a leader in the classroom. There is no alternative."
(Secondary school teacher, 33 years of experience)

"You are a leader in the classroom! You are a leader in the ways in which you relate to others. You can influence them".
(Primary school teacher, 25 years of experience)

> "I am a leader. I like to lead things that I believe in. But I do not enjoy to be told what to do. Yes, there is leadership in the classroom."
> (Secondary school teacher, 27 years of experience)

> "In the classroom you can make the pupils feel that they are also responsible for the school. As a teacher in the classroom you are a leader. What does it mean to be a leader? You need to be able to get pupils motivate, to guide them, to get them involved in things, but more than that you also need to know them."
> (Elementary school teacher)

While the participants recognise the importance of exercising leadership, they also stress that their leadership is under attack due to the changes in education over the last years. In the survey, teachers hold different opinions in regard to the item "I am encouraged to exercise leadership": 27.6% agree, 30.8% do not agree nor disagree and 22.5% disagree. The following quotes are illustrative of this:

> "I do not feel encouraged to exercise leadership. Although you feel that you need to do something in regard to your pupils, you don't feel encouraged to exercise leadership."
> (Elementary school teacher, 14 years of teaching)

> "I don't feel encouraged to exercise leadership because Central Administration prevents you to do that… you do not have autonomy, you don't feel supported to be involved in certain dynamics at school".
> (Elementary school teacher, 27 years of teaching)

> "School is living a tremendous crisis… sometimes it seems that a monster is being created in face of contradictory directions, management of a great diversity of people, administrative tasks, etc. Such a burden is mining our capacity of leadership in the classroom due to the lack of knowledge. Leadership in the classroom may be compromised due to the amount of tasks and responses that as a teacher you need to deal with. As a teacher you need to handle a lot in the classroom in terms of learning situations, emotional issues, etc. And you cannot handle everything…"
> (Elementary school teacher).

Data from the national survey also indicate that teachers reveal an ambivalent position in regard to the most important dimensions of their work.

Tabela 1. Challenges in teacher's work

IMPORTANT	collaborating with colleagues	63.4%
	supporting students	58.7%
	reflecting on one's own work	51.1%
	planning teaching	49.1%
	and continuous professional learning	45.1%
LESS IMPORTANT	performing administrative tasks	7.5%
	involvement within the local community	14.5%
	developing teamwork	18.7%
	using ICT	19.7%
	participating in decision-making process	19.7%

Source: Author.

Tabela 2. Reasons for participation in the INSERT program and the use of career opportunities

IMPORTANT	improving my practice	83.1%
	increasing my professional knowledge	81.1%
	developing innovative teaching strategies	60.5%
	sharing ideas and experiences with colleagues	52.4%
LESS IMPORTANT	implementing policies/initiatives arising from central administration	4.8%
	developing leadership skills	6.3%
	undertaking roles and functions at school	6.8%
	reflecting on the values underlying the school role	13.2%

Source: Author.

These ambivalent views may be explained by a variety of reasons amongst which are teachers' views of collaborative work, understandings of leadership, conceptions of teaching as a profession, practice of professionalism, etc. Added to these is the school context and its ethos as a distinctive element in the ways in which teachers experience their work in face of policy initiatives and tensions in their workplace. Thus, school leadership as well as school cultures appear as two key elements in explaining and understanding teachers' views and experiences in regard to opportunities and encouragement for collaboration and for the exercise of leadership. This is in line with previous empirical work which points to the mediating role of school leadership in the enactment of policy initiatives (Tuytens, Devos, 2010; Flores, 2012).

It is within this context that teacher leadership is valued inside and outside the classroom. Teacher commitment towards the creation of more adequate and powerful conditions for pupil learning is a recurrent element in teachers' accounts. They spoke of informal leadership as they see their responsibility not only in enhancing the quality of pupils' learning and their development and well-being, but also the development of an adequate climate in the school with other colleagues and the link between school and families and communities along with teachers' professional development. The participants' accounts point to the valorisation of work dynamics and professional relationships that are marked by sharing and the exchange of ideas and practices as well as joint work to solve problems in their daily lives. They also emphasise collaboration in teaching (co-teaching) and the development of projects and initiatives at school which they relate to the key role of school and teacher leadership.

The pupils' views are also interesting to note. Even though they acknowledge the key role of the head teacher as the leader of the school, they highlight the leadership of the teachers. They are seen as key people in their lives. They stress that teacher leaders show a good performance in the classroom but they are also able to influence the dynamic of the school through the development of projects.

> "If you think in bureaucratic terms, the leader is the head teacher. But bureaucracy is killing the school..."
> (Pupil, 16 years old)

> "Yes, the teachers are the true leaders at school... I mean, this is my vision, I am not sure if the same leader influences the entire school..."
>
> (Pupil, 15 years old)

Similarly, when asked about "who are the people that contribute to the development of the school?" and "Who is the person that exercises leadership at school?", the participating head teachers identify a number of factors and agents, both individual and collective. They spoke of the "cohesion of the leadership team", the "tutors and coordinators of departments" and "teachers who lead different kinds of activities at school". However, head teachers stress the importance of the tutors in linking pupils, teachers and families. Despite this, some head teachers did emphasise the relevance of teacher leadership through their "ability to take the lead", their "initiative", their "power and responsibility" and their "trust to lead":

> "Trust. I think teachers feel that we trust them. In my school people can take initiative. People feel that they can take risks and if things go wrong we are available to accept that failure. People feel that if something goes wrong they have someone they can turn to."
>
> (Head teacher, 23 years of service)

Some head teachers also value the idea of "distributed leadership" and what they define as "decentralised, responsible and distributed power" in their school. They recognise the strategic action and leadership of the teachers in diverse contexts and situations, including the classroom:

> "I think everybody can exercise leadership: the teachers in the classroom, the support staff, etc. even the pupils can do that at school."
>
> (Head teacher, 21 years of service)

> "Leadership in school is naturally exercised by those who play a formal role within the school structures. But teachers also

exercise leadership, especially those who are leaders of projects and do things at school."

(Head teacher, 18 years of service)

Conclusion

This chapter set out to examine teacher leadership in the Portuguese context drawing upon a nationwide research project. Three main conclusions may be identified. First, there is a need to deconstruct the concept of leadership. Even though in the participants' accounts (teachers, head teachers and pupils) informal teacher leadership somehow emerged, the vast majority of them show a strong and direct connection between leadership and existing formal roles in the school structure. In other words, when asked about those who exercise leadership at school, most of the participants identify the head teacher, the coordinators of departments, the tutors, etc. There is clearly a prevalence of the formal leaders even though the role of informal leaders also emerged in some of the accounts. Thus, it is essential to deconstruct the concept of leadership within a non-positional view (Frost, 2012) and to highlight the need to provide teachers with conditions and opportunities for them to exercise leadership and agency. This was one of the goals of phase III of the research project described in this chapter. However, the details of the development of the network of teachers and schools to foster teacher leadership within a professional development course is beyond the scope of this chapter. Overall, the phase III of the project was illustrative of the possibilities of teacher sharing and network within the context of developing projects led by the teachers as an expansive space for them to explore and understand informal leadership.

A second conclusion relates to the awareness of teachers' roles as change agents. In the focus group, and despite the critical conditions in which work, within a context of austerity measures, salary cuts, increase bureaucracy and control, teachers, but also head teachers and pupils, were able to identify teachers who make a difference in their contexts in many ways. During the focus group teachers were able to compare and contrast their views and, in some cases, the discussion was a great opportunity for them to raise awareness of their agency for the benefit of their pupils even in difficult working conditions. That is

why classroom was referred to as a key context for teachers to exercise leadership as they were seen as leaders of learning.

Thirdly, there is a need to develop leadership skills not only in INSET and professional development opportunities for practicing teachers but also within the context of initial teacher education. In this regard, it is important to include opportunities for teachers and teachers-to-be to make their beliefs about being a teacher explicit as well as their views on teaching and learning. In other words, issues of professionalism and identity are keys to better understand informal teacher leadership in context. Thus, it is important to investigate more about teacher leaders, especially informal teacher leaders. Who are the teacher leaders in the school? What do they do? What are the outcomes of their actions? Issues such as teachers' professional culture and the micro politics of the workplace, especially in terms of leadership, may be one possibility to better understand and foster the development of teachers as agents of change in the contexts in which they work.

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Leadership for learning.
Teacher leaders as mediators for school-wide innovation and change

Livia Rößler, Michael Schratz

Teacher leaders have a wide range of tasks: they translate new policies into the prevailing practice, they create an environment for participation, they mediate between school leaders and staff, they establish relationships for professional learning. In doing so, they are mediators for change and innovation. The chapter discusses the theoretical underpinnings for such endeavors, and, by means of example, presents two specific teacher leader roles in the Austrian school system: Learning Designers, who work as change agents in each school sharing leadership with the principal with a view to improve teaching and learning, and School Quality Coordinators, who orchestrate school improvement in accordance with systems requirements. Weaving together both theoretical and practical perspectives, the authors provide a comprehensive understanding of what is needed for teacher leaders to support innovation and systemic change.

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Introduction

Initiating systematically formal teacher leadership roles is a relatively young intervention in the Austrian educational system. Even though there have been teacher leaders for centuries in the Austrian system, the capacity of this formal roles hasn't been seen as a catalyst for change and innovation yet.

In the first part, this chapter focuses on the teacher leader landscape of Austria as a whole, in the second part it deals with two teacher leader roles in particular – School Quality Coordinators, Learning Designers. Underpinned by examples from a research project, conducive and inhibiting factors for formal teacher leader roles will be defined and discussed. In a second step the findings will be linked to the potential of teacher leaders with a view to their capacity in initiating innovation and change in schools and across the system.

Leadership in Austrian schools

A short story of leadership

Similarly, to other European countries, for a long time, the school leader's role in Austria was characterised by the hierarchical positioning within a centrally governed school system and therefore leadership tended "to be associated with a formal role or responsibility and is generally viewed as a singular rather than a collective endeavor" (Harris, Mujis, 2005, p. 15). The role of the school head largely hinged on the school administration's governance concept at the time, which was marked by the head of school as a subordinate administrative authority. The school leader, as a *primus inter pares*, served to implement official regulations as smoothly as possible (Schratz, 2005; Hall *et al.*, 2017, p. 315) and was embedded in what Lortie (2002) called the "autonomy-parity pattern". The "eligibility criteria" for this prominent position were usually advanced seniority, a good track record within the system, and social integrity. Development took place through consultations with superiors. This form of school leadership in Austria still reflected a political culture that harked back to the Habsburg monarchy, and which was organised extremely hierarchically and characterised by pervasive formalism (Schratz, 2012).

With the growing influence of large scale assessments (e.g. TIMSS, PISA), the Austrian school system has been drawn into the global

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movement of result-based school governance (Altrichter, Maag Merki, 2010; Schratz, 2011). This re-orientation of governance has brought various concepts into educational reform such as "school autonomy", "school quality", "leadership responsibility", "effectiveness and efficiency", "accountability", and "performance standards".

Four trends can be traced in these develpments, which are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: Confluence model of school leadership research

TREND	PARADIGM	CONCEPT	HEADSHIP	LEARNER	RELATIONSHIP	GOVERNANCE
1.0	Quality improvement and quality management, responsibility	Leadership styles, organisational theory	Aurhority-centred, optimises	Recipient	Teacher-centred, instructional	Instruction-driven
2.0	Effectiveness, efficiency	Data-based findings, empirical testing	Expert-centred	Producer	Transactional	Test-driven
3.0	Intervention, development	Empower-ment, chang-ing patterns	Shapes & enables	Respondent	Dialogic, broadens horizons	Learning-driven
4.0	Value and meaning orientation, salutogenesis	Sustainability and resilience orientation	Nurtures & serves	Corespond-ent	Resonant, respectful	from a learning perspective

Source: Prepared on the basis of Wiesner et al., 2015; Schratz et al., 2016.

The individual trends are assigned to certain key words of the prevailing governance discourses, which moved leadership further on to a higher level from 1.0 (authority oriented) over 2.0 (expert-centred) and 3.0 (empowering) towards 4.0 (nurturing and serving). Moving up the scale does not mean that the previous trends become obsolete, it rather converges over time, as depicted in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Illustration of paradigms in the confluence model
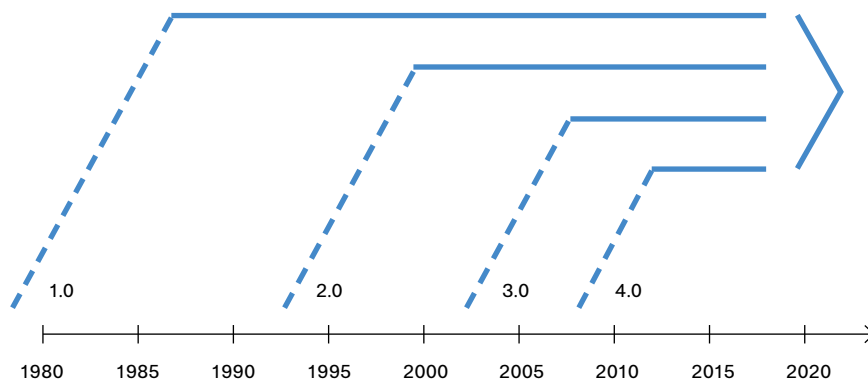
Source: Based on Wiesner et al., 2015; Schratz et al., 2016.

Especially trends 3.0 and 4.0 nurture a culture for teacher leaders to grow: "The only leadership that will make a difference is that of teachers. They alone are positioned where all the fulcrums are for change. They alone know what the day-to-day problems are and what it takes to solve them. They, not the principals, should be the ones to hire new teachers. They know what is needed, and if they make a mistake they have to live with it. They should run the schools, the classes, the halls, the extracurricular activities. But, alas, they are brainwashed, they are fearful, they are dependent" (Buchen, 2000, p. 36).

The emerging trends move leadership away from a single leader's interventions towards shared leadership across the school. That is why the role of teacher leaders "came about as a result of a combination of the accountability movement and a desire to improve schools" (Tomal, Schilling, Wilhite, 2014, p. 4) and teacher leadership has become more prominent in empirical research, and much of this research has posited that teacher leaders are vital for successful school reform (Frost et al., 2000; Katzenmeyer, Moller, 2009).

Teacher leadership in the making

Conley and Muncey (1999) pointed out, that the enormous task of meeting the school's challenges requires that teachers assume roles and responsibilities that were previously reserved for school leaders (see

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Katzenmeyer, Moller, 2009, p. 2). Since recent reforms in Austria have led to new complexities in the system, which are no longer manageable by individual school leaders, new leading roles emerged, which had to be nurtured. At the start, it was not clear which competences were needed to become a teacher leader. According to some literature, teacher leaders "often have significant teaching experience and *demonstrate expertise, collaboration, reflection*, and a *sense of empowerment*. Teacher leaders seek challenges and growth, and they go out of their way to find innovative and challenging programs to increase the learning of their students and their colleagues. They enable others to act, are risk takers, and collaborators. Descriptions in the studies of these teachers included attributes of assuming desirable personal traits such as being *dependable, supportive*, and informally reassuring to colleagues" (Tomal, Schilling, Wilhite, 2014, pp. 22-23). Stating such ambitious competences is one step, achieving them it is another. School leaders can support teachers becoming leaders in different ways, but leadership development is always also self-development.

Teacher leaders build a boundary-crossing position within school, where they perform multiple roles (Schley *et al.*, 2009): as a colleague, they are teachers like all the others working in the system. In the role as change agents they take on an extra role taking responsibility for a reform or an important issue (such as quality monitoring, leading learning). In doing so, they work *on* the system and in a steering function by becoming a member of the "change champions" supporting the school leader in his or her overarching responsibility (see Figure 2).

Figure 2. Multiple roles of a teacher leader

Working at the
system as change
agent

Working as
a colleague
in the system

Working in a steering
function as member
of the school
improvement team
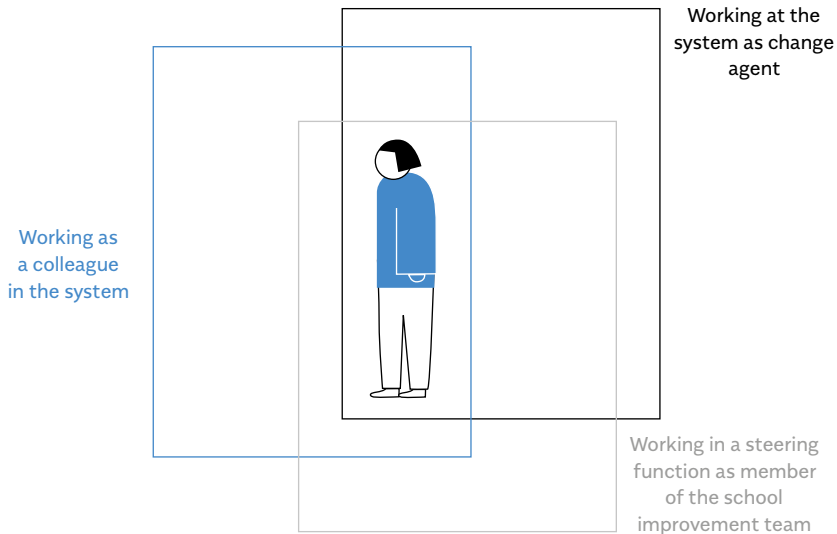
Source: Based on: Schley, Schratz, 2010, p. 286.

Initiating teacher leadership in a flat hierarchical system opens up new possibilities: such an initiative can become an important empowering and enabling intervention in schools and hence a catalyst for change. Since teacher leaders form a powerful link between school leader and teaching staff, new dynamics are created which lead to collaborative learning that helps to open the door of the traditional notion of 'My classroom and me' to a collaborative 'Us and our school'. Leaving the privacy of the closed classroom is only possible if there exists a mutual understanding of what it means to work in a "community of practice" (Wenger 1998), which asks for mutual trust. Strategies for building trust between colleagues include: "maintaining open communication, finding time for team building, and inducting new team, grade level, or department members to the school, its culture and norms" (Mayers, Zepeda, Benson, 2013, p. 28). Culture building is a long-term goal, but it has to be initiated in a collaborative mode. If individual teachers break the hierarchy by taking a leadership rank, they might encounter resistance. In such encounters, they need to be skilled in the necessary competences with the bigger picture in mind. In

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policy enactment "... teachers are 'meaning makers'. Although teachers take over leadership roles, they see themselves as 'representatives' of change rather than 'leaders' who enact or initiate change" (Harris, Mujis, 2005, p. 16). In changing this pattern, a key goal is to bring creativity, commitment and enthusiasm, to policy enactment, but this creativity and commitment involve working on themselves their colleagues and their students in order "to 'do' policy and to do it well" (Ball *et al.*, 2012, p. 138).

Leadership and legal constraints

Another challenge teacher leaders are facing in the Austrian context is the diversity of legal regulations (e.g. official function, recruitment policy). While informal roles often are situational, most of the formal roles are mandatory and have the same framework in every school. If a teacher leader role is legally institutionalized, it is a distinct function which comes along with allowances. However, often there are informal leadership roles which are not legally regulated, but necessary for the enactment of new reforms. The fact that only a few roles are legally anchored leads to a situation which creates a 'two-party society' in the area of formal teacher leader roles. This might also be reflected in the effectiveness of the role and in the mode how a school leader addresses certain teacher leader roles in practice, which can sometimes lead to arbitrary interpretations.

There are also legal requirements which explain the qualifications and the recruitment process for certain teacher leader roles. In doing so, these formulations are vague and often leave a lot of room for interpretation. Tomal, Schilling, and Wilhite suggest „[s]chool leaders will be wise to use teacher leaders who are known by the staff to have good report and positive relationships" (2014, p. 13). If this statement is taken seriously, the appointment of teacher leaders requires a certain sensitivity and knowledge about the strengths and weaknesses of the members of staff. Another important aspect is the relationship between teacher leadership and school leadership. Teacher leaders are in a kind of sandwich position between vertical and lateral demands (Figure 3). On the one hand, there is a need for synergy between school leaders and support teachers in developing their professional strengths, on the other hand, teacher leaders have to balance the different demands and expectations.

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Figure 3. Sandwich position of teacher leaders
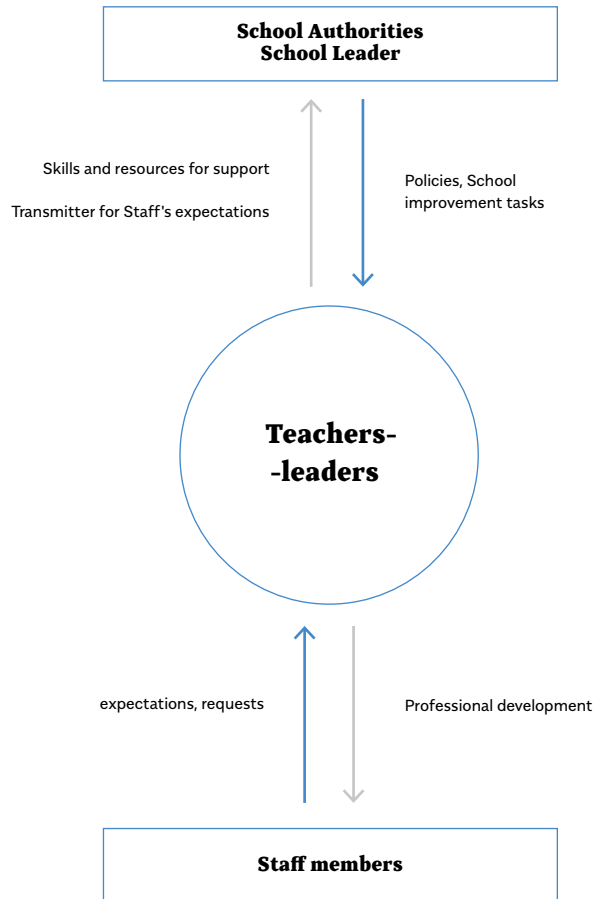
Source: elaboration based on Tomal, Schilling, Wilhite, 2014.

Besides the recruitment of teacher leaders the question remains on how they are trained for their professional challenges. Both, experience and literature seem to agree that a leader needs to be prepared in the real context of schools to confront resistance to change and development the resilience to support it (Gabriel, 2005; Tomal, Schilling, Wilhit, 2014). Teacher leaders need to be skilled in switching contexts

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and roles when they communicate with others (see EPNoSL[1]). This is why professional development of teacher leaders needs a dynamic training model where they have the chance to recontextualize their progress continually. Snoek and Volman point out that a training program for teacher leaders should "not conceptualize 'transfer' as carrying over discrete entities of knowledge and skills to a new situation, but rather [be understood] as a process of boundary crossing between activity systems which involves a reinterpretation of the work situation and an adaptation of the competences learned" (2014, p. 92) in order to address the needs best. This should be considered and referred to in the introduction of in-service programs and measures taken in professionalizing teacher leaders.

In order to sum up one can say that different factors form an environment in which teacher leaders can unfold their potentials. At school level, clarification about the own role – especially in the context of new reforms and their enactment as well as working together with the colleagues and the school leader – is important. Particularly, in Austria a new understanding of a (shared) leadership culture has to be developed yet, system-wide legislative frameworks define teacher leader functions and at the same time give them stability through the legislative anchoring. The vagueness according requirements for recruitment and professionalization allows a scope for action that ensures flexibility and openness and thus promotes autonomous decisions-making.

The end in mind: leadership for learning
The terms "leading" and "learning" belong to different domains of the pedagogical discourse, and they are associated with different actors in the educational arena. Leadership is characterized by the fact that people are 'led' to interact in certain settings so as to perform according to the desired aims or to undertake certain tasks. Learning, on the other hand, is a process which should lead to the acquisition of new knowledge or skills. Leaders, teachers and learners are the protagonists who have to interact in a meaningful way to achieve the desired results. This leads to the following questions: How does leadership

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1.   http://toolkit.schoolleadership.eu/teacher_leadership_intro.php

interact with teaching and learning? How do school leaders interact with teachers and learners? In practice, these questions cannot be answered separately since leadership resides "in a collective relationship where participants are both 'shapers of' and 'shaped by' one another" (Donaldson, 2001, p. 41).

In recent times, great effort has been dedicated to bringing leadership into closer contact with student learning (MacBeath, Moos, 2004; Frost, Swaffield, 2004). This is where the term *Leadership for Learning* comes into play: at its heart lies the key question, which bears far-reaching significance: How can leadership sustainably influence teaching? International research has concluded that the actions of school leaders have a mainly indirect effect on students' learning processes via their impact on internal school processes. Some studies show some small (e.g. Scheerens, 2012), but also moderate impact (e.g. Marzano *et al.*, 2005) of school leaders. Also, Hattie (2009) states that there is a moderate average connection between the actions of school leaders and student performance. The effect of principals determined by Hattie (2009) can be seen as greater than, for example, that of homework, but smaller than the effect of active learning time.

The reason for this seemingly incongruent phenomena in schools is due to the fact that usually school leaders lead (and at times may also teach), teachers teach and pupils learn. Only seldom are these activities systematically coordinated. Because of these different actors with different functions (and behaviours) on the different levels policy implementation does not work as a top-down cascade process, since policies travel as "discursive processes that are complexly configured, contextually mediated and institutionally rendered. Policy is done by and done to teachers; they are actors and subjects, subject to and objects of policy. Policy is written onto bodies and produces particular subject positions" (Ball et al., 2012, p. 3) Therefore, reform policy measures for improving system-wide change in school leadership ask for a pattern shift which transforms the educational system by taking the quality of leadership as a starting point for systemic innovation.

However, if only school leaders take responsibility for leadership, reform processes will not penetrate the individual school as a whole. With a view to link leadership with learning, Fullan introduces the term *system thinkers in action*, who are leaders "who proactively and naturally take into account and interact with larger parts of the system as they

bring about deeper reform and help produce other leaders working on the same issues. They are theoreticians, but they are practitioners whose theories are lived in action every day. Their ideas are woven into daily interactions that make a difference" (Fullan, 2005, p. 11).

In the complexity of reform agendas, it will be important to distribute leadership and create many system thinkers in action to engage in system-wide change activities. However, they cannot successfully work in isolation, but need "a sense of connection, belonging, interdependence, and growth", which "will make a group more cohesive and develop community" (Gabriel, 2005, p. 108). Therefore, community building and systems development are essential ingredients of successful teacher leadership.

Insights into two Austrian teacher leader roles

In Austria, "educational reform efforts throughout the system led to the emergence of several new roles since 2008, which have had an impact on school's social architecture" (Westfall-Greiter, Hofbauer, 2015, p. 129). They opened up different pathways for newly emerging teacher leader roles. They can be differentiated into a category of teacher leaders who on the one hand coach or mentor and thereby act in a collegial capacity or perform a more formal teacher leader role and act in a supervisory capacity (Tomal, Schilling, Wilhite, 2014, p. 8).

Nevertheless, most of these roles are not federally regulated: some of them are official functions and some of them are only requested roles without labor regulations. To exemplify this particular situation, we present two newly launched teacher leader roles in the Austrian system: firstly, the Learning Designer, a function that was a crucial part of the New Middle School reform, representing the formal role of a teacher leader and secondly, School Quality Coordinators, who perform a coordinating function in the general education schools characterizing a requested role. Both roles are strongly related to leadership for learning, but their genesis and theories of action differ. In presenting the two roles, we focus on the initial phases, how the system supported the roles and the challenges they encountered in enacting these roles.

Learning designer

In the implementation phase every New Middle School had to select a teacher to become a 'learning designer'. Since this role had not existed previously it was possible to portray it as a new task shifting the perspective from teaching to learning. In the 'designer' role the teacher leader takes on an extra role helping the school head working towards a new learning culture which takes each individual child's potential as a starting point for learning. Since the new role should affect the school culture and influence teaching and learning at large it is designed as an overarching role.

Establishing heterogeneous groups in teaching and learning requires a critical dialogue in respect of individualization and personalized learning. It is important for the school to become aware that it creates differences which make differences. It is essential for a learning designer to take over a leadership role working with non-homogeneous groups. This calls for shared leadership of school heads and learning designers. The process of clarifying the roles and understanding within the different professional areas within the school is a crucial first step in shifting self-awareness and responsibility so that all students attending *Neue Mittelschule* schools are supported and challenged in every possible way so as to help them develop their gifts and talents. To support the reform movement networks and communities of practice were initiated and implemented nation-wide and on all system levels. The rationale was clear and focused: School reform must be addressed on the school level to be effective and change agents require networking and communities of practice. A virtual professional learning network was established (Rößler, Westfall-Greiter, in print), called *NMS-Vernetzung*. The fundamental aim of the learning designer network is to foster the development of effective learning environments at each school, driven by the principle of school-specific reform (Marzano, 2003) and focused on the goal of equity. The strategy lies in professionalizing teachers to become teacher leaders, thereby enabling them and their schools to realize effective shared leadership. More than ever before, school leadership needs to focus on student achievement and foster a culture of learning throughout the school.

School quality coordinators

The initiative School Quality in General Education (SQA) was launched with the aim to improve the quality of schools in Austria (Kemethofer, Altrichter, 2015). Central for this initiative is to enable best learning experiences and learning results at all levels while supporting professional development of the staff, build up partnerships and focusing on leadership and management (Altrichter *et al.*, 2012). Schools are asked to create development plans in certain areas (categories given: learning experience and learning results, learning and teaching, living space of classroom and school, leadership and school management, professionalism and staff development, school partnerships and external partnerships) covering about three years in the future. They have to describe key indicators to measure their improvement when they will have reached their goals. At the beginning and end of every period the school leaders perform development talks with representatives of the school authority. A new teacher leader role – School Quality Coordinator (SQC) – was introduced to support the school leader. A national reference frame was published by the ministry, which summarizes the key responsibilities and tasks of the coordinators:

SQCs do as follow:
→ inform educational and non-educational staff as well as school partners about SQG,
→ are key persons for requests or concerns according SQGE,
→ are contacts points for district SQGE coordinators,
→ regularly attend in-service trainings for SQGE,
→ support SQGE initiatives of the school,
→ are members of the middle leader team (as it exists),
→ support the school leader in preparing the development talks with the school authority,
→ do editorial work at the development plan,
→ support evaluation and feedback processes,
→ collect, analyze and recontextualize relevant data for SQGE.

Acknowledging these points, SQCs are first of all seen as an administrative support for the school leader. Comparing these tasks to Tomal, Schilling, and Wilhite's framework (Table 2) for Teacher Leadership (2014, p. 38), there are only some competences addressed.

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As the framework suggests, the leadership capacity of SQCs rely on 'organizing, analyzing and supporting'. Especially these certain leadership skills are important since they determine what kind of indicators are required for measurable improvement.

Table 2. Framework for Teacher Leadership

COMPETENCES	LEADERSHIP	OUTCOMES
Fostering a collaboration culture	Developing	
Accessing and Using Research	Organizing	Improving Student Learning
Promoting Professional Learning Communities	Mentoring	Increased Teacher Pedagogy
Facilitating Improvements in Instruction and Learning	Coaching	
Promoting the use of Assessments and Data	Analyzing	
Improving Outreach and Collaboration	Modeling	
Advocating for Student Learning and the Profession	Supporting	School Improvement

Source: Based on Tomal, Schilling, Wilhite, 2014, p. 38.

Nevertheless, if the two roles of teacher leaders are contrasted, one of the significant differences prevails: whereas the learning designer closely cooperates with the school head as a dynamic duo, SQCs are requested as operational supporter who do not have the strategic responsibility[2] for school development. This is where teacher leadership skills like 'developing, mentoring, coaching and modeling' are underrepresented.

In contrast to the role of the learning designer, the reform on SQA was not conceived as a national accompaniment. The provinces were responsible for initial and in-service trainings of the coordinators. Based

2.   www.sqa.at/pluginfile.php/2059/course/section/1121/Aufgabenprofil_SK_19032016%20 fin%20(1).pdf

on this approach the competencies and job descriptions vary. However, a recent empirical study (Rößler, Kraler, forthcoming) conducted in seven New Middle Schools showed, that the enactment of the SQC role changed. Even if an evaluative and analyzing focus exists for this role, synergies are used in improving teaching and learning. As some of the quality areas of SQA overlap with reform demands of the New Middle Schools, learning designers and SQCs work hand in hand. Especially while formulating concrete goals for the development plans SQCs interact with subject coordinators and learning designers. Through this shared leadership sustainable school improvement has been recognized within these seven schools.

Findings about the role of teacher leaders

Both roles were linked to national-wide reforms and therefore mandated for all provinces. As outlined above, one of the two roles were supported by nation-wide in-service events (held in an eight generations design process) and additionally strengthened through a virtual network. The other new role had in-service trainings at provincial level with case to case contact to professional learning networks outside the schools. From our understanding the in-service training for both helped to professionalize the new teacher leaders, especially the virtual network and the generational design within professional learning networks created a sustainable professional understanding. This network is still an active community where teacher leaders support each other (Kahlhammer 2012; Rößler, Westfall-Greiter, 2018).

Similarly, both teacher leader roles were led by an understanding of diversity rather than uniformity (Westfall-Greiter, Hofbauer, 2010, 2015). A single teacher leader role which fits into every local environment cannot be implemented since each school and each development requires different support and focuses on individual challenges. It is generally known that teacher leaders who are given the opportunity to create and shape their own roles receive more support and experience greater success. As Hofbauer and Schwarz (2016) indicate throughout their work with teacher leaders "role-taking and role-making are essential processes that change professional and school cultures". The Austrian experience has shown that the best way to face these undefined roles is to professionalize the teachers and enable them in their every-day practice (Cooper et al., 2016; York-Barr, Duke, 2004).

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Trustworthiness and expertise are key elements for teacher leaders to be successful in their environment.

Finally, the impact of teacher leaders "depends largely on the leadership dynamics in [...] schools and the degree to which a culture of isolation inhibits growth" (Hofbauer, Schwarz, 2016). Accordingly, the profiling of the teacher leaders depends on the introduction, the support and the willingness to share responsibilities with the school leaders. As the in-service training for learning designers was not only for the new teacher leaders but also for their school leaders a common, shared understanding and a supportive attitude was created. Teacher leaders and school leaders work hand in hand – successful professionalization and sustainable enactment of new teacher leader roles has always to involve the school leaders in their professional development as well, because they set expectations and create pathways for teacher leaders to succeed (Mangin, 2007; Cooper et al., 2016).

Conclusion: Innovation needs strategic leadership

System innovation builds on people and processes on the one hand and, on the other, bottom-up movements such as professional and systems development at the regional level as well as commitment at the school level. Intelligent use of intellectual and social capital is essential for system development. Since people are different, and situations and cultures are different, culture change needs a shift in mindset which builds on strategic areas of leadership. Strategic leadership creates the vision, faces the emerging future and turns feelings of uncertainty into clarity and attractive goals.

Strategic leadership as whole system intervention is highly complex and asks for a paradigm shift, which is characterized in Table 3.

Table 3. Paradigm shift in school reform

SCHOOLING	learning	a fundamental change in understanding the teachers' role
STREAMING	personalized learning	a structural shift in dealing with diversity
ASSESSMENT	feedback	different ways of focusing on student achievement
FOLLOWERSHIP	agency	new assumptions about shared leadership
'MY CLASSROOM AND I'	‚Our school and we'	understanding the school as social system
CONCEPT IMPLEMENTATION	system development	a switch in orchestrating the change process
VERTICAL COMMAND AND CONTROL	lateral integration	a new perspective of the source of innovation

Source: Author.

Such a paradigm shift creates awareness of the hyper-complexity, which cannot simply be "implemented" by traditional top-own strategies. Therefore, a network structure and professional learning communities on all levels of the system were introduced with the aim to strengthen the leadership capacities at the individual school level. Taking these premises into consideration, looking for a system approach which would allow different stakeholders to see and act from the emerging whole and link it with leadership as a leveraging factor, something that has been missing in the Austrian school culture, namely "the capacity to collectively sense, shape, and create our future" (Scharmer, 2007, p. 352). The matrix in Table 3 can therefore serve as a checklist for the alignment of the collective understanding of what systems change implies. In this process teacher leaders play a vital role as mediators for school-wide innovation and change across the country.

In summary, the theoretical approach as well as the practical insights into two Austrian examples show how teacher leaders can become mediators for school-wide innovation and change processes. Teacher leaders have a wide range of tasks: they translate new policies, create

an environment of participation, mediate between school leaders and staff, establish relationships for professional learning (Harris, 2003). All this requires the use of their resources and strengths but additionally an effective professional development and support from their profession. All teacher leader roles presented here focus on leadership for learning. The division of responsibility to all teachers, accompanied by teacher leaders, who can contribute to the professionalization at local level, promotes developments in order to set up learning environments which enhance students' learning. Furthermore, teacher leadership only seems effective when school leaders are involved and the staff members are willing to accept the new roles as supportive.

Finally, we made a strong point that the design of how teacher leader roles are actually enacted on the local level cannot be administered in a top-down procedure - it takes contextual sensitivity to the local needs and strengths. Balancing the different demands and expectations leads us to a firm anchoring of functions and roles that change the common understanding of school and lead to a paradigm shift in the understanding of learning and teaching. Teacher leaders are key actors in this.

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Making a case for empowerment: The missing key ingredient

Christopher Bezzina

Over the past 20 years or so, Malta has been witnessing wave after wave of reforms. Whilst the official documents speak of the need to move away from a top-down hierarchical structure of decision making to more decentralised forms of governance the reality shows otherwise. Data from a series of studies involving school leaders show that they still feel that a top-down approach is being adopted leaving limited space for distributed forms of governance. The issue of power and control remains a bone of contention with the centre identified as still determining College/school policies. In fact, what is being experienced can be described as policy-mandated collegiality. This paper presents findings of one such study that involved interviews with a number of focus groups involving school leaders in a number of Maltese state schools. This study highlights the concern that heads feel towards the way reforms are being introduced and implemented; the constant reference to work overload and stress; the need for greater support at the personal and collective level, and the need to start letting go so that schools can take the initiative.

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Introduction

The social fabric in my country is changing. The tapestry that is being woven around us is quite different from the one we grew in. Old and current ways of thinking and doing need to be revisited to address the issues that confront us. In my opinion, addressing such challenges relies in our capabilities as citizens in harnessing the collective genius of our people. The question that I want to address in this chapter is: what are we doing in our school system that holds us back from using the collective genius of all our people? The way we have conceptualised and implemented educational reform over the years impacts on the type of answer we can give to this question. In all this, we need an education system that is not reactionary but evolutionary in nature.

Through various visits to local and foreign institutions, through conversations, through my readings I have pursued the answer. From these explorations two themes consistently arose from the responses that I got: the need for transformational leadership and developing a clear focus.

Leadership density

Various people that I talked to offered some interesting, fresh and atypical definitions of leadership. They argued that leadership is a skill that we all need to develop and use every day. Most pointed out that leadership is not a position but a way of doing for everyone in a school system. In other words, all members should take on the responsibility for the whole by ensuring that they direct their energies towards organisational priorities. Getting everyone involved in leadership as a way of building an organisation's leadership density, which yields benefits for the whole organisation is important. A typical example of this is a group of teachers who felt disappointed with the science results of their students and decided to do something about it. They took it upon themselves to survey the students about the quality of the science curriculum and teaching methods. The teachers were not told to do it. *They knew it was the right thing to do and did it*. They knew it was the best thing to do if they wanted better results for their students. They learned first-hand that the students felt bored and disconnected with the existing programme. They sought experts' advice in pedagogy, assessment and in understanding and interpreting the published results. This helped the teachers to reflect on current content and practices

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and helped them to create a more rigorous, focused programme that challenged all students and did their utmost to connect the syllabus with student experiences.

Clear focus

The conversations on leadership also shift to the topic of having a clear focus. If we want to harness the collective genius of everyone in a school system we need to change the way we look at governance, power and control. We need more distributed forms of leadership. We need to make hard choices about what we do. Establishing a clear focus thus fits into the concept of leadership density: if everyone in the system understands the goals/ targets that need to be addressed, then the work of leadership by all should have a laser-like focus on what is most critical.

During a visit to Sweden, I found primary school teachers and the heads unified in saying that literacy and numeracy skills were key targets for their pupils. They all agreed that a child without such skills in today's knowledge-based society would be relegated to poverty. And, in a Maltese school I am directly involved in, four principles drive the school forward: collaboration, personalization, performance-based assessment and relevance. The efforts are directed at reviewing both the content of the curriculum, the programme itself, and the planning and decision making structures and processes to reflect these principles.

Building on our Strengths

There are many other examples from various countries that practice these two essential skills of leading and focusing each and every day. What is interesting to note is that the schools in are generally small in size, tend not to have all-encompassing curricula or else offer alternative programmes and routes, and offer active, in-depth learning for their students. They also support both student and adult learning in an effort to establish a culture where learning and leadership are part of the system for all to experience. Reform practices around the world, especially over the past two decades, have been emphasizing a move towards greater devolution of authority to the school site (Chapman, Aspin, 2003; DuFour, 2014; Rose, 2010) to allow for greater engagement amongst teachers as they provide opportunities for 'reframing views, lifting up voices and ensuring that everyone is visible'

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(Swaffield, 2017, p. 493). Various studies are showing the importance of supporting teachers through the various phases of their career and providing them with opportunities for greater professional learning at the school site (Bates, 2007; Goodwin, Kosnik, 2013; Lunenberg et al., 2017; Madalińska-Michalak, Niemi, Chong, 2012; Schleicher, 2012). As noted in one of the most recent documents by the European Commission, countries are taking measures to raise the quality of teaching by enhancing initial teacher education programmes and their continuing professional development. The trend in Europe is towards requiring higher levels of qualifications and increasing the amount of practical training, including school-based practice and enhanced teacher professional development (European Commission, 2015, p. 2).

School leaders can no longer lead their schools on their own. They will need to 'let go' of the idea that leadership is hierarchically distributed and commit to growing and developing leadership, as a shared phenomenon, in their schools. This implies the need to develop more elaborated understandings of the nature of the leadership that is shared and the factors that influence teachers' attitudes to sharing (Duignan, Bezzina, 2006). To achieve these conditions, they need to facilitate people in learning how to learn together so as to develop collaborative and shared mental models and meanings that bind them together as teams in a learning community. The key emphasis is on learning together, sharing and creating processes and conditions that encourage everyone in the school community to be effective learning resources for each other. This is, in essence, what is meant by sharing leadership in a school community. Such shared leadership must actively engage teachers in decisions about learning and teaching. As Muscat argues, 'creating such an environment demands passion, patience and endurance' (2017, p. 27). The role of the leader becomes one that harnesses, focuses, liberates, empowers and aligns a common purpose and by so doing builds and relases human capacity (Hopkins, Jackson, 2005).

These are important policy issues. Unless we take a serious look at how reforms are undertaken and change managed we will not be able to make this leap. There is little doubt that if we could harness the collective energies of all the educators, students and staff in schools we could make the changes needed to educate all our children. Leadership density and a clear focus are great places to begin.

Yet, we have to tread with caution. I agree with Duignan and Bezzina who argue that 'While the language of leadership is replete with the jargon of sharing and collaboration (e.g., inclusivity, caring; collaborative decision making; empowerment of followers; shared vision and goals), too frequently, the language constitutes a hollow rhetoric that is never actualised. There is a need to make this rhetoric the reality for all school members, especially teachers. Sharing leadership with others, requires a rethinking of what constitutes a workable philosophy and framework for leadership in schools and how best to enable all school personnel, especially teachers, to feel a deep sense of commitment and belonging. There is little doubt that the evolving complexity and uncertainty of life and work in schools compels educational leaders to work more collaboratively with a growing number of people. This involves creating new collaborative learning communities that can embrace uncertainty and paradox' (2006, pp. 3-4).

The local scenario

With this background and the belief that development rests on leaders – at all levels – adopting a more distributed style of leadership can lead to improvements being made, how are the local authorities exploring leadership? What is the policy direction that the Maltese education authorities are taking and what does our reality confront us with? These are two important questions that need to be raised and addressed if we are going to make significant inroads in school improvement. Let us start off by appreciating what are the main principles behind the Maltese reform process and then moving to the context in which these reforms are taking place.

Reform practices since the mid-1990s have been undertaken with the intent of becoming more inclusive with networking presented as a means of assisting in the policy implementation process in a time of changed centralization/decentralization arrangements. The argument is that if we want to raise standards in education there is a need to link policy both horizontally and vertically (Education Act of 2006). Networks, through a system of Colleges, were identified as a way of achieving this linkage. The intent was to bring about a shift from a highly centralised and elitist education system towards democratisation and placing the child first (MEYE, 2005). Bezzina (2010, p. 6) argued that the stimulus was 'to create a model of learning that permeates the

whole system.' This has not been without difficulty. Various studies have shown that encouraging and facilitating a collaborative culture and sustaining a mentality of shared governance and collective accountability are still major issues of concern eight years since the reforms started being introduced (Bezzina, 2012; Bezzina, Vella, 2013).

2005-2006 became a watershed year for Maltese Education. Significant in this regard was the seminal document *For All Children to Succeed – A New Network Organisation for Quality Education in Malta (FACTS)* (MEYE, 2005), which introduced the education reform proposals. The seminal document indicated that the changes and reforms were meant to overhaul the Maltese Education System. It proposed:

→ to group together all State primary and secondary schools into ten autonomous regional Colleges, with a three-staged implementation process;

→ that all Colleges would have the possibility of generating new energies through College-based curricular control and resources, and greater technical and administrative support;

→ the transformation of the Education Division into two complementary Directorates: one with support services role primarily for State-maintained schools and the other with a regulatory and quality assurance role for all schools in Malta;

→ the most massive school rebuilding programmes in Maltese educational history;

→ to equip school communities with state-of-the art facilities for the provision of a holistic education focused on College/school-based learning.

Consequently, in 2007 the Government and the Malta Union of Teachers (MUT) signed a new education reform agreement. The provisions of the agreement were to introduce new governance structures; more flexible relationships between institutions and sections; engage new staff to provide support and enhance services; and implement accountability features necessary to give the new Colleges a launching pad (Ministry of Education, Youth and Employment, 2007).

It is within this context that this study was undertaken. Through this study we intend to provide a perspective for a better understanding of the implications that the Maltese college system will have for

educational leadership and management. This perspective shall not be a prescriptive one but a visionary one that will offer a contribution to knowledge, particularly to the field of education. The findings of the study are hinged on the research question: *What are the implications for the leadership and management of the institutions involved in the context of collaboration in a policy context that requires joint working by individual schools?*

In 2006, the proposed policies of networking that were presented in a series of proposals in *FACTS* (MEYE, 2005) and aimed at bringing fundamental changes in the way school and college practitioners synergized, related and collaborated were endorsed in the *Act to Amend the Education Act, Cap.327* (Laws of Malta, 2006). Both official documents could be regarded as the precursors of reforms that had been set in motion in 2006, and which are still on going. The education authorities recognized that the organization of networks in education was an almost worldwide phenomenon when they stated that 'there are now many schools, both in the U.K. and internationally, that benefit from working together as a network' (MEYE, 2005, p. 38).

Understandably, the highly innovative nature of the reform proposed by FACTS (MEYE, 2005) produced a mixed reaction. Datnow, Hubbard and Melan (2002, p. 29) argues that "As a result of differential power and positionality, the definition or meaning of events by various actors can become contested terrain. Different opinions can surface over the course of actions that lead to reform." On the one hand, there were those who believed and advocated the reform, namely policy makers, the education Directorates, the College Principals, and independent individuals. Other individuals and institutions publicly pronounced their scepticism and criticism about whether the objective of the networks would actually be achieved. Sceptics from different quarters of Maltese society – academics, the MUT and members of Parliament – expressed their reservations about the innovative Networks Reform for the Maltese Educational System. The author (Bezzina, 2005, 2006) had made it quite clear before the inception of the network system that this approach required a shift in the current mind-set at all levels and that it would need ongoing support. Other studies expressed the need for caution (Bezzina, Cutajar, 2013; Borg, Giordmaina, 2012; Mifsud, 2015) and the need to review the way that the whole process is being undertaken.

The Educational Reform

At the time of writing this chapter, decentralisation and autonomy has only been partially achieved. Given the current educational local scenario, Maltese college and school leaders may find themselves having to balance a centralized system of control with a decentralized institutional management system. Literature, (Leithwood, Hallinger, 2002) argued that this was very often the case where the central government took centre stage in developing educational policies. Maltese colleges and their schools were experiencing what was known as site-based management (SBM), having been given a degree of latitude in managing financial and technological resources and implementing reforms decided by central authorities. This was in-line with certain provisions in the Act (Laws of Malta, 2006) that sanctioned partial decentralisation with Central Authorities being recognised as the instigators of changes and development at all levels. The Act (Laws of Malta, 2006) also set out the functions and the setting up of the Permanent Committee for Education, presided by the Minister. The Permanent Committee for Education was to give policy direction for Maltese Education, and the power of decision-making was to remain first and foremost the jurisdiction of this same Committee. Accordingly, the current situation demonstrated that the decentralized reform of school self-management was accompanied by centralized systems of human resources, curriculum and assessment control.

Research Methodology

This section explains, justifies and critically appraises the research methodology used to undertake this small-scale study. It will focus on aspects that are related to the methodology and present the decision-making process used to address the research question of the study: *What are the implications for the leadership and management of the institutions involved in the context of collaboration in a policy context that requires joint working by individual schools?*

The general purpose of this research was to contribute to the knowledge and the understanding of the narratives and perceptions of the relevant stakeholders about the introduced reforms through a synthesis of theoretical perspectives derived from the collected evidence complemented by a review of the existing related literature. The data was obtained by means of an empirical research involving case

studies of four colleges, selected using the convenience and purposive sampling methods. Using the non-probability sampling technique implied that from the overall population of potential participants involved in the study only some existing respondents were more likely to be selected than others (Bryman, 2004), suggesting that the researcher could not generalise about the population (Cohen, Manion, Morrison, 2003). However, it could be argued that purposive sampling allowed themes in the full breadth of the experience of respondents in various sites to be pursued, explored and characterised, which in a way gave a sense of generalizability. What could also be said was that information collected from a non-probability sample could not be used to make inferences to the population from which the sample was selected (Bryman, 2004). Furthermore, the methodological triangulation process was employed since data was collected using face-to-face individual semi-structured interviews, observing Council of Heads' meetings and analysing documents.

The qualitative approach was employed since it facilitated in-depth understanding of single cases. Qualitative research uses a naturalistic approach and seeks to understand facts in specific settings. (Cohen, Manion, Morrison, 2003; Filmer et al., 1998 cited in Seale, 2000; Patton, 2002). Strauss and Corbin (1990, p. 17) define qualitative research, as 'any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification.' Moreover, the qualitative design allowed the acquisition of an in-depth understanding of the perceptions of the educators in the field, and created direct and personal contact with the respondents in their own environment. The situational ethnomethodology technique was utilised given that the study was concerned with understanding how the interviewees made sense of events in their daily work.

Overall Picture

The decision was taken to conduct interviews with Policy-makers, College Principals, Heads of School and teachers because we felt that they could provide the information that we were seeking, since they were directly involved in the implementation, operations and sustainability of the reforms. The 37 schools making up the three different levels making up compulsory educaion and spread across the four regional colleges selected for the study are presented in Table

1. The selected four College Principals demonstrated vast years of leadership experience at different levels of education, as demonstrated in Table 2.

Table 1: The Number of Schools across the four Colleges participating in the study

KINDERGARTEN CENTRES[*] (Pupils' ages: three to six years)		28
PRIMARY SCHOOLS (Pupils' ages: six to 11 years)		28
JUNIOR LYCEUM SCHOOLS (Pupils' ages: 11 to 16 years)	Girls	3
	Boys	1
JUNIOR LYCEUM & SECONDARY SCHOOLS ACCOMMODATED IN THE SAME BUILDING (Pupils' ages: 11 to 16 years)	Girls	1
	Boys	3
SECONDARY SCHOOLS (LOCALLY KNOWN AS AREA SECONDARY SCHOOLS) (Pupils' ages: 11 to 16 years)	Girls	2
	Boys	2

[*] Every Primary School housed a Kindergarten Centre.

Source: Author.

Table 2: College Principals in the Study

GENDER		YEAR OF INCEPTION AS COLLEGE PRINCIPAL		STATUS HELD PRIOR TO THAT OF COLLEGE PRINCIPAL			
					Heads of School		
Male	Female	2005	2008	Assistant Director	Primary	Sec-ondary	Assistant Head of School
3	1	1	3	1	1	1	1

Source: Author.

The gender ratio of 3:1 of the interviewed Heads of School reflected that of the Principals presented in Table 2. Their school leadership experience ranged from two months to 12 years. The majority

held a Diploma in Educational Administration and Management (a requisite for the post of a Head of School since 1995), some also held a master's degree and a few were reading for it. One had a PhD and a few were reading for their doctorate. All interviewed Heads had been seasoned teachers who had taught in either the Primary or Secondary sectors, or in both. Their teaching experience ranged from 12 to 20 years. All the interviewed Heads of School had moved up the hierarchical structure through the traditional Civil Service model based on seniority; that is, from teachers to Assistant Heads/Heads of Department and then to Heads of School.

The criterion adopted for the selection of the sample of interviewed teachers was shaped by gender and teaching experience factors. A gender balanced cohort and a varied sample of novice and seasoned teachers was sought, since both factors could provide a robust and distinct corpus of data. With the help of the schools' list of teachers and other information, readily provided by the respective Heads of School, we identified each college cohort of teacher interviewees using the above-mentioned criteria. Consequently, the range of professional experience of interviewed teachers ranged from two to 40 years and their professional qualifications ranged from a Teacher's Training College Certificate to a postgraduate degree.

Data Collection

Bryman (2004) argues that semi-structured interviews permit flexibility and is gaining the name of in-depth or qualitative interview. We opted for the semi-structured interview because it enabled 'respondents to project their own ways of defining the world' (Cohen, Manion, Morrison, 2003, pp. 146-147). Individual face-to-face semi-structured interviews (apart from observations and reviewing official documents) were the means of gathering the data for the study. Interviews were tape-recorded. Tape recording has the benefit of making the narratives of the interviewees less impermanent (Denscombe, 2007) and facilitating transcription of interviews. Furthermore, transcribing interviews reduces any possible conditioning by my preconceptions and makes possible interviewee validation and confirmation of the interview data. The interviews offered rich detailed data about the operations of the reform, related issues and challenges because the narrative of the cohort '... is the reality' (Cuff, Sharrock, Francis, 1990, p. 185).

The individual interviews with the Policy-makers were always held in the evening, because of their official and national commitments. The interviews with College Principals and school leaders were arranged with very little difficulty because the leaders were quite accomodating with sessions mostly held in the afternoon. The teachers' interviews were designed in collaboration with the respective school leaders.

As far as possible, I took a subordinate role so that the information obtained would be the end result of a non-manipulated design. In the study the interview questions were structured in a way that motivated the respondent to answer. Consequently, the questioning was not too loaded so as not to encourage the respondent to adopt avoidance tactics. Additionally, questions were structured in a clear and open-ended manner (Cohen, Manion, 1997).

Furthermore, twelve observation sessions of the monthly College Council of Heads meetings (CCoH) were carried out. I attended these sessions in the capacity of a non-participant observers, during which the Principals and Heads of School were observed in a different working environment and playing another role; that is, forming part of a collaborative team that worked collegially for the well-being of their college. Participants felt at ease in my presence and found no difficulty in having me as a non-participant observers during these meetings.

Data Analysis

The analytical stage of the collected interview data involved a number of preliminary steps to the transcription process; steps that were needed to establish a structured classification system of the recorded data. The structured classification is presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Classification of Interviewees' Data

SET A	Policy-makers
SET B	College Principals of Colleges One, Five, Six and Seven
SET C	Heads of Primary Schools of College One, Five, Six and Seven
	Heads of Secondary Schools and Junior Lyceums of College One, Five Six and Seven
SET D	Teachers of Primary Schools of College One, Five, Six and Seven
	Teachers of Secondary Schools and Junior Lyceums of College One, Five, Six and Seven

Source: Author.

When analysing the interviews selected data the style that Thomas (2011) referred to as 'Network Analysis' (p.198) was adopted. He underlined the usefulness of such analysis for researchers who established a central theme to which were linked a number of sub-themes. Such style also highlighted the relationship between themes. Consequently, items that had similar subject matter were fused together under thematic categories.

The observation field notes data was posted in 'College' folders (College One, Four, Five, Six and Seven respectively) with four 'Cluster' sub-folders for each 'College' folder as presented in Table 4. The objective for this classification procedure was to make the data distribution comprehensible and easy to follow, facilitate the analysis, and provide a rich picture and a thorough understanding of the observation data across the CCoH meetings of the four colleges (Creswell, 2009; Miles, Huberman, 1994).

Table 4: Observation Data – Colleges One, Five, Six and Seven

CLUSTER A	Demographic Information
CLUSTER B	Information about how the participants interacted during the meetings
CLUSTER C	Information about how meetings developed
CLUSTER D	Information about the topics that were discussed during the meetings

Source: Author.

Findings and Discussion

The findings of the study are presented in this section highlight the wider implications that the reforms central to the new model of collaboration in a policy context would have for educational leadership and management of the institutions involved. The study highlighted the interviewees' perceptions around the following five main themes: the dimension of effective leadership skills that could help sustain quality teaching and learning, and the collaborative endeavour; change agentry; building trust; demonstrating the right leadership audacity; being visionary and able to forge and lead others in sustaining intra- and inter-school relationships. The findings also pointed to leadership styles, particularly collegial, and staff oriented leadership.

The collected data also highlighted the perceptions of the respondents around the question of negotiating the centralisation-decentralisation tension, where it emerged as an issue of controversy. Heads and teachers felt that the Directorates needed to negotiate more in this area and create a more democratic system at College/school level. Contrariwise, policy-makers argued that it was not a question of moving from a centralised to a decentralised system, but that in the Maltese context there was the need of finding the right balance between centralised and decentralised governance structures. The findings also made evident the presence of tension around distributed leadership

and that there was the need for transformational leaders and a culture that nurtures and supports the professional development of members of staff. Interviewed leaders acknowledged the need of providing space for teachers to grow and develop. The sub-themes of leadership qualities within a context and the importance of leaders demonstrating the human dimension became very significant, particularly among interviewed teachers. The concerns and challenges of the diverse group of interviewees were evident and appeared to address four seemingly central issues: motivating others; having an overloaded management role; college micro-politics, and having a highly unionized State.

For the purpose of this paper the following five themes are being explored, namely, visionary leaders, sustaining collaboration, leadership skills, the human dimension of leaders, and challenges and concerns associated with the leadership dimension. These themes are discussed with reference to the literature and the research question that has been poised.

Outstanding and effective college and school leaders are considered by many interviewees (policy makers and teachers) crucial to school improvement. One Head of Primary School stated:

> "A leader needs to serve as a beacon for all the members of his/her institution and to help them participate in the collective vision of the school or college. If s/he is a good leader, the members of staff will follow because of his/her influence. A leader will help others develop by setting good examples and the proper standards."
>
> (HoS1, Pri., College One)

This observation finds support in studies by Bennett, Cartwright and Crawford (2006) and Dean (2007, who cites Rosenholtz, 1989) amongst others. College and school leaders play a critical and important role in developing a vision for a high-quality education for every student and in implementing and supporting a learning environment that is developed and shared by key stakeholders. Hence one of the implications on educational leadership due to the form of collaboration outlined by the Act (Laws of Malta, 2006) is that college and school leaders need to focus on building a culture of collegiality and collaboration among students, educators and stakeholders. Moreover, some interviewees call for a drive away from the spirit of isolation that surrounds the practices

of Maltese school practitioners to one grounded in joint-working. One policy maker argued:

> "Collaboration is central to the Education (Amendment) Act, 2006. Collegial leadership, a ripple effect of collaboration, is characterised by shared-decision making. Studies and even experience have shown that this style of leadership fosters teamwork and motivates others through participation and recognition of the worth of each person. Our notions of what leadership is have to change, if we are to succeed in our objective of transforming the Maltese Education system and make it globally compatible for the 21st Century. We have to utilise the full potential of leadership."
>
> (Policy Maker 1)

However, we need to be cautious and tread carefully especially when considering that the attempt to establish the concept of collaboration as crucial, for leadership remains 'complex and contested' Morrison and Arthur (2013, p. 179). Crowther, Hann and Andrews (2002) and Reeves (2010) argue that educational leaders need to motivate their members of staff so they will sustain the vision of the institution they lead, which in turn becomes somewhat their quest. Groups need to work together in order to identify their strengths based on their expertise and experiences and eventually from individual autonomy to collective autonomy and collective accountability, as espoused by 'activity theory' (Engeström, 1988, cited by Holt, Morris, 1993). Naturally, activities in groups need to be formative and developmental in purpose, which will allow members to build both their strengths and address their weaknesses. Furthermore, we all need to remain focused because amid the gathering momentum of reform activity it is relatively easy to lose sight of the major goal of reform: improving the quality of schooling to ensure that all children will succeed. Another policy maker argued:

> "I expect all current educational leaders to be change agents. College Principals and Heads of School must be ready to think out of the box, to challenge the traditional system, to motivate others and lead by example so that the ongoing reforms will be sustained. They need to have a can do attitude (interviewee's emphasis).

I expect these leaders to be resourceful so as to sustain a culture of managing change."

(Policy Maker 2)

Such leadership calls for transformational leaders. Having transformational leaders is another implication emanating from the model of collaboration stipulated in the Act (Laws of Malta, 2006). Consequently, Principals and Heads, the leaders and managers of the State-maintained Maltese colleges and schools, need to address and understand both the practical issues and the underlying consequences of the culture change that the educators they lead will have to cope with. A major concern of many school practitioners that needs to be addressed is the shift from a prescriptive to a more collaborative, participatory model implying that people will have to change. As literature (Fullan, 2007; Hadfield, Chapman, 2009) implies, individuals can find it difficult to come forward and ask for help. One Primary school teacher argued:

"We still seem to be struggling to share our territory, our resources and expertise. Heads need to work harder to inject the new culture of collaboration and collegiality. More serious reflection and planning will pave the way for a steadfast commitment towards building and reinforcing, horizontally and vertically, a culture of collegial and distributed leadership."

(T10, Pri., College Six)

Acknowledging the fact that change will create difficulties, I am of the opinion that it is equally important to ensure that change related problems would not be disregarded. Understanding and contending with the problems, as Fullan (1995) argues, will help in finding solutions and consequently registering success. Only when College, school and classroom leaders understand fully the meaning of building a school collaborative culture will they be able to find ways of engaging with the school as a learning community that will provide space for discussion. The implication is a re-culturing process for Maltese educational leaders, which means helping to change attitudes, norms, skills and how joint working is perceived so as to transform the current form of collaboration,

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where it exists informally, and nurture a new way of working as a team (Bezzina, Calleja, 2017; Calleja, Bezzina, 2017).

Additionally, leaders of Maltese colleges and schools need to recognise not only their strengths but have to start acknowledging and accepting their weaknesses. Leaders of colleges, schools and even classrooms, for that matter, need to move away from the notion that they are the be-all and end-all of college, school or classroom. Reaching this stage will allow them to be comfortable in delegating responsibilities to others who prove to be more capable in identified areas. When school leaders give centre stage to building strong collegial relationships among their members of staff and lead them to work as teams they will, as Chapman (2005, p. 150) claims, be creating 'a professional learning community that promotes the generation and sharing of knowledge for all.' They will be giving legitimacy to the professional dimension of their leadership. However, in distributing responsibilities and fostering distributed leadership one needs to be cautious because it can develop into a kind of school or college micro-politics between leaders and their staff (Law, 2010), particularly if leaders try to distribute responsibilities but want to retain absolute authority.

The data indicates that the reforms will also create challenges and raise concerns for college and school leaders. Evidence shows that the overloading of the extracurricular domain is leaving Heads of School and teachers experiencing burnout. Consequently, it is impacting their school and classroom duties respectively and leaving them demoralised and demotivated; an observation that finds support in Fullan (1995) and Hargreaves (2004). Heads of School feel that at times they have to make undesirable choices for the school and its teachers, affecting the overall performance of the school. One particular Head of J.L. and Secondary school, who seemed to voice the opinion of almost all the Heads of College One, claimed that:

> "We are so inundated by emails, circulars, tasks by different Service Managers and Directors, and requests for information, which would have already been passed on to other sections of the Education Directorates, that we do not have the time to mentor our teachers."
>
> (HoS1, J.L. & Sec., College Five)

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Heads of School feel that decentralisation of leadership roles is at best artificial. Leaders of schools claim that they have limited authority because they have to refer everything to the Principal for approval. They share the concern that their superiors are living in an ivory tower. Heads of School also refer to the issue around the Education Leaders Council (ELC). Heads claim that the function of the ELC reinforces the notion that decentralisation is at best artificial; particularly when very often they attend the Council of Heads meeting with pre-drawn agenda by the College Principal. If Heads are allowed to present school related problems at the Council of Heads meeting they are being given the opportunity of having the opportunity to bounce off ideas from the colleagues. The current situation implies that this opportunity is very often missed. One displeased Head of a Primary School asserted:

> "Us Heads feel threatened by what we perceive as impositions by the College Principals. There should be a more defined definition of roles. College Principals need to involve the Heads when drawing up the Council of Heads agenda and not come to the meeting with a prescriptive schedule, which would probably have been based on decisions taken during the monthly meetings that the Principals have with the Director Generals and Directors."
>
> (HoS7, Pri., College One)

This resonates with the concerns expressed in another local study (Mifsud, 2015) that whilst there are benefits to be accrued through networking, heads note that their autonomy has been eroded and are victims of what Hargreaves (1994) had aptly described as "contrived collegiality". Although there is a move towards collegial models concern is raised as to how much distribution of decision making is actually taking place.

Teachers are of the opinion that school leaders show their worth by the way they behave in defining moments, those critical occasions when they have to deal with people. Thus, as argued also by Hoerr (2005), leadership is about relationships. It is not simply about projecting a vision and getting results but it is also about treating people with dignity and respect, with common decency and humanity. The Head of a J.L. and one of the secondary school argued:

"When formulating school plans and implementing policies, we have to demonstrate to our staff that they come first at all times. True, we are accountable to the government, who is our employer, and have to respond to the 'top-down' demands, but we will not forget our teaching staff and their needs. We have to show them that we are there to work with them (interviewee's emphasis)."

(HoS2, J.L. & Sec., College Seven)

Processes and procedures may denote one as a manager, but his behaviour with people will reveal his leadership quality and skills. Leaders of schools need to view leadership as an outcome of interpersonal relationships founded on trust and openness, a claim that finds support in Bush (2011), Greenfield (1991), and Hoerr (2005).

Conclusion

The analysis of the gathered data around the research question of educational leadership and management of the institutions involved brings out a number of interesting conclusions central to the implications that the newly endorsed collaborative way of working in the education sector will have for educational leadership and management.

College and school leaders need to have the right skills to be able to foster and sustain the collaborative and collegial practices that the new reforms and policies are underlining. They need to build a sense of trust with their staff so they will be able to forge and lead others. Leadership audacity and being visionary are also important skills that college and school leaders need to have and which are recognised important in sustaining intra-and inter-school collaboration.

This part of the study has shown that collegial leadership needs to be grounded in respect, sharing, understanding, cooperation and empathy, and that leaders need to strive harder on building a team culture, sustaining collegiality, which can sustain productive collegiality. A transformational style of leadership is considered beneficial because it can assist Maltese educational leaders in facing the current and future reform related challenges, particularly in transforming the mind set of their staff and which can help the on-going reforms gain currency.

Re-conciliating praxis with needs and turning rhetoric into reality is proving to be challenging, because it is negatively impacting the leadership work of leaders of colleges and schools. Such leaders feel

overloaded with administrative work of an infrastructural nature and mundane school needs. Educational leaders find themselves unable to focus and develop their leadership roles that can help them mentor and support their staff with the eventuality of maintaining school development that can sustain the objectiveness of the Act (Laws of Malta, 2006).

Heads feel that they have limited authority because they have to refer everything to the Principal for approval. It seems that behind the rhetoric of decentralisation exists an agenda of a centralised and traditionally hierarchical approach to doing things. Such top-down management cannot allow the form of collaboration that requires intra- and inter-school collaboration to bear fruition. This resonates concerns raised in recent local studies (Cutajar, 2015; Debono, 2014), which highlight that heads are still too much involved in doing administrative tasks and responding to work delegated to them, rather than in creating what Hartley (2007) had described as 'collective endeavours'.

Many College Principals, Heads of School and even education officials appear insensitive when delegating or communicating directives, particularly when their attitude is outweighed by a tone of authority, lacking understanding and empathy. Leaders of Colleges and Schools appear to be somewhat insensitive to the people that create the physical environment of schools.

This study can serve as platform for discussion and a tool for debate. What is important to discuss is how one should move towards a balanced system that allows for particular centralised practices while allowing the 'appropriate' latitude for networks and schools to make a difference. Establishing what is appropriate is a key issue while allowing for colleges and schools to make the desired improvement as we take education through the rest of the 21st Century.

To summarise I will present the main points that in my opinion help us to reframe the way we view and manage collaborative endeavours at both macro and micro levels. This should help the reader to appreciate that whilst the ideals, as presented in the Maltese policy documents, argue for more collaborative and collegial models, the reality, as supported by this small scale study, shows that current attempts remain 'complex and contested' as Morrison and Arthur (2013) argued and so on a number of levels.

→ Moving from a highly centralised and prescriptive model of decision making to a more participatory and collegial one is a slow and ardeous process and requires commitment and sacrifice by one and all.

→ A collaborative, participatory model whilst needed calls for mental, formative and developmental changes in the way we think and do things. This calls for educators at all levels to review the way they engage in relationships with others.

→ Collegial leadership has to be grounded in respect, sharing, understanding, co-operation and empathy.

→ For these values to be turned into behaviours leaders need to be willing to 'let go', make sacrifices so that school members learn to engage in collaborative endeavours.

→ The study has shown that whilst we advocate collegiality we tend to ignore how serious it is to place the person at the core of our discourse.

→ We need to ensure that school leaders are provided with support as there are signs of burnout.

→ The notion of authority and power 'over' others to shared decision making and collaborative endeavours requires commitment from one and all.

These points should help us to appreciate not only the context we are in, but the values on which collaborative leadership relies on and that the journey we have embarked on is a long and ardeous one. But we are encouraged by the words of the American poet, Robert Frost:

"Two roads diverged in a wood, and I —
I took the one less traveled by,
And that has made all the difference."

The Road Not Taken

We will persist in our endeavours to engage in ways that help us move closer to more shared practices that leave an impac on peoples lives. Only through such ways can we empower people to give of their best, to remain or rekindle their passion for education.

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Instructional leadership: dilemmas for professional inquiry in high accountability contexts

Pete Boyd, Lesley Curtis

In this paper, as a Professor and a Principal, we reflect across the boundary between school and university on the place of professional inquiry by teachers as an element of instructional leadership in schools. In particular, we focus on the potential of professional inquiry within a high accountability era in which neoliberal policy frameworks strongly influence schools, teachers and head teachers - especially in England but also internationally. Our understanding of professional inquiry, a range of approaches to systematic investigation and development of practice that position the teacher as researcher, is founded on the thinking of Lawrence Stenhouse and the concept of 'inquiry as stance' by Marilyn Cochran-Smith and Susan Lytle. However, the value of much teacher inquiry activity has previously been challenged by Stephen Kemmis, who asks if these teacher researchers are merely evaluating the techniques of schooling rather than adopting a critical stance and daring to ask challenging questions about education. Based on our reading of relevant literature and our own professional experiences, we identify six dilemmas and offer them as a practical tool with which teachers and other school leaders might review their design and implementation of professional inquiry. The dilemmas hinge upon: ownership, criticality, knowledge creation, ethics, questioning of theory and research evidence, and questioning of teachers' practical wisdom. We illustrate the application of the dilemmas by reflecting on our own collaborative teacher researcher project.

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Introduction

In this chapter we question the potential of professional inquiry by teachers, as an element of instructional and collective leadership, in a school system that is strongly shaped by a high accountability policy framework. We do not present easy answers, but rather offer a set of dilemmas as a reflexive tool for those considering using teacher professional inquiry or practitioner research as a form of professional learning, curriculum development and collective leadership. As co-authors, we have previously collaborated as a school principal and an academic research mentor to lead a collaborative teacher researcher project with aims that included knowledge creation, professional learning and school improvement. This project, entitled 'learning conversations', focused on adult-child interaction within two early years settings in an inner city district of Liverpool, England (Boyd, 2014; Boyd et al., 2015). We will use this project as a concrete example in order to illustrate the dilemmas that we identify.

England provides an example of a school system operating within a high accountability context. Since the 1980s successive governments in England have pursued school improvement through a neoliberal policy framework with an emphasis on claiming parental 'choice' of schools (Ball, 2013; Day, Smethem, 2009). The policy framework intended to make schools accountable to parents and central government includes a prescribed national curriculum, a high stakes inspection regime, league tables based on test results, teacher performativity processes and a gradual fragmentation of the governance of schools. Some would argue that England is experiencing the gradual privatisation of state schooling through reduction in local government control and new independent organisations controlling chains of schools. In this context it is not surprising that most head teachers and school senior leadership teams feel under tremendous pressure to focus on 'what the inspectors are looking for' and prioritise activity to maximise measurable outcomes, such as test and exam results, that will help the league table position and external reputation of their school. All of this makes England a rather extreme example of a school system shaped by a neoliberal policy framework, but stakeholders in many other nations will recognise some of the characteristics of this high accountability context.

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Our purpose in this chapter is to contribute to thinking about school leadership, but by focusing on the continued contribution of professional inquiry by teachers we are locating the discussion particularly within instructional leadership. By emphasising the workplace environment, relationships and culture that will allow critical teacher inquiry to flourish, our focus becomes collective school leadership rather than individual school leaders. School leaders adopting an 'instructional leadership' approach may support teachers' reflection through dialogue, modelling and coaching and encourage collaboration, curriculum development and action research (Blasé, Blasé, 1999; Southworth, 2002). Such instructional leaders may promote leadership development activities for their teachers to help them step up and contribute to collective leadership and use their agency to mediate the influences of a high accountability contextual (Terosky, 2016). However, Terosky identified head teachers in New York who had already adopted instructional leadership, whereas Kalman and Arslan found that many head teachers in Turkey felt constrained by influences at the wider systemic level of governmentality and unable to adopt some of the characteristics of an instructional leader (2016).

An interview-based study of effective leadership in children's services in England identified two key challenges for leaders, of designing learning systems and of building capacity, and argued that effective leaders used a flexible repertoire of strategies to solve problems (Daniels, Edwards, 2012). This small-scale study focused on those leaders identified as effective. This raised a key challenge for leaders by asking 'how do leaders enable the development of increased professional responsibility within a culture that is oriented to accountability?' But the study did not pursue this in depth and admits to an underpinning assumption that 'leaders need to be confident that professional judgements will lead to the best possible outcomes for children...' (2012, p. 36). The question remains as to how some leaders seem to be able to adopt a confident capacity-building approach that tends to mediate the high accountability policy context whilst others respond to the same context by adopting managerialist, top-down imposition of 'best' practice.

For the purposes of this chapter we will define professional inquiry as systematic evaluation of practice that includes critical engagement with relevant theory and research as well as with practical wisdom of teachers and local ways of working. Professional inquiry involves

analysis of data, usually including evidence of learning, and sits between pragmatic evaluation and practitioner research approaches (Boyd, White, 2017). There seems to be a risk that the contribution of teacher professional inquiry may be constrained if it is allowed to become merely another 'evaluation' strategy within the learning organisation, rather than maintaining some key features of research activity. For example, 'research' operates within an ethical framework that researchers use to shield participants and themselves from harm. This is an important issue because professional inquiry or practitioner research (also often referred to as 'action research') are often adopted by national, regional and school based educational policy and leadership as part of school improvement strategies.

In this chapter we will consider four interlinked elements related to teacher inquiry in high accountability contexts: teacher knowledge and expertise; the concept of the learning organisation; effective continuing professional development for teachers; and the power of classroom video as part of teacher inquiry. The discussion will then focus on the issue of 'critical' teacher inquiry before offering a set of dilemmas around teachers' professional inquiry as an element of instructional leadership and illustrate them as a reflexive tool by considering our own collaborative teacher researcher project entitled 'Learning Conversations'. We will argue that teacher inquiry continues to have potential as a powerful element of instructional leadership. Shifting the design of such inquiry away from pragmatic managerialist evaluation and towards the characteristics of practitioner research, with an ethical and critical approach, will help to ensure it remains effective within high accountability school system contexts.

Teacher Expertise

As a principal and a professor we are very aware of a tension in the value of different kinds of knowledge across the boundary between school and the university. The design of the learning conversations project was deliberately informed by a metaphor for teacher professional learning as an 'interplay' between public knowledge and practical wisdom (Boyd, Bloxham, 2014; Boyd, Hymer, Lockney, 2015). By practical wisdom we mean the horizontal domain of situated, socially held expertise of teachers and teaching teams within their workplace settings that might be described as 'ways of working' or 'what works

here'. By public knowledge we mean the vertical domain of published knowledge that is hierarchically organised and ranges from learning theory, research evidence, through professional guidance to educational policy. This metaphorical framework of interplay provides an alternative to the misleading theory-practice 'gap' metaphor that is widely held in educational settings and work. The metaphor of professional learning as interplay is developed within a sociocultural perspective of workplace learning in which practice and identity are considered to be continuously negotiated (Lave, Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) and professional 'knowing' is mediated, situated, social, dynamic and contested (Blackler, 1995). A key aspect of the interplay metaphor is that it recognises the value of teachers' expertise and captures the power play involved when practitioners co-construct new knowledge during inquiry-based professional development activity as they make and evaluate change in their classroom practice.

The interplay metaphor is particularly helpful because some observers and policy makers like to compare education as a field to medicine, they argue for an evidence-based approach. We would counter strongly that it is more appropriate to compare the multi-disciplinary and multi-paradigm field of education to 'healthcare' or even to the field of mental health (Philpott, 2017). The priorities of instructional leaders can certainly be informed by the 'effect sizes' of interventions highlighted by meta-reviews of randomised control trial research (EEF, 2017), but school improvement and classroom change is much more complicated than that. It is helpful to consider schools as learning organisations before considering the characteristics of effective professional learning for teachers.

The Learning Organisation

The concept of the learning organisation has developed within organisation and workplace development literature to mean an institution in which working, learning and innovating are inter-related in a complementary way (Brown, Duguid, 1991, p. 40). Garvin insists that the organisation must develop new ideas, but also change its ways of working to reflect that new knowledge (Garvin, 1993). Although largely applied in the business sector, the learning organisation concept has underpinned the development of 'professional learning communities' in schools. A study in the UK used a large scale

questionnaire and case studies to identify eight key characteristics of effective professional learning communities in schools including 'collaboration focused on learning' and 'reflective professional enquiry' (Bolam et al., 2005). A critique of the learning organisation concept suggests that it rests on a fragile assumption of continuous progress, creates a focus on instrumental knowledge of value to the organisation, leads to 'appropriation' of critical reflection by the organisation, and assumes that 'open' dialogue is useful for group learning despite the powerful positions of managers and educators (Fenwick, 2001). The professional learning communities approach has also been subjected to critique because of the risk that such a community may sometimes impose a narrow focus and set of values rather than helping to create a questioning and exploratory professional learning culture (Watson, 2014). The adoption of a top down narrow focus seems more likely within a high accountability context.

Thinking on knowledge and power within institutions has developed away from the 'heroic' model of leadership, which was based on the idea of leadership being enacted by individuals with appropriate traits, characteristics, or behaviours. Alternative models have developed a view of leadership as distributed, shared, relational or collective (D'Innocenzo, Mathieu, Kukenberger, 2014). A more distributed and identity based view of leadership recognises the power also held by 'followers' (Haslam, Reicher, Platow, 2011). From this perspective, a person in a formal leader role may develop shared social identity with followers leading to increased influence and use of power 'through' others in order to gain control of resources (Turner, 2005). This perspective of distributed knowledge and power is aligned to the thinking of Foucault developed within his institutional histories (Foucault, 1972). The social identity model offered by Haslam and colleagues is informed by the concept of distributed leadership but claims a distinctive three phase theoretical perspective (Haslam et al., 2014). The first phase or leadership activity 'reflecting' is focused on listening and understanding culture within a group and building identification within it. The second phase or leadership activity 'representing' involves taking actions that reflect and advance the group's values. The third phase or leadership activity of 'realising' involves delivering, and being seen to deliver, changes that matter to the group. In our experience, these phases seem to capture some of the stages of supporting a significant and sustained

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collaborative professional inquiry project by teachers and the way that distributed knowledge power might be harnessed to create collective momentum for change in practice. In considering the school principal Niesche makes use of Foucault's thinking on tripartite power relations consisting of the broader systemic level (governmentality), the school level (disciplinary power) and the individual level (ethics) (2015). This framework again seems helpful in helping teachers and other school leaders to adopt a more critical perspective during the process of negotiating the focus and design of a professional inquiry project.

Effective professional development for teachers

The characteristics of professional inquiry match the requirements, as identified by research review, of effective continuing professional development for teachers (TDT, 2015). These characteristics include development of collaboration and trust, critical engagement with external knowledge, a sustained project with a rhythm that provides opportunities for classroom experimentation and evaluation, and explicit support from school leaders. A professional inquiry perspective would refine these characteristics by considering aspects of practitioner research including an ethical framework, systematic collection and analysis of data and some form of peer reviewed dissemination (Baumfield, Hall, Wall, 2013).

Professional inquiry requires teachers to critically engage with theory and research evidence base and evaluate it in terms of its relevance to their workplace setting and the implications for current local practice. This process has been variously labelled as knowledge exchange, knowledge mobilisation and research-informed practice (Levin, 2011; 2013; Nutley, Young & Walter, 2008). Internationally there has been a long-standing debate about the development of research-informed practice by teachers (Hammersley, 1997; Oancea, 2005). Nutley helpfully reviews that debate and proposes a classification of approaches to research related professional development presented in Table 1. (Nutley et al., 2008).

Table 1. Typology of models for teacher research projects

	RATIONAL-LINEAR	INTERACTIVE
RESEARCH-BASED PRACTITIONER	Dissemination to front line practitioners	Active interpretation locally
EMBEDDED RESEARCH MODEL	Research findings translated into guidelines and tools	Collaborative development of guidance
ORGANISATIONAL EXCELLENCE MODEL	Transfer of findings to local settings	Findings interpreted locally at institutional or departmental level

Source: Adapted from Nutley et al., 2008.

Table 1 summarises the way that Nutley classifies approaches to teachers' professional development according to the assumptions made about knowledge. The rational-linear assumption sees a fairly straightforward journey from the production of new research findings to implementation of relevant changes by teachers within classroom practice. The term 'knowledge transfer' is often used in the higher education sector and captures the power held by the researchers. The interactive perspective emphasises the need for practitioners to critically engage with research findings and mediate their implications within their own educational workplace setting. The term 'knowledge exchange' is more appropriate to this view and recognises the co-construction of new knowledge and more equal power distribution between researchers (who foreground public knowledge) and teacher researchers (who foreground practical wisdom).

A typology such as that presented in Table 1. is useful, but one danger is that by too simply presenting the rational-linear – interactive divide as a dichotomy it tends to hide much variation within these approaches. The design of an inquiry-based school improvement project may appear to fit the interactive approach, but managerialist facilitation and relationships within the workplace setting of that project may, in practice, move it strongly back towards a rational-linear style. For example, in the case study project the considerable body of research literature on adult-child dialogue has considerable power because of its position as research evidence within the vertical public knowledge domain. This body of knowledge might be

interpreted within the project as setting out 'excellent practice' that is simply to be transferred or imposed on practice within the setting. But this perspective ignores the horizontal domain of teachers' local practical wisdom about how to foster dialogue with the children in their particular setting. It would seem to require a confident and reasonably sophisticated understanding of educational research and teacher knowing to be able to challenge and critically evaluate established bodies of published public knowledge. Hence, our concern about the influences on school leaders in our age of accountability. In particular, managerialist school leaders under pressure may pursue pragmatic evaluation but simply label it as professional inquiry or even as practitioner research.

The power of video

Questioning the use of classroom video within our developing argument may seem mundane. However, our own experience and a substantial body of research supports the view that using classroom video is beneficial for professional development by teachers within an inquiry-based approach promoting discussion (Borko et al., 2008). Unfortunately, much of the evidence of the learning power of video for teachers consists of small scale studies that are often with beginning teachers rather than experienced practitioners. Based on their review of the literature and on their own video-based study of 15 teachers over a one-year period Osipova and colleagues (2011) argue that teachers find viewing and discussing video clips of their teaching to be valuable professional development. This has also been shown in early years settings (Cherrington, Loveridge, 2014). A study of 10 mathematics teachers using video for professional development considered the differences between analysing video of other teachers or of themselves (Kleinknecht, Schneider, 2013). This study found teachers had high levels of emotional engagement when analyzing video and suggested that teachers require more preparation and support when analyzing video of their own teaching than that of others. Classroom video might be used as 'data for analysis' within a practitioner research approach, or alternatively might simply make a 'lesson study' approach more practicable because it allows observation of the lesson by others at a later point and has the potential of allowing the teacher facilitating the lesson to review the observation more effectively and in more detail. Video analysis of the complexity of classrooms is not straightforward,

but within an ethical framework and informed by research methods for stimulated recall we consider the practical opportunity to be an invaluable tool for teachers' professional inquiry (Lyle, 2003).

Becoming critical

Professional inquiry challenges teachers to critically analysis what is happening in their classrooms and schools by questioning public, published knowledge and also to be willing to evaluate well-established and perhaps seemingly effective local practice. However, some commentators point out the risk that practitioner (or action) research by teachers may become 'domesticated' in the sense that their inquiry becomes absorbed by quality assurance procedures and does not dare to ask the most important questions. The need to be 'critical' as a practitioner researcher can be argued to apply not merely to 'critical analysis' meaning a questioning approach to the literature and to data, but also to adopting a 'critical theory' stance. Kemmis criticises action research that 'aims only at improving techniques of teaching...without seeing these as connected to broader questions about the education of students for a better society' (2006, p. 460). Kemmis distinguishes between the evaluation of techniques of 'schooling', meaning technical investigation into the effectiveness of teaching strategies, and research into 'education', meaning asking difficult questions about the wider development of children as citizens within a better society.

This need for adopting a bigger picture is developed further by Ponte (2007) who proposes three areas of knowledge within teacher practitioner research:

> → Ideological knowledge, focused on desired effects - the wider aims of education.
> → Technological knowledge, focused on desired phenomena - teaching strategies.
> → Empirical knowledge: focused on real effects - the impact of classroom practice.

Ponte (2007) argues that teacher researchers need to make connections across these three areas of knowledge if they are to avoid serving merely instrumental aims through their inquiry. In an important contribution to the 'teacher as researcher' movement, Cochran-Smith and Lytle ask teachers to adopt 'inquiry as stance' and to collaborate

with parents and local social work agencies to help achieve a critical theory perspective and more significant impact from their inquiry projects (2009). Within the prevailing high accountability context of school systems, there is a possibility of 'domestication' of professional inquiry, meaning that it may become absorbed into managerialist approaches to quality assurance and lose its critical edge (Kemmis, 2006). Such domesticated teacher inquiry might merely evaluate the techniques of schooling and avoid a critical theory perspective that challenges social justice issues, the wider purposes of education, or the organisation of education (Cochran-Smith, Lytle, 2009; Biesta, 2011).

Teacher Researcher Dilemmas

Reflecting on our own Learning Conversations project, and on the five issues discussed so far: teacher knowing; learning organisations; effective professional development for teachers; the power of video; and becoming critical; has shaped our thinking to identify 6 dilemmas faced by teachers and other leaders commissioning and participating in a collaborative professional inquiry. We offer this set of half a dozen dilemmas as a useful tool for teacher researchers and school leaders in design and ongoing review of collaborative professional inquiry and practitioner research projects.

Dilemmas for Design and Review of Teachers' Professional Inquiry Projects.

Dilemma 1:
Bottom-up ownership by teacher researchers versus a top down imposed focus for inquiry

Dilemma 2:
Asking challenging critical research questions about education versus merely evaluating the techniques of schooling

Dilemma 3:
Professional learning and capacity building for the teacher researchers versus contributing to research evidence and wider change in practice

Dilemma 4:
A research ethics framework to create a safe space versus an evaluation framework with transparency and individual accountability

Dilemma 5:
Classroom experimentation and evaluation versus implementation of 'evidence-based practice' (or 'good practice' influenced by 'what we think the inspector is looking for')

Dilemma 6:
Critical engagement with teachers' practical wisdom versus acceptance of local ways of working and unwritten rules within the workplace

Source: Author.

Learning Conversations

To illustrate the application of the 6 dilemmas to a professional inquiry, this section will present our reflections on the 'Learning Conversations' collaborative research project. Clearly, the dilemmas are inter-twined and over-lapping, but we wanted to test the proposed set of dilemmas as a practical tool and so we present brief comments against each of the dilemmas in turn:

Dilemma 1: *Bottom-up ownership by teacher researchers **versus** a top down imposed focus for inquiry.*

Ownership by teacher researchers has several potential advantages including: teachers may be more motivated to pursue the project; the research question may be more relevant to teachers' concerns; it demonstrates respect for teacher expertise; a research level of ethics requires clear rights to choose not to participate and for participants to withdraw their data at any time. The focus of the Learning Conversations project was decided through discussion by the university-based research mentor of school priorities and challenges with senior leaders who wanted to commission a practitioner research project. The two schools are located in an area with high levels of disadvantaged families and a large proportion of the four to six-year-old children have low levels of speech and language development relative to their age. The eventual selected focus on adult-child interactions was developed during initial meetings with school leaders who recognised the potential of their teachers to investigate and develop this area of work. Having identified the focus in a top-down way, probably typical of many similar school-based professional inquiry projects, this challenged us to consider how this represents teacher ownership and an ethical approach to participation. Our approach was to establish teachers as teacher researchers, members of the research team, rather than only as participants providing data to the project. As the research team was

established then the research design became a collaborative project more clearly owned and controlled by the teachers. Other relevant steps involving ethics and the intended outcomes of the project are discussed against dilemmas 3 and 5 below.

The development of the focus and design of professional inquiry is perhaps best viewed as a negotiation between stakeholders and it is helpful for all involved to consider the three levels of governmentality, school and individual (Niesche, 2015). Our project was complicated by the fact that our teacher researchers came from two collaborating schools and we would suggest adding an additional level of 'team' (teaching team and/or research team) that perhaps bridges between the school and individual levels.

Dilemma 2: *Asking challenging critical research questions about education **versus** merely evaluating the techniques of schooling.*

Having established the teacher researcher team in the Learning Conversations project, a key decision was made at an early stage not to directly involve parents in the research process itself. This was in some ways contrary to the research evidence, parents are of course a major influence and potential resource for adult-child dialogue and language development with young children and this involves issues of social class and social justice (Tizard & Hughes, 1984). In place of direct participation in the research a planned output of the project was to run workshops informed by the research for parents. The reasons for this decision not to directly involve parents were pragmatic and perfectly reasonable, they included issues of time, complexity and ethics, but still, on reflection it was a key decision that arguably shaped the project towards evaluation of the techniques of schooling rather than a more ambitious critical perspective and engagement with social justice (Kemmis, 2006; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009). By not involving parents we excluded them as a source of data but also as a potential source of expertise on developing dialogue with young children. Overall, Kemmis is perhaps just a little too quick to condemn so much action research by teachers as having been domesticated. The project could be seen as a useful and even essential first step towards working with parents on developing adult-child dialogue by building teacher expertise and confidence.

This is a finely balanced debate teachers and school leaders need to have when designing their research projects and refining their research questions. Before we move on from this issue of asking tough educational questions it is important to note the risks that school leaders are taking, within a high accountability context, by commissioning a professional inquiry that may, through its level of autonomy and critical questioning, reveal uncomfortable truths.

Dilemma 3: *Professional learning and capacity building for the teacher researchers **versus** contributing to research evidence.*

In many close-to-practice professional inquiry and action research projects the teacher researchers would have been given more ownership by being supported to pursue individual research questions and designs within the overall negotiated and agreed theme. This approach may yield good levels of professional learning for teachers but it may be less likely to create new knowledge and the robust research required for a research journal publication. In the Learning Conversations project we agreed a single question and research design. A research journal paper was an agreed intended output for the project (Boyd, 2014) and this output was a particular priority for the research mentor, not least because of the managerial pressures they face within their higher education context. Part of the ambition of the project was co-creation of contextually robust knowledge (Nowotny, Scott, Gibbons , 2001) through collaborative data analysis involving teachers and the university-based research mentor. Meanwhile, professional learning for the teacher researchers was a key intended outcome for the Learning Conversations project. The aim was to strengthen the teacher researchers as teacher educator consultants, able to support the development of other experienced colleagues across their school alliance. Teacher researcher feedback identified the collaborative video data analysis as a powerful driver of professional learning. However, much low stakes classroom experimentation and coaching took place alongside the research process because a school governor with suitable teacher advisor expertise and experience was available as a classroom coach to the teachers through the two-year project and she worked with them on observing practice and analysing video clips to support professional learning. On reflection, the research mentor in the Learning Conversations project felt somewhat disappointed that teachers had

not developed more in depth knowledge and skills of educational research. Although collaboratively involved in the research processes, time constraints and the priorities of the teachers not surprisingly made them focus most effort on professional learning around adult-child interaction than on engaging with additional reading on research.

The balance in the purposes of professional inquiry, between professional learning outcomes and robust publishable research publications, is not simply an issue for the initial commissioning of a project. It influences decisions of design, ownership and ethics throughout the life of the project and needs careful consideration and reflexive monitoring.

Dilemma 4: *A research ethics framework to create a safe space* **versus** *an evaluation framework with transparency and individual accountability.*

Once the Learning Conversations research team had been established we began to discuss research ethics alongside negotiating the research questions and design. The team submitted a research proposal and gained clearance through a university ethical clearance process. This concerned ethics in relation to children, parents and the school but here, with our focus on leadership, we will reflect mainly on how ethics related to the position of the teacher researchers. The consideration of ethics seemed particularly helpful in teacher research commissioned by a head teacher because it was used by the research team to insist on a reasonable level of control and anonymity for teacher researchers contributing data to the project. It also provided a more confidential opportunity for individual teachers more to choose not to contribute video data. Video data means that within the research team anonymity was not feasible, however, teacher researchers were free to collect as many video clips as they wished and to self-select which clip would go forward as data for the research. Arguably this weakened the data to some extent and this was acknowledged in the published research paper, but it helped to create an ethical control around the risks faced by participating teachers. This step helped to reduce the potential stress involved in sharing classroom video evidence which is very powerful because of the insight it provides into practice which can feel quite intrusive for a teacher. This seemed particularly true in the case of informal one to one conversations with children which are even less in the public domain than whole class teaching.

Data collection during professional inquiry, especially video data, poses considerable risks to the professional reputation of individual teachers and this is a key consideration within high accountability contexts. Research ethics principles and processes can be helpful in creating safe spaces for collaborative inquiry by teachers and this is certainly an area where positioning professional inquiry as practitioner research rather than as pragmatic evaluation is particularly helpful.

Dilemma 5: *Classroom experimentation and evaluation **versus** implementation of 'evidence-based practice' (or imposing 'good practice' influenced by 'what we think the inspector is looking for')*

In Learning Conversations, despite the ambition of the project to enhance children's learning, there was no specific attempt to measure progress in speech and language learning outcomes except through the normal assessment and monitoring systems already in place within the two schools. There is some pressure on teacher researchers to construct inquiry around producing 'hard data' evidence of children's learning progress. This seems reasonable, but must be balanced against designing practitioner research to focus on understanding the process of learning. Large scale randomised control trial intervention studies, and accessible meta-reviews of such research (EEF, 2017) play an important role in identifying priorities and possibilities for school leaders, but small scale qualitative studies help teachers to make sense of research evidence by experimenting in their own classrooms and create a focus for them on why and how interventions support children's learning. At an early stage of the Learning Conversations project an academic with specialist knowledge supported the research mentor and authored a concise literature review on adult-child interactions that helped to make existing theory and research evidence accessible for the teachers. This shaped the initial analytical framework which was applied to the transcriptions of video clips during the first stages of the collaborative analysis. This process enabled teachers to critically consider the body of public knowledge and test it directly against their practice and practical wisdom. Alternative frameworks for analysing adult-child interactions were introduced by the research mentor and this helped to extend the analysis (Boyd, 2014). One of the key findings was the use of 'transportable identity' as a strategy for developing dialogue with young children. This involves the teacher in switching to an identity as

a family member or playmate in order to position themselves in a less 'teacherly' way within the unfolding dialogue. This strategy seemed to help the teachers avoid imposing a curriculum focused agenda onto their conversations with children. In this way the project perhaps did in part adopt a critical perspective linking the governmentality level to school and individual levels and developed some 'resistance' by teachers to a nationally imposed curriculum and to the priorities of the inspection framework.

Published research evidence has considerable power and it may be difficult for teachers to adopt a critical engagement with it. A Socratic approach that asks the question: 'what does this published research evidence mean for our teaching and our children?' can help to provoke dialogue and critical thinking between the research mentor as broker and teacher researchers. In schools in England, within a high accountability context, the threat of a high stakes, name and shame, inspection government agency tends to distort the priorities of schools and may distract head teachers from pursuing research-informed practice. A focus on research evidence can help head teachers and their schools to resist this unintended consequence of an inspection regime.

Dilemma 6: *Critical engagement with teachers' practical wisdom **versus** acceptance of local ways of working and unwritten rules within the workplace.*

Questioning local ways of working is perhaps more difficult to achieve than questioning, or perhaps simply ignoring, published research evidence. In the Learning Conversations project the research mentor made efforts to acknowledge the expertise and practical wisdom of the teacher researchers within their workplace. To some extent the questioning of the practical wisdom of the teachers occurred within the video process recall interviews that teacher researchers completed. In this case they were interviewed whilst reflecting on their selected video clip and asked to analyse their strategies for developing dialogue. These video process recall interviews were recorded and formed an additional source of data although in practice teachers found the process difficult and the collaborative analysis of the clips was more successful as we debated the coding of segments of adult-child conversations. Teachers reflected out loud when viewing their video clips and sometimes 'defended' their

practice by explaining how their knowledge of individual children or of previous learning activity had influenced their conversational strategies. In addition to collaborative analysis the teacher researcher evaluation also identified the preparation and presentation of their findings at teacher research conferences as a key driver for their professional learning and confidence-building as a result of the project. The teacher researchers also reported powerful learning through their involvement in producing a professional development training resource that was a second published output of the Learning Conversations project (Boyd et al., 2015). This resource included professionally made video clips of teacher researchers talking to children and reflecting on their practice. Dissemination of professional inquiry findings to other colleagues through research presentations and professional development activity is arguably a key element of professional inquiry if it is to gain maximum impact on teacher researcher learning.

Building trust is essential if collaborative analysis of practice, questioning current ways of working, is to be genuinely achieved within a professional inquiry. Building this level of trust is a relational and dynamic process that has to be worked at and achieved within each individual project, but a research ethics framework can help to achieve it, even within high accountability contexts. The use of video is a two edged sword because it requires high levels of trust but if those are achieved then we would argue that it can be powerful for professional learning by teachers. Overall, in our project high levels of trust did develop between teachers, research mentor, coach and school leaders. Use of classroom video both required and helped this trust to develop.

Discussion

As the era of neoliberalism in England staggers to its close after 30 years of dominance, its last few political adherents adopt 'wilful blindness' to the evident policy failures (Heffernan, 2011). Within education there has been a slow fragmentation and privatisation so that it can be argued 'these policies amount to a disarticulation of, or the beginning of the end of, state education' (Exley, Ball, 2013, p. 26). We need to develop leadership approaches that provide robust alternatives to dependence on heroic leaders and market forces and that are resistant to high accountability contexts.

In this chapter we have offered a tool comprising of six provocative dilemmas, intended for teacher and other school leaders, as well as university based research mentors, to review their professional inquiry designs and projects.

→ **Dilemma 1:** Bottom-up ownership by teacher researchers **versus** a top down imposed focus for inquiry.

→ **Dilemma 2:** Asking challenging critical research questions about education **versus** merely evaluating the techniques of schooling.

→ **Dilemma 3:** Professional learning and capacity building for the teacher researchers **versus** contributing to research evidence and wider change in practice.

→ **Dilemma 4:** A research ethics framework to create a safe space **versus** an evaluation framework with transparency and individual accountability.

→ **Dilemma 5:** Classroom experimentation and evaluation **versus** implementation of 'evidence-based practice' (or 'good practice' influenced by 'what we think the inspector is looking for').

→ **Dilemma 6:** Critical engagement with teachers' practical wisdom **versus** acceptance of local ways of working and unwritten rules within the workplace.

The use of dilemmas acknowledges the nuances and interplay of knowledge and power involved in teachers' workplace learning, in curriculum development and in school improvement. We consider that collaborative professional inquiry by teachers, as an element of instructional leadership, offers a powerful strategy. We hope that others may find our dilemmas to be a useful prompt for reflection on design of their professional inquiry projects in a high accountability context. Instructional leadership that adopts professional inquiry requires acceptance of levels of uncertainty, experimentation and appropriate risk-taking. Leading schools in such a way, that develops teachers' independence, interdependence, collective efficacy, experimentation and risk-taking, requires a commitment to contemporary forms of collective leadership within a high accountability context. In this situation, teacher collaborative professional inquiry, as an approach to school improvement and professional learning, requires all stakeholders to adopt the mantra – 'No Risk, No Learning'.

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Teacher leadership in Ukraine: The role of teachers in school management and professional development

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This article presents the current situation with teacher leadership in Ukraine. The authors focus on the connection of teacher leadership with shool autonomy, forming school culture and professional development experiences of teachers. Professional development refers to activities that advance teachers' skills and knowledge, with the ultimate aim of fostering teacher leadership. The presented research was based on the results of the All-Ukrainian Monitoring Survey of Secondary School Teachers and Principals with the use of TALIS methodology. Research was conducted by the Ukrainian Educational Research Association. The monitoring survey was a part of the Teacher Project within the big scale project "Educational Reform: Quality Assessment in the International Context" realized by Ukrainian Step by Step Foundation with the support of Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine and Porticus. For comparison, the average data of the international TALIS 2013 survey was given. The article concludes with a discussion useful for policy makers, school leaders and teachers.The material demonstrates how complex teacher leadership is and how powerfully it can influence all the aspects of school life.

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The understanding of teacher leadership in Ukrainian secondary education and research

At the present stage of rapid changes in the world, societies, as well as individuals, face new challenges imposed by globalization and modernization. Perhaps the most challenging dilemma for educators in the 21st century is a new demand for skills and knowledge which teachers themselves need to acquire for the purpose of an effective teaching of their 21st century students. Actually, in the new world of digits, automation and outsources high educational demands for life and work require teachers to be high-level knowledge workers who advance their profession as well as demonstrate their leadership skills. Ukrainian teachers try to adjust to the changes initiated by the new Law of Education. It sets higher requirements for teachers' proficiency and their lifelong professional development (Supreme Soviet of Ukraine, 2017).

Literature review on the problem gives us variety of concepts and practices of teacher leadership for the past two decades (Lyniov, 2016). Among them are numerous small-scale, qualitative studies that describe dimensions of teacher leadership practice, teacher leader characteristics and conditions that promote and challenge teacher leadership. However, the investigations of teacher leadership as they are described in Ukrainian scholarly literature differ from the way they are seen from the international perspective.

In Ukrainian secondary education, teacher leadership is mainly understood as formal school management team represented by the school principal and vice-principals. (Shchudlo, Kovalchuk, 2014). In this understanding of the issue, teacher leadership is not taken into account. Most research has been done in Ukraine concerning ways of efficient school management and only a few studies focused on teachers who are not members of the official administrative team. It might lead to the conclusion that the teachers' roles and impact on different aspects of the school life have been underestimated. The issues under research in Ukraine to some extent resemble the issues internationally studied in the 1980s. Those are grouped around developing the teacher leadership qualities, where the teacher is seen as a leader in teacher-student or teacher-class relations in education. For instance, N. Semchenko and N. Marahovska analyzed the pedagogical conditions that help future teachers to generate and develop their leadership skills during extra-

curricular activities (Semchenko, 2005; Marahovska, 2009). D. Zerbino attempted to describe teacher-leader research skills and 'teacher-students' relationship in this context. To become effective science-leader a teacher needs to generate new ideas (Zerbino, 2011), be culturally focused (Moskovets, 2012) and professionally competent (Osovska, 2012). The other trait of effective teacher leader is identified as the talent for facilitation, which enables not only to attract people, enchant and inspire them, but as well to lead by the force of the arguments and persuasion (Zavalevsky, 2008).

Joellen Killion and Cindy Harrison in the book *Taking the Lead: New Roles for Teachers and School-Based Coaches* define top ten roles of teacher leaders: resource provider, instructional specialist, curriculum specialist, classroom supporter, learning facilitator, mentor, school leader, data coach, catalyst for change, learner (Killion, Harrison, 2006).

The above-given roles demonstrate how complex teacher leadership is and how powerfully it can influence all the aspects of school life. In the article, teacher leaders are viewed through their ability to influence school culture and teachers' professional development.

Ukrainian context: teachers and the schools where they work

For understanding what teacher leadership is about in Ukraine, is it is essential that the reader should see the big picture of Ukrainian education represented by teachers and schools where they work. Table 1 demonstrates Ukrainian teachers' profile regarding their gender distribution, age distribution, work experience, educational level, and specialized training. The information provided below is part of the Ukrainian Educational Research Association report prepared for the Ministry of Education of Ukraine (Shchudlo, Zabolotna, Lisova, 2017).

Teachers' profile

As to the gender distribution in Ukrainian teachers' profile, 84% Ukrainian teachers are women. If to view the issue from the regional perspective the percentage fluctuates from 76,7% of female teachers in the Central part of Ukraine to 87.7% in the capital.

The average age of Ukrainian middle school teachers is 44.7. Most Ukrainian teachers belong to the 40 – 49 age group (29%); more than

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12% of Ukrainian teachers are older than 60 with the oldest teachers working in the capital.

As to their work experience, in the average, Ukrainian teachers have 21.7 years' work experience. Moreover, in the average, Ukrainian teachers devote 17.8 years to the same school which demonstrates a low level of teachers' mobility within education.

In Ukraine, 96.3% have Bachelor's degree or higher (Specialist, Master or Candidate of Sciences). However, the percentage of teachers who are Candidates or Doctors of Sciences corresponding to Doctors (Ph.D.) or Habilitated Doctors is quite low (0.2%).

Ukrainian teachers demonstrate a high percentage of those specially trained for work in education (98.3%). Most teachers claim that their training included all the elements: content of the subject(s) they teach (82.5%), pedagogy of the subject(s) they teach (82.9%), classroom practice in the subject(s) they teach (79.9%). In all these elements Ukrainian teachers feel well and very well prepared. In the capital, the percentage of those who are somewhat or not at all feel prepared in higher than in the regions. Some teachers, especially teachers of Arts (4.3%) have not been specially trained for the subject(s) they teach.

Teachers' distribution at Ukrainian schools

Another aspect contributing to understanding Ukrainian teacher leadership is the distribution of teachers at schools.

According to the UERA report, 7.1% of Ukrainian teachers work at schools where there are more than 10% of children who are non-Ukrainian speakers. Less than 1% of Ukrainian teachers admit that they work at the school where there are more than 10% of students with special educational needs. If compared to other countries, the data provided by Ukrainian teachers might bring about the question of insufficient attention given to diagnosing special needs. 64.9% of Ukrainian teachers point out that there are no children with special educational needs in their classrooms. However, 6.5% of Ukrainian teachers work at schools where more than 30% of children come from low-income families.

Research methodology

Much of the educational research before the 1980s fell into the positivist domain and dealt with descriptions of administrative positions

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and personal traits. However, it did not uncover relationships between leadership and school culture, leadership and professional development or more general conceptualizations of leadership. As a result, in our research, we will move from direct effects to mediated effects and antecedent effects. We have turned to a multivariate analysis of data, enabling the construction of a model of effects within a model of teacher leadership. This sophisticated statistical illustration of teachers leaders effects on school culture and teachers' professional development has allowed for substantive conclusions on effective leadership.

The research was based on the results of the All-Ukrainian Monitoring Survey of Secondary School Teachers and Principals (by TALIS methodology) conducted by the Ukrainian Educational Research Association with the questionnaires for teachers and principals used for Teaching and Learning International Survey conducted by OECD in 2013.

The monitoring survey was a part of the Teacher Project within the big scale project "Educational Reform: Quality Assessment in the International Context" realized by Ukrainian Step by Step Foundation with the support of Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine and Porticus. The project was headed by Prof. Svitlana Shchudlo and co-coordinated by Prof. Oksana Zabolotna and Doc. Tetiana Lisova.

The first two waves of Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) were conducted by OECD in 2008 and 2013. Ukraine did not participate in TALIS 2008 and 2013; neither is it going to participate in its next wave in 2018. It deprives Ukraine of valuable data that might contribute to understanding the current situation by comparing the data to those received from EU and other countries. With this in mind, Ukrainian Educational Research Association got from OECD the permission to use TALIS 2013 Principal and Teacher questionnaires for the TALIS-like survey in Ukraine.

The All-Ukrainian survey was aimed at getting comparable evidence of teachers' social, demographic and professional characteristics and school environment. The data could be used for answering the following **research questions:**

- → What are interconnections of school autonomy and teacher leadership in Ukraine?
- → What is the role of teacher leaders in forming school culture?

→ To what extent is teachers' leadership fostered by teachers' professional development programmes?

Ukrainian Educational Research Association conducted the research betewen February and August 2017. The researched school population embraced 201 principals from 201 schools, as well as 3600 school teachers (ISCED 2). The research was conducted in all the regions of Ukraine except Crimea and the territories in the conflict zone. The two-stage sampling design was used in the research (S.E. – 1.6%, participation rate for teachers – 97%.). The participants filled in paper-based questionnaires.

To view the issue from the comparative perspective, the authors use the results of the All-Ukrainian monitoring conducted by UERA in 2017 and the TALIS research conducted by OECD in 2013.

Research Results

Interconnections of school autonomy and teacher leadership

TALIS principal's questionnaire (OECD, 2014a) included some questions about the level of school autonomy and about the responsibility for taking some decisions at the school level (principal, financial manager, department heads, teachers, representative(s) from school, parents or guardians, students).

As the TALIS 2013 results prove, in some spheres schools may be more autonomous, in the others – less autonomous. For example, they might have the right to appoint teachers but cannot establish teachers' starting salaries including setting payscales, etc. They may demonstrate different levels of influence on establishing student disciplinary policies and procedure, choosing learning materials, determining course content, etc. Schools are getting more autonomy in most European school systems; however, there has been relatively little research into interconnection of teacher leadership and school autonomy.

Table 1 demonstrates teachers' distribution at schools where by principals' responses the schools have the key responsibility for decision taking in some aspects. As teacher leadership is all about influence, it is important to see their ability to influence different aspects of school life.

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Table 1. Teachers' distribution at schools where by principals' responses the schools have the key responsibility for decision taking in some aspects (%)

TASKS	SCHOOL RESPONSIBILITY (ALL SCHOOL AGENTS INCLUDING TEACHERS)		TEACHERS' RESPONSIBILITY
	UKRAINE AVERAGE	TALIS AVERAGE	UKRAINE AVERAGE
Appointing or hiring teachers	65.7	74.7	1.2
Dismissing or suspending teachers from employment	54.1	68.4	3.0
Establishing teachers' starting salaries, including setting payscales	23.5	35.9	1.2
Determining teachers' salary increases	20.3	37.1	4.2
Deciding on budget allocations within the school	45.4	82.5	5.5
Establishing student disciplinary policies and procedures	98.8	95.8	50.9
Establishing student assessment policies, including national/regional	75.1	79.1	50.3
Choosing which learning materials are used	100.0	81.2	2.4
Determining course content, including national/regional curricula	94.0	94.0	88.5
Deciding which courses are offered	86.9	64.6	68.5

Source: OECD, 2014a; UERA database, 2017.

The research produces clear evidence that all Ukrainian teachers work at schools where approving students for admission is the school responsibility (the TALIS 2013 average is 81.2%). Nearly all Ukrainian

schools (98.8%) enjoy freedom in establishing student disciplinary policies and procedures (the TALIS 2013 average is 95.8%). 94% of Ukrainian teachers work at schools that have the right to choose which learning materials are used (TALIS 2013 results are similar). Establishing student assessment policies and determining course content are also attributed to the school responsibility at the schools which are the place of work for 75% of Ukrainian teachers.

However, less than 40% teachers participating in TALIS 2013 work at schools which can influence some financial issues dealing with establishing teachers starting salary, determining teachers salary increases and deciding on budget allocations within the school. In Ukraine, the collected data shows an even lower level of impact on financial issues with only 23.5% of teachers working at schools that influence establishing teachers starting salary and 20.3% of teachers working at schools with an impact on determining teachers salary increases.

According to some TALIS 2013 principals' responses, there are some countries (Czech Republic, Estonian, the Netherlands, Slovak Republic, United Kingdom) where schools enjoy a great degree of school autonomy in most spheres. In Ukraine, however, the schools have autonomy which is selective. By selective autonomy, we mean the ability of the school to take the responsibilities unless the decisions have an impact on financial matters.

With the current state of school autonomy in Ukraine we should bear in mind that the sphere of teachers' responsibility depends on the sphere of school responsibility. Owing to the fact that the school responsibility is distributed between the principal, financial manager, department heads, parents and teachers, the latter have the sphere of responsibility which is much narrower than that borne by the school.

The provided evidence drives us to the logical conclusion that Ukrainian teachers do not have a sufficient impact on educational policy, school administration, state standards and other issues.

Role of teacher leaders in forming school culture
Many different descriptions of school culture can be found in articles and scholarly books. Some publications focus on the school culture which contributes to teacher leadership flourishing. They are common in admitting that the productive in this respect school culture should

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rely on collegial environment, problem-solving orientation, trust, and clear communication (Educator Effectiveness, 2015). There has been some research devoted to the role of teacher leaders in forming school culture. For instance, in the research described by Roby the following conclusions have been drawn: "Initiating open dialogue to tackle key issues that were confirmed by the survey results would give teacher leaders a chance to potentially change negative aspects of school culture. Trust building, managing change, and strengthening relationships of educators at the workplace are key items the survey revealed that need to be addressed by teacher leaders and school administrators" (Roby, 2017)

A part of TALIS teacher's and principal's Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) 2013 questionnaires (OECD, 2014a; OECD, 2014b) included some questions about distributive leadership, that is how the responsibilities are delegated. For getting the information, the questionnaire asked both the principals and the teachers to define to what extent they agree with the following statements:

→ This school provides staff with opportunities to actively participate in school decisions
→ This school has a culture of shared responsibility for school issues
→ There is a collaborative school culture which is characterised by mutual support

Table 2 provides the information which can be used for comparing the attitudes to the same issues viewed at the principals' and teachers' angle.

Table 2. School decisions and collaborative school culture: Percentage of principals and teachers who *'strongly disagree', 'disagree', 'agree' or 'strongly agree'* with the following statement about their school

		UKRAINIAN PRINCIPALS	TALIS PRINCIPALS AVERAGE	UKRAINIAN TEACHERS	TALIS TEACHERS AVERAGE
This school provides staff with opportunities to actively participate in school decisions	Strongly disagree	3.5	0.3	2.9	6.3
	Disagree	0.0	1.8	13.6	20.4
	Agree	70.6	64.6	67.8	61.9
	Strongly agree	25.9	33.2	15.6	11.4
I make the important decisions on my own	Strongly disagree	10.4	18.3	-	-
	Disagree	62.2	47.1	-	-
	Agree	23.9	28	-	-
	Strongly agree	3.5	6.6	-	-
This school has a culture of shared responsibility for school issues	Strongly disagree	-	-	2.0	4.4
	Disagree	-	-	10.7	21.1
	Agree	-	-	69.4	62.8
	Strongly agree	-	-	18.0	11.7
There is a collaborative school culture which is characterised by mutual support	Strongly disagree	2.0	0.5	1.8	4.3
	Disagree	11.0	4.3	9.5	18.3
	Agree	72.0	62.7	67.9	62.1
	Strongly agree	15.0	32.5	20.8	15.3

"-" – the questionnaire did not contain the question

Source: OECD, 2014a; UERA database, 2017

As seen from table 2, most Ukrainian principals as well as the principals participating in TALIS 2013 claim that at their schools, there is a collaborative school culture which is characterised by mutual support (87% and 95.2%) and providing their staff with opportunities to actively participate in school decisions (96.5 and 97.8%).

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If compared, principals' and teachers' responses are somewhat different in their description of their school culture. For instance, 33.2% of the surveyed principals strongly believe that their school provides staff with opportunities to actively participate in school decisions whereas only 15,6% of teachers share the same idea. The next example concerns the statement that there is a collaborative school culture which is characterised by mutual support. Only 15% of school principals enjoy such state of things while 20.8% of teachers believe it to be true. These examples may demonstrate different approaches of official school leaders and teachers to understanding what 'collaborative school culture is' and different expectations as to what it may mean to them. School principals may believe that they collaborative school culture is about delegating responsibilities while teachers may believe that it is about getting more rights and freedom in taking important decisions.

Another issue concerns the sphere of teachers' responsibilities. In Ukraine, school principals do not take responsibility for staff and financial issues, consequently, teachers' responsibilities predominantly deal with academic issues. Therefore it deprives the teachers of the possibility to apply their leadership to performing different roles in the spheres other than teaching.

**Teacher leaders and their influence on
teachers' professional development**

As teacher leaders are characterized by their ability to influence school improvement, it is important that we should seek evidence of their ability to influence teachers' professional development. To examine these issues, TALIS adopts a broad definition of professional development among teachers: "Professional development' is defined as activities that aim to develop an individual's skills, knowledge, expertise and other characteristics as a teacher" (OECD, 2009, p. 49).

The most visible ways that might give evidence to teachers' ability to influence professional development are as follows:
  → Teachers' current involvement in mentoring activities
  → Teachers' professional development and support
  → Teachers as evaluators through their providing formal and informal feedback to other teachers

Teachers' current involvement in mentoring activities

There has been extensive research as for how mentorship can influence different aspects of schooling and educational policy. There is Mentoring Leadership and Resource Network which is an ASCD network dedicated to supporting educators everywhere with best practices in mentoring and induction. For six years, the network has provided assistance and free advice to mentors and mentoring programs (MLRN: The Mentoring Leadership And Resource Network, 2017).

In the publications, the mentoring process is understood in different ways. As Koki states „mentoring is a complex and multi-dimensional process of guiding, teaching, influencing and supporting a beginning or new teacher. It is generally accepted that a mentor teacher leads, guides and advises another teacher more junior in experience in a work situation characterized by mutual trust and belief " (Koki, 2015, p. 3). Process of mentoring can help to extend „far beyond supporting the induction of new teachers into the school system through professional guidance and encouragement" (*ibidem*). It is about beliefs, values and teacher leadership. The idea has been proved by a number of researchers where mentoring is closely linked to the concept of school leadership.

In Ukraine, mentoring is more associated with professional guidance. The difference in terminology caused some difficulties in completing the questionnaire and required additional explanation. As a result, the responses can concern the combination of different types of teacher support: tutoring, mentoring and coaching as there is no differentiation between them in Ukrainian scholarly publications. Officially, mentors are appointed to any novice teacher that is a teacher who has a teaching experience which is less than three years. There are some schools in Ukraine with formal Novice Teachers' Schools within them. They are official institutions organizing consultancy and spreading more experienced teachers' expertise.

In TALIS questionnaires, mentoring is defined as a support structure at schools where more experienced teachers support less experienced teachers. This structure might involve all teachers in the school or only new teachers. By TALIS 2013 results, in most countries mentoring programmes are becoming the prevailing form of teachers' professional socialization. They are aimed at assisting novice teachers' (and a broader teacher community) professional induction and development.

The TALIS principal's questionnaire sought information about teachers' involvement in mentoring programs. As seen from principals' answers, only 10.8% of Ukrainian teachers work at schools without current mentoring programmes (Table 3). In the TALIS 2013 countries, nearly quarter of teachers do not have access to mentorship. There are some countries where mentoring programmes are not active (Chile, Finland, Mexico, Portugal, Spain), whereas there are countries offering mentoring programmes to a broad community of teachers (Australia, Croatia, the Netherlands, United Kingdom, Serbia, etc.).

Table 3. Mentoring programmes at Ukrainian schools (%)

		UKRAINE AVERAGE	TALIS AVERAGE
ACCESS TO MENTORING PROGRAMMES (PRINCIPALS' RESPONSES)	Novice teachers	47.1	27.0
	Teachers with less than 5 years experience	19.3	22.2
	All school teachers	22.8	24.9
	There is no mentoring programmes	10.8	25.8
ACCESS TO MENTORING PROGRAMMES (TEACHERS' RESPONSES)	Teachers who have mentors	15.9	12.8
	Teachers who are mentors	25.8	14.2

Source: OECD, 2014a; UERA database, 2017.

In Ukraine, most teachers (90.7%) work at schools where mentors teach the same subject as the novice teachers (middle column of Table 5). However, there are countries (the Netherlands and Belgium) where in mentoring programmes the taught subject is not necessarily taken into account. The TALIS peculiarity is that the data are gathered at different angles, as the same questions are answered by principals and teachers. The last column of the table demonstrates the teachers' answers to the questions about mentoring. 25.8% of Ukrainian teachers answer that they are mentoring one or more teachers. 15.9% of Ukrainian teachers have a mentor who supports them in their professional socialization. Most countries are characterized by a situation when the percentage of teachers who have mentors is much lower than the percentage of teachers who (by evidence taken from principals'

responses) work at schools with current mentoring programmes. This can be attributed to the fact that some teachers are currently in the mentors' role. Nevertheless, the situations where the difference is strikingly big may cause some anxiety as it may mean that some teachers are not interested in having mentors or that there is no the culture of partnership at some schools. For instance, in the Netherlands, 71% of teachers work at schools with access to mentoring programmes whereas only 17% of teachers have their own mentors; in Romania, the percentage is 53% and 8% respectively. In Ukraine this difference between 22.8% and 15.9% that is quite acceptable.

Tables 4 and 5 demonstrate some characteristics (gender, work experience, employment status, and weekly hours of work) of teachers who report that they have appointed mentors and the teachers who work as mentors.

Table 4. Distribution of teachers who have appointed mentors by gender, work experience, employment status, weekly hours of work: Percentage of teachers who have mentors

		UKRAINE AVERAGE	TALIS AVERAGE
GENDER	Male	18.2	13.3
	Female	15.4	12.5
WORK EXPERIENCE	0 to 5 years of experience as a teacher in total	62.1	24.8
	More than 5 years of experience as a teacher in total	10.0	9.6
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	Permanent employment	15.1	11.0
	Fixed-term contract	34.6	24.2
WEEKLY HOUR OF WORK	Worked less than 30 hours in the most recent complete calendar week	20.7	12.6
	Worked 30 and more hours in the most recent complete calendar week	15.0	12.8

Source: OECD, 2014b; UERA database, 2017.

Table 5. Distribution of mentor teachers by gender, work experience, employment status, weekly hours of work: Percentage of teachers who are mentors

		UKRAINE AVERAGE	TALIS AVERAGE
GENDER	Male	18.4	14.0
	Female	27.2	14.0
WORK EXPERIENCE	0 to 5 years of experience as a teacher in total	3.8	6.0
	More than 5 years of experience as a teacher in total	28.7	16.4
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	Permanent employment	26.4	15.6
	Fixed-term contract	14.4	6.4
WEEKLY HOURS OF WORK	Worked less than 30 hours in the most recent complete calendar week	21.5	12.7
	Worked 30 and more hours in the most recent complete calendar week	26.5	14.7

Source: OECD, 2014b; UERA database, 2017.

The data show that among Ukrainian teachers who have mentors 18.2% are male and 15.4% are female. What differs Ukrainian responses from the TALIS average is that much more female (27.2%) than male teachers (18.4%) provide mentoring to other teachers. In TALIS 2013 the percentage is nearly the same.

It is quite natural that teachers with five and more years of experience more often take the roles of mentors (28.7%) than the mentored ones (10.0%). As those surveyed claim, in Ukraine, 62.1% of teachers who have 5 or fewer years of experience have appointed mentors (average TALIS 2013 percentage is 24.8%). However the questionnaire does not address the issues revealing the nature of the mentoring programmes, neither it shows the level of their efficiency. Some further research is needed to go into the nature of mentoring programmes in Ukraine as the fact of having appointed mentor does not mean getting real expert support in induction and further professional development.

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As in most TALIS countries, teachers with permanent employment more often take the mentor's role (26.4%), than have mentors themselves (15.1%). As the received evidence show, among the teachers who work less than 30 hours a week, there is roughly the same percentage of those who work as mentors (21.5%) and those who have mentors (20.7%). Those who claim that they work more than 30 weekly hours more often perform mentor's role (26.5%).

Teachers' professional development and support

The TALIS team admits that teachers' professional development has a long-term positive effect on students' achievements (OECD, 2014). There is also some recent research that explores teacher leadership and professional development from a number of perspectives. It shows that a lot of teacher leaders emerge from a multitude of professional development activities and initiatives (Alexandrou, Swaffield, 2016). As a result, policymakers directly associate teachers' professional development with chances to improve educational systems. In this, teacher leadership plays one of the most important roles.

TALIS sought evidence of teachers' professional development by asking questions about teachers' participation in different professional development activities and their duration (in the period of the last 12 months) including activities taking place during weekends, evenings or other off work hours. In Ukraine, 98.2% of teachers claim that they have participated in at least one professional development activities in the 12 months prior to completing the questionnaire. The TALIS 2013 average is 88.4% which proves that teachers' professional development is paid much attention to.

Table 6 demonstrates participation rates and reported the personal financial cost of professional development activities undertaken by lower secondary education teachers in the 12 months prior to the survey. The second column provides information about the percentage of teachers who report that they have participated in at least one professional development activities without any support from the school (18.2% for Ukraine and 5.7% for TALIS average). The last three columns of the table demonstrated the percentage of teachers who had to pay for none, some or all of the professional development activities undertaken. In fact, two-thirds of the surveyed answered that they did not pay for the participation in professional development activities.

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Table 6. Teachers' recent professional development and personal cost involved (%)

		UKRAINE AVERAGE	TALIS AVERAGE
Percentage of teachers who undertook some professional development activities in the previous 12 months		98.2	88.4
Percentage of teachers who undertook some professional development activities in the previous 12 months without any type of support		18.2	5.7
Percentage of teachers who had to pay for none, some or all of the professional development activities undertaken	None	73.6	66.1
	Some	17.7	25.2
	All	8.7	8.6

Source: OECD, 2014b; UERA database, 2017.

In Ukraine, the percentage of teachers who report that they have paid for professional development programmes (8.7%) is nearly the same as TALIS average (8.6%). The data provided by TALIS 2013 give clear evidence that the percentage of teachers actively participating in professional development programmes is higher in the countries providing support to the teachers. The programmes provided by universities and colleges and aimed at giving teachers higher qualification levels usually involve more resources and therefore fully and partially paid for (OECD, 2014). For Ukraine, the situation is quite common as secondary and higher educational establishments are financed from different sources.

Table 7 demonstrates the dependence of the surveyed teachers' participation rates in professional development programmes on some characteristics including gender, experience, work status, and hours of work per week.

The evidence shows that the percentage of female teachers who participated in professional development activities (98.3%) is somewhat higher than the percentage of male teachers (97.9%) though the difference is quite slight. A noticeable difference in TALIS 2013 countries is observed only in the Czech Republic and Italy where female outnumbered male teachers by about 9%. As to the correlation of work experience and participation in professional development activities

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it should be noted that Ukrainian teachers with more than 5 years in profession demonstrated higher activity in participation compared to teachers with 5 and fewer years of work in education (95.9%).

Table 7. Teachers' recent professional development, by work status, experience and gender (%)

		UKRAINE AVERAGE	TALIS AVERAGE
GENDER	Male	97.9	86.8
	Female	98.3	88.9
EXPERIENCE	5 years teaching experience or less	95.9	86.5
	more than 5 years teaching experience	98.6	88.8
WORK STATUS	Permanent teachers	98.4	89.1
	Fixed-term teachers	94.7	84.6
HOURS OF WORK PER WEEK	Less than 30 hours per week	94.6	84.2
	30 hours per week or more	98.9	89.6

Source: OECD, 2014b; UERA database, 2017.

Similarly to TALIS 2013 countries, Ukrainian permanent teachers (98.4%) seem more interested in professional development than fixed-term teachers (94.7%). The same situation is observed with teachers working 30 hours per week or more (98.9%) compared to teachers working less than 30 hours per week (94.6%). In the average, in TALIS countries the teachers who work at state schools are more active in professional development programmes than those working at private schools. Nevertheless, there are countries with higher participation rates on the part of private school teachers (for instance, in Portugal, Slovak Republic, and Spain the difference is up to 6%). It would be wrong to make a conclusion about the situation in Ukraine based on

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the described research as the sampling included only one private school. In general, in Ukraine, most of the schools are state ones with only less than 1% private schools.

The research sought information about the types of professional development programmes most often offered to and taken by Ukrainian teachers. In the TALIS questionnaire (OECD, 2014b) the list included both formal and informal activities, and the conducted research provided us with the information about Ukrainian teachers' participation in them. Moreover, it provided the information that can be used for comparing Ukrainian situation with that peculiar to some countries participating in TALIS 2013.

The survey results demonstrate that the professional development activities that are the most popular with Ukrainian teachers are education conferences or seminars (where teachers and/or researchers present their research results and discuss educational issues) and participation in a network of teachers formed specifically for the professional development of teachers.

With 86,4% of teachers reporting their participation in educational conferences and seminars, Ukraine rates very high among TALIS countries where the average is 43.6%. The highest percentage is demonstrated by Croatia (79%) while there are some countries where the percentage is less than 25%: Czech Republic (22%), France (20%), Slovak Republic (25%), Spain (24%) and Belgium (Flanders) (23%). Far from being too optimistic, we assume that in different countries there is a different understanding of what educational conference/ seminar is. In Ukraine, those surveyed might mean any gathering where educational issues are discussed which do not imply either prior preparation or presenting the research carried out by the teachers.

Another common practice in Ukrainian teachers' professional development is their participation in specifically formed networks of teachers (85.4%). The percentage is much higher than the TALIS average which is 36.9%. The TALIS scale in this respect is quite broad – from 17% as the lowest (Czech Republic) to 63% as the highest (Croatia). Such a broad scale may mean a different understanding of the professional teachers' networks and different degree of their formality in different countries. In Ukraine, the teachers are members of the so-called methodological unions that are formal structures aiming at sharing the best educational practices.

The received data show that 65.4% of Ukrainian teachers participated in some courses or workshops (e.g., on subject matter or methods and/or other education-related topics) which in the average took them 10.6 days. TALIS average in this respect is 70.9% and 8.5 days. The lower percentage is demonstrated by Italy (51%), Romania (52%) and Slovak Republic (39%).

As reported (see figure 1), mentoring and/or peer observation and coaching, as part of a formal school arrangement are practiced by 67.9% of Ukrainian teachers, the percentage being really high with the TALIS average of 29.5%. As mentioned above, less than quarter of Ukrainian teachers work as mentors which may mean that such a high percentage is demonstrated due to active peer observation at Ukrainian schools. It is proved by the fact that 69,6% of Ukrainian teachers report participating in observation visits to other schools.

On the one hand, 55.9% of Ukrainian teachers claim that they participate in individual or collaborative research on a topic of professional interest and 43.8% take qualification programme (e.g., a degree programme), on the other hand, Ukraine demonstrates the lowest percentage of teachers who have Ph.D. or higher degrees.

Another aspect that requires further research is school-community partnership for creating the opportunities for fostering teacher leaders through their professional development. What the research clearly shows is that there is no real partnership of the school with business, public organisations, and non-governmental organisations. The evidence can reinforce the argument as not many Ukrainian teachers participate in observation visits to their premises (20,2%) or in in-service training courses organized by business, public organisations, or non-governmental organisations.

Figure 1. Type of professional development recently undertaken by teachers: Participation rates for each type of professional development reported to be undertaken by lower secondary education teachers in the 12 months prior to the survey (%)
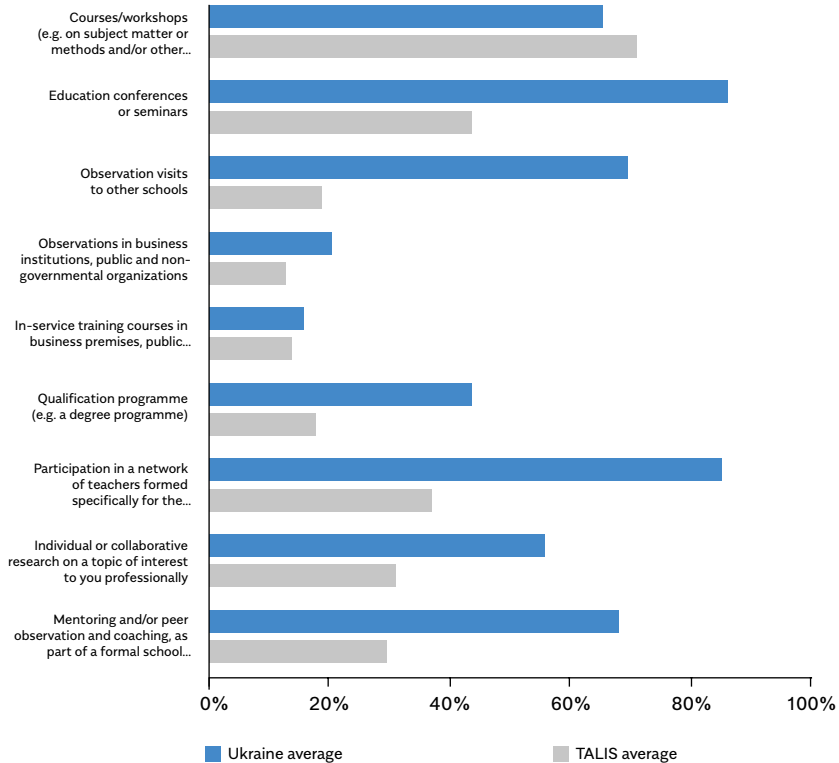
Source: OECD, 2014b; UERA database, 2017.

In the questionnaire, the teachers were asked about the positive impact of professional development activities dealing with different aspects. The surveyed Ukrainian teachers reported different levels of impact varying from 16.7% (Teaching in a multicultural or multilingual setting) to 92.0% (Pedagogical competencies in teaching their subject field(s)) (see figure 2). More than 75% admitted the positive impact of the following aspects: knowledge and understanding of their subject field(s) (90.9%); student evaluation and assessment practices (78.5%); new technologies in the workplace (76.9%). In all these

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aspects, Ukrainian teachers demonstrated higher percentage than the TALIS 2013 average. Nevertheless, the percentage of Ukrainian teachers who admitted the positive impact of school management and administration (17.2%) and teaching students with special needs (22.2%) on their professional development is considerably lower than the TALIS 2013 average.

Figure 2. Content and positive impact of professional development activities, Ukraine (%)
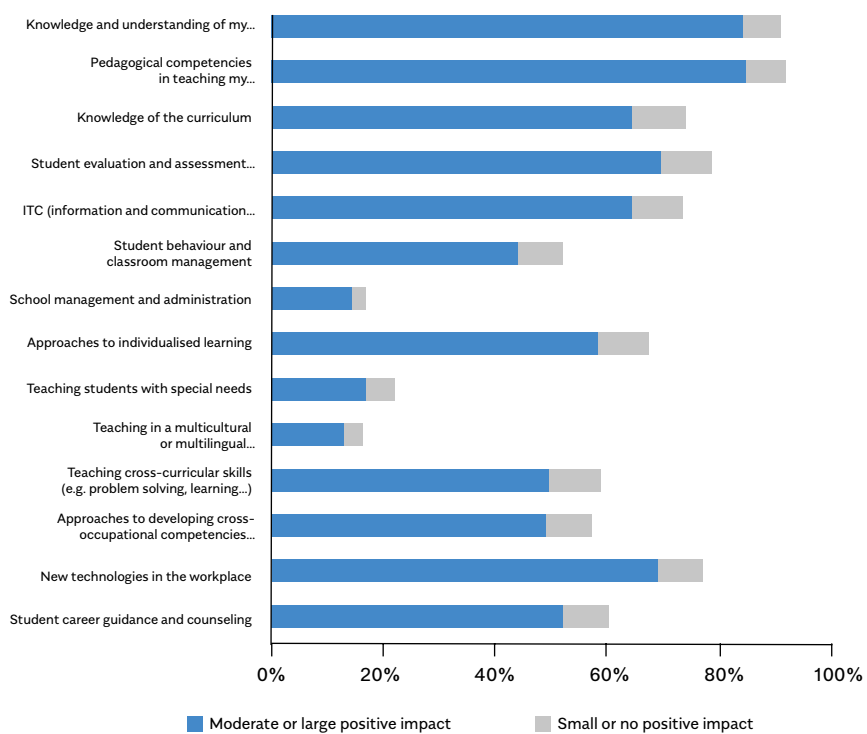
Source: OECD, 2014b; UERA database, 2017.

Teaching students with special needs has internationally been mentioned as one of the most important issues to tackle in professional development. However, only 5.6% of Ukrainian teachers reported that it should be included in professional development programmes. They are mostly interested in ICT (information and communication technology)

skills for teaching (14.1%) and new technologies in the workplace (16.8%) (see figure 3).

Figure 3. Teachers' needs for professional development
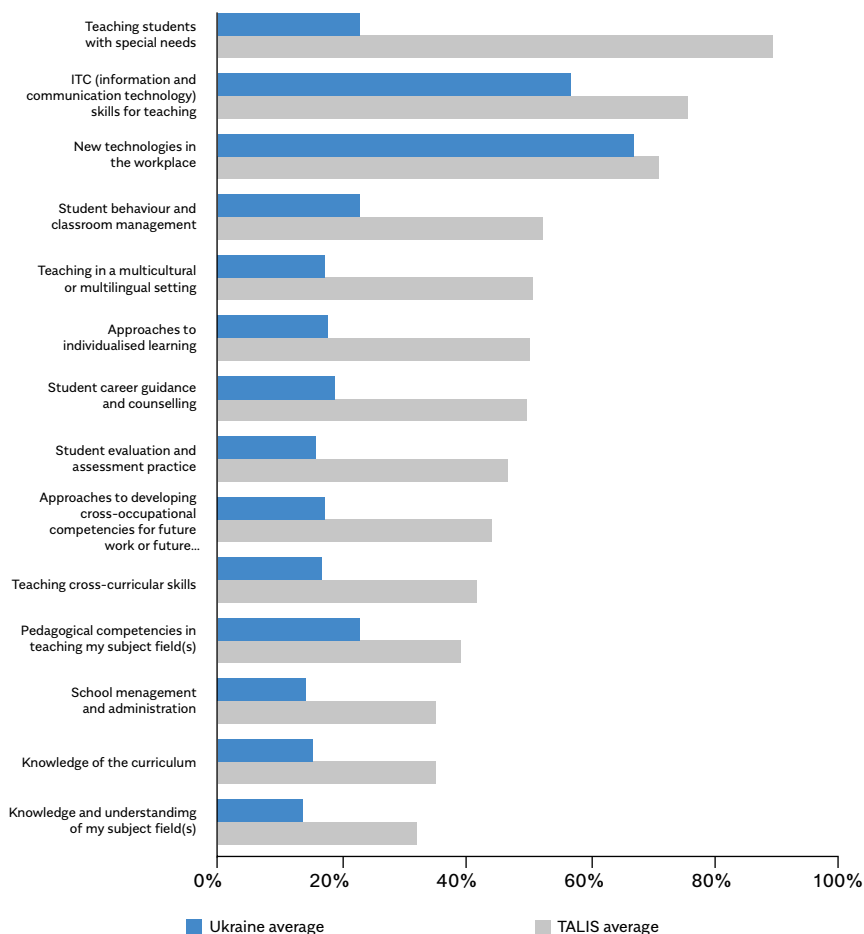
Source: OECD, 2014b; UERA database, 2017.

As the evidence shows (Table 8), the main barrier to teachers' professional development in Ukraine and in TALIS countries are that professional development conflicts with their work schedule (54% of etchers in Ukraine and 50.6% of teachers in the average

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in TALIS 2013 countries). The next important barrier to successful teacher professional development is the absence of incentives for participating in such activities (50.2% for Ukraine and 48% for the TALIS 2013 countries). It should be noted that less than 23.8% of Ukrainian teachers consider professional development too expensive/unaffordable. The percentage is much higher in Italy (83%), Portugal (85%) and Spain (80%) which shows that it is a serious problem for the countries where teachers have to fully or partially cover the expenses of the professional development programmes.

Table 8. Barriers to teachers' participation in professional development (%)

Percentage of lower secondary education teachers indicating that

they *"agree"* or *"strongly agree"* that the following reasons represent

barriers to their participation in professional development

BARRIERS TO TEACHERS' PARTICIPATION	UKRAINE AVERAGE	TALIS AVERAGE
I do not have the pre-requisites (e.g. qualifications, experience, seniority)	4.9	11.1
Professional development is too expensive/ unaffordable	23.8	43.8
There is a lack of employer support	16.5	31.6
Professional development conflicts with my work Schedule	54.0	50.6
Professional development conflicts with my work Schedule	11.5	35.7
There is no relevant professional development offered	18.8	39.0
There are no incentives for participating in such activities	50.2	48.0

Source: OECD, 2014b; UERA database, 2017.

Teachers as evaluators through their providing formal and informal feedback to other teachers

Teacher appraisal and feedback are important components of teachers leadership. The primary purpose is to provide teachers with valuable input to better understand and improve their teaching practice. However, teacher appraisal and feedback can also be used to identify

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professional development or career opportunities for teachers. They can significantly improve teachers' understanding of their teaching methods, teaching practices, and student learning. (Santiago, Benavides, 2009). They help teachers improve their teaching skills by identifying and developing specific aspects of their teaching and can improve the way teachers relate to students (Gates Foundation, 2010). As defined in TALIS, teacher assessment and feedback occurs when a teacher's work is reviewed by the school principal, an external inspector, or the teacher's colleagues (OECD, 2009). Broadly, such evaluations provide an important, and often unique, opportunity for teachers to receive feedback on their work and serve as a means of identifying what is and is not working in the classroom and why (Behn, 2003).

Table 9 demonstrates the percentage of teachers who claim to receive feedback from different sources or did not receive feedback either. To define external individuals or bodies, as used below, TALIS refers to inspectors, municipality representatives, or other persons from outside the school (OECD, 2014b).

Table 9. Sources of evaluation providing formal and informal feedback to other teachers

		UKRAINE AVERAGE	TALIS AVERAGE
Teachers received feedback as to their work from	External individuals or bodies	62.2	28.9
	School principal	84.4	54.3
	Member(s) of school management team	93.9	49.3
	Assigned mentors	24.4	19.2
	Other teachers (not a part of the management team)	44.8	41.9
Teachers never received any feedback as to their work		0.6	12.5

Source: OECD, 2014b; UERA database, 2017.

According to TALIS 2013, the average rate of the countries interviewed indicates that 87.5% of teachers receive school feedback. In this regard, Ukraine is significantly above the average, demonstrating 99.4% of teachers who receive feedback on their work. At the same time, there are differences between the predominant sources of

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feedback in Ukraine and other groups of countries. Thus, Ukrainian teachers are much more likely to receive feedback from external bodies or individuals than their colleagues from TALIS 2013 countries (62.2% and 28.9%), from the members of the school administration (93.9% and 49.3%) and the school principal (84.4% and 54.3%). The indicators of feedback from peers and mentor-teachers are close to international indicators.

When interviewing Ukrainian teachers, the study sought information about the methods used to provide feedback. These methods included feedback on the basis of direct observation of classroom teaching, student surveys about teaching, assessment of content knowledge, an analysis of students' test scores, self-assessment of teachers work (e.g., presentation of a portfolio assessment) and surveys or discussions with parents or guardians. Table 10 shows the percentage of teachers who claim they have received feedback using such forms and methods.

Table 10. Forms and methods of feedback to teachers (average)

	UKRAINIAN AVERAGE	TALIS AVERAGE
Direct observation of classroom teaching	98.7	78.8
Students' surveys about teaching	90.8	53.3
Assessment of field knowledge	92.1	54.8
An analysis of students' test results	93.1	63.6
Self-assessment of teachers work	92.1	52.7
Surveys or discussions with parents or guardians	84.2	53.4

Źródło: OECD, 2014b; Baza danych UERA, 2017 r.

Regarding each feedback method, Ukraine shows the higher percentage of teachers who claim they receive feedback from this method then the average of TALIS countries, OECD members, and PISA leaders. The feedback following direct observation of classroom teaching is recognized as the most common method in Ukraine for providing feedback to teachers about their work (98.7%). The vast majority of Ukrainian teachers argue that one of the most common methods for providing feedback is the analysis of students' test scores

(93.1%), assessment of content knowledge (92.1%), and the results of the students' surveys about teaching (90.8%). The discussions with parents or guardians are estimated to be the lowest.

Together with the methods of getting feedback TALIS study sought information about areas, which are applied to give a feedback. The questionnaire provides eleven aspects of schooling that were presented to teachers.

Table 11 demonstrates eleven key areas of feedback to teachers in Ukraine presented in an increasing order. Into account was taken the percentage of teachers who emphasized the following areas as "important" or "very important" for receiving feedback. For comparison, the average data of the international TALIS survey is given.

Table 11. Areas applied to give feedback

	UKRAINIAN TEACHERS	TALIS AVERAGE
Student performance	87.3	87.5
Knowledge and understanding of the subject field(s)	88.7	83.5
Pedagogical competencies in teaching my subject field(s)	89.6	86.8
Student assessment practices	85.0	83.0
Student behaviour and classroom management	77.5	86.9
Teaching of students with special needs	25.7	68.7
Teaching in a multicultural or multilingual setting	19.2	43.7
The feedback provided to other teachers to improve their teaching	40.7	57.4
Feedback from parents or guardians	48.2	70.8
Student feedback	56.1	79.1
Collaboration or working with other teachers	73.6	80.7

Source: OECD, 2014b; UERA database, 2017.

The information provided by the two groups of teachers demonstrates an equally significant level of importance for students' performance when providing feedback to teachers about their work (87.3% and

87.5%). The replies of Ukrainian respondents and respondents from the TALIS survey on average about pedagogical competencies in teaching the subject field(s) vary in a small amount (89.6% and 86.8% respectively). As well as minor variations are seen between countries in areas of knowledge and understanding of the subject field(s) (88.7% and 83.5%), and assessment of students' skills (85.0% and 83.0%). To some extent, indicators on areas: of students behaviour and classroom management (77.5% and 86.9%), feedback provided to other teachers to improve their teaching (40.7% and 57.4%), assessment of teachers by students (56.1% and 79.1%), as well as the assessment of teachers by parents or guardians (48.2% and 70.8%) are given less value by Ukrainian teachers when receiving feedback.

No doubt, regardless of any specific form of teacher assessment and feedback, they look very fair and accurate ways of teachers' appraisal. Though classroom observations is regarded as the most common assessment tool used in all above-mentioned countries (Ukraine, TALIS countries), the teachers' surveys, teacher-developed portfolios, and student outcomes may also be a useful instrument for teachers' professional development, depending on the context. Regardless of the specific ways of feedback for teachers, as discussed above, it is clear that they hold the potential to impact teachers' leadership through their professional development.

Discussion

As outlined in this paper, teacher leadership has a powerful potential for introducing change into education. Nevertheless, in Ukraine, this opportunity is somewhat underestimated and is not paid proper attention to. First of all, it is seen through the interconnection of teacher leadership and school autonomy. As long as the school enjoys a selective autonomy without having a real impact on all the spheres of school life we cannot speak about teacher leadership in all its dimensions. If the school is deeply stuck in the web of state control and imposed values and beliefs, no teacher leadership may flourish. Educational, financial and administrative issues are all closely connected each other in the education, thus without the possibility to influence all of them teachers cannot be free to take decisions concerning the life of the school community. In our opinion, it is more the matter of trust, when the state is not ready to entrust the teachers with the freedom to decide

on the principal issues in the sphere of their expertise. On the other hand, without gaining this freedom, teachers do not learn to take a real responsibility which is the cornerstone of teacher leadership.

In the line with the first issue comes the role of teacher leadership in forming school culture which is based on collegial environment, problem-solving orientation, trust, and clear communication. All experience tends to show that a lot of new teachers come to school believing that they can change the world of education for the better. Then, when they get in the narrow corner of school life where they cannot see 'the big picture' and cannot take even minor decisions, they can get disappointed and experience a professional burnout.

It seems to us that doing meaningful long-term tasks dealing with school administration can bring about the teacher leadership. What is even more important in this respect is that the teachers should have a clear vision of the future of their school. If they have a shared vision, they will contribute to developing the strategies as well as to organizing pioneering practices in school. By 'shared vision' we mean the picture of the school development created by teachers and school administration in mutual respect and collaboration. As seen from the research, teachers and official school leadership team see their school culture differently. At this point, we again refer to freedom and responsibility entrusted to teachers as the main prerequisites for fostering teacher leadership.

Another principal thing about teacher leadership is active participation and honest feedback on everything what is going on at their school. The teachers should voice out the opinions they have and not what the others could anticipate to hear from them. The matter of integrity is crucial not only for today's educationalists in the field of theory but also for educational practitioners. As feedback is an important issue to tackle, the teacher leaders should learn to give it to their students and colleagues. It is also important for teachers' continuing professional development. In Ukraine, teachers have sufficient opportunities to participate in professional development activities. It is also important that they should actively participate in organizing the activities and on deciding what is important for them. Then the teacher leaders can lead the others to positive changes in their school and education in general.

Together, our findings lead to the conclusion that though teacher leaders are in high demand in Ukraine, there are some crucial problems

to solve before they can enrich all spheres of school life with their zest and creativity.

Although further work is required to gain a more complete understanding of how teacher leaders can help their colleagues to implement effective teaching strategies, how they can ensure consistent curriculum implementation throughout a school, how they can engage their peers in using data to strengthen the instruction, as well as how they can participate in developing a shared vision in the process of breaking the status quo and looking for better ways.

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Teacher leadership in higher education in Laos
Challenges and opportunities

Bouakhong Keo Asa, Joanna Madalińska-Michalak

The paper presents the derived findings from the study on successful leadership strategies in improving quality of teacher education in Laos. The special attention is paid to the issue of teacher leadership in higher education in Laos and the challenges and opportunities of this leadership. The first part of the paper is devoted to the description of the educational system in Laos with focus on higher education and structures of education administration and management, including the ministry and local governance. The second part presents the chosen findings on teacher leadership in higher education in Laos and its challenges and opportunities. The recommendations on key policy issues for teacher leadership in their organizations for organizational success are formulated.

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Introduction

Leadership is a complex concept and it is hardly impossible to formulate one proper, generally accepted definition of it (Madalińska-Michalak, 2015, p. 33). It may be viewed as process and relationships whereby an individual (or group of individuals) influence a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. One form of leadership can be teacher leadership within educational institutions. It plays an essential role in the provision of quality education and in ensuring equal educational possibility for all learners (the report of Trade Union Committee for Education, 2012). Teacher leadership creates conditions for effective teaching and learning in schools, provides the necessary resources, supports and motivates their teachers and students. Teachers as leaders can help create and maintain a positive institution climate and a culture of peace, cooperation, hard work, order and discipline in their institutions for the benefit of the whole institution community (the report of Trade Union Committee for Education, 2012).

A very interesting from of leadership is teacher leadership in higher education institutions. Leaders, who are responsible for leading colleagues in their universities, faculties, departments, offices and schools, are called academic leaders and they influence on their colleagues who are academics, teachers, other professionals, and students to achieve the goals of the institutions (Trash, 2012; OECD, 2013). They usually, but not always, occupy such administrative positions as heads of departments, program coordinators, directors or the vice-directors, heads of subject or vice-heads, heads of divisions, deans, associate deans, vice-chancellors and rectors.

Academic leaders embrace a number of managing and leading functions within the institutions. The key leadership roles, based on position of power structure in such higher education institution as university, are played by rectors and deans. They take responsibilities and duties for various tasks, for instance within university hierarchy, the deans have the ability to control information, accumulate and allocated resources and assess the performance of their faculties, colleges and staff. They play their roles as both middle managers within the university and head of academic officers of their specific colleges (Wood, 2004; Trash, 2012). Also, they play important roles as stakeholders in the organization because they supply the leadership for the faculty as well as for other areas of the university (Qablan, 2005).

We can observe the inadequate trainings for becoming the deans – a number of deans grow from ranks of the faculty to the deanship position. Often, deans arise from the leadership styles of academic, their background, experienced years, followers, education and natural manner (Kolb, Kolb, 2005). Academic deans have to act as manager as well leaders. They like all managers, have to plan, organize and control. Within these typical management duties, the dean must delegate and with the assistance of those in his or her direct report, set goals and determine how the college will go about meeting them (Thrash, 2012; Gmelch, 2004). The effective academic deans must be cultural representative of their college, good communicators, skilled managers, forward-looking planners, advocates for the university and have ability to manage change (Del Favero, 2006).

The leaders as middle managers practice their leadership functions associated with five dimensions or aspects of organization including: the curriculum, operational development and resources management, human relationship, symbols and culture and context of decision-making (Busher, Harris, Wise, 2000). This is supported by Partington and Stainton (2003), who assert that middle leaders get involved in a number of activities within the organization such as *organizing, planning, monitoring, resourcing, controlling and evaluating, as well as leading*.

In this paper the derived findings from the study on successful leadership strategies in teacher education in Laos are presented[1]. The special attention is paid to the issue of teacher leadership in higher education in Laos and the challenges and opportunities of this leadership. In the study, which was conducted in 2015-2017, the qualitative research methods were used. The study is based on collective case study method. In order to gain different kinds of materials the qualitative interviews, observations, and documents analysis were employed. A number of texts, relevant to the research, in both Lao and English were examined, including background literature, journal articles, government documents, consultants' reports, donors' reports,

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1.   B. Keo Asa (2017). *Successful Leadership Strategies in Improving Teacher Education for Prospective Primary Teachers in Laos*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation written under the supervision of Prof. Joanna Madalińska-Michalak. Warsaw: Faculty of Education University of Warsaw.

annual reports, agenda, administrative and academic documents and some studies undertaken in Laos by a range of cooperative donor projects. The key areas of reading included Lao educational policy and structures, educational leadership, college and school leadership, and decentralization.

We investigate the teacher leadership in high education: challenges and opportunities. We are seeing more and more attention given to the summarizing and synthesizing of research results to cull from the collection of research results that which holds promise and importance in the field.

Education in Laos – general picture

Laos is a landlocked country. It is located in the Southeast Asia. It share borders with five countries: China to the north, Vietnam to the east, Cambodia to the south, Thailand to the west and Myanmar to the northwest. Laos as a country is an ethnically diverse country of 6.5 million people. More than 80% of the population lives in the rural villages. Most of them engaged in subsistence agriculture. Laos is one of the least developed country in the world. Recently, there have seen rapid economic development growth with an average of 7.1% within the country, however, approximately 34% of population lives on less than $ 1.25 per day. The country has some of the weakest education indicators in Asia. Laos has been governed by a single party from 1975 until the present time.

Over the period of education reform, there have been changes in the educational systems of Laos and in higher education, especially in teacher training colleges. The change in higher education can be seen very clearly in the data concerning the reduction the existing institutions such as teacher training colleges as well as in establishment of new branches of the universities in all parts of Laos. In 1991 there were 59 teacher training colleges and in 2000 they were reduced to 10 of them (including the National University of Laos). This action was taken in response to the demands of financial country situation, the priorities of policy and the management of higher education. At present, there are eight Teacher Training Colleges (TTCs) and four universities across the country. These colleges gather 18,756 teacher trainees, of whom 10,467 are girls. Among the students of the colleges, there are 1,939 (1,938 female) trainees for kindergarten teacher education, 2,688

(1,302 females) for primary teacher education, 9,872 (5,055 females) in lower secondary school teacher education and 4,257 (2,172 females) at bachelor degree level. Regarding the staff, there are 979 teaching staff and 147 administrative staff (MoE, DTE Annual summary report 2016-2017).

System oświaty

Formal education in Laos consists of five levels: primary education (five years), upper secondary education (four years), upper secondary education (three years), vocational and technical education (one or three years) and tertiary education (three years to seven years, regarding to the subject areas).

The level of education after primary school, referred to as secondary education, caters to children and adolescent who range in age from 11-16 years old, and it is divided into stages: lower secondary education and upper secondary education. Lower secondary education caters from 11 to 13 years old (Grade 6-8), whereas upper secondary education from 14 to 16 year old (Grade 9-11). This 3-3 system in secondary education has been in the reform process since 2007 under the National Education System Reform Strategy (NESRS). After the completion of the reform, lower secondary education has been extended to four years, catering from 11- to 14-year-olds. Upper secondary school is further divided into streams, namely, general education and vocational education (which includes teacher training).

Educational policies

The Government of Laos considers education as a crucial priority and has identified it together with the agriculture, education, health, infrastructure (particularly rural roads) as one of the pillar of the poverty reduction strategy. The government establishes the basic educational level that should be attained by all Lao citizens, who must receive primary education equally regardless of race, religion, sex, ethnicity, and social/economic status. All pupils must complete primary schooling. Education services can be provided in the form of either public or private schooling. However, the content must aim to develop children physically and mentally with high capability in compliance with the curriculum designed by the Ministry of Education. The government

and the citizens have to join efforts to be responsible for education management and services in all public primary schools.

Financial supports for education
After Laos established the country as Lao P.D.R in 1975, the Lao government pays a lot of attention on improvement of educational sector: from the basic education as kindergartens to higher educational level. Based on the annual educational development plans and reports from Ministry of Education, the Lao government allocated financial budgets for educational sector from 10% to 16% of the national expenditures. However, the financial issues of education are still inadequate resource in accordance with local educational communities. The revenue marked for districts is largely insufficient to provide adequate financing for public services at this level. Provincial budget support is in most cases required, but this support is by no means guaranteed. As a result, there is a low budget for managing schools, schools are under the support of communities who are not able to allocate the amount of money for school operation and maintenance and payment of teacher salaries are systematically in arrears by several months.

The fiscal decentralization and de-concentration of operational responsibilities to provinces and districts has left the social sectors without adequate safeguards to ensure minimum needs in the poorest regions of the country and among the poorest groups of the population. Regarding the networking, the information disconnects between central and provincial education authorities, weakening the utility of the government plans. The other problems, which the Lao government has found, were that at the local level such as the Provincial Education Service and District Education Bureau. They did not have the financial planning and expenditure monitoring capabilities to assume the role specified by the regulations. There is no attempt to link budgeting with education development planning. Although there appears to be a proper financial accounting control system in place and its application did not provide assurance with regard to efficiency and appropriateness of resource use as well as the imbalance between recurrent and capital expenditure. There is no mechanism, however, to ensure an appropriate balance between budgeted investment and recurrent outlays at the local levels.

The combined investment budget of local governments is over three times the size of their recurrent budget and significantly exceeds the investment budget approved by the National Assembly. Such a level of investment is unsustainable relative to available resources and there are signs that investment is crowding out local recurrent expenditure during budget execution, much to the disadvantage of the social sectors. To overcome those problems, the Lao government had to share the education expenditure in relation to total public expenditure which increased from 2004 share of 11. 8% up to 18% by the year 2015 (MOES, 2008, p. 3). This increase is needed to meet recurrent expenditures required to sustain investments in the quality of human resources which related to academic work such as, the relevance of curriculum/educational materials, textbooks and necessary equipment. Additionally, most international assistance has been focused to strengthen the schools at primary education level, the National University of Laos, and teacher training colleges. Secondary education has received so far little external support, mainly based on government budget and parental support.

Education administration

The MOE manages the largest civilian workforce in the Lao PDR. The education sector employed more than 56,000 staff in 2006-2007 (Ministry of Education, April 2008 a.) The MOE is also complex because of various lines of communication and authority. The MOE is hierarchically structured at both central, province and district levels. The MOE is the government's central education organization. It has a secretariat role and function for the Party Central Committee and government in educational matters, in planning and determining policy, as well as supervising, leading, implementing and controlling the educational tasks nationwide. Therefore, the MOE is responsible for formal and non-formal education at all levels, and for both public and private education, for which the MOE has oversight and responsibility.

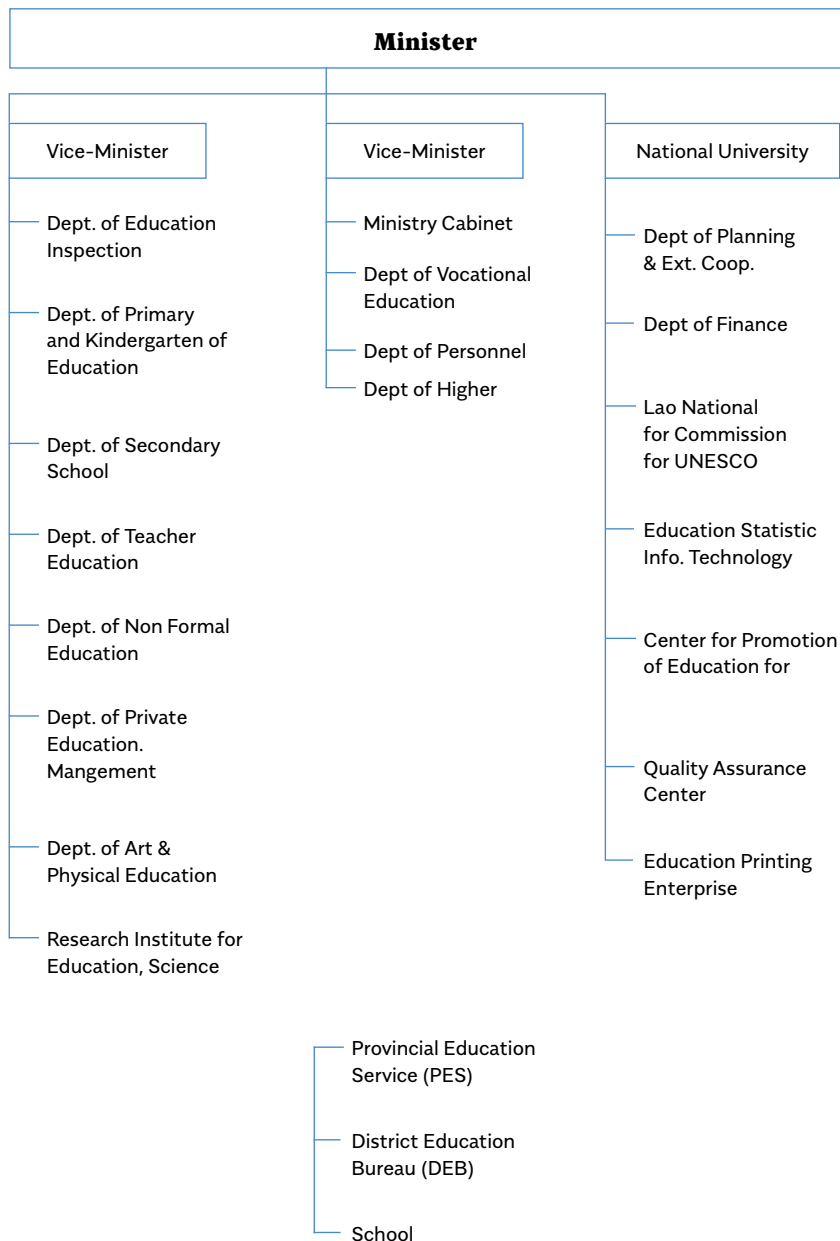Specifically, the responsibilities of the MOE and its associated organizations include teacher recruitment and employment, curriculum development, textbook writing and publication, teacher education, vocational education, higher education, planning and co-operation, education finance (including development of the national education budget by setting the budgetary and regulatory framework so that

provincial and district can operate within the framework) and overall personnel management in the system as well as establishing school standards and education quality assurance.

In 2008, the MOE conducted an organizational audit and restructured its organization supported by the Prime Minister's Decree on MOE's Organization and Function No62/PM/07 (MOES a, 07 April 2008). The reorganization of education administration and management is made up of two levels: the macro (the MOE) and local levels (the PESs and DEBs – with no mention of the community level).

In 2008, the MOE conducted an organizational audit and restructured its organization supported by the Prime Minister's Decree on MOE's Organization and Function No. 2239/MOE.CB.08 (MOES b, 07 September 2008). The reorganization of education administration and management is made up of two following levels: the macro level, called MOES, and local level, namely Provincial Education Services (PESs) and District Education Bureaus (DEBs). This organization can be shown as below (Figure 1).

Figure 1: The organization of the administration and management of education in Laos

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│                          Minister                                │
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┌──────────────────┐     ┌──────────────────┐     ┌──────────────────┐
│  Vice-Minister   │     │  Vice-Minister   │     │ National University│
└──────────────────┘     └──────────────────┘     └──────────────────┘
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Vice-Minister	Vice-Minister	National University
Dept. of Education Inspection	Ministry Cabinet	Dept of Planning & Ext. Coop.
Dept. of Primary and Kindergarten of Education	Dept of Vocational Education	Dept of Finance
Dept. of Secondary School	Dept of Personnel	Lao National for Commission for UNESCO
Dept. of Teacher Education	Dept of Higher	Education Statistic Info. Technology
Dept. of Non Formal Education		Center for Promotion of Education for
Dept. of Private Education. Mangement		Quality Assurance Center
Dept. of Art & Physical Education		Education Printing Enterprise
Research Institute for Education, Science		

- Provincial Education Service (PES)
- District Education Bureau (DEB)
- School

Source: MOE Decree No.2239/MOE.CB.08, dated 7 September 2008.

There are 12 departments, one cabinet, one commission and one institution. There are also some centers and enterprises which are responsible for the supervision of the ministry levels (see the MOE organization Chart above). Each department has its own responsibilities, administrative arrangements and relationship with the provincial and district services. Although universities are considered to be autonomous institutions, they are still under supervision of the MOE at the macro level.

Department of Teacher Education is one organization within MOE. This organization is responsible for technical and financial supporting for eight Teacher Education Institutions in Laos. Each teacher education institution is managed by a board of directors (a director and three vice-directors) who works with the Management Council and Teachers Council. Their leadership roles are to make the developing plan of the institution, plan of capacity building of academic staff, management, budget, support and inspect each office within institutions or college. Other roles are to work cooperatively with outside organizations such as PES, DEB, Schools and communities in order to develop teaching-learning process. Each TEI has 10 Offices: Academic Promotion Office, Natural Science, Social Science, Primary Teacher Training Office (PTTO), Foreign Language Office, Teacher Development Office, Students Affairs Office, Management Finance Office, Personnel Administration Office and Assessment and Evaluation Office. These Offices are composed of 34 Units.

PTTO is responsible for educating primary teacher trainees who will be serving as primary school teachers after the completion of the course. The PTTO is managed by a board of head offices (a head office, a vice-head office) and heads of the Units and they work interactively with a board of TTC directors and heads of other offices within institution and outside organization in improving teaching. Their leadership roles are to observe teaching-learning process within office, inquiry and developing teaching-learning, observation of teacher trainees' teaching, organizing workshops within the office, data collection of teaching. Other roles of head office to work collaboratively with outside organizations, especially with DEB and schools during period of trainee's teaching practicum in supporting, giving feedback, providing materials and teaching techniques (drawn based on the Ministerial Decree No. 814/MOE.PO/10, 09 April 2010).

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Figure 2. The Organizational Structure of the Teacher Training Institution
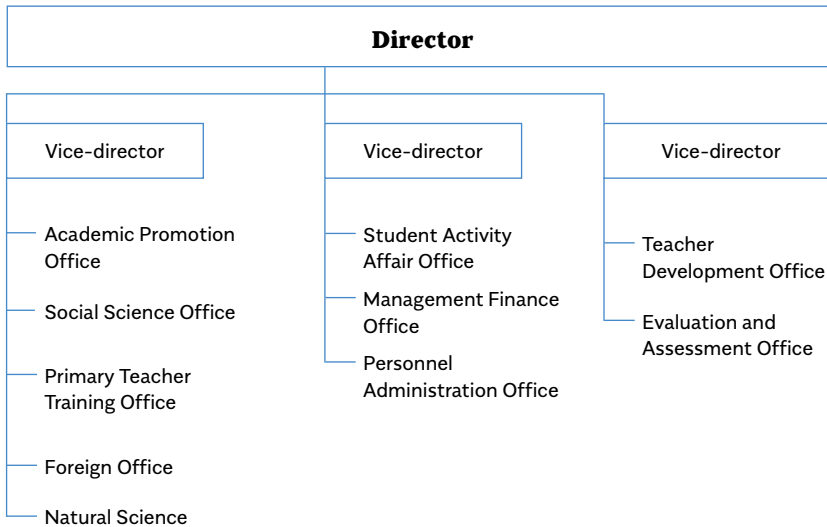
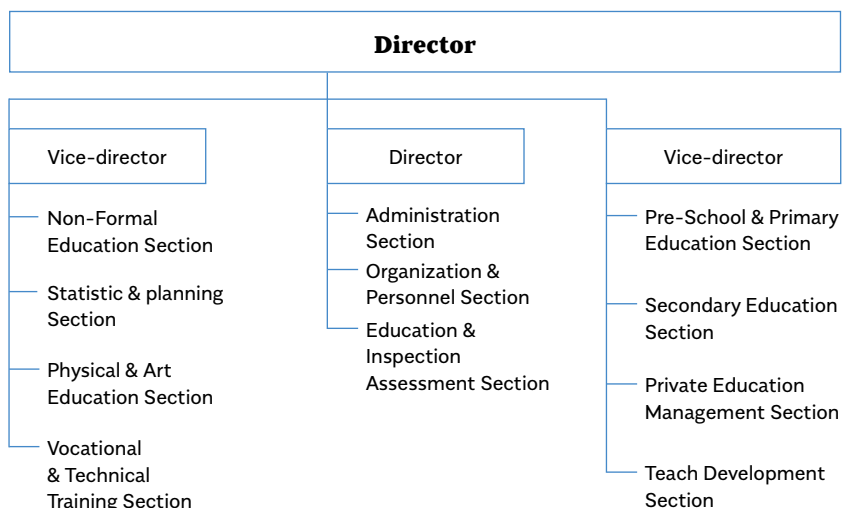Source: MEO Decree No. 814/MOE.PO/10, dated 09 April 2010.

MOES (2006) proposed the policy of improvement of Teacher Education Institution network in this own region that each TEI should re-organize its Advisory Council. The Advisory Council should be comprised of representatives of community and business organizations, Department of Teacher Education (DTE), Provincial Education Service (PES) and District Education Bureau (DEB). Professional development in primary schools is supported by professional coordination networks involving the TEI, Pedagogical Advisers and other staff from PES and DEB, Teacher Upgrading Centers and cluster schools in order for encouragement of teaching.

The local level comprises PESs and DEBs. The PES and the DEB largely have operational responsibility for implementing primary and secondary education. However, under the government's de-concentration process, initiated in 2000, the MOE shares responsibilities with the PES and the DEB as stated in Article 62 of the new Education Law 2007 on education administration and management organization. *The government has centralized responsibilities of education management, ensuring the national education system is delivered nationwide. The MOE is directly in*

charge of the education administration and management. Educational administration and management organizations comprise the MOE, PES, Capital Education Services, DEB and Prefectures (translated by the researcher based on the Education Law article 62, National Assembly No.25/NA, 6 May 2003).

Provincial Education Service is the vertical administration and management organization for the MOE at the provincial level. The PES's role is to provide guidance and leadership, implement, inspect and evaluate education administration, management and development within its province in accordance with the government policy. The PES is regarded as an arm of the MOE but it also reports to the governor or, in the case of municipality, to the mayor. The governor, technically equivalent to a minister in rank, has considerable power in determining inter-sectoral priorities and appointments of PES personnel. The PES is responsible for (i) secondary schools, and (ii) technical and vocational schools, which are not under the control of the MOE. The PES consists of 11 sections, which have their own responsibilities, administrative arrangements and relationship to the MOE departments and units in the DEB (draw based on the Ministerial Decree No. 1584/MOE.DoP.09, 03 July 2009 a).

Figure 3. The Organizational Structure of the Provincial Education Service and Sports

Director		
Vice-director	**Director**	**Vice-director**
Non-Formal Education Section	Administration Section	Pre-School & Primary Education Section
Statistic & planning Section	Organization & Personnel Section	Secondary Education Section
Physical & Art Education Section	Education & Inspection Assessment Section	Private Education Management Section
Vocational & Technical Training Section		Teach Development Section

Source: MOE Decree No 1572/MOE.DoP.09, dated 03 Jul 2009

The DEB is the lowest local office of the national education administration. According to the Ministerial Decree No 1572/MoE. DoP.09 (MOE, 03 July 2009 b), the DEB is a vertical administration and management organization for the MOE at the district level. The DEB's role is to provide guidance and leadership, implement, inspect, monitor and evaluate education development within its district. The DEB is regarded as an arm of the PES but it also reports to the district chief. The district chief has considerable power in determining inter-sectoral priorities and appointments of DEB personnel. The DEB comprises 8 units (see the DEB organization chart below). Each unit has its own responsibility and administrative arrangements and relationships with sections in the PES and schools. The DEB assists schools and communities in their planning of primary and pre-school education and prepares a district plan for each academic year and each school semester. The DEB is responsible for pre-schools, primary schools and non-formal education institutions in its own district.

Figure 4. The organizational structure of the District Education Bureau and Sports
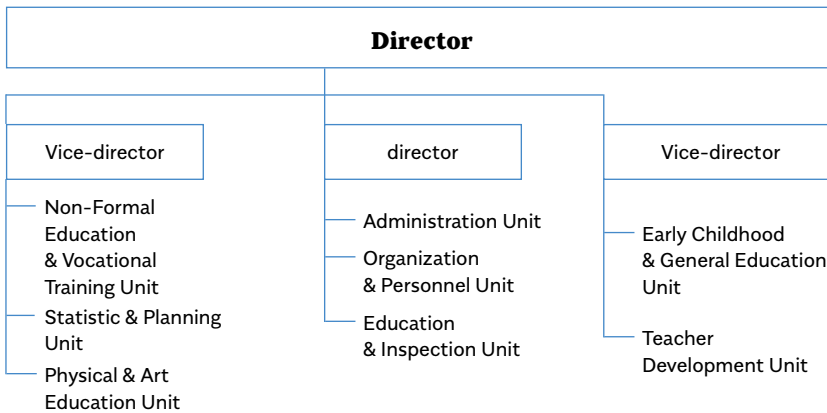
Source: MOE Decree No. 1584/MOE.DoP.09, dated 03 Jul 2009

In conclusion, the leadership of education organization in both central and local levels is hierarchically structured. The leaders of each institution has own responsibilities determined by MOE who

is responsible for planning, determining policy as well as supervising, leading, implementing and controlling the education tasks nationwide. While the leaders in each different level play their roles accordingly, therefore, the top leader of each organization seem to play important roles in leading and building capacity of their organization in order to achieve their goals.

Monitoring and inspection

Responsibilities for assuring the quality of instruction and education in Lao education service are mainly divided in three levels including District Education Bureau, Provincial Education Service and Quality Assurance Centers.

DEB is in charge of inspecting the quality of instruction at the primary education levels. This office makes an inspection of teaching according to the PES guidance, at the same time responsibility for assuring the quality of instruction and school operations at the secondary level rests with the PES, which has two or three inspectors who are responsible for ensuring school compliance with MOE regulations. However, primary and secondary schools seldom receive an inspection visit since funds for inspectors' transportation and expenses are limited.

Both primary and secondary education pedagogical advisory system began in 1995/1996 with World Bank support. In reality, these pedagogical advisers are not responsible for monitoring compliance but try to support teachers in their use of the new curriculum. Under decentralization management system, responsibility for school operations is largely left to the school principal.

While, the Quality Assurance Center (QAC) newly established in 2013 is responsible for assuring the quality of instruction and college operations at the teacher training colleges, which has three inspectors who are responsible for ensuring college compliance with Teacher Training Department and MOE regulations. However, the QAC does not function properly yet due to limitation of funds and staff's skills, so college rarely receive an inspection visit.

Teacher education in Laos

In 1975, the political situation in Indochina changed dramatically. The citizen of Cambodia, Laos and Vietnam gained victories in their struggles for a socialist society. Following independent period, a strong

government commitment of Lao PDR to developing citizens or human resource nationwide, more teacher education institutions were opened to cater for the increase in demand for teachers created by the expansion in school enrollment rate.

As a result, teacher education in Laos was offered through a variety of preparation programs such as one year, two-, three- or four-year training programs in teacher education colleges and four-year training program in the faculty of education at universities. Course offerings may be pursued through government supported teacher education colleges and universities accredited by the Ministry of Education and Sports.

General characteristics of teacher education

Over the period of educational reform, teacher education institutions were reduced from 59 in 1991 to 10 (including University of Laos) in 2000. This action was taken in responding to realistic financial status, actual management and training quality assurance. In 2003, there were eight Teacher Training Colleges (TTCs) across the country. Technically and financially, these eight TTCs have been under the management and guidance of the Department of Teacher Training Education in the MOES. However, ideologically and politically, these institutions were under the supervision of the Provincial Education and Sports Office. Since secondary schooling has been changed, primary teacher training programs at TTCs also have changed and developed.

Currently, the primary teacher training program remains three programs: 9+3 systems, 12+2 systems and 12+4 systems. These programs have trained teacher students to be as teachers of primary schools who have ability to teach all class subjects at primary schools after graduation.

The lower teacher training program remains 12 +4 systems. This program has trained teacher students to be as the teachers of lower secondary schools who are able to teach at the lower secondary schools after the completion of their studies.

In 2006, the Ministry of Education and Sports (MOES) has implemented the reform of the general education by extending one more year for lower secondary education from three-year cycle to be four-year schools. Currently, general education in Laos offers 5+4+3 schooling for students (12-year schooling in the general education). Since the general education has changed, teacher education institutions

across the country have also been reformed and each teacher training school is promoted to be Teacher Education Institutions. Teacher training programs have been developed and remained only three programs, namely 9+3 systems, 12+2 systems and 12+4 systems.

Table 1: Eight Teacher Training Colleges in Laos

NAME OF TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGES	SUPPLYING TEACHER FOR	LEVEL OF MANAGEMENT
Bankeun	Lower secondary schools, primary schools, kindergartens	MoE and Provincial government
Dong Kham Xang	primary schools, kindergartens	MoE
Luang Nam Tha	Lower secondary schools, primary schools, kindergartens	MoE and Provincial government
Luang Prabang	Lower secondary schools, primary schools, kindergartens	MoE and Provincial government
Paske	Lower secondary schools, primary schools, kindergartens	MoE and Provincial government
Savannakhet	Lower secondary schools, primary schools, kindergartens	MoE and Provincial government
Saravan	primary schools, kindergartens	MoE and Provincial government
Xieng Khouang	Lower secondary schools, primary schools, kindergartens	MoE and Provincial government

Source: MoE, 2012

### Structure of teacher education and recruitment system

The work of a teacher in Laos seems to be unpopular among young citizen, especially young citizen who live in cities. According to report of Teacher Training and Recruitment into the Teaching Profession (TTEST, 2004), 76% of teacher trainees entered into teacher education institutions come from poor farming family and there is no option for them to have access to other colleges.

Recruitment of teacher trainees is based on different rules and policies. One of primary policies on which the selection process is based on the selection regulation set by the MOES. However, the actually

selection process at the implementation level (province) is not clearly spelled out. The selection of teacher trainees for entrance into teacher education is a complicated process which mainly involves two tracks: quota and non-quota candidates. The non-quota selection process is managed by Teacher Training Colleges, whereas the quota recruitment system involves several hierarchical levels ranging from the Ministry of Education and Sports (MOES) to provincial, district and college levels.

The quota recruitment system is through several processes. Firstly, the Administration Department in Prime Minister Office allocates a number of quota students based on retirement of staff and send this quota number to MOES. Secondly, MOES allocates quota students for each Provincial Education Service and Sports Office (PESS) in whole country. Thirdly, PESS allocates quota students to each District Education Sport Bureau (DESB), DESB select students in their local areas according to local demand and send back them to PESS and then Teacher Education Institutions receives students sent by PESS as shown in Figure 5:

Figure 5. Quota-student selection process in Laos
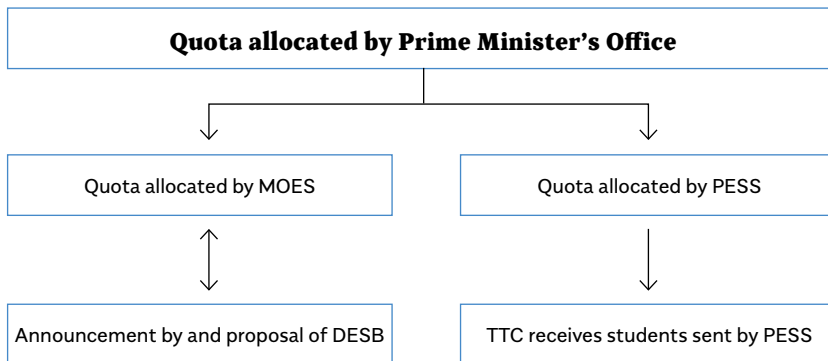
Source: TTEST, 2004, p.8.

In a brief summary, current teacher education reforms are based on general education system changed, three systems: 5+3, 5+4 and 8+1 were eliminated, two systems: 9+3, 12+2 are existed (before called

as 8+3 and 11+2, now called 9+3 and 12+2. This is because one more year is added in secondary schooling) and new system as 12+4 has been introduced.

Main Principles

Teacher education is academic and takes place in colleges. The main instructions are both general subjects, subject matter and teaching methodology. Psychological and social education are taught as important subjects as well. Theory are instructed in class and practice are organized at the final year of studies in order to help teacher trainees to link theory and practice in daily teaching problems. Pedagogical studies and content knowledge studies go close together.

The role of the teacher in the social context is emphasized. Teachers are qualified for post-graduate studies. School teachers receive college education and training at certificate level comprising 96 credits (two years, high certificate qualification to teach at primary schools), 110 credits (three years, medium certificate qualification to teach in rural primary schools) and 145 credits (four years, bachelor qualification to teach in primary schools). Pedagogical studies are organized in teacher training colleges under the supervision of the department of teacher education. The schools in which a major part of student pedagogical practice is conducted are linked organically with the department of teacher education. Student teaching practicum is undertaken in regular schools around the country. After graduation from a college, students get certificate and are licensed as teachers and may apply for teaching positions in primary schools.

Challenges of Teacher Leadership in Teacher Education

Regarding the situation in Laos, one can say that educational leadership at national and local levels in Laos has faced a number of challenges. These include *a limitation of skilled human resources and ineffective leadership teams, low public funding, ineffectiveness of quality assurance system, difficulty of implementation of laws, rules and regulations, weak provision of educational data, conflicting line of decision making and coordination at local and central levels, weak involvement of local communities in education development* (MOES, 2006; MOES, 2008c; MOES, 2012a).

At the central level (i.e., Ministry of Education and Sport, universities and colleges, one of the challenge is limited competent and capable human resource in Ministry of Education and Sport (MOES) lines. MOES suffers from a severe shortage of well-trained, competent and dedicated administrative staff. It is also observed that many of the best trained and most competent staff is more than 50 years old. Some of the employee from this group will retire in a few forthcoming years. Therefore, a very strong issue is the preparation of the staff for work and the staff replacement with well-trained young workers who will take over the jobs from those who will retire soon (Kittiphanh, 2011). As noted by Ogawa (2009) that staff at the Department of Higher Education, Ministry of Education and Sports had inadequate knowledge and skills to determine policy, improve higher education curriculum and create evaluation and monitoring standards for the higher education system.

The other broad challenge facing leadership involves limited financial resources to the education sector in the country. Laos relies heavily on external funding for the education budget (UNESCO, 2012). For example, public expenditure on education only reached 15% of the total public spending and 3.2% of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in 2006-2007. However, this recovery derives from a strong increase in the investment budget, mostly funded by development partners, and it does not imply any improvement in the share of domestic funding and in the ratio of recurrent and investment budgets. The proportion of recurrent and capital expenditures was 46:53, and foreign funds accounted for over 90% of the capital expenditure in 2004-2005. Moreover, most of the budget was expended for the salary of teachers and other recurrent costs, and there is little budget for the improvement and development of education and the budget for the educational development in 2012-2013 was only 16.7% of the government expenditure and 4.47% of GDP (MOES, 2013). This has led to lack of regular monitoring, supervision and evaluation across educational sector (MOES, 2008c; MOES, 2012b). The next problem facing leadership is related to the quality assurance system of each educational field. Generally speaking, the system is not sufficient enough and it does not meet the expectations of contemporary society.

The Quality Assurance Center (QAC) within MOES is currently responsible for developing quality assurance policies and procedures for

all education sub-sectors, including public and private higher education as well as secondary education and technical education and vocational training. QAC is relatively new and its capacity needs to be strengthened (MOES, 2006; MOES, 2008c; UNESCO, 2008). The further problem is the operation of the Education Management Information System (EMIS) in an unfavorable environment. Human resources for the EMIS are insufficient to adequately perform, especially at the central (MOE) and district levels. At the central level, EMIS infrastructure is insufficient, and at district level there are still 25 District Education Bureaus which do not have public electricity supply and more than half of which do not have a computer. Current EMIS has limited outputs and is coupled by the existence of several parallel data collection systems by different MOE departments, collecting from the same source at the same time (UNESCO, 2008).

In connection with the higher educational level as universities and colleges, Ministry of Education and Sports claimed that educational management system in eight Teacher Education Institutions (TEIs) in the whole country has been not effective (MOES, 2006; UNESCO, 2008).

The first concern is linked to the majority of TEI leadership teams. They have not had specific leadership and management trainings. Most TEI directors usually learn how to lead and manage their institutions on-the-job. The leadership and management skills of principals and educational administrators in colleges, and in universities are limited (MOES, 2006; UNESCO, 2008).

The second broad problem is related to the quality of staff number teaching at the colleges and universities. Most teacher educators who teach in higher education institutes have only bachelor degree. There is a shortage of staff with Master and Ph.D. qualifications (MOES, 2012a). This leads to the obstacle of curriculum and material development which is required to be continually adapted, edited and revised in order to be closely related to the international rapid progress of science and technology and to improve the quality of higher education (MOES, 2008b). As reported by Europe AID Cooperation Office (2009), the quality of education at higher education remains very low, and the government has failed to make the development of education as a priority. Investment in research and development of education is very

low. In addition, some staff, teacher educators, lectures do not have a high degree of commitment to their job (MOES, 2008 d).

The third issue is associated with socio-economic circumstances and poor financial condition. As a result, TEI management teams have to spend a high proportion of their time in solving day-to-day problems which are connected with the living conditions of teacher trainers and teacher trainees. The management teams are not able to contribute fully to professional quality improvement in the Teacher Education Institutions. Working procedures, task delegation and decentralization of responsibility to different levels inside the TEIs are not yet satisfactory (UNESCO, 2008; MOES, 2006). The fourth challenge is concerned with regulations, principles and other legislation of higher education management. They are not relevant, specific or adequate. Rules and regulations for control quality have been difficult to implement, partly because there was no feeling of ownership of the mechanism. This is partly due to the lack of quality assurance system in TEIs (MOES, 2006; MOES, 2008b; UNSCO, 2008). Colleges and universities still lack a clear vision, policy and strategies and road map to reach regional and international standards in access, quality, relevance and competitiveness. And, apart from this, there is a lack of overall planning, management and monitoring within the post-secondary education and training sector (UNESCO, 2008; MOES, 2012a).

At the local authorities (i.e., Provincial Education Service and Sports and District Education Bureaus, schools and communities), PESS is responsible (technically operational responsibility) for implementing secondary education, and for advising District Education Bureaus (DEBS) and teacher training colleges and technical colleges, while District Education Bureaus are responsible (operational responsibility) for implementing primary education and working cooperatively with communities.

In 2000 Lao government started initiating decentralization of political structure, vested responsibility for education planning, budget allocation and service delivery with provincial and district administration (UNESCO, 2008). Regarding the implementation of decentralization of management of education, a number of broad challenges has emerged at different levels.

Firstly, there is lack of clear planning processes, systems, roles and responsibilities for sharing decentralized management between

central and local levels starting from the MOE, to the PES, DEB and schools. The MOES lost control over key elements including overall budget preparation and expenditure, management and monitoring and evaluation of the public education (Asian Development Bank, 2003 as cited in Kittiphanh, 2011, p. 28). This issue indicates unclear lines of authority between PES, DEB and provincial and district administration relations. It has been observed that provincial governors play a crucial role in public financial management, and budget allocations depend mainly on the negotiations between provincial governors and the central government instead of on explicit regulations (World Bank, 2008 as cited in Kittiphanh, 2011; MOES, 2012b).

Secondly, there are very limited financial resources of provincial government allocation since it has initiated the decentralization. This is difficult for PES and DEB to support pedagogical advisers to do the follow up new graduated teachers, evaluating teacher performance and systematically supervising school teachers about teaching-learning process. For example, school principals, administrators and school teachers are regularly required to be supervised and supported by educational experts from colleges, universities and PESS and DEBS for boosting the quality of teaching. Conversely, there is a lack of regular monitoring and supervision and support from PESS and DESS staff at school levels (MOES, 2008c). As one recent reported commented:

→ *The lack of sufficient number of provincial and district technical staff to provide support,*
→ *The skills and knowledge of provincial and district technical staff is inappropriate, and*
→ *Provincial and district technical staff are hindered by a shortage of funds for monitoring and supervision* (MOES, 2008c, p.107).

Thirdly, the capacity of leadership teams of PESS and DEB (i.e., principals, directors, vice-directors, head office, head section) as well academic staff members in these levels are ineffective and inadequate and lack of staff and management training. A majority of PES and DEB officials are former teachers and some of them only completed primary and lower secondary education (Asian Development Bank, 2003 as cited in Kittiphanh, 2011). They have little opportunity for effective training to take on new responsibilities under decentralization. This results in barrier of engaging in policy dialogue or advocate for increased

budget. Another problem facing PES and DEB related to movement of the skilled staff, for example, at the provincial level, once staff members have been trained, especially in technical areas, they often leave for more lucrative jobs, which leads to a shortage of trained technical staff. A similar situation is likely to exist at the district level (Kittiphanh, 2011).

The challenges of education leadership situation are at the school levels quite similar to the provincial and district administration. The capability of leadership teams (i.e., school directors, vice-directors, school academic staff members, teachers) are inadequate. Most directors and vice-directors who lead their organizations are promoted to serve in their post without attending special management training. As a result, they lack important skills in school management, as claimed by MOES (2011) that leadership at school levels have a limitation of skills in mobilizing and involving local communities in the leadership and management of schools through Village Education Development Committees (VEDC) and lack coordination between provincial, district authorities and VEDC, guardian of pupils in improving the quality of education (MOES, 2008d; MOES, 2011). Additionally, the allocation of budget for each province and district is different and limited for education management in encouraging education improvement school levels since decentralization has initiated in 2000, for instance, in accordance with the Prime Minister's Decree on Compulsory Education primary education is free. However, parents of pupils and communities cover the operating costs for registration fee for school operation, maintenance and school supplies, repairs for school buildings, and facilities and subsidies to teachers. This results in the parents of pupils unsatisfactory with school leadership (MOES, 2011; UNSCO, 2008).

In summary, there is observable growth among researchers and policy makers in the problem of improving the quality of education for the new teachers. However, there is still a lack of research on leadership and the improvement of such education in Laos. The research on the role of college for teacher education level leadership in influencing on the college quality of education for beginning teachers in Laos can be perceived as a new research. The observable lack of empirical research on the successful leadership practices and the improvement of education for new teacher have an impact on the state of knowledge within this field in Laos. This topic is a very important for meaning guide for further conversation, reflection to understand leadership roles

in contributing to strategic innovation and management in teacher training college – their roles have remained unexplored in the literature on Lao education context. This proposed study will contribute new knowledge on the role of leadership in relation to improvement of teaching in teacher training college in Laos.

The leadership of educational sector – in the perception of Lao Ministry of Education and Sports and in the view on some reports on education in Laos – is ineffective in leading learning. It might be connected to the principals who are in charge of administrative responsibility and they do not attend administrative training courses. There is a lack of monitoring from AQC and shortage of fund in supporting teaching-learning process. Additionally, under the use of decentralization, one can observe the lack of community involvement in the process of children education, inadequate preparations of leadership teams and staff for performing their roles (MOES, 2006; MOES, 2008d; MOES 2012a; UNSCO, 2008).

Opportunities for Teacher Educational Leadership

A number of documents (such as reports: local and international) often consider that the educational leadership is one key of the successful elements in leading their organizations for success. The educational leadership has both direct and indirect impact on educational development and student learning outcome and achievement.

The report of Trade Union Committee for Education (2012) indicate that educational leaders have great impact on the quality of teaching and on the overall learning environment, including staff motivation, morale and performance, teaching practices, and the attitudes and aspirations of students and parents alike. Moreover, it highlighted that there is a need to ensure that educational leaders have sufficient opportunities to develop and maintain effective leadership skills. The research findings provide evidence that such educational leaders as head teachers, directors and other leaders in higher teacher education have influence on the quality of student learning outcomes (Leithwood, Jantzi, 1999).

According to Davies and Davies (2004), educational leaders are involved in different key activities in improving the quality of teaching at their educational institutions. The activities done by educational leadership including direction setting, translating in strategy into action,

aligning people and the organization to the strategy, determining effective strategic intervention points and developing strategic competencies (Davies, 2009).

Therefore, it is a very necessary for policy makers at high levels such as the Ministry of Education and Sports and other educational managers at concerned educational institutions to consider that the issues of the educational leadership are the most important elements of the organizations. If the styles of the teacher leadership are to improve and revise, it is believed that the quality of teacher education will be improved gradually.

Recommendations

In order to improve the teacher leadership at higher education institutions in Laos, there are some possible options for the educational managers and policy-makers at the ministry level to deal with. Below, some recommendations are formulated.

Firstly, leadership qualification and experience are essential for the successful management of educational institutions. Therefore, the educational leaders at teacher leadership institutions need to be trained for developing their leadership competences. Knowledge on different contemporary theories of leadership and the skills and abilities important for educational leadership are necessary in managing, guiding and leading their organization successfully. Educational leaders must be adequately educated, if we want them to face up with the changes in the field of education, especially teacher education.

Secondly, education leaders who are promoted and obtained the educational administration positions at higher education should have high motivation, leadership skills and teaching qualifications. The educational leaders should be assessed that they obtain both knowledge of management and leadership qualifications. Also, they master different types of knowledge in teaching-learning process. They should have content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, knowledge of the learners and their characteristics, general pedagogical knowledge, knowledge on educational contents, curriculum knowledge, knowledge on educational purposes and values.

Thirdly, the financial budget for supporting and implementing short term, medium terms and longer term plans in prioritized actions are one of the most important key for organizational success, so it is necessary

for leaders at top level as Ministry of Education to carefully make decisions for arrangement of the sufficient amount of the financial budget for leaders at the teacher institution levels who will make best use of that allocated resource in supporting and contributing the master plans, projects, programs and other activities associated with the educational goals and vision. Other while the development institution plans cannot be in actions.

Fourthly, the work and roles of educational leadership at teacher education institutions should be reviewed and revised in order to build its capacity in providing guidance and consultation on teacher education leadership.

Lastly, provision of regular, enough monthly salary is a very important for teaching staff and their sense of the life stabilization and career progression. This basic condition is connected with the improvement of teaching quality and student's learning achievement. Therefore, educational managers and policy makers at the ministry level should make clear decisions about arranging and raising the salary of the member staff, and improving their working conditions.

Summary

To sum up, teacher leadership play important roles in supporting, encouraging, inspiring and promoting the creativity of teaching staff members, creating and maintaining the better working circumstances within the educational institutions in order to improve the quality of teaching. Moving forwards and improving the quality of teaching is not only challenge but also the opportunity for teacher leadership and future success will depend on the policy-makers' sensitivity at high level, other factors, and capacity of leadership for leading their organizations within the current context, the efforts made by teaching staff, teacher leaders, parents, students and whole society (Nguyen, Nguyen, 2006).

The teacher leadership in eight teacher training colleges in Laos faces a number of challenges under the changes in social and economic context. This paper has identified some features of the education, education administration, management and teacher education in Laos, challenges at local and national levels and opportunities. In the paper the recommendations to enhance the teacher educational leadership at the college levels have been suggested.

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Education faces many complex issues and that makes us seek teachers who can lead, teachers who are empowered by responsibility, self-agency and creativity. As formal and informal leaders, teachers are those establishing educational concepts, visions and projects. Hardly possible is to make a proper change at school without people that rise to challenges and take up risks, who can recognize and break development barriers of educational process participants – both in and out of school.

The authors of this volume present the premises for teacher leadership in education law. It has many dimensions and lawmaking itself needs to be backed by smart actions of school leaders and their attitudes as well as relevant education policy.

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