

# International Studies in Educational Administration

Journal of the Commonwealth  
Council for Educational  
Administration & Management



**CCEAM**

Volume 40 • Number 2 • 2012

**International Studies in Educational Administration** is published three times a year in the United Kingdom by PageBros (as from Issue 38/3), on behalf of the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration and Management (CCEAM). Details of the CCEAM, its headquarters in Australia and its affiliated national societies throughout the Commonwealth are given at the end of this issue. Subscription information is given below.

From volume 34 (2006) publishing responsibility for this journal has reverted to CCEAM and enquiries about subscriptions should be addressed to the officials for correspondence at the following address: Emeritus Professor Frank Crowther, AM, President of the CCEAM at the Australian Council for Educational Leaders (ACEL), or Business Manager of the CCEAM at the Australian Council for Educational Leaders (ACEL), 86 Ellison Rd Springwood, New South Wales, AUSTRALIA. *Phone:* +61 2 47 517974; *Fax:* +61 2 47 517974; *Email:* admin@acel.org.au; *Website:* www.cceam.org.

### **Commonwealth**

Subscribers in Commonwealth countries receive a discount, and pay the Commonwealth rates as stated below. Payment should be made to the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration and Management (CCEAM).

### **The rest of the world**

Subscribers in the rest of the world should send their orders and payment to the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration and Management (CCEAM).

### **Account details for all payments are as follows**

*Account name:* Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration and Management

*Bank:* ANZ Branch: Springwood, 166–168 Macquarie Road, Springwood NSW 2777

*Bank/State/Branch BSB:* 012-836

*Account number:* 279728989

*Swift code:* ANZBAU3M

If paying by bank draft, please post payment to the above address by registered mail in Australian Dollars.

## **Subscription rates for 2012**

Institutions, Commonwealth	£150
Institutions, rest of the world	£170
Individuals, Commonwealth	£30
Individuals, rest of the world	£35

# International Studies in Educational Administration

Journal of the Commonwealth  
Council for Educational  
Administration & Management



**CCEAM**



Volume 40 • Number 2 • 2012

## **International Studies in Educational Administration (ISEA)**

An official publication of the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration and Management (CCEAM)

### **EDITORS**

#### **Dr Tom Bisschoff**

School of Education, University of Birmingham, Edgbaston, Birmingham B15 2TT, UK

#### **Dr Christopher Rhodes**

School of Education, University of Birmingham, Edgbaston, Birmingham B15 2TT, UK

### **ASSISTANT EDITOR**

#### **Professor Gary M. Crow**, Indiana University

107 S. Indiana Ave. Bloomington, IN 47405-7000, USA

### **CCEAM OFFICIALS**

**President:** Emeritus Professor Frank Crowther, AM  
86 Ellison Road, Springwood, NSW 2777, AUSTRALIA

**Executive Director:** Jenny Lewis  
Australian Council for Educational Leaders (ACEL)  
86 Ellison Road, Springwood, NSW 2777, AUSTRALIA

**Business Manager:** Kathy Hangan  
Australian Council for Educational Leaders (ACEL)  
86 Ellison Road, Springwood, NSW 2777, AUSTRALIA

### **EDITORIAL ADVISORY BOARD**

**Dr A.O. Ayeni**, Department of Educational Management, Faculty of Education, University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Oyo State, NIGERIA

**Professor Ray K. Auala**, University of Namibia, PO Box 13301, 340 Mandume Ndemufayo Avenue, Windhoek, Pioneerspark, NAMIBIA

**Dr Christopher Bezzina**, University of Malta, Msida MSD 06, MALTA

**Professor Mark Brundrett**, Liverpool John Moores University, Barkhill Road, Aigburth, Liverpool, L17 6BD, UK

**Professor Brian Caldwell**, University of Melbourne, Parkville, Victoria, 3052, AUSTRALIA

**Professor Christopher Day**, The University of Nottingham, University Park, Nottingham, NG7 2RD, UK

**Professor Gang Ding**, East China Normal University, Shanghai 200062, CHINA

**Professor Fenwick English**, Iowa State University, Iowa 50011, USA

**Professor Philip Hallinger**, Joseph Lau Chair, Professor of Leadership and Change, HONG KONG

**Professor Alma Harris**, London Centre for Leadership in Learning, Institute of Education, University of London, UK

**Dr A.A.M. Houtveen**, Utrecht University, PO Box 80140, 3508 TC Utrecht, NETHERLANDS

**Associate Professor Phillip Jones**, University of Sydney, Camperdown, NSW, 2006, AUSTRALIA

**Associate Professor Lejf Moos**, Danish University of Education, Copenhagen NV, DENMARK

**Professor Petros Pashiardis**, Open University of Cyprus, PO Box 24801, Lefkosia 1304, CYPRUS

**Dr Vivienne Roberts**, The University of the West Indies, Cave Hill Campus, PO Box 64, Bridgetown, BARBADOS

**Professor Sun Miantao**, Shenyang Normal University, Shenyang, CHINA

**Professor Paula Short**, University of Missouri, Missouri, USA

**Professor Duncan Waite**, Southwest Texas State University, San Marcos, Texas 78666, USA

**Professor Charles Webber**, Faculty of Human, Social, and Educational Development, Thompson Rivers University, Kamloops, BC, CANADA, V2C 0C8

**Professor Philip van der Westhuizen**, Potchefstroom University, Potchefstroom 2520, SOUTH AFRICA

ISSN 1324-1702

International Studies in Educational Administration (ISEA) aims to enhance the effectiveness of educational leadership, management and administration to support intellectual, personal and social learning in schools, colleges and universities and related educational, social and economic development in a range of national contexts. It publishes research- and scholarship-based papers within the broad field of educational leadership, management, and administration including its connections with educational/ social policy, and professional practice. It focuses on the Commonwealth and beyond. It is strongly international in that, while it may publish empirical research or scholarship undertaken in specific national or regional contexts, papers consider issues and themes of interest that transcend single national settings. Papers offer new facts or ideas to academics, policy-makers and practitioners in education in varied national contexts ranging from advanced economies to the least economically developed countries. The journal aims to provide a balance between papers that present theoretical, applied or comparative research, and between papers from different methodological contexts, different scales of analysis, and different access to research resources. Editorial Correspondence and Books for Review should be sent to the Editors. Business Correspondence should be sent to the President or the Business Manager.

# Contents

Editorial Note <b>CHRISTOPHER RHODES AND TOM BISSCHOFF</b>	<b>1</b>
The Internship and School Leadership Preparation: An Inquiry and Reflection <b>CARMEN MOMBOURQUETTE AND GEORGE BEDARD</b>	<b>3</b>
Journeying Together: Understanding the Process of Teacher Change and the Impacts on Student Learning <b>JAKE MADDEN, JUDITH WILKS, MARIA MAIONE, NAOMI LOADER AND NGAIRE ROBINSON</b>	<b>19</b>
On the Need for Philosophic-Mindedness in Educational Administration: Are We Still on Track? <b>JOHN FRIESEN</b>	<b>37</b>
International Approaches to Secondary Education <b>LAUREN SEGEDIN AND BEN LEVIN</b>	<b>49</b>
Principles of Sustainable Leadership: The Case of School Leaders in the Fiji Islands <b>GOVINDA ISHWAR LINGAM</b>	<b>69</b>
Gendered Academia in a Market-Oriented Vietnam <b>DANG THI ANH NGUYET</b>	<b>85</b>
(Un)Ethical Practices and Ethical Dilemmas in Universities: Academic Leaders' Perceptions <b>LISA CATHERINE EHRICH, NEIL CRANSTON, MEGAN KIMBER AND KAREN STARR</b>	<b>99</b>



# Editorial Note

The enactment of high-quality educational leadership can aid the life trajectories of individual learners. Such enactment takes place within a surrounding contextual framework influenced by national and regional cultural, political and socioeconomic modifiers. Enactment is also informed by the dynamic and changing knowledge base pertaining to the field of leadership and management. Colleagues involved in advancing the field knowledge base do so through well-directed research activities. Importantly and increasingly, educational research in many countries is accompanied by a desire to ensure knowledge transfer to foster helpful impact in relation to the work of the intended recipients of research outcomes. New knowledge gained through research allows the establishment of contemporary and contextualised insights so that local, national and international audiences may reflect upon their own work and, in turn, this may lead to improvement in process, enactment and practice. Research in educational leadership and management also has potentially profound messages via direct or indirect influence upon theory or prevailing policy.

In this issue of *International Studies in Educational Administration* the research insights offered pertain to a theme characterised by learning, change and innovation. It includes articles from Australia, Canada, Fiji Islands and Vietnam. The first paper, by Carmen Mombourquette and George Bedard, deals with the impact of internship on the practice of school leadership and advocates that the preparation of school leaders would benefit from a careful sharing of this responsibility with a variety of stakeholders.

The second paper, by Jake Madden, Judith Wilks, Maria Maione, Naomi Loader and Ngaire Robinson, addresses itself to the learning and change journey undertaken by teachers in the implementation of a new school curriculum framework. The study draws attention to teacher professional learning as an important step in fostering a consistent understanding of change and change process.

The third paper, by John Friesen, poses the question of whether school administrators in contemporary settings are sufficiently philosophically minded and whether there is a danger that recent educational innovations may be endorsed or initiated by administrators without sufficient thought and a questioning approach to their real utility, benefit and consistency within a robust philosophy of education.

Taking a helpful international view, the fourth paper, by Lauren Segedin and Ben Levin, offers a review of secondary schooling in seven countries in terms of organisation, curriculum, accountability systems, teaching, leadership and overall spending. The paper explores both similarities and differences in approach within the chosen countries.

Overall, these authors reinforce the idea that improvement requires a system-wide effort and a deliberate aim on the factors that actually change student performance. The role of leadership in supporting learning and change is the subject of an examination of sustainable leadership provided by Govinda Lingam. In this fifth paper, the reader is taken through a journey of the

principles of sustainable leadership and how these apply within the case of school leaders in the Fiji Islands. The paper offer pointers to the adoption of these principles and also how further engagement with them may well offer desirable improvements within this context.

Moving to change and innovation within the higher education sector, the sixth paper, by Dang Thi Anh Nguyet, offers an analysis of the opportunities and challenges facing female academics within a Vietnamese context. The paper points to tensions within the academy and a possibly growing gender disparity in which female academics may well face disparate and conflicting demands from their government, their universities, society and their students. Important directions for future research are elucidated.

In the final seventh paper we stay within the higher education sector, and Lisa Catherine Ehrich, Neil Cranston, Megan Kimber and Karen Starr offer insights into academic leaders' perceptions of unethical practices and ethical dilemmas in universities. This work forms part of a larger study and concludes that academic leaders would benefit from opportunities to learn more about ethical principles, and to think more about ethical dilemmas and how they might go about solving them.

Overall, this issue aims to offer a thought-provoking insight into the outcomes of research activities in a variety of different countries. The outcomes of the research included add to our developing field knowledge base and enable readers to reflect upon their own practices and the context within which they work. We thank the authors for their contributions and the messages that they carry for our readership.

**Christopher Rhodes and Tom Bisschoff**

Joint Editors, *International Studies in Educational Administration*

University of Birmingham, UK



# The Internship and School Leadership Preparation: An Inquiry and Reflection

**Carmen Mombourquette and George J. Bedard**

**Abstract:** *In this study we explore the impact of the internship on the practice of school leadership by graduates of the Master's Educational Leadership specialisation of the Faculty of Education at the University of Lethbridge (Alberta, Canada). We assessed the degree of impact by means of graduate responses to an online survey, by interviews with a purposive sample of graduates, and by interviews with two school superintendents who were knowledgeable about the before and after performance of 40 leadership graduates. Following the discussion and interpretation of results, we conclude with observations about how some of the major findings relate to current literature, and about the import of what we have learned about internship design and impacts over the course of eight years.*

## **Introduction: The Context of School Leadership Programming and Research**

School leadership research in the first decade of the 21st century has established a clear and important link between the role of the principal and student learning. Research has also affirmed that the role has changed from being primarily a management function to one that should be clearly focused on the efficacy of leadership for learning. For example, Leithwood and Mascall (2008) underscored the important role of school leadership and its connection to student learning. They asserted that school leadership was second only to effective teaching for school-based influences on student achievement. Seashore Louis, Dretzke and Walhstrom (2010) emphasised the important role played by school leaders in supporting the instructional work of teachers. However, they also reiterated that, for this to be effective, school leaders need to learn the knowledge and skills required of the role.

Studies frequently point out that school leadership preparation has not kept up with the evolving job description inherent in the principalship. As asserted by M. Christine DeVita, President of The Wallace Foundation (as cited in Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, Orr & Cohen 2007), 'A staggering 80 percent of [American] superintendents and 69 percent of principals think that leadership training in schools of education is out of touch with the realities of today's districts, according to a recent Public Agenda survey' (Preface). Darling-Hammond et al. (2007) critiqued 'traditional' school leader preparation programmes and their failure to prepare the next generation of school leaders.

A recent special issue of the *Educational Administration Quarterly* explored the subject of school leadership preparation and research. Pounder stated that 'the empirical evidence about effective

leadership preparation was thin, especially empirical studies evaluating leader preparation programs and their outcomes' (2011: 259). Leadership outcomes were featured prominently in this special issue as they related to a school leader's ability to improve student learning outcomes. Pounder referenced the comprehensive review of literature conducted by Murphy and Vriesenga (2006) when she noted, 'Sadly, the literature review's authors concluded that they could only find one published study (Pounder 1995) that evaluated a leader preparation program in terms of outcomes, specifically establishing how field-based candidate projects resulted in changes in school and district policy or practice' (Pounder 2011: 262).

Young, Petersen and Short (2002), in their review of leadership preparation programmes, emphasised the importance of the connection to the field. They asserted that any successful preparation programme must match the field experience with that of the theory presented in class and the internship was underscored as a key instrument to this end. Young (2006) noted that the internship should be designed to provide candidates with an opportunity to apply new knowledge and develop skills appropriate for their intended professional careers. Through collaborative partnerships and by building on the strengths and assets of local school communities, leadership preparation students are afforded the opportunity to examine and participate in processes related to leading, learning and teaching within one or more K-12 school settings.

In the same vein, Fry, Bottoms & O'Neill described the internship's potential as a critical instrument in leadership preparation:

In many professional fields, the internship is the ultimate performance test, the final rite of passage before gaining an initial license to practice. A well-designed internship expands the knowledge and skills of candidates while also gauging their ability to apply new learning in authentic settings as they contend with problems that have real-world consequences. Built right, the internship becomes a sturdy vessel upon which new practitioners can navigate the swift, unpredictable currents that separate classroom theory and on-the-job reality. (2005: 3)

However, the same authors provide words of caution when planning for successful internship experiences for students of educational leadership:

Quality internships demand careful planning, coordination with local school systems, and close supervision by knowledgeable experts who have a track record as successful school leaders. Quality internships cannot be accomplished during 'seat time' in a university classroom. Like any results-driven work, they require significant investments of energy, time and resources – investments that many university leadership programs have thus far been reluctant to make. (2005: 3)

Such 'careful planning' and 'coordination' of internships may be not a common denominator in many preparation programmes. Darling-Hammond et al. criticised 'traditional' programmes for their lack of effective internships: 'Relatively few programs have had strong clinical training components: Experiences that allow prospective leaders to learn the many facets of their complex jobs in close collaboration with highly skilled veteran leaders' (2007: p. 4).

Following the logic of Darling-Hammond et al. (2007), researchers are called upon to assess the efficacy of intern behaviours within a programmatic framework, to probe whether the resources

and processes needed to stage meaningful internships, as supported by the university and field, have served their purported intent. '[L]eadership preparation inquiry may be most fruitful if focusing on the relationship between preparation program quality features and candidate outcomes, most notably on-the-job leadership behaviors' (Pounder 2011: 265).

In a current analysis of the efficacy of leadership programmes, the internship was the design feature that demonstrated the *greatest* variability. Orr observed that: 'The most challenging feature to deliver, however, appears to be the internship, as quality ratings of the internship varied most widely compared to other program feature ratings, as did the graduates' experience in being able to do their internship on a full- or part-time basis, released from teaching responsibilities' (2011: 155). The results of Orr (2011) as they pertain to the internship portion of leadership preparation programmes are presented in Table 1. Orr used The School Leadership Preparation Practice Survey (SLPPS) as the main instrument in surveying respondents' perceptions about programmatic features.<sup>1</sup> Only the items directly related to the respondents' experience of a leadership internship are addressed in Table 1.

**Table 1:** Students in this survey responded using a 5-point scale (5 = very well, 4 = well, 3 = somewhat, 2 = a little, and 1 = not at all)

Survey questions	N	M	SD
<b>To what extent did your educational leadership internship experience reflect the following attributes?</b>	N	Mean	Std dev.
I was mentored by knowledgeable school leaders.	558	4.20	1.003
I had responsibilities for leading and making decisions typical of an educational leader.	558	3.99	1.077
My internship achievements were regularly evaluated by the program faculty.	558	3.71	1.141
My internship was an excellent learning experience for becoming a principal.	558	4.04	1.020

Orr & Orphanos (2011) present data on what they have come to call exemplary leadership preparation programmes. In this study they once again used SLPPS survey questions but this time just asked programme graduates who were in the principalship for feedback on their educational leadership programmes. The exemplary programme elements have much support in literature (McCarthy 1999; Kelley 2002; Davis, Darling-Hammond, Meyerson & LaPointe 2005; Jackson & Orr 2006; Young, Crow, Ogawa & Murphy 2009) and draw upon evidence from case studies and survey data. One of the elements of an exemplary programme that is pertinent

<sup>1</sup> The SLPPS was developed by the National Center for the Evaluation of Educational Leadership Preparation and Practice. The survey was developed through the University Council for Educational Administration/Learning and Teaching in Educational Leadership Special Interest Group for the purpose of evaluating various leadership preparation programmes. SLLPS can be accessed at [www.edleaderprep.org/slpps/](http://www.edleaderprep.org/slpps/). The original SLLPS contained 67 main question items with most featuring multiple subquestions.

to this study relates to the role of the internship. Orr & Orphanos state, 'Such programs have the following elements [including]: Quality internships that provide intensive developmental opportunities to apply leadership knowledge and skills under the guidance of an expert practitioner-mentor' (2011: 22).

Orr & Orphanus (2011) in their study asked principals to rate the extent to which their educational leadership internship experience(s) reflected the following attributes (based on a 5-point agreement scale):

- a. Principal had responsibilities for leading, facilitating and making decisions typical of an educational leader (M 4.24, SD 0.99).
- b. Principal was able to develop an educational leader's perspective on school improvement (M 4.34, SD 0.87).
- c. Internship experience was an excellent learning experience for becoming a principal (M 4.44, SD 0.97).

## The Features of our Leadership Programme and Internship

In general, the educational leadership preparation programme at the University of Lethbridge was designed to be responsive to what Berry & Beach (2009) described as the tension between two dominant knowledge paradigms for educational leadership, professional (field orientation) or academic (theory and research-based orientation). As they succinctly put it: 'What professors of educational administration should consider in program development is a curriculum based on the conditions which now exist in schools and that will exist in the future' (2009: 7).

Our university-based programme was crafted with the assumption that *both* of the professional and academic orientations needed to be balanced in a robust way in order to adequately prepare school leaders in an age characterised by accountability and rapid change. Prior to this present study, the general features of this leadership programme and perceived impacts on graduate efficacy and leadership behaviours had been evaluated twice using methodologies different from those described in this study.<sup>2</sup>

Informed by our interpretation of research on leadership preparation programmes, we recognised that a curriculum based on present and evolving conditions in schools needs to have a strong *job-embedded* component such as mentor-supervised internships. We felt that it was important to allow students to reflect with university and site-based mentors on the relationship of theory and practice in addressing relevant and challenging projects in which leadership knowledge and skills are developed. We concluded that the internship was a uniquely situated instrument to ascertain whether academic and professional orientations do in fact mesh in a productive fashion as interns respond to sometimes conflicting pulls from both orientations as to values, dispositions, behaviours and 'what counts' as important. We have had experience running field-based internships since 2004 and they remain a signature feature in our programme today.

The introduction of the internship component presented some unique opportunities and challenges to our programme's design. Across Canada we could not find another MEd in

<sup>2</sup> Aitken & Bedard 2007. Also, an external evaluation of the MEd programmes, including the educational leadership specialisation, was conducted by Dr P. Renihan and Dr Jon Young, University of Manitoba, on 26–29 June 2007.

educational leadership programme that offered an internship component that we could use as a model. Hence, in initiating the internship in 2004, we were introducing an innovation that was guided more by research literature than by provincial policy contexts or programme traditions provincially and nationally.

Within our programme, we initiated the following procedure to guide and sustain the internship process. A faculty consultant is assigned to each cohort of interns. Each intern usually enrolls in two internships, typically taking 12 to 18 months to complete. A field-based mentor (often a principal) is selected by the intern so as to provide the student of leadership with on-site advice, guidance and supervision. Interns remain in the schools where they work, as moving to another site for the duration of internship is a proposition with little support in school divisions in this province. The school division superintendent must approve the internship and, in turn, authorise the leadership work of the intern in the school. Prior to the start of the internship, the faculty consultant, intern and mentor meet and map areas of responsibility and supervision in order to put in place the support structures identified by research as being essential to the success of the internship programme. Ongoing communication with those in these three roles helps ensure that the goals of the intern receive ongoing support or, if necessary, adaptation. The intern keeps a journal of internship activities: recording successes, failures, insights and other pertinent information on how the internship is progressing. The journal entries are then turned into a reflection paper, with reference to current literature. In many cases the internship experience becomes the primary subject matter of the capstone papers (10,000–12,000 words) that students write as the culminating project for the MEd leadership specialisation.

## **Inquiring into the Efficacy of our University-Supervised Internship Research Focus**

Both the online survey items and the interview questions sought to elicit answers from respondents around the following concerns:

- How has the internship component of the educational leadership specialisation programme impacted the practice of leadership by the graduates of the programme?
- Did the design work?
- Does the internship add value to the MEd in educational leadership?
- Does the internship component of the degree make a difference when, and if, the student of leadership becomes a principal?

## **Methodology**

A mixed-methods approach took the form of an online survey, and was subsequently complemented by face-to-face interviews with a purposive sample of graduates and two superintendents. The online survey was adapted from the SLPPS instrument similar to the one used by Orr (2011).

The students in the sample were enrolled in successive cohorts beginning in 2004, with programme duration of two and a half years per cohort, some running concurrently. Of the 102 students who graduated from the programme, 73 were contacted because their current email addresses were known and they were asked to participate in the online survey. Of the 73 contacted, 36 graduates completed the survey, meeting Gay & Airasian's (2003) guideline for a minimum sample requirement of 30 participants.

The qualitative portion of the study followed a sequential approach where the graduates were surveyed, the results were analysed, and then the analysis of findings was used to finalise the interview questions (Creswell 2003). The qualitative sample consisted of nine graduates and two school superintendents. The 11 field-based participants were then interviewed.

Two school division leaders (school superintendents) were interviewed so as to determine the impact of the leadership preparation programme on the performance of the graduates and the degree to which they met the criteria of the dimensions of school leadership. We chose these two superintendents because over the course of five years they had 40 of our leadership graduates working in their schools or at central office before and after they graduated, the superintendents had agreed to host internships in their divisions, and they were well informed about how our graduates performed in their divisions.

The nine graduates interviewed consisted of seven principals, one assistant principal, and one central-office-based curriculum and instruction supervisor. The overall sample was selected so as to provide the quality of information required to make reasoned judgements about the degree of impact on the students of educational leadership once they entered the practice of school leadership (Creswell 2003). The sample selection also followed the approach advocated by Gaskell (2000) about the importance of choosing enough interview subjects so as to provide adequate descriptions necessary to support the findings gleaned from the data. The interview questions were developed by the researchers so as to elicit an element of the personal experience of those involved in the programme. Superintendents of interviewees were asked to comment on the leadership practices of the sampled graduates to add an additional element of verification (Golafshani 2003) to the data gathered from the graduates themselves.

## Findings

In this section we present the results gleaned from the SLPPS as they pertain to the internship component of the educational leadership specialisation. We also relate the ways in which the survey results helped form the basis for the interview questions. Interview findings are presented in a manner so as to allow interviewee voices to be heard. As much as possible, direct quotes from the interviewees are stated.

### Survey Results

While 36 individuals completed most or all of the survey, only 34 completed the question 'What is your current position?' and 33 responded to the question 'What year did you begin the Educational Leadership Program?' In describing their present roles, 7 graduates identified themselves as principals, 14 as assistant principals, 12 as teachers and 1 as a central office administrator. Thirteen graduates from the 2004 cohort completed the survey, 7 from the 2005 cohort, 4 from 2006, 1 from 2007 and 17 from the 2008 cohorts (two cohorts started the programme in 2008). Seventeen female and 19 male graduates completed the survey. The graduates responded to survey questions by selecting Always (4), Usually (3), Sometimes (2) or Never (1) from a four-point Likert-type rating scale.

The results for the internship survey questions are presented in Table 2. In the table the number of respondents is indicated, as is the mean, and standard deviation for each question. The main question area is highlighted in bold while the sub-questions remain in standard print and contain the relevant data. Note that the items solicit opinions about both academic and professional dimensions of the internship.

**Table 2:** Complete sample of graduates and their responses to survey questions as they pertain to the internship\*

Survey questions (four-point Likert-type)	N	M	SD
<b>4. To what extent did your educational leadership internship experience reflect the following attributes?</b>	N	Mean	Std dev.
4.a I was mentored by knowledgeable school leaders.	32	3.34	0.75
4.b I had responsibilities for leading and making decisions typical of an educational leader.	32	3.47	0.88
4.c My internship achievements were regularly evaluated by the program faculty.	32	3.25	0.76
4.d My internship was an excellent learning experience for becoming a principal.	32	3.25	0.92
4.e My internship enabled me to develop the practice of engaging peers and colleagues in shared problem solving and collaboration.	32	3.50	0.72

\* The version of the SLPPS used in this study consisted of 8 major sections with a total of 60 questions being asked.

The survey questions that dealt with the internship are presented again (Table 3) but this time they are shown with the percentage of graduates responding to each question with Never (N), Sometimes (S), Usually (U) or Always (A).

**Table 3:** Internship related questions expressed as a percentage of the total

	N%	S%	U%	A%
4.a I was mentored by knowledgeable school leaders.	0	16	34	50
4.b I had responsibilities for leading and making decisions typical of an educational leader.	6	6	22	66
4.c My internship achievements were regularly evaluated by the program faculty.	0	19	38	43
4.d My internship was an excellent learning experience for becoming a principal.	3	22	22	53
4.e My internship enabled me to develop the practice of engaging peers and colleagues in shared problem solving and collaboration	0	13	25	62

Although the rating scale used by Orr (2011) was based on a five-point Likert-type scale, and we used a four-point Likert, we can reasonably state that respondents to our survey rated their internship experience highly when compared to the respondents in the Orr study.<sup>3</sup> The Orr

<sup>3</sup> Orr (2011) reported on a previous administration of the SLPPS. 17 leadership preparation programmes from throughout the United States surveyed their graduates to determine the degree to which participants believed their preparation programme met the criteria areas highlighted by SLPPS.

study ascertained the opinions of students who completed one of 17 different educational leadership preparation programmes. Study participants were graduates of the various programmes and not necessarily principals, again similar in scope to our study. In addition, we also note that the results from our study also compare favourably to the data presented in the Orr & Orphanos (2011) study, where they only surveyed principals who were graduates of what they defined as exemplary educational leadership preparation programmes, all of which had an internship component.

As for Tables 2 and 3, focused on our graduates, the results indicate a relatively high level of satisfaction (using Orr 2011 and Orr & Orphanos 2011 as our benchmark) with items 4 a–e, with a great deal of consensus (no significant standard deviation) on most items.

In Tables 2 and 3, the item relative to the others that had the lowest score was 4.d, ‘My internship was an excellent learning experience for becoming a principal’. In retrospect, we recognise that this item could have been interpreted in different ways. Of the 34 respondents who identified their present role, 7 are currently principals. One interpretation is that only those currently serving as principals could answer this item authoritatively. As for the assistant principals and teacher components, it is a stretch, perhaps, for them to surmise that the internship has prepared them for a role that they do not occupy yet and may not want to occupy. The lack of certainty about the import of this item is influenced by the goal of our programme, to prepare school leaders both formal and informal, not principals *per se*. At entry level in our programme, the vast majority of students are teachers, some of whom identify as having an interest in a formal leadership role and some of whom view the programme as preparing them as teacher leaders in various capacities. Some graduates are content to serve as teacher leaders and not to seek formal leadership positions.

We also note that 17 out of 34 respondents were from two cohorts that commenced in 2008 and finished in mid-2010. In other words, half of our sample is composed of a large percentage of individuals who recently went through leadership preparation and for whom a formal leadership role may materialise at some future date, but the majority are presently teacher leaders. Given the number of interpretations generated by 4.d, in a next iteration of this assessment instrument we would have to make a decision to administer it only to those serving as principals or to rephrase it to ‘... for becoming a principal, assistant principal or teacher leader’.

### **Item Analysis**

*Mann U individual item analysis* was conducted to test whether the average rating from one subgroup of graduates differed from other groups. The following comparisons were conducted: Principals versus all other groups, assistant principals versus all other groups, principals and assistant principals versus non-principals and assistant principals, and the 2008 cohort versus all other cohorts. Only items obtaining mean rankings for the test group that were significantly higher or lower than the comparative group are listed below. With the exception of one graduate now working in central office, we are safe in saying that there are three main groups in this sample: principals, assistant principals and teachers.

### **Principals Versus All Other Groups**

Two survey items had principal responses significantly different than the responses provided by all other members of the survey group. The average rating of principals on the question ‘I was



mentored by knowledgeable school leaders' was 2.57 (SD=0.787) and for the non-principal group it was 3.54 (SD=0.588). The mean rank of principals was significantly lower than the mean rank of the non-principal group,  $U=30$   $p=0.005$  (2 tailed). That principals should rate the mentoring item lower than other groups does not surprise us. Within schools there is only one principal and any mentoring must come from outside the building, either from division-level or from a more experienced principal in another school. While such a mentoring arrangement can be managed formally or informally, it is nonetheless a less direct, and more intermittent, relationship than a mentor–mentee dyad working within a single building.

The average rating of principals on the question 'I had responsibilities for leading and making decisions typical of an educational leader' was 4 (SD=0) and for the non-principal group it was 3.29 (SD=0.955). The mean rank of principals was significantly higher than the mean rank of the non-principal group,  $U=45.5$   $p=0.032$  (2 tailed). That principals could all claim 'Always' on this item does not surprise us – their roles present them with numerous opportunities to lead and make decisions. From the university side, the issue, in consultation with the mentor and intern, is often winnowing possible projects down to a significant few that can be sustained over one or two internships and sometimes encouraging principals to choose projects that are more leadership than managerial, or more relevant than less relevant to core leadership concerns. On the other hand, our experience tells us that some intern teachers, particularly less experienced ones, have much more difficulty in identifying projects under the leadership mantle that engage them to work with other teachers. The motivation and good will of the in-school mentor play a large role in whether the teacher intern is invited to share in the work of leadership, and with our sample the invitation to leadership was not always forthcoming and more nominal than substantive (as revealed to university consultants during the internship process and in the interview data of this study).

### ***Assistant Principals Versus All Other Groups***

Only one survey item had assistant principal responses being significantly different than the responses provided by all other members of the survey group. The average rating of assistant principals on the question 'I was mentored by knowledgeable school leaders' was 3.71 (SD=0.469) and for the non-assistant-principal group it was 3 (SD=0.791). The mean rank of assistant principals was significantly higher than the mean rank of the non-assistant-principal group,  $U=59$   $p=0.009$  (2 tailed). That assistant principals reported that their mentor relationships were stronger than the other groups is a reflection of their role affinity with the principal, who most often is the mentor. Depending on the context, an assistant principal's agenda may well contain a number of leadership-oriented tasks, and if not then a motivated principal mentor can assign such tasks that could be the subject matter for an internship. Teacher interns do not have this role relationship with the principal, nor do they have blocks of time available to them so that they may pursue leadership tasks in a concerted fashion during regular school hours as is afforded many assistant principals.

### ***Principals and Assistant Principals Versus Non-Principals***

Two survey items had principal and assistant principal responses significantly different from those provided by all other members of the survey group. The average rating of principals/assistant principals on the question 'I had responsibilities for leading and making decisions typical of an educational leader' was 3.67 (SD=0.73) and for the teacher group it was

3 (SD=1.054). The mean rank of principal/assistant principals was significantly higher than the mean rank of the teacher group,  $U=63.5$   $p=0.039$  (2 tailed). Again, the more positive responses by principals and assistant principals on this item than by teachers follows the same logic as described in the above results, that their ratings are position reflective.

The average rating of principals/assistant principals on the question 'My internship enabled me to develop the practice of engaging peers and colleagues in shared problem solving and collaboration' was 3.29 (SD=0.784) and for the teacher group it was 3.9 (SD=0.316). The mean rank of principals/assistant principals was significantly lower than the mean rank of the teacher group,  $U=58.5$   $p=0.023$  (2 tailed). The interview data revealed principals and assistant principals already had experience in the practice of engaging peers and colleagues in shared problem-solving and collaboration, while teachers in many cases were exposed to this practice, over a sustained period, for the first time during their internships. We also heard that teachers were met with great acceptance by their peers when they asked for help in forming groups to explore an internship topic. Teacher colleagues proved to be open to the sharing required to make internships successful and in turn allowed the interns to experience shared problem-solving and collaboration.

Table 3 presented data related to the raw percentage scores associated with the interviewee perceptions of the internship. All but one item had results indicating that over 80 per cent of respondents said that the item happened usually or always in their programme. The item, however, relating to 'My internship was an excellent learning experience for becoming a principal' had 25 per cent of respondents indicating that they questioned whether the internship helped develop their ability to be successful in the principalship. But this response is subject to the same caveats and possible interpretations that we presented above in the context of item 4.d when the responses were expressed as means and standard deviations and not as percentages (i.e. not all teachers wanted to become principals, and nor did they serve in the role of principal once they completed the programme).

### **Interview Question Development**

Interview question development followed from an initial analysis of survey results. It was our intent to make sure we explored key issues of the programme with the graduates. The graduate interview process centred on five key areas: course work (theory into practice), course delivery (face-to-face, blending of online with face-to-face, and exclusively online), the cohort experience, standards of practice, and the internship. For the purposes of this paper, only the internship related items are addressed.

While the survey results presented means that were deemed to be within the high range and where most graduates responded that the internship was useful to them, our analysis prompted us to do a little more digging through interviews. Specifically, the means and standard deviations for questions 'My internship achievements were regularly evaluated by the program faculty' and 'My internship was an excellent learning experience for becoming a principal' indicated that further exploration of the topics was required. Graduates were asked about their internships and the ways in which they helped them develop the skills required for their leadership, what they thought was most helpful to them in their study of leadership, what impact their mentor and faculty consultant had on their internships, and what they would have liked to have seen included in the internship programme if they had a chance to do it again. Further, they were asked about whether the internships helped them in their roles as principals (asked only to those in this role).

## **Interview Data**

Regarding the value of the internship to present practice, the information gleaned from the nine interviews revealed an interesting difference of opinion between the graduates who were formal school leaders (principals or assistant principals) when they entered the programme and those who were classroom teachers at the time. Assistant principals and principals found the process to be helpful. Those who were classroom teachers at time when they entered the programme found the experience to be valuable but didn't see the value to the same degree as the formal leaders. The following quotations highlight the difference of opinion between formal leader and classroom teacher perspectives. They also reinforce the overall view expressed by the graduates who were interviewed of the importance they placed on the internship.

Interviewee 2 (having assumed a formal leadership role after graduation) stated, 'It [the internship] was very helpful. Critical actually. My in-school mentor was very helpful as were two or three other mentors who played a role in my development as a leader. My mentors would answer key questions I had but would also let me do my own thing.'

Interviewee 4 (classroom teacher during internship) mentioned a less than enthusiastic mentor as a hurdle to be overcome: 'As a teacher at the time it was tough. I presented the tasks I had developed yet I met with resistance from the school [principal] about being involved. I found that what was important to me wasn't necessarily important to the admin team at the time – they were ambivalent.' This person went on to end the statement with, 'However, even with the difficulties I faced it was very valuable to me, even with the few hiccups.'

Interviewee 5 (formal leader) stated what turned out to be a general theme present in the opinions expressed by all nine interviewees, that they favoured less structuring than more structuring from the faculty consultant: 'I would only reach out to the Faculty Consultant when I needed him. I didn't want to be spoon-fed. I liked his guidance and the encouragement to clearly define what I wanted to do and then I could move forward.' Setting the internship up through face-to-face dialogue between student, mentor and consultant was identified as a key ingredient leading to the success of the internship, an initial scaffolding that in most cases proved sufficient in establishing the roles, expectations and boundaries of the internship process.

Interviewee 6 (classroom teacher during the internship) thought that the requirement to maintain a journal of activities and reflections upon them was very useful in helping to ponder the leadership import of what they were doing: 'Keeping the journal for the internship was a good learning tool for me. It allowed me to improve my own leadership processes. It was internal learning and key to my development.' The journal was also identified by other interviewees and grows out of the importance placed on clearly knowing what the internship was all about and keeping clear notes on what was working and what was not. The metacognitive aspect of journal writing, as identified by this interviewee, was also recognised for the leadership role it played once several of the students left the programme and entered into leadership positions. Being able to write and reflect about the leadership activity was seen as key in helping the leader grow in skill and knowledge. Keeping a journal provided a road map of their journey into leadership, and reflection and writing pushed them to construct meaning in a way that fleeting thoughts and half-remembered conversations could not.

Two school superintendents, with 40 of our programme graduates working in their schools, shared their thoughts about the educational leadership specialisation and what they perceived to be the impact of the internship component of the programme. The following statements relate to the value they see in this element of the programme. The internship was shown to be valuable

to the interns themselves in the development and enhancement of their own leadership. These two educational leaders also point out the value the internship had on the mentors as well as the impact it had on the operation of the school divisions:

The internship is a very effective part of the program. We had the three graduates right out of the gate – they were in one of the first cohorts in the program. They would talk to people in later cohorts and ask what they thought they might do in their internships. They were supporters and cheerleaders. What people would select as an internship project was a big deal in our schools. A side benefit was the impact it had on the other folks in the school division, not just those in the program itself. It had a tremendous impact on the mentors. They had to think about their own practice when they were mentoring the students from the program. It forced the two to sit together and have quality education conversations – what would happen if we did this? What about that? Conversations that centered on high quality education. Conversations between interns and mentors eventually led to the development of a Peer Coaching program in our division. The interactions between the mentors and interns also led to the development of a leadership development program. Remarkable isn't it? Program grads are constantly asking about current practice and wondering, is this the best way we can go about this? If not, we need to change it. (Superintendent 1)

The internship is a valuable addition to the program. I have seen remarkable growth in our leaders as they have gone through the program and put the theory they were learning in class into practice in the schools. Because the internship focuses in on tasks ordinarily associated with school leadership these students get first hand experience of what it means to be a school leader even before they are given the formal designation. I found that when students go through this program and complete the internship they are well prepared for formal leadership in the school. The internship is making a big impact on the quality of leadership. When you blend the internship with the other elements of the leadership program we benefit by having well prepared leaders working in our schools. (Superintendent 2)

In short, from the perspective of these two school superintendents the intent of the internship was fully realised: developing the leadership knowledge and skills of interns and opening up new perspectives for mentors; sparking deep conversations about teaching and learning; catalysing initiatives to further leadership growth; creating a network of programme graduates from different cohorts within the divisions; and creating a critical mass of change agents along the way.

## Reflection and Conclusion

How has the internship component of the educational leadership specialisation programme impacted the practice of leadership by the graduates of the programme? Our interpretation of the data we collected for this study would suggest that in the main it had positive and long-lasting impacts in providing job-embedded learning for graduates. These impacts were made possible by several distinct practices whose design and process were negotiated, co-ordinated and evaluated by partners from both the university and professional (field) sides: mentoring by knowledgeable school leaders; taking on responsibilities for leading and making decisions typical of an educational leader; consistent feedback from university consultants; preparing graduates for the work of formal and teacher leadership; and providing a setting for

collaboration and problem solving with peers. A critical piece in ensuring that impacts should have their intended outcomes is putting the intern at the centre of all conversations about each phase of the internship experience.

From graduate and superintendent data, we know that the internship was particularly appreciated as a unique instrument that showcased the interplay of academic and professional theory-in-action (Berry & Beach 2009) that a 'traditional' programme would not feature (Darling-Hammond et al. 2007; Orr & Orphanus 2011). The superintendents were explicit about the added value the internship introduced to the leadership profiles of graduates.

There are of course some differences in how this has played out in professional contexts. Some of our graduates were in formal leadership roles when they began the programme, and, from a variety of data sources, we know that many of our graduates have moved from teacher roles to formal leadership roles after graduation. Some graduates, on the other hand, never aspired to move on to the formal leadership route and credit the programme and particularly the internship with preparing them for their role as teacher leaders.

Most graduates benefitted from the mentorship from school leaders but we note that the internship also benefitted mentors who used the opportunity to learn what mentorship is and to co-construct that role (Lambert 2003) as they interfaced with interns, engaging, as one superintendent put it, 'in conversations that centred on high quality education' and spurring the development of peer coaching and other leadership initiatives. The internships had large-scale ripple effects.

It should be noted that for most school-based mentors this experience was their first introduction to mentorship of prospective school leaders in a formalised way. Mentorship of this nature may well be on the rise in Alberta, largely because the issue of principal succession has reached a critical mass in recent years, but, in a *formalised* sense, the notion of sustained mentorship of future school leaders has only been recently introduced in this province because of an impending shortage of qualified applicants for formal leadership positions in school (Alberta Education 2009). At the district or division level, since about 2008 some have established more formalised programmes for identifying and preparing prospective school leaders from within their respective jurisdictions (Bedard & Mombourquette 2011) but such leadership development programmes with intentional mentoring are by no means a general trend yet. While university-professional field partnerships for internships may be a fixture in many American leadership programmes, our programme is the only one in this province that features the internship at the core of its leadership preparation programme. In other words, in many cases, when we negotiate the introduction of internships with districts and schools, we are in fact proposing an innovation with which some players have had no experience, unless they have had previous graduates of our leadership programme.

Because our internships are grounded in the same educational contexts where our leadership students are also fully engaged as professional educators, we recognise that it is more difficult for full-time teachers to take on the responsibilities for leading and making decisions of an educational leader than for those who enter either as a principal or assistant principal. 'Releasing' teachers from teaching duties to pursue leadership projects may well be the ideal (Orr 2011) but in the Alberta context we have to deal with the reality that these projects are usually played out *in addition to* regular teaching duties.

Full-time teachers consequently need *more* mentorship support than those already in formal leadership positions because they need the co-operation of formal leadership to identify and

access leadership projects that go beyond the confines of day-to-day teaching duties. Much of the negotiating time of university consultants in setting up internships for this programme, as a consequence, has been in motivating potential mentors, firstly, to create the time and space for teacher-students to experience leadership roles, and, secondly, to ensure that these roles are neither managerial nor trivial in orientation (Young 2006; Darling-Hammond et al. 2007; Pounder 2011). These constraints and opportunities require from the university side an *orientation to design as bricolage*, using 'whatever resources and repertoire one has to perform whatever task one faces' (Weick 2001: 62).

While we recognise that some interns do not want to be 'spoon-fed' through the internship by university consultants, we would emphasise, along with Fry, Bottoms and O'Neill (2005), that a sturdy *scaffolding* of the internship, from the university side, is a necessary condition for its success. We have learned this from eight years of running internships, ongoing feedback from primary players, student evaluations of each iteration of an internship, previous evaluations of our programme (Aitken & Bedard 2007), and, most importantly, from working collaboratively within a small team structure at the university to ensure that what is working needs to be sustained and what is not working needs to be adapted or jettisoned.

We have learned that university semester timelines do not fit the timelines and opportunities for leadership experiences in a field setting and that the expectation of a start-stop date for internships within the confines of a three-month university semester does not jive well with the rhythm of the field. We have learned to initiate the internship experience at the earliest, practical opportunity after a new cohort commences in the programme and to allow the two internships that our students regularly engage in to unfold over most of the two-and-a-half years of the programme's duration. We have also learned that, for all this to happen, the leadership preparation faculty members need the informed support of faculty administration for changes that we deem essential.

We have learned that role expectations and the process of the internships are complex enough to commit to a handbook that is distributed to interns, mentors and superintendents. While the informal communication piece is an important part of the internship process, this informal means should be counterbalanced with more formal means for sustaining organisational memory. We have also learned the first four months of the internship, from the university side, requires the heaviest lifting in terms of university consultant activities. These early months necessitate many face-to-face communication sessions with the field-based professionals supporting our interns. We supplement written policy and face-to-face meetings with Skype, videoconferencing, phone calls and emails along with electronic documentation of intern progress.

In short, we have learned that managing internships of merit requires from professors in university-based programmes a *disposition* to respond to contingencies in ways that are both bureaucratic and adhocratic in nature (Mintzberg 1979) and demands an *advocacy* of the view that the preparation of school leaders is a task that must be shared by a network of stakeholders, embracing faculties of education, divisions and schools, teacher and leader associations, and provincial policy centres.

## References

- Aitken, A. & Bedard, G. (2007), The Evaluation of a Standards-Based Educational Leadership Program, *The International Journal of Learning* 13: 61–71.
- Alberta Education (2009), *Principal Quality Practice Guideline: Promoting Successful School Leadership in Alberta* (LB2831.926.C2 A333 2009). Edmonton, AB: Alberta Education. Retrieved from <http://education.alberta.ca/admin/resources.aspx>.
- Bedard, G. & Mombourquette, C. (2011). *Key District-Level Leadership Practices to Support Sustained Student Achievement: The Evidence from Three Alberta Case Studies*. Paper presented at the meeting of the College of Alberta School Superintendents, Calgary, Alberta, November.
- Berry, J.E. & Beach, R. (2009), *K-12 Leadership and the Educational Administration Curriculum: A Theory of Preparation*. [www.oercommons.org/courses/k-12-leadership-and-the-educational-administration-curriculum-a-theory-of-preparation](http://www.oercommons.org/courses/k-12-leadership-and-the-educational-administration-curriculum-a-theory-of-preparation).
- Creswell, J. (2003), *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches* (Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage).
- Darling-Hammond, L., LaPointe, M., Meyerson, D., Orr, M.T. & Cohen, C. (2007), *Preparing School Leaders for a Changing World: Lessons from Exemplary Leadership Development Programs* (Stanford, CA: Stanford Educational Leadership Institute).
- Davis, S., Darling-Hammond, L., Meyerson, D. & LaPointe, M. (2005), *Review of research. School Leadership Study. Developing Successful Principals* (Palo Alto, CA: Stanford Educational Leadership Institute).
- Fry, B., Bottoms, G. & O’Neill, K. (2005), *The Principal Internship: How Can We Get It Right?* (Atlanta, GA: Southern Regional Education Board).
- Gaskell, G. (2000), Individual and Group Interviewing, in M.W. Bauer & G. Gaskell (eds), *Qualitative Researching with Text, Image and Sound: A Practical Handbook* (London: Sage): 38–56.
- Gay, P. & Airasian, P. (2003), *Educational Research: Competencies for Analysis and Applications* (Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill Prentice-Hall).
- Golafshani, N. (2003), Understanding Reliability and Validity in Qualitative Research, *The Qualitative Report* 8(4): 597–607.
- Jackson, B.L. & Kelley, C. (2002), Exceptional and Innovative Programs in Educational Leadership, *Educational Administration Quarterly* 38: 192–212.
- Lambert, L. (2003), *Leadership Capacity for Lasting School Improvement* (Alexandria, VA: The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development).
- Leithwood, K. & Mascall, B. (2008), Collective Leadership Effects on Student Achievement, *Educational Administration Quarterly* 44(4): 529–561. doi: 10.1177/0013161x08321221
- McCarthy, M.M. (1999), The Evolution of Educational Leadership Preparation Programs, in J. Murphy & K.S. Louis (eds), *Handbook of Research on Educational Administration: A Project of the American Educational Research Association* (San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass): 119–139.
- Mintzberg, H. (1979), *The Structuring of Organizations* (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall).
- Murphy, J. & Vriesenga, M. (2006), Research on School Leadership Preparation in the United States: An Analysis, *School Leadership & Management* 26: 183–195.
- Orr, M.T. (2006), Mapping Innovation in Leadership Preparation in Our Nation’s Schools of Education, *Phi Delta Kappan* 87: 492–499.
- Orr, M.T. (2011), Pipeline to Preparation to Advancement: Graduates’ Experiences in, Through, and Beyond Leadership Preparation, *Educational Administration Quarterly* 47(114): 115–172. doi: 10.1177/0011000010378612
- Orr, M.T. & Orphanos, S. (2011), How Graduate-Level Preparation Influences the Effectiveness of School Leaders: A Comparison of the Outcomes of Exemplary and Conventional Leadership Preparation Programs for Principals, *Educational Administration Quarterly* 47(1): 18–70. doi: 10.1177/0011000010378610

Pounder, D.G. (1995), Theory to Practice in Administrator Preparation: An Evaluation Study, *Journal of School Leadership* 5: 151–162.

Pounder, D.G. (2011), Leader Preparation Special Issue: Implications for Policy, Practice, and Research, *Educational Administration Quarterly* 47(1): 258–267. doi: 10.1177/0011000010378615

Seashore Louis, K., Dretzke, B. & Wahlstrom, K. (2010), How Does Leadership Affect Student Achievement? Results from a National US Survey, *School Effectiveness & School Improvement* 21(3): 315–336. doi: 10.1080/09243453.2010.486586

Weick, K.E. (2001), *Making Sense of the Organization* (Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing).

Young, M.D. (2006), The M.Ed., Ed.D., and Ph.D. in Educational Leadership, *UCEA Review* 48(2): 6–9.

Young, M.D., Crow, G., Ogawa, R. & Murphy, J. (2009), *The Handbook of Research on Leadership Preparation* (New York: Routledge).

Young, M., Petersen G. & Short, P. (2002), The Complexity of Substantive Reform: A Call for Interdependence Among Key Stakeholders, *Educational Administration Quarterly* 38 (April): 137–175. doi:10.1177/0013161X02382003

## Author Details

Carmen Mombourquette  
Faculty of Education  
University of Lethbridge  
Alberta  
Canada  
Email: carmen.mombourquette@uleth.ca

George J. Bedard  
Faculty of Education  
University of Lethbridge  
Alberta  
Canada  
Email: george.bedard@uleth.ca



# Journeying Together: Understanding the Process of Teacher Change and the Impacts on Student Learning

**Jake Madden, Judith Wilks, Maria Maione, Naomi Loader and Ngaire Robinson**

**Abstract:** *This paper explores the journey teachers from a systemic Catholic primary school in regional northern New South Wales, Australia, undertook in the implementation of a new school curriculum framework, underpinned by 21st-century teaching and learning theory, policy and practice. With the swift and sweeping implementation of the Australian federal government's economic stimulus package 'Building the Education Revolution' [BER] in 2009, schools were afforded the opportunity to rethink school and classroom design to support the 21st-century learner and their needs. This programme expedited the creation of a flexible learning environment at the case study school, aligned with innovations in teaching and learning practices and school structures.*

*Extending teachers' professional learning and deepening staff knowledge were important first steps in fostering a consistent understanding across the school of not only the 'how' of change but also the 'why' of change. The study's findings should resonate with other schools wishing to engage in whole of school change.*

## Introduction

This paper reports on an action research project conducted as part the Inhouse Inquiry Project, a partnership between the Catholic Education Office (CEO) Lismore, New South Wales (NSW) and the Centre for Children and Young People, School of Education, Southern Cross University, and funded by the NSW and Federal governments through the National Partnership Teacher Quality Program (Thornton et al. 2011).

Reform, reformulation and change are constant features of schools and learning programmes across the globe, and more consciously so than ever since the beginning of the 21st century. Innovative professionals and schools are at the cutting edge of these processes. Adding to this flux has been the strident public debate that has evolved around the determination of the Australian federal government to implement standardised national testing in literacy and numeracy – in both primary and secondary schools – and the concomitant publication on its 'MySchool' website of schools' ranking and standing in these testing processes.

The educational discourse surrounding these changes and challenges has seen a renewed focus on not only how students today ('21st-century learners') learn, but also on how the design of the

learning environment ('21st-century learning spaces') might effect improved learning outcomes. Young people are growing up in a different world from that of previous generations and, as education moves from the industrial world of learning to meeting the needs of students growing up in the Internet culture, teaching practices have had to change. The assumption underlying the 21st-century learner/learning mantra is that learning programmes and learning spaces must change to cater for today's students' learning needs, contexts, experiences, styles and tools, and to assist them to become 'effective, powerful, lifelong learners' (Lara and Malveaux 2002: 505).

Teachers who may have trained a number of years ago are recognising the need to update their thinking and skills in response to the needs and demands of these 21st-century learners in their classrooms. More is expected of teachers than ever before in terms of understanding children and catering to diverse learning styles, intelligences, diverse backgrounds and experiences (Darling-Hammond cited in Hall 2009: 200).

The Australian federal government's 'Building the Education Revolution' [BER] economic stimulus package enabled the building of new physical infrastructure to support the case study school's emerging educational learning framework, enunciated in its 2009–13 strategic plan. The building programme involved the construction of a library that provided access to information in both physical and virtual spaces leading to inspiration, creativity, collaboration, engagement and inquiry. In addition three new learning centres involving flexible whole-cohort-based learning spaces informed by learning design and curriculum goals were designed and constructed. Underpinning these transformations was the journey teachers were taking in terms of re-thinking and re-imagining their teaching practices in the new context of cohort learning programmes. Of great interest to the researchers were teacher perceptions of self-efficacy along this journey, and the impacts of these changes upon student learning as articulated through both the teachers' and students' voices.

Traditionally the school's curriculum programmes had comprised teacher-centred units based on chronological Key Learning Areas (KLAs). These units were partly managed and organised by co-ordinators who collectively constituted the school leadership team. In 2008 a new strategic plan articulated a vision for learning in the 21st century focusing on the development of a learning-centred curriculum. Central to this vision was an articulation of the needs of the 21st-century learner. This included the provision of flexible learning environments that would be conducive to fostering 21st-century teaching and learning strategies.

Key aspects of the new strategic vision included developing strong literacy, numeracy and an inquiry-based programme to improve students' engagement in promoting their thinking and questioning skills, and ensuring they were actively participating in their own education. Flexible learning spaces in concert with on-demand access to digital technologies and a raft of other Web 2.0 capabilities underpinned this learning vision. The school set about to plan and design its learning spaces accordingly.

Structural changes in the school's leadership team, including the appointment of curriculum, special needs and e-learning co-ordinators, underpinned the significant shift in the school away from the KLA model towards a different style of leadership support team. Initially increased collaborative planning expectations were a particular challenge for class teachers. Thus extensive teacher in-service programmes accompanied this transition, incorporating key instructional practices, and new programming outlines.

An action research methodology was applied to an investigation of characteristics of the teachers' journey as they initiated innovative cohort learning programmes and proceeded to

consolidate them. An exploration of teacher self-efficacy was a result of the research, which also investigated the impacts on student learning. For the case study school, cohort learning refers to the organisation and implementation of a learning programme for a year level of students. Responsibility for student learning rests equally with each teacher in the grade. The shared decision-making on student learning shifts into the collaborative learning spaces, where student groupings are based upon learning needs. This collaborative structure allows instruction to involve academic, interest or even friendship groups across the grade.

## Recent Government Directions

Recent and key educational directives promulgated by federal and state government agencies have been influential in transforming contemporary understandings of the nature of schools and schooling today. For example, with the announcement that schools were going to be the major beneficiary of the federal government's stimulus package (BER) in 2009, a number of significant expectations were presented to schools. This stimulus package comprised three key programmes: Primary Schools for the 21st Century, National School Pride, and Language and Science Centres for 21st Century Secondary Schools.

The key focus for the Federal Government's BER's 'Primary Schools for the 21st Century' programme was to provide investment to build or upgrade large-scale infrastructure. The priorities for this investment were to build 21st-century libraries, halls and classrooms, and other key buildings delivering:

long-term infrastructure solutions so that students, teachers and the wider community have access to high quality resources to support learning and improve the quality and diversity of learning environments. (NSW Government 2011)

With the clear expectation that through this stimulus package schools create innovative learning spaces, a focus quickly developed in the school around the diverse ways in which students learn most effectively, and the critical design elements of environments capable of fostering such learning. Alongside these changes has been the introduction of the Digital Education Revolution (DER) in 2008, involving, among other things, an assumption that by issuing laptop computers to each and every secondary student in Australia student learning would be improved.

Notwithstanding the immense cost of this programme (including the infrastructure needed to implement it), it was essentially left to schools to determine how to pedagogically implement an ICT learning platform for the students. Teachers were left to wonder whether by putting computers into schools they had been sold 'one half of a product'; that is, they had bought the infrastructure and the equipment but were never given 'the educational piece' (McKenzie 1999, cited in Joyce 2005: 52).

Yet another new and challenging context was the drafting and piecemeal release of the Australian Curriculum. According to its authors, the Australian Curriculum and Reporting Authority (ACARA 2010), the new curriculum is being designed to equip students with the essential skills, knowledge and capabilities to thrive and compete in a globalised world and information-rich workplaces of the 21st century. This curriculum is being progressively rolled out in Australian schools commencing in 2012.

## Personalising and Differentiating Learning

The importance of the role of teachers in this evolving educational landscape has never been clearer, and it comes at a time when the needs of students have never been more complex. Traditionally the focus in education has centred on the role of teachers (by way of teacher-centred, or 'direct', instruction) in enhancing student learning (see for example Hattie 2003). However when we look at recent directions in education in England (for example the work of Heppell at the University of Bournemouth, ([www.heppell.net](http://www.heppell.net)), Canada (Earl 2005; Hebert & Hartley 2006) and the United States (for example Peter Lippmann in New York; see Lippmann 2007) it can be discerned that one of the main thrusts is the focus on personalising the learning environment and moving away from a dependence on teacher-centred modes of instruction.

An integrated, learning-centred curriculum is highly responsive to the needs of students and supported by new and emerging pedagogies – actively engaging students in learning (Department of Education Science and Training 2000). Further, an integrated curriculum 'provides the knowledge and skills to teach children how to learn and explore information in more than one subject area at a time and across disciplines ... and content ... [and is] applied as thematic areas' (Hardman 2009: 584).

In Australia there has been a rising focus on differentiating curriculum to enhance learning. Curriculum design focusing on inquiry-based learning is a key strategy for building meta-cognitive and meta-learning skills to benefit the lifelong learner. A number of Victorian schools are using digital technologies to support the delivery of an integrated curriculum to complement the multiple intelligences and differentiated thinking and learning styles of the digital learner (Prensky 2001).

It is at this intersection between curriculum, pedagogy and technology that the role of the teacher is crucial. Models have emerged to guide educators in how to negotiate this, for example 'TPACK'. This model places technological content knowledge at the interstices of technology, pedagogical knowledge and content knowledge.<sup>1</sup>

## A 21st-Century Curriculum

Young people today are growing up in a complex globalised world. Recent studies (Kolikant 2010) highlight that they live a fast-paced, digitally connected life and have certain expectations about the ways they learn. To support the learners of today it is critical that curricula are designed to inspire, engage and challenge young people, and prepare them for a future that is yet to be determined with any accuracy. These 21st-century learners need to be flexible and adaptable so that they can deal with change and manage the information available to them in many different formats. They need to be optimistic, influential, knowledgeable and articulate, and must develop the skills required for lifelong learning including: critical thinking and problem-solving capabilities, agility and adaptability, and curiosity and imagination (Wagner 2008).

In 2005 the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) put forward a selection of key competencies that individuals required to face the complex challenges of today's world. These included using language and technology interactively, co-operating and working in teams, and acting within a 'big picture' parameter. The OECD concluded that schools are the major site for the acquisition of these competencies (OECD 2005).

<sup>1</sup> <http://tpack.org>.

With a shared understanding at the case study school around of what constitutes a 21st-century skills set, the next step was to identify the relevant pedagogies and the necessary learning spaces that would assist students to develop these. The interconnectedness of the learning environment, improved understanding of how children and young people learn, and the advent of information and communication technologies are all factors that have been influential in the transformations in pedagogies and schools since the early 2000s, and have guided the teachers' thinking and planning.

## Digital Technologies in Learning

Bridging the gap between how students live and how they learn is seen as a key challenge for schools in engaging students in the learning process. Web 2.0 functionality and tools are becoming commonplace in the lives of students with schools becoming increasingly pressured to offer engaging and collaborative technologies to enhance and to this challenge.

In educational circles an intense discourse continues to revolve around the use and pedagogical purposes of digital technology. Recent years have seen the provision of interactive whiteboards in classrooms or special purpose rooms. At the same time 'computer rooms' in schools (requiring substantial capital investment) are fast becoming a thing of the past as a consequence of the rollout of the (DER) 'laptops for learning' computer programme.

Implicit in the continual references to our children growing up in a globalised or digital world is an assumption of the comfortableness of students in the use of digital technology in educational settings. This assumption is reasonable because they are so adept at its use in leisure settings. Young people will be increasingly engaged in the frequent use of digital technology for entertainment and leisure, social networking, research and communication. Thus assisting students to acquire a commensurate, and adaptable, digital skills set to apply in educational settings is vital.

## Designing Spaces for Effective 21st-Century Learning

As schools move towards providing more effective learning programmes to meet the needs of students it follows that they must ensure that *both* curricula and learning spaces provide opportunities to motivate and engage students in the learning process.

A recent federal government white paper, 'What is a 21st Century Learning Environment?' (21st Century Schools 2008) furthers the notion of the 21st-century learner. The digital student, commonly called the 'networked student' (Prensky 2001) not only requires a different work space but also teachers who can deliver a differentiated learning programme that incorporates a heavy technological approach. With learning activities becoming more collaborative, learning spaces need to be more personalised yet also more amenable to group-inquiry-based project work, more engaging, and more flexible and adaptable, to enable a diverse range of learning scenarios.

Today, new learning spaces are being designed by architects and built by education departments whose motivation stems from a desire to create places that are responsive to the learning needs of their users. The new pedagogies, properly applied, require architects, infrastructure managers and educators to understand that:

- the manipulation of virtual as well as physical resources and spaces is vital;
- the skills of individual and collaborative research and innovation are required;

- learning can occur anywhere, anyhow and any time; and
- flexibility/adaptability/agility in both thinking and spaces is required.

Much can be learned about the design principles of 21st-century learning spaces through perusing the results of the UK's 'Building Schools for the Future' programme (BSF 2005), where schools throughout the country were remodelled or rebuilt. In the UK cities of Telford and Wrekin interactive learning environments have been constructed with learning pods of modular design adaptable to the needs of all education sectors with a minimum of effort and disruption. In Durham high-tech global classrooms have been established to develop and evaluate the application of new technologies, and teaching and learning styles, as well as sustainability and the community use of school buildings.

Similarly, programmes being implemented in Denmark involve the design of learning spaces to enhance the pedagogical underpinnings of schools. There is a YouTube clip of the Hellerup School, Denmark which exemplifies this move towards personalised learning, enabling students to feel more comfortable at school and more in control of their own learning.<sup>2</sup> In short, the learning spaces support the 21st-century pedagogies.

Flexible learning spaces are also being designed and implemented in schools across Australia. Designing learning spaces for 21st-century learners was a key policy initiative of the Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs (MEECYTA 2008) to assist schools as they began to implement their own BER programmes. The construction of agile learning and 'breakout' spaces has been integral to the provision of effective learning environments for both students and teachers alike (Whitby 2007). The refurbishment of many existing schools has been taking place accordingly, for example St Monica's in the Parramatta Diocese.<sup>3</sup> Also instructive is the collaborative work of the Faculty of Architecture, Melbourne University with a number of local schools (for example Dandenong and Williamstown High Schools and Carlton North Primary School) in the 'Smart Green Schools' research initiative.<sup>4</sup>

Evidence of other examples of innovative learning spaces design is becoming more plentiful as research into this area grows (Victorian Department of Education and Early Childhood Development 2009; Lee, Dixon & Andrews n.d). In New Zealand, schools with innovative learning spaces have been constructed, such as Stonefields Primary<sup>5</sup> and Albany Senior High School.<sup>6</sup>

## Research Design

As previously stated, the aim of this study was to record teachers' journeys in the initial implementation of the school's new cohort learning framework. Data was collected around three main questions:

- In what ways does the school's curriculum framework reflect and respond to the learner of today?

<sup>2</sup> [www.youtube.com/watch?v=glmSEAgSsok](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=glmSEAgSsok).

<sup>3</sup> [www.stmonicasparra.catholic.edu.au](http://www.stmonicasparra.catholic.edu.au).

<sup>4</sup> [www.abp.unimelb.edu.au/research/smart-green-schools](http://www.abp.unimelb.edu.au/research/smart-green-schools).

<sup>5</sup> [www.stonefields.school.nz](http://www.stonefields.school.nz).

<sup>6</sup> [www.ashs.school.nz](http://www.ashs.school.nz).

- ii. In what ways are teachers experiencing and involving themselves in cohort learning and what are the impacts on their own perceptions of self-efficacy and well-being?
- iii. What are the students' own experiences of cohort learning innovations and what evidence is there that these innovations are bringing about positive learning and well-being outcomes for students?

The methodology included both quantitative (online questionnaire) and qualitative (focus group interviews) data sources. In addition to information about demographics and teaching experience, the online survey asked teachers to rate the factors that both *inhibited* and *enhanced* their ability to do their job effectively, and to list the changes they had noticed to their preparation time since the introduction of cohort learning (as in how, when, where and how much). Additionally they were asked about changes to their stress levels over the same period of time, and also about their levels of agreement with a series of statements relating to aspects of teacher and/or student engagement in the context of cohort learning.

The results of the online survey were analysed and used to inform the construction of a series of open-ended questions for the second stage of the research, comprising nine focus-group discussions. The focus-group interviews, in which 90 per cent of classroom teachers participated, were used to interrogate, confirm or clarify themes and patterns raised by the online survey data, and to identify any additional issues. There were seven teacher focus groups including one for each cohort plus one focus group comprising support teachers from music, library and PE. The ninth focus group included 12 students from Kindergarten to Year Six.

The school has an enrolment of 620 children. Across the 24 classes the class sizes range from 24 in Kindergarten to 31 in Year Six. Of the 62 full-time and part-time staff at the school (including 38 classroom teachers), 82 per cent responded to the online survey, and 90 per cent were involved in the focus-group interviews. The average teacher age was 46 years and the average length of teaching experience was 18 years; 58 per cent of the staff had taught at the school for eight years or more. Just under 50 per cent of the staff had only ever taught at the case study school.

## Findings

The purpose of this research was to delve into teachers' opinions of how the implementation of the concept of cohort learning had impacted upon teachers' perception of self-efficacy in the initial stages of this innovation. A perusal of Table 1 offer a preliminary insight into teachers' thoughts.

**Table 1:** Teacher and student engagement in relation to cohort learning

On the following five-point Likert scale (1 being 'do not agree' and 5, 'strongly agree'), indicate the degree that you or students are engaged in their learning since the introduction of cohort learning.	1	2	3	4	5
1. The children are more engaged in their learning		(1) 3.6%	(7) 25%	(13) 46.4%	(7) 25%
2. The curriculum framework supports the needs of the 21st-century learner.		(1) 3.6%	(7) 25%	(17) 60.7%	(3) 10.7%
3. Teaching at St Augustine's is student centred.			(6) 21.4%	(14) 50%	(8) 28.6%
4. The learning behaviours of the children are improving		(2) 7.4%	(7) 25.9%	(12) 44.4%	(6) 22.2%
5. My own professional learning has increased.			(3) 10.7%	(9) 32.1%	(16) 57.1%
6. The strategic plan is an influential source of decision-making at our school.			(3) 10.7%	(11) 39.3%	(14) 50%
7. My teaching has changed in the past two years.		(1) 3.6%	(1) 3.6%	(12) 42.9%	(14) 50%
8. I work closely with the teachers in my cohort.			(3) 11.1%	(7) 25.9%	(17) 63%
9. I believe the cohort-learning model is conducive to increasing student achievement.			(6) 21.4%	(17) 60.7%	(5) 17.9%
10. The staff I work with are more motivated.			(4) 14.3%	(13) 46.4%	(11) 39.3%
11. The learning activities for my students are more comprehensive.			(7) 25.9%	(14) 51.9%	(6) 22.2%
12. The learning activities are now more suited to students' needs.		(1) 3.6%	(7) 25%	(15) 53.6%	(5) 17.9%
13. Because of the cohort-learning model I look forward to coming to school each day.			(9) 32.1%	(11) 39.9%	(8) 28.6%
14. Cohort learning has encouraged me to rethink my pedagogy.			(4) 14.3%	(11) 39.3%	(13) 46.4%
15. The students are showing greater interest in the learning.			(5) 17.9%	(17) 60.7%	(6) 21.4%

This table highlights a strong belief that cohort learning has had a strong impact upon teachers' own professional learning (Q5) and that the focus has shifted from a teacher-centric school to a more student-centred approach (Q1, Q3, Q12). The data indicates not only that teachers are more motivated (Q10, Q13) but also that they changed their teacher practice (Q7, Q14).



Five significant themes emerged from the online survey and focus group data, which were related to:

- planning time
- learning spaces
- assessment and reporting
- student engagement
- teacher engagement and support.

The following discusses these five themes in relation to the findings of both Stage 1 (online survey) and Stage 2 (focus groups) of the research.

## Planning Time

Both the online survey and the focus group interviews indicated that most teachers thought that the amount of out-of-school time spent on preparing lessons had decreased since the introduction of the cohort-learning programme. For example, 93 per cent of teachers in the online survey agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that positive interpersonal relationships with colleagues are a factor that enhances their ability to their job well. This is not an unexpected finding given teaching's many-layered and fundamentally socially interactive nature. Teachers were finding that the collaborative demands of cohort learning were higher as the planning activities needed to be done at school with cohort colleagues. Thus both the *when* and the *where* of teacher planning had changed. The days of teachers doing their planning and programming in isolation at home had ceased, and consequently some teachers reported that the school day was longer.

Teachers also reported that they were using their planning and release time more efficiently to work together to develop programmes and write and renew curriculum, with one teacher observing that 'what I do, I do better, and have more time to plan'. A number of teachers were meeting in cohort groups over the school holidays to plan and programme collaboratively for the coming term as 'getting four or more teachers together during the school day is hard'.

Teachers also perceived a change in the quality of their planning time. They felt that with teams of teachers now planning and designing modules and units of work, a greater diversity of experience was being brought to the design process, and that planning was more 'fruitful and creative'. They expressed the advantages of teachers bringing their own specialisations, skills, talents and passions to bear on learning design. A number of teachers also commented that increased flexibility and 'letting go' was required around planning, and one teacher commented that 'it pushes us out of our comfort zone' and another, 'my focus has shifted to thinking about learning'.

## Learning Spaces

The online survey results indicated that working conditions were not only an inhibitor (52 per cent level of agreement) but also an enhancer (43 per cent level of agreement) of teachers' ability to do their job effectively. The teacher focus-group discussions clarified that, of all the working conditions, the physical learning spaces were the major element affecting teachers' perceptions about their own ability to do their job effectively. They reported that a positive physical environment was important for cohort learning to be effective. Having sufficient space and making available a variety of flexible cohort-learning spaces and purpose-built furniture were reported to have enhanced learning.

Under the cohort-learning model the students in the cohorts were sharing school resources, no longer needing to bring stationery items from home. Almost unanimously, teachers agreed that shared stationery was very conducive to fluid, easy movement of students from one learning experience to another. The only concern for teachers was that some students were not showing as much respect for communal equipment as they might towards their own.

'Flexibility' was a strong theme emanating from the focus-group discussions. Teaching requires enormous flexibility, and the cohort learning style appears to have increased the need for teachers to be flexible. The new agile learning spaces in the school require teacher flexibility around their own teaching practices and also in their interpersonal relationships with their cohort colleagues. Flexibility was required in the organisation of the equipment in spaces, for example in the use of an interactive whiteboard.

Teachers no longer had one class in one room using one timetable. There were a number of classes, teachers, timetables, groups and personalities all operating collectively and co-operatively in the learning space. Flexibility was required not only in the organisation of the space but also in the use of resources (e.g. the use of an interactive whiteboard) and when changes to the timetable occurred.

The majority of teachers thought that students had greater access to technology as part of their learning and more time to utilise different forms of technology since moving into cohort groups. Resulting from the introduction of the cohort-learning practices, staff found the sharing of ICT-based resources to be more effective. In particular the students found that locating and accessing the notebook computers was easier as they were housed in a common place within the cohort. Because students were not wasting time on reaching for resources teachers were able to increase time on task for students.

Overall the teachers felt the cohort learning spaces offered both themselves and their students a stronger focus on communal sharing, adapting, negotiating and exploring their learning. Conversations were arising each day about how to best utilise and share IT resources and to maximise rich learning experiences. Teachers no longer had one class, one room or one timetable. Now there were a number of classes, teachers, timetables, groups and personalities in the learning space.

One drawback on the new cohort learning spaces appeared to be the issue of noise. Teachers strongly felt that noise levels had increased, which could have an impact on the quality of student engagement. Students echoed the teachers' concerns about the noise levels increasing but also stated that they were becoming more aware of what others were doing around them, and that the noise level seemed to adjust accordingly without teacher intervention (most of the time).

## **Assessment and Reporting**

Although not directly interrogated in either the online survey or focus group sessions, assessment and reporting was an evident theme in the focus-group discussions.

In the cohort-learning spaces teachers were no longer only with their own class group throughout the day. They had different groups for different purposes – for example ability, inquiry-based, interest and friendship. A number of teachers wondered 'how do we assess and report on our class when at times we are working with other teachers' students?'

Many teachers stated that they needed some guidance – for example, further professional development – in relation to assessment and reporting in a cohort-learning framework. The following comment sums up the sentiment:

We need some professional development on interviews with parents. How do you talk about their child's maths grade if you haven't taught them?

Teachers were looking forward to further developing a collaborative approach to cohort learning to assist them to access appropriate information on students across the cohort. Sharing of informal observations through frequent talk about the children was building a better understanding of the individual child's development across a range of domains. However teachers acknowledged that although fruitful this could be time consuming.

As a result of the collaborative assessment and reporting process many teachers felt that their understanding of where the children in their class were 'at' had improved and was more consistent. They were reaffirmed in their decision-making about assessment grades by talking with colleagues who taught the same student.

It appears that, although challenging, the process of assessment is also rewarding and has made the learning more valuable to students, parents and teachers.

## Student Engagement

In 2010 the MetLife Inc. survey<sup>7</sup> found that most teachers (80 per cent) and the great majority of principals (89 per cent) believed that students feeling responsible and accountable for their own education would have a major impact on improving student achievement. However, only 42 per cent of teachers believe that all or most of their students possessed this sense of responsibility.

The online survey results in our study indicated that the majority of teachers (a 71 per cent level of agreement or strong agreement) thought that students were more engaged in their learning since the introduction of the cohort-learning programme. The teachers observed that since the introduction of the cohort model, the learning behaviours of the students were improving attributing this to the more personalised learning activities being more conducive to their students' needs. They also felt that the students were showing a greater interest in their own learning (see Table 1).

The cohort-learning programme was assisting teachers to target students and form groupings variously according to ability levels, friendship groups, social structures or special needs. Grouping students according to their ability in literacy and numeracy enabled them to consolidate their current understandings and advance further according to their own individual level. Students were directly benefitting from this organisation and were more engaged in their learning through tasks specifically aimed at their level.

Teachers stated that their students were more engaged in their learning when given the opportunity to be taught by a variety of teachers in the cohort. Each teaching personality is different, and the students engaged well with the diversity of teachers' skills, creativity and teaching styles.

<sup>7</sup> The MetLife Survey of the American Teacher, conducted annually since 1984 by Harris Interactive, shares the voices of teachers and others close to the classroom with educators, policy-makers and the public.

Significantly, the student focus-group discussions revealed that the children themselves believed that they were more involved in their own learning:

I like working with others and then making my own decisions on what I want to learn.

They liked the responsibility of being able to choose their own working partners, and they felt that they were developing more control over their inquiry learning and were ultimately enjoying the larger learning spaces:

You can work with others and get to find out their way of learning.

In small groups you get to share ideas, not all the pressure is just on one person.

There is ... lots of group work. It's fun to change groups and move around.

I did prefer to work on my own but now I like more group work because you share ideas.

Students stated that they enjoyed the classes being 'mixed around'. They were able to choose their own partners or form groups from the whole grade, not just from a class of 30 students. They commented on the importance of changing partners and not just choosing best friends, mixing genders within groups, and being responsible and reliable members of these groups. Students understood the importance of good learning habits such as using their time wisely, asking thinking-focused questions, and co-operating and listening to each other.

Ultimately the students indicated that they felt they learned better when working and talking with others. The majority preferred small groups of no more than four. A few students commented that they still preferred to 'listen' to the teacher.

## Teacher Engagement and Support

Central to the research was the desire to understand the ways in which teachers were experiencing and involving themselves in cohort learning, and the impacts on their own perceptions of self-efficacy and well-being. During the focus-group discussions teachers expanded on their online survey responses to articulate their level of engagement in cohort learning.

The MetLife survey of American teachers found that, overwhelmingly, teachers and principals believed increased teacher collaboration – including 'meeting in teams, sharing of responsibility between teachers and school leaders, and more support of beginning teachers – has the potential to improve the school climate and teacher career satisfaction' (MetLife Inc 2010: 3).

In this project's online survey there was a 92.9 per cent level of 'agree' or 'strongly agree' that 'interpersonal relationships with colleagues' enhanced their ability to do their job effectively. 'Working conditions' and 'personal growth' were both ranked next highest at 43 per cent. There were also substantial levels of agreement with the suggestion that the teachers' own professional learning had increased through the cohort-learning arrangement.

Teachers felt that, as a cohort team, they were able to specialise and teach subjects in which they had particular strengths, passions or interests, but also recognised that this may potentially deskill other teachers. On the other hand, some teachers felt they could 'learn a lot by watching other teachers teach'.

Teachers felt more supported by their cohort colleagues in taking risks, with 89 per cent agreeing or strongly agreeing that they were working more closely with the other teachers in their cohort. There was a shared understanding between cohort colleagues of the theory and belief system around the purpose of education. In the online survey 86 per cent of teachers agreed or strongly agreed that the staff they work with were now more motivated. The focus-group discussions revealed that this facet of the new cohort-learning environment was pivotal in promoting teacher engagement.

In the newly shared spaces the teachers continued to maintain a roll for certain children and were responsible for those children and their families (reports, interviews, etc.), yet were also involved with other children in different settings. This required ongoing teacher communication and the sharing of ideas about the children and their progress.

The transition to cohort learning was confronting for many teachers as it represented a huge change from the usual four walls of a traditional classroom: 73 per cent of teachers agreed or strongly agreed that their teaching had changed in the two years since they had encountered the new spaces, and 86 per cent stated that cohort learning had encouraged them to rethink their own pedagogy. For some it was a daunting prospect, but most felt more motivated and had found it an encouraging an rejuvenating experience.

To be more engaged and successful in the cohort-learning environment teachers were keen to experience and see similar examples of cohort learning in action at other schools. They articulated the need for practical ideas that they could use to be more effective in personalising the learning for the students in their care.

However the teachers also expressed that their stress levels had increased as a result of 'constant change'. For example ICT and ICT-based pedagogies were expanding at such a rate that to have a thorough understanding of all ICT areas the teachers felt the constant need to be up-skilling. A number commented that there was insufficient 'take-up' time to implement and become confident in one area before yet another was introduced.

In addition to the new knowledge and skills teachers believed they had to grasp to implement the new cohort-learning philosophy, some teachers feared that they would lose their class and the special relationship they build with them over the year. They also worried that they might lose spontaneity – a loss of 'teachable moments'. However, others felt that their bonds with their class were as strong as before, but with the added benefit of colleague support.

Most teachers commented on the benefits of planning together. They felt they were producing more engaging, creative ideas because, as one teacher put it, 'three heads are better than one'. They also felt encouraged to try new ideas and take greater risks because of the support they felt from their colleagues. In this sense they are the ones creating the 'innovative sparks' that Perillo and Mulcahy (2009: 51) refer to – that is, the place where educators are 'co-performing a complex network of curriculum activity'.

The teachers believed that the greater opportunity to share areas of expertise in the planning and implementation of learning also assisted them to feel more supported. They felt they didn't need to 'be everything to everyone' at all times and instead felt more able to put their energies into student learning. The shared planning also meant that there was greater consistency in the delivery of learning and the communication about learning with parents.

Likewise, teachers felt greater support from their cohort colleagues in their endeavour to personalise learning for the children. There was more than 'one set of eyes' to observe the

students and more heads to plan, problem solve and confirm ideas – all factors that teachers believed to be beneficial for both themselves and the students.

In dealing with children with behaviour problems, teachers felt a greater sense of support from their colleagues. Colleagues would be in close proximity to help diffuse stressful situations, and to discuss strategies for modifying inappropriate behaviour. As the children were now interacting with all the teachers in the cohort, the co-teachers provided support and conveyed a consistent expectation of behaviour.

Teachers also commented that they have felt supported when absent from the classroom due to illness, professional development or extracurricular activities. At these times their colleagues have been able to work more closely with the relief teacher to explain the learning activities. However, when two out of the three teachers on a cohort were absent, especially during an intensive inquiry-learning task, the remaining teacher felt the extra stress and responsibility for the larger group.

## Conclusion

This research opportunity has provided a timely juncture to record, review and reflect on teachers' and students' journeys in the initial implementation phase of a new curriculum framework in a context of new learning spaces. It is clear that these innovations have had a substantial impact, not only on the staff, but also on the students.

The move from a teacher-centred delivery curriculum based on unitised key learning areas to a more learner- and learning-centred inquiry-based model in just three years is testament to the value and commitment of the staff to improving student learning. The implementation process is continuous as are the teachers' and students' individual and collective learning journeys around it.

Active and engaged teachers sharing cohort-learning spaces are providing more focused attention to student learning behaviours. Cohort learning has enabled students to be more engaged in the learning process, enhancing their enjoyment of learning activities and ability to articulate their preferred learning styles. Agile learning spaces have provided a creative setting for active and inclusive inquiry and problem-based learning, enabling a myriad of interactions between students and drawing all into the learning process.

Moving from a 'one teacher – one class – one classroom' KLA-based structure to a cohort-learning-centred approach situated in flexible learning spaces has enabled staff to be more flexible. Collaboration and creativity are now guiding the planning, design, organisation and delivery of teaching and learning. Initial teacher fears about losing spontaneity and flexibility in their teaching were dissolved once they physically taught in the learning spaces.

It should be noted that the newly employed approaches to planning and curriculum design at the school reflect what theorists over many years have been saying are desirable: for example, collaborative and collegial approaches, and the curriculum being more student centred and inquiry based. But in this case study these innovations have occurred also as the consequence of the arrival of new learning spaces and the ubiquitous technologies into the lives of teachers and learners.

A whole-school approach has necessitated a significant shift in the mindsets of teachers in addressing the learning needs of students growing up in a digital world. The ongoing role of the school leadership team in undertaking carefully designed professional development to support

the teachers around whole-school change was vital, and needs to be ongoing, targeted and effective if it is to mitigate teachers' fears and anxieties and address their learning needs (for example, digital technologies).

With the push for more complex, intellectually demanding approaches to teaching it is hoped that this report will assist other schools and school leadership teams. It has hopefully provided insights into engaging teachers in change processes, particularly for those associated with learning spaces and the accompanying curriculum designs and administrative structures, and will assist them to deepen their understanding of their own roles as lifelong professional learners.

## References

- 21st Century Schools (2008), *What Is 21st Century Education?* Retrieved 15 June 2011 from [www.21stcenturyschools.com/What\\_is\\_21st\\_Century\\_Education.htm](http://www.21stcenturyschools.com/What_is_21st_Century_Education.htm).
- Australian Curriculum and Reporting Authority (ACARA) (2010), Australian Curriculum. Retrieved September 2010 from [www.acara.edu.au/curriculum.html](http://www.acara.edu.au/curriculum.html).
- Building Schools for the Future (BSF) (2005), Retrieved 10 April 2012 from [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Building\\_Schools\\_for\\_the\\_Future](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Building_Schools_for_the_Future).
- Department of Education Science and Training. (2000). *Teacher for the 21st Century: Making the Difference*. Retrieved 15 November 2003 from [www.deewr.gov.au](http://www.deewr.gov.au).
- Earl, L. (2005), Reinventing Schools in Canada, in *Personalized Learning: High Expectations Symposium* (Sydney: Department of Education and Training (NSW)).
- Hall, G. (2009), The Everyday Practices of Partnership: The Interactional Work of Participants in a School and University Collaboration, in M. Cooper (ed.), *Teacher Education: Local and Global – Australian Teacher Education Association 33rd Annual Conference*, 6 July–9 July 2005, Australia, Queensland, Gold Coast.
- Hardman, M. (2009), Redesigning the Preparation of Teachers within the Framework of an Integrates Program Model, *Teaching and Teacher Education* 25, 583–587.
- Hattie, J. (2003), Teachers Make a Difference: What is the Research Evidence? Paper presented at the Australian Council for Educational Research Annual Conference on Building Teacher Quality, Melbourne, October. Retrieved from [www.nzcer.org.nz/default.php?products\\_id=485](http://www.nzcer.org.nz/default.php?products_id=485)
- Hebert, Y. & Hartley, W.J. (2006), Personalised Learning and Changing Conceptions of Childhood and Youth', in *Schooling for Tomorrow: Personalising Education* (Paris, OECD).
- Joyce, P. (2005), Teaching and Learning Principles for Technology Rich Classrooms, *Teacher: The National Education Magazine* (February): 52–55.
- Kolikant, Y. (2010). Digital Natives, Better Learners? Student's Beliefs about how the Internet Influenced their Ability to Learn, *Computers in Human Behaviour* 26(6): 1384–1392.
- Lara, M. & Malveaux, L. (2002), Redesigning Teacher Preparation: Collaborative Initiative for Quality Education, in *An Imperfect World: Resonance from the Nation's Violence*, Monograph Series, Proceedings of the Annual Meeting of the National Association of African American Studies, 498–522.
- Lee, N., Dixon, J. & Andrews, T. (n.d.), *A Comprehensive Learning Space Evaluation Model*. Retrieved 28 September 2012 from [http://www.swinburne.edu.au/spl/curriculum/projectHub/files/ALTC\\_ELS\\_prop\\_BODY.pdf](http://www.swinburne.edu.au/spl/curriculum/projectHub/files/ALTC_ELS_prop_BODY.pdf).
- Lippmann, P.C. (2007), Developing a Theoretical Approach for the Design of Learning Environments, *Connected: International Conference of Design Education*, Sydney.
- MetLife Inc. (2010). *The MetLife Survey of the American Teacher* (New York: MetLife Inc.)
- MEECYTA (Ministerial Council on Education Employment Training and Youth Affairs) (2008), *Learning Spaces Framework: Learning in an Online World* (Carlton South: MEECYTA).

NSW Government (2011), Primary Schools for the 21st Century (P21). Retrieved 14 July 2011 from [www.ber.nsw.gov.au/index.php/primary-schools-for-the-21st-century](http://www.ber.nsw.gov.au/index.php/primary-schools-for-the-21st-century).

OECD (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development) (2005), The Definition and Selection of Key Competencies: Executive Summary. Retrieved on 28 September 2012 from [www.oecd.org/dataoecd/47/61/35070367.pdf](http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/47/61/35070367.pdf).

Perillo, S. & Mulcahy, D. (2009), Performing Curriculum Change in School and Teacher Education: A Practice-Based, Actor-Network Theory Perspective, *Curriculum Perspectives* 29(1): 41–52.

Prensky, M. (2001). Digital Natives, Digital Immigrants, *On the Horizon* 9(5). Retrieved 15 June 2011, from [www.marcprensky.com/writing/prensky%20-%20digital%20natives,%20digital%20immigrants%20-%20part1.pdf](http://www.marcprensky.com/writing/prensky%20-%20digital%20natives,%20digital%20immigrants%20-%20part1.pdf).

Thornton, P. et al. (2011), Teacher Leaders Driving Change: An ‘Inhouse Inquiry’ Process, *The Australian Educational Leader*, 33(2), 8–13.

Victorian Department of Education and Early Childhood Development (2009), *Pedagogy and Space: Transforming Learning Through Innovation* (Melbourne: Leading Practice and Design Innovation and Next Practice Division).

Wagner, T. (2008). *The Global Achievement Gap: Why Our Kids Don't Have the Skills They Need for College, Careers, and Citizenship – and What We Can Do About It* (New York: Basic Books).

Whitby, G. (2007). Pedagogy for the 21st Century. Paper presented at the ACEL International Conference, Sydney, Australia.



## Author Details

Jake Madden  
St Augustine's Primary School  
Coffs Harbour  
NSW  
Australia  
Email: [jmadden@lism.catholic.edu.au](mailto:jmadden@lism.catholic.edu.au)

Judith Wilks  
School of Education  
Southern Cross University  
Coffs Harbour  
NSW  
Australia  
Email: [Judith.wilks@scu.edu.au](mailto:Judith.wilks@scu.edu.au)

Maria Maione  
St Augustine's Primary School  
Coffs Harbour  
NSW  
Australia  
Email: [mmaione@lism.catholic.edu.au](mailto:mmaione@lism.catholic.edu.au)

Naomi Loader  
St Augustine's Primary School  
Coffs Harbour  
NSW  
Australia  
Email: [nloader@lism.catholic.edu.au](mailto:nloader@lism.catholic.edu.au)

Ngaire Robinson  
St Augustine's Primary School  
Coffs Harbour  
NSW  
Australia  
Email: [nrobinson@lism.catholic.edu.au](mailto:nrobinson@lism.catholic.edu.au)



# On the Need for Philosophic-Mindedness in Educational Administration: Are We Still on Track?

**John W. Friesen**

... we probably live our way into a pattern of thinking, rather than think our way into a pattern of living (Herman Harrell Horne, New York University, 1966)

**Abstract:** *Although courses in philosophy of education were once compulsory for both teachers and administrators in faculties of education across North America, today this requirement has been greatly diminished. As a result, there is a danger that educators may formulate pedagogical approaches without a clear idea of the ends in the way of ruling attitudes or desire and purpose that are to be created; that is, these innovations may be introduced in accordance with prevailing customs and traditions that have never been examined, or in response to immediate social pressures (Dewey 1961: 165–166). This paper revisits the definition of philosophic-mindedness in educational administration mandated by Philip Smith (1956) over a half-century ago, and challenges the attention of educational administrators.*

## Introduction

A half-century ago, virtually every teacher training institution in North America required at least a half-course in the field of philosophy of education for educators in training. At that time, the writings of philosophers of education constituted a burgeoning literature and included such authors as Mortimer Adler (1940), Ernest Bayles (1966), Boyd Bode (1927), Theodore Brameld (1966, 1970), Charles Brauner (1964), Harry Broudy (1954), Donald Butler (1966), John Dewey (1916), Robert Ennis (1969), William Frankena (1965), Rupert Lodge (1947), Van Cleve Morris (1961), Kingsley Price (1967), Israel Scheffler (1958), Othanel Smith (1961) and Jonas Soltis (1978, 1981).

Today, courses in philosophy of education receive only a meagre emphasis in faculties of education, possibly based on the unfortunate notion that educators – both administrators and teachers – no longer need to develop a philosophic outlook that will serve as a foundation for their professional practice (Bowie, Michaels & Solomon 1992; Johnson & Reed 2012: 224). Doing nothing administrators, such as those identified by Lumby & Foskett (2008), probably welcome not having to indulge in critical thinking while in training, arguing that the daily demands of managing an educational institution are sufficient to themselves without having to develop a philosophical rationale by which to justify their actions.

The responsibility of administering a public educational institution constitutes a complex role, and at times school principals and superintendents will be called upon to make unpleasant and controversial decisions that they deem to be in the best interests of their charges. Polls taken to measure the popularity of administrators who refuse to back away from making tough decisions will sometimes severely hamper their effective functioning (Grimmett & Echols 2000). However, history is replete with examples of individuals who refused to cave in to the pressures of conformity and the world is often much better for it. Consider the courageous roles undertaken by biblical leaders Moses and Joshua, religious leaders like Martin Luther and Martin Luther King, or politicians such as Abraham Lincoln and Harry Truman. Had these individuals waited for the results of a public poll before taking action, they would undoubtedly have done little to change society. These stalwart leaders also proved that it was sometimes possible to take action in ambiguous situations if only because of their reliance on a philosophically derived set of convictions.

### The Phenomenon of Philosophising

Use of the term philosophy sometimes frightens individuals who are probably unaware that philosophising is a universal activity. Every time someone expresses an opinion or makes an evaluation about something, they are philosophising (Howick 1971: 3). In a more formal context, however, the language explaining what the term philosophy means is more precise. Consider the following interpretations of a half-century ago. *The Dictionary of Philosophy* (Runes 1967: 235) offers this definition: 'Originally, the concept of philosophy referred to the rational explanation of anything – the general principles under which all facts could be explained. Later, the term was used to refer to the science of first principles of being – those principles that comprise the presuppositions of ultimate reality.' *The Dictionary of Sociology* (Fairchild 1964: 288) suggests that 'Philosophy constitutes a criticism of concepts and of the presuppositions of knowledge, or a synthesis of all scientific knowledge through logical inferences.' A third source, the *Dictionary of Education* (Good 1959: 395), takes a purely metaphysical stance and notes: 'Philosophy is a science that seeks to organize and systematize all fields of knowledge as a means of understanding and interpreting the totality of reality.' Finally, a more mundane source, *Webster's New World Dictionary* (1953: 1099) suggests: 'A philosopher is a individual who meets all events, whether favorable or unfavorable, with calmness and composure.' Editing these formalised definitions for our purposes could result in the following synthesised definition:

Philosophy examines and analyzes the presuppositions of any system of thought that implies a line of action to be taken, then organizes, systematizes, and critically analyzes them for practical application, and does so with calmness and composure!

This definition and the due consideration of everyday events fairly well sum up the challenges faced by today's school administrators. Sometimes, what is perceived as a complex and disparate reality may hinder the process of decision-making, but, despite this, it behooves administrators to act deliberately, and with calmness and composure. The professional administrative mandate is clear:

- a. Establish and implement an administrative strategy – complete with an underlying philosophy.
- b. Be there for your staff.
- c. Create a school climate conducive to learning.

- d. Communicate clearly the mission/vision of your school.
- e. Set high expectations for staff and students; for example, offering praise when praise is due.
- f. Develop assistant leaders.
- g. Maintain a positive attitude towards staff, students, parents, related institutions – school boards, government departments of education, teacher training colleges and universities – and community. (McEwan 1998: 137–139)

Philosophers of education believe that even on-the-spot decision-making, such as the above responsibilities imply, must be grounded in a well-thought-out frame of reference. Educators who understand the importance of being aware of underlying presuppositions will pose these kinds of questions:

- What is the nature of the field?
- What is its basic structure, method or purpose?
- What is the most appropriate and effective course of action to be taken?
- What are the fundamental underlying assumptions that drive the planned course of action?' (Friesen & Boberg 1990)

These are philosophical questions best dealt with in the context of particular philosophies such as those of science, art, mathematics and history (Soltis 1981: 11). The same may be said about all aspects of the teaching/learning process.

One of America's best-known philosophers, John Dewey (1961: 165–166), put it this way:

The difference between educational practices that are influenced by a well thought-out philosophy, and practices that are not so influenced, is the difference between education conducted with some clear idea of the ends in the way of ruling attitudes or desire and purpose that are to be created, and an education that is conducted blindly, under the control of customs and traditions that have never been examined, or in response to immediate social pressures.

Dewey believed that the act of philosophising is really an attitude of questioning – a searching orientation to determine what the best route might be to resolve a complex situation. Classic philosophising, then, is a habit of mind in the exercise of which one tends not to take the conventional and customary for granted, but is always striving to see possible alternatives. Dewey saw philosophy as an ongoing process, not a state of mind. At the same time, rational deliberations ought to be guided by a philosophy of education formulated in accordance with the following criteria outlined by Dewey (1916: 163):

1. Clarity of thought;
2. Consistency and cogency of reason;
3. Factual adequacy and reliability of knowledge claims;
4. Objectivity of knowledge claims; and,
5. Rationality of moral and purposive behavior.

Definitions selected to round out a formulated philosophy of education could benefit by adhering to the following criteria. A deliberated definition ought to:

1. Specify with clarity any line of action that is or might be involved;
2. Differentiate sharply between alternatives;

3. Avoid self-contradiction;
4. Be as concise as possible; and,
5. Represent as much consensus as possible among probable users as is compatible with satisfaction of the foregoing. (Bayles 1966: 74)

When administrators are called upon to make difficult decisions there may not always be time to stipulate criteria for needed action, but if a carefully concocted philosophy of education is in place any resultant action, even if made on the spur of the moment, should comprise a logical application of it.

The daily schedules of administrators are not necessarily always crucial to the effective functioning of the institution in their charge. This is probably fortunate because routine responsibilities of overseeing staff, assigning tasks, examining clerical records and dealing with parents are quite enough in themselves, to say nothing of workplace mistreatment such as 'bullying, mobbing, abuse, harassment, and aggression perpetrated by individuals with mental and moral dualism' and 'power intoxication' (Samier 2008: 3).

Some administrators may feel that having to manage a school campus is sufficient responsibility without having to develop a philosophical outlook. They may have a case, since some of their responsibilities are indeed quite mundane. Typical administrative tasks include setting the climate for staff performance, promoting communication and co-operation, and determining staff competencies and interests. Add to this the need to praise good performance, provide assistance where needed, and complete institutional tasks such as keeping records and determining contracts. Small wonder that some administrators elect to adopt a passive attitude with regard to the opportunities to build a philosophy of education. Samier (2008: 8–15) is pointed in suggesting that conditions conducive to shirking these professional responsibilities often include personal characteristics, as well as organisational and administrative characteristics. Some administrators simply believe that the obstacles to developing a philosophical foundation for action are insurmountable. They may stop reading at this point.

## **Developing a Philosophy of Education: Choosing From the List**

### ***Traditional Views***

The philosophies of education summarised here were very much in vogue when Philip Smith issued a timely challenge to administrators (1956). They are still relevant. Clearly the most effortless way to respond to Smith's challenge in formulating a philosophic outlook towards educational practice would be to adopt an existing perspective and claim it as one's own. A cursory examination of these systematic interpretations of the nature of the teaching/learning process, epistemological concerns and cosmic outcomes could lead one to proclaim oneself an idealist, a realist, a pragmatist or even an existentialist! Those 'students of philosophy' who are not familiar with the necessity for consistency, logical deduction and clarity of thought might even lay claim to being eclectic – that is, holding to inconsistent or paradoxical premises about the nature of truth, the nature of the society in which we are preparing students, and how individuals learn. Such a stance is an anathema to the very essence of philosophy of education.

The repertoire of philosophical systems from which to choose dates back to Plato's idealism and moves through John Dewey's pragmatism and on to the promoters of existentialism, constructivism and linguistic analysis. To begin with a brief survey of existing systems one might

start with idealism. Proponents of this line of thought hold that the primary objective of education is to imitate immutable natural laws; teachers must ensure that students acquire knowledge of unchanging principles or great ideas.

Learners are viewed as microcosmic minds, school curricula should stress students' intellectual growth in arts and science, and teachers are expected to perform as paradigmatic selves (Parkay, Stanford, Vaillancourt & Stephens 2009: 77). Administrators are expected to oversee the process by serving as positive living models of esteemed, ultimate universal principles.

Although in many ways the realist perspective parallels that of idealism, realists perceive the universe as comprising a world of diverse phenomena, and see truth as observable fact (Martin 1969). School curricula, therefore, should contain knowledge pertaining to 'known facts' that will enable students to live successfully in society.

Schools should not try to influence or set social policy, but accept the world as it is and see to it that students are prepared to function in it. This objective has sometimes given weight to the charge that realists, like idealists, believe in deliberately indoctrinating students. Learners are expected to acquire knowledge via sense mechanisms and teachers are to act as demonstrators. Realists respond to the charge that 'good' indoctrination is justified on grounds that, if it were not practised, students would fall prey to dubious philosophical orientations and find themselves unable to cope.

As arguments between idealists and realists have continued to unravel, some Thomists (sometimes called theistic realists), beginning with Thomas Aquinas (1225–74), have tried to reconcile the two opposing views by speculating that truth can be accessed through both reason and intuition, the latter as a spiritual exercise. Neo-Thomism, so called because of its revival of Thomist ideals in the twentieth century, draws on both Aristotelian natural realism and Roman Catholic Christian theology. When this approach is applied to education, learners are perceived to be rational and spiritual beings, and teachers are expected to serve as mental disciplinarians and spiritual leaders. The ultimate educational objective is the complete formation of the individual – physical, mental and spiritual. This is a lifelong process that invites the influence of many individuals and agencies in addition to the school including the family, the church and the community (Guttek 1988: 61).

Graff, Street, Kimbrough & Dykes (1966: 16, 138) applied the above perspectives specifically to the role of school administrators. They argued that the major characteristic of idealism when applied to educational administration was *resistance to change*. After all, immutable laws are perceived to be in place and it is the responsibility of educators and administrators to teach in accordance with them. Realist administrators also assume that the universe is made up of immutable natural laws but that educators possess the potential to shape and control the environment within which to instruct students about natural laws. This allows some flexibility in the hands of administrators in designing programmes that best fit the operation of their particular institution. The end result should be the same, namely that students be guided into living effective and productive lives in accordance with predetermined natural laws. Neo-Thomists propose that educators seek to develop both the intellectual and spiritual capacities of their students in order to prepare them for both their earthly lives as well as for life in the hereafter. This adds an otherworldly dimension to the educational scenario, with teachers and administrators having eventually to answer to a higher being for the manner in which they carry out this sacred mandate (Maritain 1943).

### **Modern Philosophies**

Pragmatism, existentialism and linguistic analysis constitute the more recent variations in educational philosophy, with pragmatists opting for a new emphasis on the human potential in shaping the destiny of their preferred societal form, usually perceived as democracy. Pragmatists take relativity seriously and assume that, since there are probably no ultimate absolutes, individuals are destined to create their own answers to metaphysical questions.

Pragmatism is sometimes known as instrumentalism, progressivism or experimentalism, and the emphasis underscored by pragmatists is that students are to be interactive with their learning environment, which includes interacting meaningfully with their teacher or facilitator. Education is viewed as the continuous reconstruction of experience, hence the slogan 'learning by doing'. Some progressive educators like William Heard Kilpatrick (1871–1965), for example, developed specific programmes by which to achieve these objectives. Kilpatrick's project method consisted of four steps: pupil purposing, pupil planning, pupil executing and pupil judging (Bayles & Hood 1966: 225f). Teachers were to act strictly as guides or facilitators and students were expected personally to be responsible for their own pedagogical growth. According to Kilpatrick, a democratic society required that gained insights be shared and compared. The end result would make up temporary community 'truth' until further clarifications were forthcoming. As corporate reflections continued, revised versions of truth might emerge.

Although its roots may be traced back to the Greek sophists, modern existentialism was largely promoted through the writings of such thinkers as Søren Kierkegaard (1813–55) in *Fear and Trembling and The Sickness Unto Death* (1953), Jean-Paul Sartre (1905–80) in *Being and Nothingness* (1956), and Martin Buber (1844–1900) in *I and Thou* (1958). Existentialism did experience a brief surge of public interest after World War I. At that time, Wilhelm Nietzsche (1844–1900), a German philosopher and critic of Christianity, published *Thus Spake Zarathustra* (1916), in which he posited that traditional community-based morality had weakened people to the extent of overlooking the powers of individualism. This kind of thinking spurred a resurgence of interest in individual thought. When applied to education, this theory posited that a false sense of freedom was being promoted in a world completely void of meaning; thus individuals were left to create meaning for themselves. Although mildly in favour of endorsing democratic ideals, existentialists warned against overemphasis on socialisation and group togetherness in education. Their promoters saw education primarily as a process of self-initiated unfolding from within. All individuals, including teachers and administrators, were cautioned to undertake the responsibility for identifying their own beliefs and values and choosing the philosophical assumptions by which they wanted to lead their own lives and base their professional behaviour. It was considered very important to focus on personal rights, personal responsibility and personal commitment, but never to overlook the principle of sufficient reason (Graff et al. 1966: 186, 210).

Linguistic (and conceptual) analysis is another approach to contemporary philosophy, but with a difference. Analysts do not trouble themselves with postulating about human nature, epistemology, metaphysics or cosmic concerns; they are too busy clarifying existing educational claims, slogans and objectives. For analytics, philosophic inquiry consists of seeking underlying meanings by asking questions, but not being too concerned with responses except to acknowledge them with a degree of scepticism.

Language analytics have no otherworldly concerns (Hospers 1967; Magee 1971). As the North American continent rolled into the last decade of the twentieth century, pragmatism, as the



underlying foundation of the progressive education movement, experienced several philosophical spin-offs, most of which did not follow the gestalt lead of taking relativity seriously. As pointed out earlier, though he claimed to be a pragmatist sympathiser, William Kilpatrick insisted on limiting choices made by students and having them set straight by the teacher if they 'went wrong' (Bayles & Hood 1966: 227). Theodore Brameld (1904–87) also aligned himself with the progressive education movement, but declared that educators must empower themselves to utilise educational resources for 'good', the nature of this to be determined by futuristic-minded educators. Somewhat leaning on pragmatic principles, Brameld called his new movement reconstructionism, the intent of the label being to plan for and build a new social order (Brameld 1966: 25; 1970).

More recently, the educational scene has been enriched or cluttered by the term constructivism, which is a reinvented form of Dewey's thought. The philosophical underpinnings of constructivism are essentially pragmatic in nature, namely that knowledge exists in the minds of individuals and is constructed from within through interrelation with one's environment. The meanings that individuals assign to newly encountered phenomena depend on previous experience, thus adhering to Dewey's notion of the continuous reconstruction of experience (Friesen & Friesen 2001: 76).

Constructivist-oriented teachers will encourage students to inquire, discuss and evaluate their findings in conjunction with their peers so that all may come to a fuller understanding of derived 'truth' (Hendry 1996; Wagner 1998). Dewey would no doubt concur, thus affirming that no new philosophy of education has been developed in North America for at least a half century.

Like Dewey, proponents of constructivism perceive that through inquiry learners are capable of developing personal insights that nearly parallel the validity of those perceived by trained teachers – nearly, that is, because Dewey acknowledged the validity of teacher preparation. Some theorists insist that Dewey did not go far enough in emphasising student input. Weimer (2002: 8f), for example, suggests that pedagogical power should be shifted from teachers to students and the function of subject matter should be adjusted from *knowing* to being able to *locate* information when needed. Teacher expertise is not to be regarded as particularly useful, so teachers need not even be viewed as guides or facilitators. Responsibility for learning rests solely with students; they are to be regarded as self-regulated, independent learners capable of assessing and evaluating their own progress.

Following this radical logic, there would seem to be no need for either teachers or administrators in schools. Bayles & Hood (1966: 221) insist that Dewey never promoted the idea that learners be turned loose to do as they please. Over a century ago Dewey (1900: 41) stated:

This is the difference, upon which I wish to insist, between exciting or indulging an interest and realizing it through its direction ... All children like to express themselves through the medium of form and color. If you simply indulge this interest by letting the child go on indefinitely, there is no growth that is more than accidental. But let the child first express his impulse, and then through criticism, question, and suggestion bring him to consciousness of what he has done, and what he needs to do, and the result is quite different.

Dewey, it would seem, still found a role for teachers to play in schools. He saw them as as truth therapists or epistemological umpires of sorts by challenging students to render valid arguments to defend their versions of discovered truth.

Weimer's (2002) kind of thinking underlies contemporary notions of what has been called hermeneutical phenomenology, a practice that has infiltrated graduate faculties in some universities. The approach posits that individual perceptions of truth – those of both students and faculty – are equally valid in the scheme of things. This position undoubtedly makes it very difficult for examining committees to pass judgement on the validity of research conducted by graduate students, particularly if it is primarily made up of personal interpretations of behavioural phenomena. By application, it would seem to be very difficult for administrators to carry out their managerial duties if the underlying suppositions of this approach were adhered to. Following Dewey's notion of guide, facilitator or analyst, administrators would at least be granted authority to insist on reasonable justification for actions taken by individuals in their charge.

## Developing a Philosophy of Education the Hard Way

School administrators who choose to function in relation to a well-thought-out philosophy of education will be intrigued by the forward thinking of Professor Philip G. Smith over a half century ago. Entitled *Philosophic-Mindedness in Educational Administration* (1956), Smith's thesis was that the study of philosophy of education serves three purposes for administrators:

- a. the attainment of certain dispositions;
- b. the acquisition of certain analytic skills; and
- c. the achievement of a philosophic synthesis that can guide professional behaviour.

Smith argued that philosophic-mindedness specifically encompasses three characteristics – comprehensiveness, analysis (which Smith called penetration) and flexibility.

First, by *comprehensiveness* Smith meant that effective administrators should function in accordance with the big picture – always looking at all the angles of a situation before making a decision. In the final analysis, the philosophic-minded administrator would ask, 'What is education all about? How will the decision I make about the situation at hand affect the educational success of my charges, the students?' This outlook means relating one's thinking about immediate problems to more distant, long-range goals. At times administrators may resist the 'press of the immediate' in order to assure that decisions made will be in the best interests of all individuals connected to the institution. This implies a tolerance for theoretical considerations, and the need to use one's power to generalise. Occasionally, decisions made by administrators will not be viewed with favour by all parties concerned, nor will they necessarily be appropriate decisions – but they will still need to be made. At times, the challenge will be to make a decision even if all the evidence is not in. Philosophically minded administrators need to develop the capacity to conjecture at the level of the possible, not merely the actual.

To illustrate: a college administrator reprimanded a faculty member for teaching extra courses in another faculty because this allowed him to share information with students in his area of research interest. The professor's own faculty offered no courses in that particular field. The departmental administrator wanted to know why his colleague was spending extra time teaching in another faculty.

The instructor informed the administrator that his adjunct position allowed him to offer students the benefit of decades of research in his speciality, even though he still carried a full load in a faculty that offered no opportunities for him to do so. Apparently, the professor was prepared to take a more comprehensive view of academe while the administrator was not.

Another example: people who retire early often fail to see the big picture. In fact, some individuals retire before calculating the dollar amount of their first pension check. Estimates are that two-thirds of North Americans who retire at age 65 seek employment within two years of their retirement, partly because they need additional funds to do battle against perpetual inflation. Many of them worry that because of creeping inflation they may someday have to go back to work. One future-minded individual who *did* check out the amount of his monthly pension check before he retired promptly signed a five-year contract with his employer.

Second, Smith (1956) attached a great deal of importance to the phenomenon of *critical analysis*, pointing out that school administrators need to question what is generally taken for granted or thought to be self-evident. By resisting the 'press of the obvious', administrators should call into question the very things others do not question, and thus increase their chances of moving beyond the limits of prejudice, bias and stereotyping. Unlike businessmen whose bottom line is profit, keen administrators know that at some time virtually everything can be targeted by negotiation. A profit-minded executive, faced with the challenge of negotiating in an entirely different genre, would probably insist that 'this has never been done before', but administrative leaders who ply their trade primarily in the human sector know that compromise is not necessarily a negative concept. Sometimes, compromises have to be made in the interests of maximising student learning or satisfying staff conditions.

Before considering compromise on any issue, administrators who are sensitive to the best interest of their charges will formulate ideas, questions, problems and assumptions that, if grasped, will help to resolve the situation. They will 'play' with ideas and 'tease out' their implications for action. These leaders are thereby freed from the tyranny of the obvious, and are enabled to analyse basic ideas that may serve as keys to solution-making for a wide range of problems.

There will be times in the career of every administrator to demonstrate a keen sensitivity for implications and relevance. Determining the various factors impinging on a given situation may consume a considerable amount of time, but could be well worth it in the end. Astute administrators will predict by means of an 'abductive-deductive' process, rather than by a simple inductive process. Having moved creatively beneath the surface of observed phenomena, these administrators will be able to make tentative predictions based on the implicated meanings of their abductions.

The third characteristic exhibited by philosophic-minded administrators is *flexibility*. Gue (1977: 159) equated flexibility with creativity. He noted that creative administrators are adaptive in their responses to their environment, and have a low degree of repression and suppression of impulse and imagery. Flexible administrators also demonstrate disdain for psychological set in attacking problems. They resist the inertia of accustomed or routine ways of thinking, and continually increase their repertoire of intellectual procedures. Psychological set is another label for small-box thinking, and functions like this: 'it's always been our policy', 'this method worked last year', 'no one has ever complained about it before', 'we've always done it like this' and 'sometimes it's best to let sleeping dogs lie!' One creative and flexible school principal used to write himself into his school's weekly teaching schedule so that he would remain aware of what teachers go through on a day-to-day time schedule (Mitchell & Castle 2005: 426). Philosophic-minded administrators, who manifest a tolerance for tentativeness and suspended judgement, are willing to take action in ambiguous situations. Being free to deal with the unusual and having gained confidence in this process, they find security in 'the dealing' itself, not alone in

the resulting product. Philosophic-minded administrators are able to evaluate on ideas without becoming emotionally tied to their source; they are eager to feed on the ideas of others. Feeling secure without requiring the sanction of persons or institutions, they avoid the genetic fallacy (even where they suspect the source) and welcome a critical cross-fertilisation of ideas. Smith (1956) insisted that flexible-oriented administrators see issues as many-sided, rather than two-sided, and develop relatively large numbers of alternative hypotheses, explanations and viewpoints. They do not confuse contraries with contradictions, but increase their security by extending their understanding of the probable possibilities.

## The Challenge

More than half a century has passed since Philip Smith formulated his version of philosophic-mindedness, and, in light of the fact that philosophy of education is still downplayed in academic circles, a response to Smith's challenge is very timely. If it is important for school administrators to function in accordance with a well-developed philosophy of education, as this paper has shown, the question must be posed: is the profession still on track? Is there a danger that recent educational innovations may have been endorsed and/or initiated by school administrators without sufficient thought to clarity of thought, consistency and cogency of reasoning, factual adequacy and reliability of knowledge claims, objectivity of knowledge claims, and rationality of moral and purposive behaviour? This question may addressed to such innovations as alternative schools, charter schools, co-operative learning, core curriculum, effective schools, environmental education, free schools, global education, the great books approach, inquiry learning, open area schools, postmodern thinking, year-round schooling and many others.

If all of these educational programmes and formats were grounded in well-thought-out and consistent philosophies of education, *why have some of them already disappeared?* What is therefore the philosophical role of school administrators with regard to initiating or endorsing educational innovations? Has this role been clearly defined and adhered to? Perhaps John Dewey's observation that educational practices are sometimes 'conducted blindly or under the control of customs and traditions that have never been examined' (1961: 166), has more credibility than is generally acknowledged. It may be a good time to for administrators to examine their commitment to philosophic mindedness in order for them to practise credible and authentic leadership.

## References

- Adler, M.F. (1940), *How to Read a Book* (New York: Simon and Schuster).
- Bayles, E.E. (1966), *Pragmatism in Education* (New York: Harper & Row).
- Bayles, E.E. & Hood, B.L. (1966), *Growth of American Educational Thought and Practice* (New York: Harper and Row).
- Bode, B.H. (1927), *Modern Educational Theories* (New York: Macmillan).
- Bowie, G.L., Michaels, M.W. & Solomon, R.C. (1992), *Twenty Questions: An Introduction to Philosophy* (Forth Worth, TX: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich).
- Brameld, T. (1966), *Education as Power* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston).
- Brameld, T. (1970), *The Climatic Decades: Mandate to Education* (New York: Praeger).
- Brauner, C.J. (1964), *American Educational Theory* (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall).

- Broudy, H. (1954), *Building a Philosophy of Education* (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall).
- Buber, M. (1958), *I and Thou*, trans. Ronald Gregor Smith (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons).
- Butler, J.D. (1966), *Idealism in Education* (New York: Harper & Row).
- Dewey, J. (1900), *The School and Society* (Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press).
- Dewey, J. (1916), *Democracy and Education* (New York: Macmillan).
- Dewey, J. (1961), *Philosophy of Education (Problems of Men)* (Paterson, NJ: Littlefield, Adams).
- Ennis, R.H. (1969), *Ordinary Logic* (London: Prentice-Hall).
- Fairchild, H. Pratt (1964), *Dictionary of Sociology* (Paterson, NJ: Littlefield, Adams).
- Frankena, W.K. (1965), *Philosophy of Education* (New York: Macmillan).
- Friesen, J.W. & Boberg, A.L. (1990), *Introduction to Teaching: A Socio-Cultural Approach* (Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt).
- Friesen, J.W. & Friesen, V. Lyons (2001), *In Defense of Public Schools in North America* (Calgary, AB: Detselig).
- Good, C.V. (ed.) (1959), *Dictionary of Education* (New York: McGraw-Hill).
- Graff, O.B., Street, C.M., Kimbrough, R.B. & Dykes, A.R. (1966), *Philosophic Theory & Practice in Educational Administration* (Belmont, CA: Wadsworth).
- Grimmett, P.P. & Echols, F.H. (2000), Teacher and Administrator Shortages in Changing Times, *Canadian Journal of Education* 25(4): 328–343.
- Gue, L.R. (1977), *An Introduction to Educational Administration in Canada* (Toronto, ON: McGraw-Hill Ryerson).
- Guttek, G.L. (1988), *Philosophical and Ideological Perspectives on Education* (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall).
- Hendry, G.D. (1996), Constructivism and Educational Practice, *Australian Journal of Education* 40(1): 19–45.
- Horne, H. Harrell (1966), An Idealistic Philosophy of Education, in *Philosophies of Education: Forty-First Yearbook, Part I* (Chicago, IL: The National Society for the Study of Education), 135–195.
- Hospers, J. (1967), *An Introduction to Philosophical Analysis* (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall).
- Howick, W.H. (1971), *Philosophies of Western Education* (Danville, IL: Interstate Printers).
- Johnson, T.W., & Reed, R.F. (2012), *Philosophical Documents in Education* (Boston, MA: Pearson).
- Kierkegaard, S. (1953), *Fear and Trembling and Sickness unto Death* (New York: Doubleday).
- Lodge, R.C. (1947), *Philosophy of Education* (New York: Harper and Row).
- Lumby, J. & Foskett, N. (2008), Editorial Note, *International Studies in Educational Administration* 36(1): 1.
- McEwan, E.K. (1998), *Seven Steps to Effective Instructional Leadership* (Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press).
- Magee, J.B. (1971), *Philosophical Analysis in Education* (New York: Harper & Row).
- Maritain, J. (1943), *Education at the Crossroads* (New Haven, CT: Yale University Press).
- Martin, W.O. (1969), *Realism in Education* (New York: Harper & Row).
- Mitchell, C. & Castle, J.B. (2005), The Instructional Role of Elementary School Principals, *Canadian Journal of Education* 28(3): 409–433.
- Morris, V.C. (1961), *Philosophy and the American School* (Boston, MA: Houghton-Mifflin).
- Nietzsche, F. (1916), *Thus spake Zarathustra*, trans. Thomas Common (Edinburgh: Macmillan).
- Parkay, F.W., Stanford, B., Vaillancourt, J.P. & Stephens, H.C. (2009), *Becoming a Teacher* (Toronto, ON: Pearson Canada).
- Price, K. (1967), *Education and Philosophical Thought* (Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon).

- Runes, D.D. (ed.) (1967), *Dictionary of Philosophy* (Totowa, NJ: Littlefield, Adams).
- Samier, E. (2008), The Problem of Passive Evil in Educational Administration: Moral Implications of Doing Nothing, *International Studies in Educational Administration* 36(1): 32–40.
- Sartre, J.P. (1956), *Being and Nothingness*, trans. Hazel E. Barnes (New York: Philosophical Library).
- Scheffler, I. (1958), *Philosophy and Education* (Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon).
- Smith, B.O. & Ennis, R.H. (1961), *Language and Concepts in Education: Analytic Study of Educational Ideas* (Chicago, IL: Rand McNally).
- Smith, P.G. (1956), *Philosophic-Mindedness in Educational Administration* (Columbus: Ohio State University Press).
- Soltis, J.F. (1978), *An Introduction to the Analysis of Educational Concepts* (Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley).
- Soltis, J.F. (1981), Philosophy of Education for Teachers, *Journal of Education* 7(2): 9–11
- Wagner, T. (1998), Change as Collaborative Inquiry: A Constructivist Methodology for Reinventing Schools, *Phi Delta Kappa* 79(7): 512–517.
- Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language* (1953), (Cleveland, OH: The World Publishing Company).
- Weimer, M. (2002), *Learner-Centered Teaching: Five Key Changes to Practice* (San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass).

## Author Details

John W. Friesen  
Faculty of Education  
University of Calgary  
2500 University Drive NW  
Calgary  
Alberta  
Canada  
T2N 1N4  
Email: johnwfriesen@gmail.com

# International Approaches to Secondary Education

**Lauren Segedin and Ben Levin**

**Abstract:** *This paper uses publicly available reviews and documentary sources to review secondary schooling in seven countries in terms of its organisation, curriculum, accountability systems, organisation of teaching and leadership, and overall spending. The purpose is to consider what can be learned about high-school education policy and practice from looking at countries with high secondary-school graduation rates. Conclusions include: each system is an 'ecology', and plucking particular elements from one system for use in another is rarely an advisable strategy; secondary-school systems are similar in many respects but also vary in some important ways; equity is an important issue in all countries yet most still have large inequities based on social background; a central challenge is how to combine secondary education leading to post-secondary studies and work; and there are grounds for optimism in that some systems have produced dramatic improvements in relatively short periods of time.*

## Introduction

Large-scale educational reform, otherwise known as systemic approaches to changing the way schools operate, is occurring throughout the world (Levin & Fullan 2008; Levin 2010). Many countries, states or provinces have made efforts to increase the number of students graduating from high school, to improve high-school outcomes, and to change patterns of post-secondary participation. Different strategies have been used to do this from a policy perspective, including changes in school organisation, curriculum, assessment and accountability, programme requirements, teaching and learning practices, support services and others. While there are many case studies of individual schools, and few of school districts or even of countries, there is not very much literature looking either conceptually or empirically at policy approaches to improvement in high school outcomes at a system-wide level.

This paper is part of a larger study funded by the Higher Education Quality Council of Ontario and uses publicly available reviews and documentary sources to review secondary schooling in seven countries with high or rapidly increasing graduation rates. The purpose of this study is to consider what can be learned from this kind of comparative study. The research question for this study asks: *What are the key elements of secondary school policy in countries/states/provinces with very high rates or rapid increases in high-school completion in recent years?*

Our definition of 'key elements' for this study is under five headings – basic organisation, curriculum, teachers and teaching, accountability and assessment, and finance. These headings are largely a result of data that are in the public domain and are reasonably comparable. Other

areas that the research literature would suggest as important – such as teaching practices, teacher–student relationships, quality of leadership, expectations for staff and students, family connections or student engagement – are harder to assess on a comparative basis, even though they are considered to have significant impact on student and school performance.

The countries selected for this study are Canada, England, Finland, Japan, South Korea (referred to as Korea for this point forward), New Zealand and the USA. These countries were chosen for three reasons:

- a. most had scored in the top 10 in PISA 2000; 2003 and 2006 (see Table 1);
- b. they represented a diversity of educational systems; and
- c. the USA provides the bulk of the literature on educational change.

More specifically, Canada, Finland, Japan, Korea and New Zealand were first chosen for this study because they were among the top ten scoring countries in the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) for 2000 (reading), 2003 (maths) and 2006 (science) tests. The Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) is a worldwide evaluation of 15-year-old school pupils' literacy scholastic performance in reading, maths and science, co-ordinated

**Table 1: PISA Scores: 2000, 2003, 2006**

2000		2003		2006	
Reading literacy		Mathematics		Science	
1. Finland	546	1. Finland	544	1. Finland	563
2. Canada	534	2. South Korea	542	2. Canada	534
3. New Zealand	529	3. Netherlands	538	3. Japan	531
4. Australia	528	4. Japan	534	4. New Zealand	530
5. Ireland	527	5. Canada	532	5. Australia	527
6. South Korea	525	6. Belgium	529	6. Netherlands	525
7. United Kingdom	523	7. Switzerland	527	7. South Korea	522
8. Japan	522	8. Australia	524	8. Germany	516
9. Sweden	516	9. New Zealand	523	9. United Kingdom	515
10. Austria	507	10. Czech Republic	516	10. Czech Republic	513
15. United States	504	24. United States	483	21. United States	489

(While this study was largely complete prior to the release of PISA 2009 and therefore is not included in the country rankings in this study, the results shown in PISA 2009 would not change the picture in any significant way. It also should be noted that high scores in PISA are not always consistent with high graduation rates; Alberta and Quebec both score highly among Canadian provinces yet both have relatively low graduation rates. However, overall PISA remains a good indicator of the relative performance of education systems.)



by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). This assessment was first performed in 2000 and has been repeated every three years with an aim to improve educational policies and outcomes. Canada, Finland, Japan, Korea and New Zealand were also chosen because they have experienced very high rates of, or rapid increases in, high-school completion in recent years. The UK (or, for the purposes of this study, England, as the UK has four different educational systems) was chosen because it was also a top-ten scorer in two PISA tests (its scores were disqualified in 2003) and also because it has seen significant increases in high-school performance in the since the early 2000s.

The second reason these countries were chosen for this study was due to the diversity in their educational systems. Other top performing countries such as Australia, Singapore or the Netherlands were not included due to their similarity to other countries within the study.

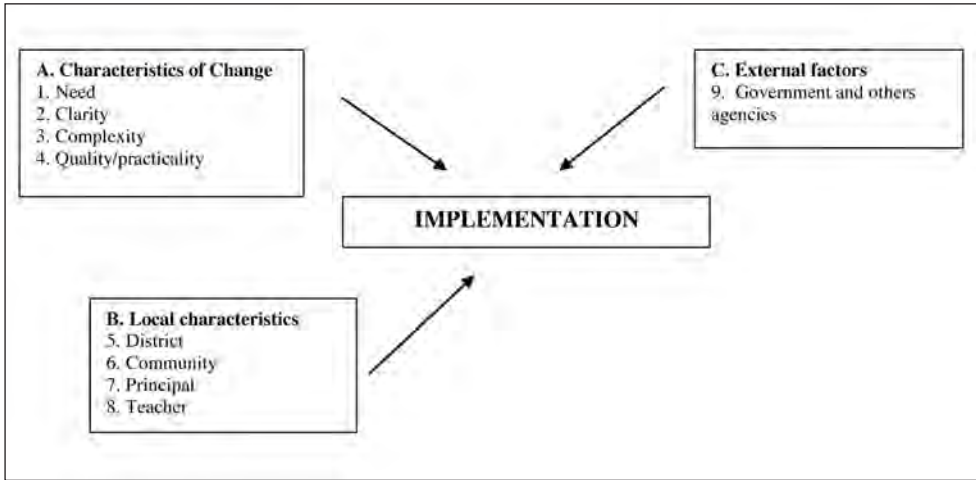
Lastly, the USA was chosen despite its lower performance on the PISA tests because it produces the most literature on school improvement, allowing it to serve as a relevant comparison country. (It is also important to note that while the USA and Canada are discussed in broad country terms at times, due to the fact that educational decisions are made at the state and provincial levels, different provinces or state educational decisions will also be discussed when deemed appropriate.)

This study is based primarily on a wide range of secondary sources. We conducted careful searches of scholarly and other literature, including websites of ministries of education and other organisations in each country. We also made use of international sources and comparative studies where these were available. Although the search was done carefully, several caveats are in order. First, we could not always locate fully comparable information either in extent or depth for all countries for all the features of interest. As a result, some of the coverage is uneven and we cannot be sure that all the data are fully comparable (as is evident in the section on graduation rates). Second, much of the data comes from official sources such as government ministries, which may give an unduly positive (or, in some cases, negative) picture of the situation. Third, while we have endeavoured to use current information, given the rapidity of change in some systems, some specifics in this study may have changed since the source material we used was published. This paper should not be read, therefore, as a completely reliable guide to the current situation in each country, but instead as a broad overview of the different approaches to secondary education around the world.

Education policy implementation is complex. While there are general guidelines to implementing change, complexity is inevitable due to the inter-related influences of policy, people and places (Datnow, Hubbard & Mehan 2002; Honig 2006). Change requires working with multiple influences or contextualised layers simultaneously. Michael Fullan (2007) identifies critical factors that commonly affect policy implementation. This study draws from this framework. Fullan's (2007) factors include: characteristics of change (need, clarity, complexity, quality/practicality); local characteristics (district; community; principal; teacher); and external factors (government and other agencies). Within this framework, individual factors that affect policy implementation are acknowledged, but he also locates them within the context of a whole system (Figure 1).

Given the complexity of policy implementation generally, comparative policy studies are especially tricky undertakings because they necessarily underplay the extent to which each jurisdiction is an ecology in which not only are the various elements of education policy intertwined, but the education system as a whole is connected in multiple and complex ways

Figure 1



to the larger society (Levin 2001). In most countries the education system can only be understood in relation to the overall political system and, often, to deepen elements of culture. Comparative policy studies run the risk of simplifying their descriptions of the jurisdictions by focusing only on some elements. To understand particular features, though, often also requires understanding a whole range of other features of the society. A corollary is the tendency to overestimate the extent to which features of one education system can be transferred to another. This danger is evident in the degree to which we already hear public statements that Canada should borrow some policy, whether in education or some other field, from another country. For Canada, the comparison is often with the USA. Yet the Canadian political and institutional culture is quite different from that of the USA, and policy that is acceptable in one is not necessarily so in the other.

Accordingly, this study does not conclude by specifying features of schooling that are always connected to higher graduation rates, since that would require too large a leap from our evidence. This does not mean, however, that we should not make comparisons among jurisdictions. Studying what other systems do is a worthwhile activity not because it gives us answers, but because it gives us questions and ideas. Careful comparative work raises new possibilities for any country to think about, and also allows us to see our own taken-for-granted practices with new eyes. It tells us that there are other ways to achieve to a goal and broadens our thinking about what these might be. That is the purpose of this study, and this paper concludes with some discussion along these lines.

Main findings for the study include the following:

- a. Each system is an 'ecology' in which the various elements of schooling are connected, and which also interact with elements of the larger society. While we can learn from other countries, plucking particular elements from one system for use in another is not an advisable strategy because these features interact with each other.
- b. Many features of secondary-school systems are similar in all these countries. Basic forms of secondary-school organisation, main elements of curriculum, teacher and

principal training and credentialling, and main forms of student assessment do not vary greatly across countries.

- c. On the other hand, these systems vary in some important ways such as degree of school autonomy, class sizes, extracurricular activities, tracks and programme structures, status of teachers, teacher evaluation, professional development and types of exam/evaluation systems.
- d. All the systems pay attention to equity issues but they do so in varying ways and to varying degrees. There are still large inequities based on social background in most systems. Countries vary in whether the inequity is primarily between or within schools, largely related to the degree of streaming.
- e. A central challenge in all systems is how to combine secondary education leading to post-secondary studies with appropriate education and qualifications for employment. Countries have very different arrangements in this area, linked in important ways to the way the labour market is structured. Equality of regard for vocational programmes remains a challenge in most countries.

## System ‘Ecology’

Each system is an ‘ecology’ in which the various elements of schooling are connected (and also interact with elements of the larger society). It is tempting in the policy world to borrow pieces that we like from other places. For example, people may advocate eliminating testing or educating all teachers to the graduate level because the Finns do these things and have a high-achieving system. However, such ideas are misleading on two counts. First, we do not know what impact any particular feature of a system has on outcomes. There is good reason to think that no single aspect is decisive, but it is the combination of factors operating together, including some that we do not measure at all, that matter. For example, one might equally recommend that other countries should make Finnish their national language as a way of emulating Finnish results, or that having dubbed-in foreign-language television, as the Finns do, is important for literacy. Planting palm trees on Baffin Island won’t turn it into a tropical island, even though all tropical islands have palm trees. In education policy too, cherry-picking individual features ignores the extent to which an education system is an ecology. We can and should learn from other countries, but cannot just pluck particular elements out of one system and put them in another.

## Country Similarities

The secondary-school systems in this study are alike in many respects. Similarities include the way schools are organised, including the years of compulsory education and hours spent per week in the classroom, the core curriculum, teacher training, principal qualifications, accountability through testing, and school evaluations.

All countries in this study organise their schools in similar ways. Most have 12 years of compulsory education with approximately 190 days a year and 20–30 hours per week spent in school. With the exception of the USA, they all have strong centralised policies through national or provincial ministries of education that set standards, curriculum, financing, and regulations that govern the school year. All countries give some authority and responsibility to local bodies such as municipalities, locally elected school boards or school governing bodies whose responsibilities include the appointment of school staff (Council of Ministers of Education,

Canada. n.d.; Guo 2005; Bureau of International Information Programs, US Department of State 2008; Hodgson & Spours 2008; INCA 2009; Finnish National Board of Education 2010; New Zealand Ministry of Education 2011c).

The core curriculum in all systems tends to be quite similar, including: national languages, mathematics, science, social studies, arts and physical education (Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation, n.d.; MEXT Japan, n.d.; Le Metais 2002; Watanabe 2004; INCA 2008–09; Finnish National Board of Education 2010; New Zealand Ministry of Education 2011b). The learning skills and attitudes that students should develop through the school curriculum are also represented in all countries. For example, communication, collaboration, problem-solving and independent learning are included in these countries' curricula. Many countries are also offering greater opportunities for individualised learning whether it be academic, vocational or workplace learning.

While there are many ways to achieve teaching qualifications, the most common method in all countries is to obtain a university degree in education either following or concurrent with the study of subjects to be taught (Park, n.d.; Kim & Han 2002; Kansanen 2003; Japan National Centre for Teachers' Development 2003–04; Training and Development Agency for Schools 2007; Certification Map 2009–10; Evans 2010; Finnish National Board of Education 2010; New Zealand Teacher's Council n.d.; Ontario Ministry of Education 2011). Some countries require additional exams or qualifications.

Principal training is relatively similar, with all principals in all countries in this study requiring years of experience and a principal qualification course. Some additional professional development in all countries may also be required (MEXT, n.d.; Ontario Principals Council, n.d.; Texas Education Agency 2001; Kim 2004; Tarvainen 2007; National College for Leadership of Schools and Children's Services 2010; New Zealand Ministry of Education 20011a).

All countries in this study have accountability mechanisms via testing at the local level as well as national or provincial/state level (MEXT, n.d.; Metais 2002; Barber & Mourshed 2007; Finnish Matriculation Examination 2008; Le Levin 2008; INCA 2009; Darling-Hammond & Wentworth 2010; New Zealand Ministry of Education 2011d; Ofsted, 2012). For example, New Zealand has school-based assessments and also the NCEA – a comprehensive qualification that is aligned with the New Zealand curriculum standards (New Zealand Ministry of Education 2011c). Japan has local prefecture exams that are a set of achievement tests (which may cover social studies, maths, science, etc.), a National Assessment of Academic Ability, and upper-secondary-entrance written exams that are set by each secondary school that controls their own admissions (INCA 2009). In England, assessments are carried out in Key Stages, some that are linked to formal qualification and specific outcomes – such as Key Stage 4, which occurs at the end of Year 11, when students take a range of eight to ten subject examinations for the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) (National Curriculum, n.d.; Quality Improvement Agency 2008). GCSE results determine which course students will have the option to follow after age 16 – low marks resulting in vocational or technical colleges and high marks resulting in the option of academic or vocational courses.

All of the countries in this study also track the results of student progress, report on them to students and parents, and have a public reporting mechanism on system outcomes. For example, Finnish teachers have to provide students and their parents or guardians information concerning the individual students' schoolwork and progress of studies (Ministry of Education and Culture, Finland, n.d.). The year-long ninth-grade final assessments are given to the students through a

numerical and descriptive score at the end. National performance assessments and audit are kept confidential, providing results only to the school that has been assessed and to their municipalities. Rather than a large-scale assessment system with high accountability, there is more of a process of external evaluation of the school system that is completed through sampling student and teacher work for quality assessments. The exception to this is the Finnish matriculation examination. The statistics generated from this exam are published by the matriculation examination board, reflecting the national results but not individual, school or local results (Finnish Matriculation Examination 2008).

National or provincial/state test results are typically reported by school or district in all countries in this study. For example, US states also use state-wide testing, where school performance is ranked. In some states this information is released publicly while in other states these reports are sent home (Zucker 2003). The National Assessment of Education Progress (NAEP) test results are reported for the nation as a whole, by region, gender, racial/ethnic group, parental education, community type and, on a voluntary basis, by state (NAEP n.d.; NCES, n.d.). Results of the main state-wide assessment programmes and SATs are aggregated at state, district and school levels. Public reporting of school and district performance in such tests occurs, although the reporting procedures vary in the style, format, detail and quantity of documentation. US school districts may also administer tests and report the results publicly on a school by school basis (NCES, n.d.; Zucker 2003).

School evaluations also take place in all countries in this study except Canada (Ministry of Education 2010b), although how they are evaluated varies. In England, Korea, New Zealand and the USA, school evaluations occur nationally (MEXT, n.d.; NCES, n.d. ; Crooks 2004; Guo 2005). For example, in England, the Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills (Ofsted) is the agency that regulates and inspects schools. Ofsted inspects both state and independent schools, and all learning and skills providers in England. Ofsted publishes each school's report on its website, along with comments and a rating on a four-point scale of the school's performance in each assessed area. Schools judged less favourably are inspected more frequently, and may receive little or no notice of inspection visits (Ofsted 2012). In Finland (Ministry of Education and Culture, Finland n.d.) and Japan (MEXT, n.d. ; Ikeda, Ikeda & Ito 2009), school evaluations take place on the local level. For instance, in Finland there is no formal review cycle; centralised school evaluations were discontinued in the 1990s. Now Finland relies more on analysis of local assessments, as well as international assessments and reviews, to determine its educational strengths, needs and education policy development. Schools can request an informal audit of their school at any time to complement their own internal review processes, if desired.

## Country Differences

While there are many similarities between the countries in this study, there are also many differences. Differences include some forms of school organisation (including lesson planning and classroom assessment), class sizes, public/private schooling and graduation rate. Teacher status, teacher recruitment, teacher evaluation and teacher professional development also vary, as does the percentage of the gross domestic product (GDP) spent on education.

School organisation, while having many commonalities among countries, does vary in some ways. Lesson plans and assessments, while aligned with the national/provincial curriculum may be, and frequently are, different in each district, school or classroom. Similarly, what

constitutes as graduation or a graduation rate is one variance. For example, in many provinces in Canada and states in the USA, secondary school consists of grades 9–12, and New Zealand has an additional year 13 (Bureau of International Information Programs, US Department of State 2008; INCA 2009; New Zealand Ministry of Education 2011c). By contrast, Japan and Korea, like some European countries, divide high school into lower secondary (grades 7–9) and upper secondary (grades 10–12) (Guo 2005; INCA 2009). Finland is similar although its upper secondary years are based by course and not year, so the completion time differs (Ministry of Education and Culture, Finland, n.d.). England's compulsory education ends at the end of year 11. After this time students can attend sixth form (further secondary education), if they have the appropriate academic record (Hodgson & Spours 2008; British Council 2010).

Class sizes vary across countries. Korea and Japan have high class-size caps – a maximum of 40–50 students in a class (Sorenson 1994; Guo 2005) – in comparison to all other countries in this study, which typically have a maximum of 20–25 students per class (Dustman, Rahah & Van Soest 2002; Finnish National Board of Education 2010; Mascarenas 2010; Toronto District School Board 2010; New Zealand Ministry of Education 2011c).

Extracurricular activities also vary. Finland, for instance, has no extracurricular activities, and students normally participate in sport and other hobbies in their free time, in the evenings and at weekends (Ministry of Education and Culture, Finland, n.d.). In Korea, there are very few extracurricular activities, although students can spend up to 14 hours a day in educational activities, including after-school classes, studying with a tutor or taking supplementary courses, such as English, Chinese, music and math at the local 'hogwan' (Sorenson 1994; Guo 2005). By contrast, Canadian and American schools have a variety of non-academic activities, including sports, clubs and other extracurricular activities which are often supervised by teachers on top of their regular teaching duties (CEA 1995; Grubb 2011).

The percentage of students attending public schools compared to private schools also differs, as do the funding mechanisms of these two school types. In the countries discussed in this study, 85 percent or more of the student population attend public school (Council of Ministers of Education, Canada, n.d.; Ministry of Education and Culture, Finland, n.d.; National Centre for Education Statistics 2002; British Council 2010; Council for American Private Education 2010; Ontario Ministry of Education 2010a; New Zealand Ministry of Education 2011c) except in Japan and Korea. Japan has 69 per cent and Korea has 50–60 per cent of their upper-secondary student population attending private school (Guo 2005). Public schools are publicly funded by all countries except Korea and Japan, whose public school funding includes government transfers, property tax and tuition (Guo 2005). Some countries or jurisdictions fund private schools independently through tuition and the availability of other funding sources, such as churches (e.g. some parts of Canada, England and the USA) (Council of Ministers of Education, Canada, n.d. ; National Centre for Education Statistics 2002; British Council 2010). Other countries or jurisdictions use a combination of public and private funds (e.g. some parts of Canada, Japan, Korea, New Zealand) (Council of Ministers of Education, Canada, n.d. Guo 2005; LaRocque 2005). In Finland private schools – usually faith-based – are publicly funded but cannot charge tuition fees and must admit pupils on the same basis as public schools (Ministry of Education and Culture, Finland, n.d.). Private schools are also required to give students the same social entitlements that are offered at municipal schools (e.g. health care, meals).

Getting accurate comparative information on high-school graduation rates is difficult because countries have different definitions of completion and collect data in different ways. One

important comparative measure is provided in *Education at a Glance, 2010* (OECD 2010a; Table 2). This analysis provides first-time upper-secondary graduate rates derived by the sum of graduation rates for a single year of age, by programme destination, programme orientation and gender. The picture changes somewhat if one delves more deeply into what lies under these figures. For example, Canada's graduation rate is based on a three- or four-year, grade 10–12 or 9–12 programme. However the percentage of Canadians aged 20 to 24 who have not graduated and are no longer attending school, as reported by Statistics Canada, dropped from 17 per cent in 1990/91 to 9 per cent in 2005/06 (cited in CCL 2007). In other words, although a significant number of Canadian youth do not graduate from high school in the typical four-year time frame, most do obtain a high school diploma or equivalent over the next few years. In England, the National Curriculum ends at age 16 when the vast majority of high-school students take the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) qualifications, which, depending on their success, determine their educational choices post-16. In 2010, 69.1 per cent of students received an overall pass rate at grades A\* to C (Shepherd 2010) – a much lower proportion than the OECD number reported earlier. In 2006, 77 per cent of 16–18-year-olds were in some form of education and training, leaving under a quarter not engaged in formal study (Hodgson & Spours 2008).

**Table 2:** First-time upper secondary graduation rates

Country	Graduation rate
Canada	76%
Finland	93%
Japan	95%
Korea	93%
New Zealand	78%
United Kingdom	92%
United States	77%

Teacher status is high in Finland, Korea and Japan, but has middle-level status in Canada, England, New Zealand and the USA (Jussila & Saari 2000; Kansanen 2003; Hall & Langton 2006; Barber & Mourshed 2007; CEA 2007; Hargreaves, Cunningham, Hansen, McIntyre, Oliver & Pell 2007; Harris Interactive 2007; Hargreaves 2009). For example, in a 2007 survey on public education in Canada, Canadians in all regions were 'very or somewhat satisfied' with teacher performance. Although the levels of satisfaction with teachers' work were somewhat higher in the Atlantic (78 per cent) and Prairie (76 per cent) provinces, 70 per cent of Canadians agreed that teachers are doing a good job (CEA 2007). In England, a survey on the status of teachers and the teaching profession showed that, both inside and outside of the profession, about half (49 per cent in 2003 and 47 per cent in 2006) of the general public surveyed considered teaching to be an attractive career (Hargreaves et al. 2007). However, teachers and associated groups (teaching assistants, governors and parents) consistently perceived teaching as less rewarded, but more controlled and regulated, than other high-status professions. By contrast, in Finland, classroom

teaching is considered a high-status profession that attracts some of the best secondary-school graduates. While many countries lack applicants for teacher training, in Finland, teaching has steadily retained its position as one of the most popular careers in terms of university entrance examinations (Jussila & Saari 2000; Kansanen 2003; OECD 2003).

Korea uses central recruitment methods for teachers (Kim & Han 2002) while all other countries prefer some type of decentralised recruitment by district or even school (MEXT, n.d.; Ministry of Education and Culture, Finland, n.d.; Certification Map 2009–2010; TeachNZ 2010; Graduate Prospects 2011; OCT 2011). In Korea all prospective teachers who have acquired a teaching certificate must go through a common examination administered by superintendents from all of the metropolitan and provincial offices of education. The employment examination is primarily a paper and pencil test. An evaluation of instructional skill and interview also takes place. Teacher assignment is completed through the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, metropolitan and provincial offices of education, local offices of education and schools, after the central Ministry has determined the teacher quota (Kim & Han 2002). In contrast to this highly centralised recruitment process, in New Zealand schools are responsible for employing their own staff; there is not a central staffing agency or government department responsible for staff placement. Prospective teachers in New Zealand can apply to schools directly or through teacher recruitment agencies approved by the Ministry of Education that are free for teachers to use (TeachNZ 2010).

Finland does not evaluate teachers formally (Ministry of Education and Culture, Finland, n.d.), while all other countries do (MEXT, n.d.; Kim & Han 2002; Larson 2005; New Zealand Ministry of Education 2011d, 2011e). In these countries, teacher performance appraisals are typically conducted by school administration, although Japan encourages self-assessment as well. Teacher evaluations are linked to pay and promotion in England, Japan, Korea, New Zealand and the USA. In Canada, teacher evaluations are not linked to pay or promotion. Instead, additional professional training courses and years of teaching experience lead Ontario teachers to increased pay. Teacher promotion in Ontario is based on application, years of teaching, teaching performance and leadership potential (Ontario Ministry of Education 2011).

Teacher professional development was found to be different in each country in terms of number of hours, how it is financed and how it is carried out (Kim & Han 2002; OECD 2003; Ontario Ministry of Education 2004, 2010b; Tarvainen 2007; Timperley, Wilson, Barrar & Fung 2007; Darling-Hammond, Chung Wei, Andree, Richardson & Orphanos 2009; New Zealand Ministry of Education 2011a). Korea and Japan, for example, have very extensive professional development, with Korean teachers in the first five years of teaching averaging 48 days of professional development, which is largely self-paid, taking place during personal time (OECD 2009).

Finally, the percentage of GDP spent on elementary and secondary education ranges from 2.9 per cent in Japan to 4.7 per cent in New Zealand, as of 2006 (OECD 2006). Yet these percentages do not tell the whole story. For example, while Japan's investment in education is lower than in many other OECD countries, parents bear heavy expenses from their children's supplementary classes, programmes, cram schools, preparation schools and private tutors. In a 2005 Japanese survey of 6th-grade parents, it was reported that 90 per cent of parents send their children to a *juku* or cram school, and 65 per cent of these students attended four or more days a week (Child Research Net 2004).



## Equity

A successful system with high graduation rates must also be concerned with equity in outcomes among different social groups. There are high levels of political commitment to social inclusion and equality of opportunity throughout the world, though the degree to which these are carried out in practice is another matter. For example, in Ontario in Canada, the provincial government has recently created an *Equity and Inclusive Education Strategy* (Ontario Ministry of Education 2009), setting an expectation that all students, parents and community members are respected and every student receives high expectations for learning in a safe and caring school community. England aims to give everyone the chance through education, training and work to realise his or her full potential and thus build an inclusive and fair society and a competitive economy (DfEE 1998). Finland has put into place policies and practices to promote equity, such as all children enrolling in comprehensive schools regardless of their socioeconomic background or personal abilities and characteristics. All students also receive a free, two-course meal daily, free health care, transportation, learning materials and counselling in their own schools (Ministry of Education and Culture, Finland, n.d.). Japan is taking a step towards global trends in social sensitivity. Gender and ethnic discrimination have become officially criticised in education, and attempts to remediate it have been put in place (Guo 2005). Korea's contribution to equality is in their investment in human capital and in multiple pathways for student achievement in secondary school, be it academic or vocational (Guo 2005). New Zealand fosters fairness, tolerance, self-reliance and informed participation in New Zealand society (New Zealand Ministry of Education 2011c). Schools in the USA are also aiming to support all students, including English learners, those with disabilities, homeless students, migrant students, Native American, rural and neglected or delinquent students (US Department of Education 2010).

While governmental aims for equity are important, it is also important to measure it. One way to do so is through international tests such as PISA. In the 2009 PISA report, equity is measured by the variation in student performance in relation to socioeconomic background and also by the variation within and between schools. Home and family background exerts a powerful influence on student performance across countries. According to the 2009 PISA Report (OECD 2010b) differences in students' family background characteristics explain up to 22 per cent of differences in student performance with the average at 14 per cent. However, there is wide variation in student performance explained by these factors in different countries. Korea (11 per cent), Finland (8 per cent), Canada (9 per cent) and Japan (9 per cent) have less inequity than the OECD average. The United Kingdom (14 per cent), the USA (17 per cent) and New Zealand (17 per cent) fall either at or above the OECD average.

Variation in student performance within and between schools is also a measure of student equity. Table 3 shows the variances for the countries in this report (OECD 2010b). Korea, Finland and Canada had less variance in student achievement related to socioeconomic status (SES) than did the other four countries, with Korea especially low and New Zealand the highest in the group. For all these countries, most of the variance in achievement related to SES occurs within schools, meaning that students do not typically attend schools based on their SES. By contrast, the Netherlands only had 30 per cent of this variation within schools and 60 per cent between schools, showing that Dutch schools are very much divided based on SES. However, even in this group, schools are least segregated by SES in Finland and Canada, and much more so in the USA and Japan. In general, countries with more between-school variance tend also to have a greater overall effect of SES on student outcomes.

**Table 3:** Variation in performance within and between schools

Countries	Total variance as a proportion of the OECD variance	Variance within schools	Variance between schools
	100 (OECD average)	65% (OECD average)	42% (OECD average)
Korea	72	61%	34%
Finland	86	81%	8%
Canada	95	78%	22%
United Kingdom	105	77%	33%
United States	108	72%	42%
Japan	116	63%	58%
New Zealand	122	94%	32%

## The Place of Vocational Education

A central challenge in all systems is how to combine secondary education leading to post-secondary studies with appropriate education and qualifications for employment. School systems recognise that not all students will go on to post-secondary education and that a traditional academic education works against those students who are not directed to post-secondary. All countries also recognise the need for high levels of technical skills in the workforce. At the same time, there is a danger that programmes that do not lead to post-secondary education will be seen by students and teachers as second-class options and will produce worse outcomes for students. Since students' choice of destination is systematically related to their social class background, systems with very specific tracks or streams can end up segregating students based on SES, leading to significant equity challenges. The problem is made more acute because students frequently change their intentions during or after their secondary education, so systems that do not provide flexibility can further disadvantage their students.

The main innovations have been the development of alternative and non-traditional courses.

In Ontario, the government has been implementing new programmes to support different pathways after graduation. These have included the expansion of co-operative education, e-learning, dual credits, and the Specialist High Skills Majors (SHSM), which are providing learning in innovative ways (Ontario Ministry of Education 2008). In England, after the age of 16, students can attend upper secondary school that will lead towards various qualifications, both academic and vocational. Further education colleges offer courses leading to the above qualifications, and to a vast range of vocational education and training (VET) qualifications (Hodgson & Spours 2008). Since the early 1990s, the British government has given particular attention to vocational training, though provision in this area remains complicated and fragmented. The main public providers for VET qualifications are further education colleges and sixth form programmes offered in schools or in colleges. Finland has a dual system, with separate general and vocational schools that prepare students for tertiary education. After basic education, 95 per cent of school-leavers continue in additional voluntary basic education (2.5 per

cent), in upper secondary schools (54.5 per cent) or in initial vocational education and training (38.5 per cent) (Ministry of Education and Culture, Finland, n.d.). Vocational education occurs through 119 study programmes leading to 53 different vocational qualifications. Students can either follow the school-based education system, which means full-time studies for three years, primarily organised in classes and conducted-on-the job, or they may follow individual study plans. Students may attend both vocational and general (academic) secondary school at the same time and complete programmes at their own speed. Japanese upper-secondary education consists of either academic senior high schools (*kôtô-gakkô*), colleges of technology (*kôtô-senmon-gakkô*), special training colleges (*senshû-gakkô*) or miscellaneous schools (*kakushu-gakkô*) (INCA 2008–09). Full-day courses last three years and are taught in three streams: general, specialised and integrated. All these courses prepare students to advance to higher education or to gain employment. Specialised courses are also offered at academic senior high schools for those students who have chosen a particular vocational area for their future career. These courses may include agriculture, industry, commerce, fishery, home economics, nursing and so on. Colleges of technology or professional training colleges accept students who have completed compulsory lower-secondary schooling. They offer five-year programmes leading to the title of ‘associate’.

A central goal of Korea’s curriculum policy is to promote individual career choice while meeting the goals of national and economic advancement (Guo 2005). Some high schools in Korea are divided into speciality tracks that reflect student interest and a possible career path. There are also public and private high schools in Korea, both with or without entrance examinations that are more focused on sending their students to university. Vocational schools specialising in fields such as technology, agriculture or finance are also available, and many students are employed immediately after graduation. There are 2+1 technical high schools designed to train the workforce needed in the industries through two years of schooling and one year of training. There is also a 2+2 curricular connection project which connects secondary school to junior college. Most vocational high-school students do continue into tertiary education. General high schools cater for 64 per cent of students, including specialised high schools for students who are gifted in the arts, athletics, foreign languages and science. Vocational high schools cater for 36 per cent of students (Guo 2005).

In New Zealand, the National Qualifications Framework along with the National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA) provides opportunities for students to combine studies in school, college and private institutions (New Zealand Ministry of Education 2011c). The NCEA has no prescribed national courses, so schools may offer shorter courses, combine subjects and combine levels. National Certificates can now be obtained that consist of traditional courses in academic subjects, as well as alternatives, such as drama and automotive engineering. Students are able to take courses beyond the traditional school curriculum while remaining enrolled at school, and to accumulate vocational credits in school or in a range of other learning settings, such as a polytechnic. Students are eligible to attain tertiary courses through the Secondary–Tertiary Alignment Resource (STAR) which enables secondary schools to purchase tertiary course provision for students. Students in New Zealand may also receive a National Certificate in Employment Skills, which is awarded to people who have demonstrated competence in literacy, numeracy and other personal and technical skills.

In the USA, most high schools are considered comprehensive schools and have predominantly general academic courses and some vocational course options (Shavit & Muller 2000). Vocational education in the USA is usually considered to be a post-secondary activity, but in some instances may take the place of the final years of high school. In the USA, technical education often teaches

general, overall principles rather than specific skills for selected occupations. Institutionalised linkages between the formal educational system and the workplace are much less common in the USA than in many other countries (Shavit & Muller 2000). US high school students who attend vocational programmes have poorer outcomes compared with graduates of the general track. Career academies are another fairly common educational development in the USA since the early 1980s. Career academies aim to prepare students for post-secondary education and employment. Career academies are organised as small learning communities and typically serve between 150 and 200 students from grades 9 or 10 to grade 12, combining academic and technical curricula and work-based opportunities around a career theme (Kemple & Willner 2008).

However, despite the increasing variation in academic and vocational streams, in all countries in this study the academic stream still has the greatest percentage of students and typically attracts the students with the best school performance (OECD 2009).

## Conclusions

This study is limited to considering aspects that can be compared based on readily available data. Some important elements of schooling, especially the internal dynamics of the schools, are not included in these comparisons because good comparative data are not available. Still, comparing the more readily accessible features of the system also yields important findings because so much education policy does concentrate on these elements. So what can we say about high-performing systems based on our evidence? This kind of documentary review does not allow us to derive firm conclusions so we express our comments as observations or suggestions for further enquiry.

The high-performing systems discussed in this paper present different constellations or packages of characteristics. Some are centralised, some are not. Some focus greatly on examinations, some do not. Some seem to have intense pressure on students to perform while others do not. Some have larger private sectors, some smaller. And so on. One could not identify, from these instances, a recipe or recommended approach. Recipes do not work, because each country's approach to education is so much a product of its history, culture and institutional structure. These impacts are most evident when one compares the Asian countries with North America. Very different ways of thinking about education, about authority relationships and about the role of the individual and the society give rise to quite different approaches to education.

On the other hand, the systems share many attributes. Secondary schools serve the same general population in terms of age. They are organised into very similar structures of courses and subjects. They are all centrally involved with allocating students to future opportunities for work and further education – although this happens in different ways in each country. Particularly striking is the commonality in curriculum, with its focus on traditional subjects despite rapid changes in knowledge. Secondary schools in all these systems, for example, still give much weight to mathematics and science, and very little to social science, despite dramatic changes in patterns of post-secondary enrolment (in which social sciences dominate) and in labour force requirements – which also, despite the rhetoric, involve only small numbers of people in work requiring science or anything beyond quite basic mathematics. Similarly, although there is growing interest in student engagement as an element of secondary schooling, there is in most cases still relatively little room for students to express and follow their own interests, even though most will have to be doing that shortly after leaving secondary school, and some systems have become more prescriptive.

The commonality of some features in systems with very different outcomes, and the variability in other features both suggest that structural aspects of these systems are not the main element that produces good results. In other words, it seems that countries can produce good results with more or less centralised systems, or with more or less demanding examination systems. Features such as length of the school year or day, or the division into subjects, do not, based on this review, seem to matter very much – although they are the subject of much policy attention.

The values and history in each setting seem to matter more, yet, though clearly important, they are also clearly not immutable. In each country they have changed over time, in some cases dramatically so. Finland changed its system quite dramatically around the beginning of the 1990s, with very good results. Korea produced an amazing improvement in educational levels and outcomes in the 1970s and 1980s. This suggests that the belief that education performance can only improve when broader cultural or economic factors change is not entirely true; a determined effort to improve education performance can be culturally transforming as well. It is ironic that although high schools are deeply affected by the communities in which they exist, relationships between schools and communities are still generally rather distant. In most places, the school remains a self-contained enclave, with few active connections, especially intellectually, to its setting. In most places students do not leave the school very much, as part of their studies and curriculum remains primarily something disembodied, expressed in books and notes, rather than deeply connected to the way people actually live and work in the vicinity. In systems with a stronger connection between schools and the workplace, however, vocational programmes have higher enrolments, higher status and better outcomes.

While improvement across entire systems is clearly possible, one of the interesting features of this analysis is that the search for improvement often appears rather random. In only a few cases can we see a determined and comprehensive effort to improve outcomes across an entire system using a range of policy levers. More often the emphasis appears to be partial – focusing on one or two elements alone, whether examination systems, curriculum changes or governance structures. Yet this study reinforces the idea that improvement requires a system-wide effort, and a deliberate aim on the factors that actually change student performance, most of which appear to be located either in the broader society or in the specific practices of the school.

We conclude with some implications from this study. These largely mirror the discussion above.

- There is reason to be optimistic about the possibilities for improving student outcomes in secondary schools based on other systems' being able to do so.
- Although we can learn from other systems about areas that might be promising in our own setting, we should not copy particular policies or features directly from other systems because each feature is embedded in a larger gestalt.
- Changing elements such as timetables or governance does not seem to be linked to better outcomes.
- Links between secondary schools and the labour market, and between secondary schools and their communities, could be improved. Both of these efforts could be beneficial to student outcomes.
- Being thoughtful about improvement as a systems feature seems to be important; few systems appear to have made such an effort, tending to focus instead on one-at-a-time changes or particular programme initiatives.

Much remains to be learned about effective secondary school practice in a comparative context. What we know today is that a range of different approaches can all yield quite good results, but we simply do not have enough evidence to link with confidence particular policy elements to particular results.

## References

- Barber, M. & Mourshed, M. (2007), *How the World's Best-Performing School Systems Come Out on Top*. Retrieved from [www.mckinsey.com/App\\_Media/Reports/SSO/Worlds\\_School\\_Systems\\_Final.pdf](http://www.mckinsey.com/App_Media/Reports/SSO/Worlds_School_Systems_Final.pdf).
- British Council (2010), *UK Education Systems*. Retrieved from [www.britishcouncil.org/usa-education-uk-system-k-12-education.htm](http://www.britishcouncil.org/usa-education-uk-system-k-12-education.htm).
- Bureau of International Information Programs, US Department of State (2008), *USA Education in Brief*. Retrieved from [www.america.gov/media/pdf/books/education-brief2.pdf#popup](http://www.america.gov/media/pdf/books/education-brief2.pdf#popup).
- CCL (Canadian Council on Learning) (2007), *State of Learning in Canada: No Time for Complacency*. Retrieved from [www.ccl-cca.ca/nr/rdonlyres/5ecaa2e9-d5e4-43b9-94e4-84d6d31bc5bc/0/newsolr\\_report.pdf](http://www.ccl-cca.ca/nr/rdonlyres/5ecaa2e9-d5e4-43b9-94e4-84d6d31bc5bc/0/newsolr_report.pdf).
- CEA (Canadian Education Association) (1995), *Secondary Schools in Canada: The National Report of the Exemplary Schools Report*. Toronto: Canadian Education Association.
- CEA (Canadian Education Association) (2007), *Public Education in Canada: Facts, Trends and Attitudes*. Retrieved from [www.cea-ace.ca/media/en/CEA-ACE\\_PubEd.07\\_E\\_FinalWEB.pdf](http://www.cea-ace.ca/media/en/CEA-ACE_PubEd.07_E_FinalWEB.pdf).
- Certification Map (2009–10), Retrieved from <http://certificationmap.com>.
- Child Research Net (2004), *Selecting a Junior High School: Parents of Sixth Graders in Public Elementary Schools in Two Wards of Metropolitan Tokyo where School Choice Has Been Implemented*. Retrieved from [www.childresearch.net/RESOURCE/DATA/MONO\\_DIGESTS/SCHOOL\\_2.HTM#79](http://www.childresearch.net/RESOURCE/DATA/MONO_DIGESTS/SCHOOL_2.HTM#79).
- Council for American Private Education (2010), *Facts and Studies*. Retrieved from [www.capenet.org/facts.html](http://www.capenet.org/facts.html).
- Council of Ministers of Education, Canada (n.d.), *Education in Canada*. Retrieved from [www.cmec.ca/pages/canadawide.aspxhttp://www.cmec.ca/Pages/Default.aspx](http://www.cmec.ca/pages/canadawide.aspxhttp://www.cmec.ca/Pages/Default.aspx).
- Crooks, T.J. (2004) New Zealand: Empowering Teachers and Children, in I.C. Rotberg (ed.), *Balancing Change and Tradition in Global Education Reform* (Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield Education): 283–314.
- Darling-Hammond, L., Chung Wei, R., Andree, A., Richardson, N. & Orphanos, S. (2009), *Professional Learning in the Learning Profession: A Status Report on Teacher Development in the United States and Abroad* (Stanford, CA: National Staff Development Council: School Redesign Network at Stanford University). Retrieved from [www.learningforward.org/news/NSDCstudy2009.pdf](http://www.learningforward.org/news/NSDCstudy2009.pdf).
- Darling-Hammond, L. & Wentworth, L. (2010), *Benchmarking Learning Systems: Student Performance Assessment in International Context* (Stanford, CA: Stanford Center for Opportunity Policy in Education). Retrieved from [http://edpolicy.stanford.edu/pages/pubs/pub\\_docs/assessment/scope\\_pa\\_ldh.pdf](http://edpolicy.stanford.edu/pages/pubs/pub_docs/assessment/scope_pa_ldh.pdf).
- Datnow, A., Hubbard, L. & Mehan, H. (2002) *Extending Educational Reform: From One School to Many*, Educational Change and Development Series (New York: RoutledgeFalmer).
- DfEE (1998), *Learning and Working Together for the Future: A Strategic Framework to 2002* (London: Department for Education and Employment).
- Dustman, C., Rahah, N. & Van Soest, A. (2002), *Class Size, Education, and Wages*. Retrieved from [www.ucl.ac.uk/~uctpb21/pdf/qual01\\_161.pdf](http://www.ucl.ac.uk/~uctpb21/pdf/qual01_161.pdf).
- Evans, L. (2010), *Teacher Professional Development in England: A Critical Perspective on Current Issues and Priorities*. Retrieved from [www.education.leeds.ac.uk/research/uploads/112.doc](http://www.education.leeds.ac.uk/research/uploads/112.doc).
- Finnish Matriculation Examination (2008), Retrieved from [www.ylioppilastutkinto.fi/en](http://www.ylioppilastutkinto.fi/en).

- Finnish National Board of Education (2010), *Education*. Retrieved from [www.oph.fi/english/education/general\\_upper\\_secondary\\_education/curriculum](http://www.oph.fi/english/education/general_upper_secondary_education/curriculum).
- Fullan, M. (2007), *The New Meaning of Educational Change* (New York: Teachers College Press).
- Graduate Prospects (2011), *Getting a Teaching Job: How to Apply*. Retrieved from [www.prospects.ac.uk/getting\\_teaching\\_job\\_how\\_to\\_apply.htm](http://www.prospects.ac.uk/getting_teaching_job_how_to_apply.htm).
- Grubb, W. Norton (2011), *Leadership Challenges in High Schools: Multiple Pathways to Success* (Boulder, CO: Paradigm Publishers).
- Guo, Y. (2005), *Asia's Educational Edge: Current Achievements in Japan, Korea, Taiwan, China, and India* (Lanham, MD: Lexington Books).
- Hall, D. & Langton, B. (2006), *Perceptions of the Status of Teachers*. Report for the New Zealand Ministry of Education and the New Zealand Teachers Council. Retrieved from [www.educationcounts.govt.nz/publications/series/2535/5971](http://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/publications/series/2535/5971).
- Hargreaves, L. (2009), The Status and Prestige of Teachers and Teaching, *International Handbook of Research on Teachers and Teaching* 21(4): 217–229.
- Hargreaves, L., Cunningham, M., Hansen, A., McIntyre, D., Oliver, C. & Pell, T. (2007), *The Status of Teachers and the Teaching Profession in England: Views from Inside and Outside the Profession*. Final report of the teacher status project (Cambridge: University of Cambridge Faculty of Education, and Leicester: Department of Media and Communication, University of Leicester). Retrieved from [www.education.gov.uk/publications/eOrderingDownload/RR831A.pdf](http://www.education.gov.uk/publications/eOrderingDownload/RR831A.pdf).
- Harris Interactive (2007), *Firefighters, Scientists and Teachers Top List as 'Most Prestigious Occupations', According to Latest Harris poll*. Retrieved from [www.harrisinteractive.com/vault/Harris-Interactive-Poll-Research-Pres-Occupations-2007-08.pdf](http://www.harrisinteractive.com/vault/Harris-Interactive-Poll-Research-Pres-Occupations-2007-08.pdf).
- Hodgson, A. & Spours, K. (2008), *Education and Training 14–19: Curriculum, Qualifications and Organizations* (London: Sage).
- Honig, M.I. (2006), Complexity and Policy Implementation: Challenges and Opportunities for the Field, in M.I. Honig, *New Directions in Education Policy Implementation: Confronting Complexity* (Albany: State of University of New York Press): 1–23.
- Ikeda, K., Ikeda, M. & Ito, A. (2009), Application of Getting to Outcomes for School Evaluation in Japan. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the SCRA Biennial Meeting, Montclair State University, Montclair, New Jersey, 18 June. Retrieved from [www.allacademic.com/meta/p301594\\_index.html](http://www.allacademic.com/meta/p301594_index.html).
- INCA (2008–09) *International Review of Curriculum and Assessment Frameworks Internet Archive*. Retrieved [www.inca.org.uk](http://www.inca.org.uk).
- Japan National Centre for Teachers' Development (2003–04), *Organization/Outline*. Retrieved from [www.nctd.go.jp/X\\_sosiki/index\\_x\\_eng.html](http://www.nctd.go.jp/X_sosiki/index_x_eng.html).
- Jussila, J. & Saari, S. (eds) (2000), *Teacher Education as a Future-Moulding Factor: International Evaluation of Teacher Education in Finnish Universities*. Publication of the Finnish Higher Education Evaluation Council 9. Retrieved from [www.kka.fi/files/134/KKA\\_900.pdf](http://www.kka.fi/files/134/KKA_900.pdf).
- Kansanen, P. (2003), *Teacher Education in Finland: Current Models and New Developments*, in B. Moon, L. Vlăsceanu & C. Barrows (eds), *Institutional Approaches to Teacher Education within Higher Education in Europe: Current Models and New Developments* (Bucharest: UnescoCepes): 85–108.
- Kemple, J.J. & Willner, C.J. (2008), *Career Academies: Long-Term Impacts on Labor Market Outcomes, Educational Attainment, and Transitions to Adulthood*. Retrieved from [www.mdrc.org/publications/482/overview.html](http://www.mdrc.org/publications/482/overview.html).
- Kim, E. & Han, Y. (2002), *Attracting, Developing and Training Effective Teachers: Background Report for Korea* (Seoul: Korean Educational Development Institute). Retrieved from [www.oecd.org/dataoecd/18/23/2713221.pdf](http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/18/23/2713221.pdf).

- Kim, M. (2004), Beginning Principals in the Republic of Korea: The Challenges of New Leadership, *Journal of Educational Policy* 1(1): 85–97. Retrieved from [http://eng.kedi.re.kr/upload\\_data/kedi\\_jrn/Journal-Meesook%20Kim.pdf](http://eng.kedi.re.kr/upload_data/kedi_jrn/Journal-Meesook%20Kim.pdf).
- Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation. (n.d.), Retrieved from [www.kice.re.kr/en/resources/curriculum03.jsp](http://www.kice.re.kr/en/resources/curriculum03.jsp).
- Larson, M.A. (2005), A Critical Analysis of Teacher Evaluation Policy Trends, *Australian Journal of Education* 49(3): 292–305.
- LaRocque, N. (2005), School Choice: Lessons from New Zealand. Briefing Papers, Education Forum, No. 12. Retrieved from [www.educationforum.org.nz/documents/policy/briefing\\_no\\_12.pdf](http://www.educationforum.org.nz/documents/policy/briefing_no_12.pdf).
- Le Metais, J. (2002), International Developments in Upper Secondary Education: Context, Provision and Issues (Slough: National Foundation for Education Research). Retrieved from [www.ncca.ie/uploadedfiles/Upper2ndEducation.pdf](http://www.ncca.ie/uploadedfiles/Upper2ndEducation.pdf).
- Levin, B. (2001), *Reforming Education: From Origins to Outcomes* (London: Routledge).
- Levin, B. (2008), *How to Change 5000 Schools* (Cambridge, MA: Harvard Education Press).
- Levin, B. (2010), Governments and Education Reform: Some Lessons from the Last Fifty Years, *Journal of Educational Policy* 25(6): 739–747.
- Levin, B. and Fullan, M. (2008), Learning about System Renewal, *Journal of Educational Management, Administration and Leadership* 36(2): 289–303.
- Mascarenas, I. (2010), *Class Size Caps May Limit School Choice*. Retrieved from [www.wtsp.com/news/local/story.aspx?storyid=140624](http://www.wtsp.com/news/local/story.aspx?storyid=140624).
- MEXT (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, Japan) (n.d.) Japanese Government Policies in Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology 2002. Retrieved from [www.mext.go.jp/b\\_menu/hakusho/html/hpac200201/index.html](http://www.mext.go.jp/b_menu/hakusho/html/hpac200201/index.html).
- Ministry of Education and Culture, Finland (n.d.), Education. Retrieved from [www.minedu.fi/OPM/Koulutus/?lang=en](http://www.minedu.fi/OPM/Koulutus/?lang=en).
- NAEP (US National Center for Educational Statistics) (n.d.) *National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP)*. Retrieved from <http://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard>.
- National Center for Education Statistics (2002), *Private Schools: A Brief Portrait. Findings from the Condition of Education 2002*. Retrieved from <http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2002/2002013.pdf>.
- National College for Leadership of Schools and Children's Services (2010), *National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH)*. Retrieved from [www.nationalcollege.org.uk/npqh](http://www.nationalcollege.org.uk/npqh).
- National Curriculum (n.d.), *Aims, Values and Purposes*. Retrieved from <http://curriculum.qca.org.uk/key-stages-1-and-2/Values-aims-and-purposes/index.aspx>
- New Zealand Ministry of Education (2011a), *Factsheet: Professional Learning and Development*. Retrieved from [www.minedu.govt.nz/theMinistry/EducationInitiatives/StrengtheningStudentAchievement/ProfessionalLearningAndDevelopment.aspx](http://www.minedu.govt.nz/theMinistry/EducationInitiatives/StrengtheningStudentAchievement/ProfessionalLearningAndDevelopment.aspx).
- New Zealand Ministry of Education (2011b), *New Zealand Education Standards Act*. Retrieved from [www.legislation.govt.nz/act/public/2001/0088/latest/DLM117863.html](http://www.legislation.govt.nz/act/public/2001/0088/latest/DLM117863.html).
- New Zealand Ministry of Education (2011c), *NZ Education System Overview*. Retrieved from [www.minedu.govt.nz/NZEducation/EducationPolicies/InternationalEducation/ForInternationalStudentsAndParents/NZEdOverview/Technical\\_and\\_Vocational\\_Education.aspx](http://www.minedu.govt.nz/NZEducation/EducationPolicies/InternationalEducation/ForInternationalStudentsAndParents/NZEdOverview/Technical_and_Vocational_Education.aspx).
- New Zealand Ministry of Education (2011d), *Performance Management Systems*. Retrieved from [www.minedu.govt.nz/NZEducation/EducationPolicies/Schools/SchoolOperations/EmploymentConditionsAndEvaluation/PerformanceManagementSystems.aspx](http://www.minedu.govt.nz/NZEducation/EducationPolicies/Schools/SchoolOperations/EmploymentConditionsAndEvaluation/PerformanceManagementSystems.aspx).



New Zealand Ministry of Education (2011e), *Principal and Teacher Performance Management*. Retrieved from [www.minedu.govt.nz/NZEducation/EducationPolicies/Schools/SchoolOperations/EmploymentConditionsAndEvaluation/PrincipalAndTeacherPerformanceManagement.aspx](http://www.minedu.govt.nz/NZEducation/EducationPolicies/Schools/SchoolOperations/EmploymentConditionsAndEvaluation/PrincipalAndTeacherPerformanceManagement.aspx).

New Zealand Teachers Council (n.d.), *Teacher Education*. Retrieved from [www.teacherscouncil.govt.nz/te/ite.stm](http://www.teacherscouncil.govt.nz/te/ite.stm).

OCT (Ontario College of Teachers) (2011), *Jobs in Education*. Retrieved from [www.oct.ca/become\\_a\\_teacher/job\\_links.aspx](http://www.oct.ca/become_a_teacher/job_links.aspx).

OECD (2003), *Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers: Country Background Report for Finland*. Retrieved from [www.oecd.org/dataoecd/43/15/5328720.pdf](http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/43/15/5328720.pdf).

OECD (2006), *Education at a Glance, 2006* (Paris: OECD).

OECD (2009), *Creative Effective Teaching and Learning Environments: First Results from TALIS*. Retrieved from [www.oecd.org/dataoecd/31/51/43541636.pdf](http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/31/51/43541636.pdf).

OECD (2010a), *Education at a Glance, 2010*. Retrieved from [www.oecd.org/dataoecd/45/39/45926093.pdf](http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/45/39/45926093.pdf).

OECD (2010b), *PISA 2009 Results: What Students Know and Can Do – Student Performance in Reading, Mathematics and Science (Volume I)*. Retrieved from <http://browse.oecdbookshop.org/oecd/pdfs/browseit/9810071E.PDF>.

Ofsted (2012), Retrieved from [www.ofsted.gov.uk](http://www.ofsted.gov.uk).

Ontario Ministry of Education (2004), *Teacher Excellence: Unlocking Student Potential through Continuing Professional Development*. Retrieved from [www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/general/elemsec/partnership/potential.html](http://www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/general/elemsec/partnership/potential.html).

Ontario Ministry of Education (2008), *The Student Success Strategy*. Retrieved from [www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/studentsuccess/pathways](http://www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/studentsuccess/pathways).

Ontario Ministry of Education (2009), *Equity and Inclusive Education in Ontario Schools: Guidelines for Policy Development and Implementation*. Retrieved from [www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/policyfunding/inclusiveguide.pdf](http://www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/policyfunding/inclusiveguide.pdf).

Ontario Ministry of Education (2010a), *Private Elementary and Secondary Schools*. Retrieved from [www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/general/elemsec/privschr/index.html](http://www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/general/elemsec/privschr/index.html).

Ontario Ministry of Education (2010b), *Professional Activity Days Devoted to Provincial Education Priorities*. Retrieved from [www.edu.gov.on.ca/extra/eng/ppm/ppm151.pdf](http://www.edu.gov.on.ca/extra/eng/ppm/ppm151.pdf).

Ontario Ministry of Education (2011a), *I Want to Be a Principal*. Retrieved from [www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/teacher/directobe.html](http://www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/teacher/directobe.html).

Ontario Ministry of Education (2011b), *The Teaching Profession*. Retrieved from [www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/teacher/employ.html](http://www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/teacher/employ.html).

Ontario Principals Council (n.d.), *Education Leadership Canada*. Retrieved from [www.principals.ca/Display.aspx?cid=4379](http://www.principals.ca/Display.aspx?cid=4379).

Park, K. (n.d.) *Mathematics Teacher Education in East Asian Countries: From the Perspective of Pedagogical Content Knowledge*. Retrieved from [http://webcache.googleusercontent.com/search?q=cache:C50WNC2m-BAJ:math.ecnu.edu.cn/earcome3/PL/EARCOME3\(teacher%2520education\).doc+Mathematics+Teacher+Education+in+East+Asian+Countries+--+from+the+Perspective+of+Pedagogical+Content+Knowledge&cd=1&hl=en&ct=clnk&gl=ca](http://webcache.googleusercontent.com/search?q=cache:C50WNC2m-BAJ:math.ecnu.edu.cn/earcome3/PL/EARCOME3(teacher%2520education).doc+Mathematics+Teacher+Education+in+East+Asian+Countries+--+from+the+Perspective+of+Pedagogical+Content+Knowledge&cd=1&hl=en&ct=clnk&gl=ca).

Quality Improvement Agency (2008), *Key Skills Support Programme: Skills at Key Stage 4*. Retrieved from [www.excellencegateway.org.uk/pdf/Skills%20at%20Key%20Stage%204.pdf](http://www.excellencegateway.org.uk/pdf/Skills%20at%20Key%20Stage%204.pdf).

Shavit, Y. & Muller, W. (2000), Vocational Secondary Education: Where Diversion and Where Safety Net?, *European Societies* 2(1): 29–50. Retrieved from [www.uiowa.edu/~c07b134/shavit\\_and\\_muller\\_reading.pdf](http://www.uiowa.edu/~c07b134/shavit_and_muller_reading.pdf).

Shepherd, J. (2010), GCSE Results: Rise in Numbers Taking Exams a Year Early, *The Guardian* (24 August). Retrieved from [www.guardian.co.uk/education/2010/aug/24/gcse-results-rise-in-students-taking-year-early](http://www.guardian.co.uk/education/2010/aug/24/gcse-results-rise-in-students-taking-year-early).

Sorenson, C. (1994), Success and Education in South Korea, *Comparative Education Review* 38(1): 10–35.

Tarvainen, E. (2007), *School Management Training in Finland: Updated Country Report*, Institute of Educational Leadership, University of Jyväskylä. Retrieved from [www.bi.no/cemFiles/HEAD%20Third/Groups/HEAD%20COUNTRY%20REPORT%20FINLAND%202007.pdf](http://www.bi.no/cemFiles/HEAD%20Third/Groups/HEAD%20COUNTRY%20REPORT%20FINLAND%202007.pdf).

TeachNZ (2010), *Four Steps to Complete*. Retrieved from [www.teachnz.govt.nz/overseas-trained-teachers/four-steps-to-complete](http://www.teachnz.govt.nz/overseas-trained-teachers/four-steps-to-complete).

Texas Education Agency (2001), *The Principal Certificate, Including the Required Principal Assessment Process*. 19 TAC, Chapter 241. Retrieved from [www.sbec.state.tx.us/sbeconline/certinfo/2principal.pdf](http://www.sbec.state.tx.us/sbeconline/certinfo/2principal.pdf).

Timperley, H., Wilson, A., Barrar, H. & Fung, I. (2007), *Teacher Professional Learning and Development: Best Evidence Synthesis Iteration* (Wellington: New Zealand Ministry of Education). Retrieved from [www.educationcounts.govt.nz/\\_data/assets/pdf\\_file/0017/16901/TPLandDBESentire.pdf](http://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/_data/assets/pdf_file/0017/16901/TPLandDBESentire.pdf).

Toronto District School Board (2010), *Secondary Staffing 2010–2011: The Workload Accord for 2010–2–11*. Retrieved from [www.osstfd12.com/adx/asp/adxGetMedia.aspx?DocID=186,19,9,5,Documents&MediaID=412&Filename=ACCORD+2010-2011.pdf](http://www.osstfd12.com/adx/asp/adxGetMedia.aspx?DocID=186,19,9,5,Documents&MediaID=412&Filename=ACCORD+2010-2011.pdf).

Training and Development Agency for Schools (2007), *Professional Standards for Teachers: Post Threshold*. [www.tda.gov.uk/teacher/developing-career/professional-standards-guidance/~/\\_/media/resources/teacher/professional-standards/standards\\_postthreshold.pdf](http://www.tda.gov.uk/teacher/developing-career/professional-standards-guidance/~/_/media/resources/teacher/professional-standards/standards_postthreshold.pdf).

US Department of Education (2010), *A Blueprint for Reform: The Reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act*. Retrieved from [www.languagepolicy.org/documents/legislation/ESEBlueprint2010.pdf](http://www.languagepolicy.org/documents/legislation/ESEBlueprint2010.pdf).

Watanabe, R. (2004), Japan: Encouraging Individualism, Maintaining Community Values, in I. C. Rotberg (ed.), *Balancing Change and Tradition in Global Education Reform*, (Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield): 229–242.

Zucker, S. (2003), *Fundamentals of Standardized Testing*. Retrieved from [www.pearsonassessments.com/.../Fundamentals\\_of\\_Standardized\\_Testing\\_Final.pdf](http://www.pearsonassessments.com/.../Fundamentals_of_Standardized_Testing_Final.pdf).

## Author Details

Lauren Segedin

The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education of the University of Toronto

252 Bloor Street West

Toronto

Ontario

Canada M5S 1V6

Email: [lauren.segedin@utoronto.ca](mailto:lauren.segedin@utoronto.ca)

Ben Levin

The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education of the University of Toronto

252 Bloor Street West

Toronto

Ontario M5S 1V6

Canada

Email: [ben.leven@utoronto.ca](mailto:ben.leven@utoronto.ca)

# Principles of Sustainable Leadership: The Case of School Leaders in the Fiji Islands

**Govinda Ishwar Lingam**

**Abstract:** *The aim of this paper is to present the findings of a study on the principles of sustainable leadership practices of school leaders in the Pacific region – namely, the Fiji Islands. A survey questionnaire was designed consisting of open-ended and closed questions to elicit the views of teachers on the principles of sustainable leadership in relation to their respective schools. The findings indicated that most principles of sustainable leadership were present, yet at a relatively low level. Despite this having been a small-scale study, it calls for more attention on the application of all the principles of sustainable practices for the effective leadership and management of schools in Fiji.*

## Introduction

The contemporary myriad of demands of work in educational organisations requires that considerable attention be paid to the leadership imperative, especially sustainable leadership, for continuous success of the school now and in the future. Even though the presence of sustainable leadership may not guarantee success, its absence could certainly lead to failure in all efforts to improve the school (Fullan, Cuttress & Kilcher 2005). Ongoing capacity-building among other members of the professional learning community both within and outside the educational organisation will enable a continuous positive contribution towards school improvement and, in turn, towards raising the quality of educational provision. An abundance of literature illustrates the impact of leadership on all aspects of educational organisation, underlining the vital importance of the need for concerted effort directed towards supporting the principles of sustainable leadership in all educational jurisdictions. Nowhere is this truer than in developing contexts such as those in the small island states of the Pacific. From this perspective – that is, the importance of the principles of sustainable leadership in present schools and in their future – it is vital to explore the degree to which present school settings are in fact employing such principles.

In the Pacific Island countries, the issue of educational leadership has been a perennial concern though the issue has been addressed only superficially (Bacchus 2000; Tavola 2000; Malasa 2007; Aleta 2010; Lingam 2010). In recent times, educational leadership literature has emphasised the important role school leaders play in school effectiveness and improvement efforts. It is only through effective leadership that all operations and functions of the school

can be realised, optimised and sustained. As Dinham (2005) commented, effective leaders can contribute towards achieving outstanding results for the school, such as vastly improved children's learning outcomes. Conversely, impoverished leaders can adversely affect the school organisation and, in turn, break the promise of a better future for the children. This is the case in many rural schools in Fiji where school leaders lack motivation and drive and as a result schools perform at a low level (Bacchus 2000; Tavola 2000).

School leadership has long been perceived to be important not only for children's academic achievement, but also for the successful functioning of many other aspects of the school organisation (Fullan 2001). It appears that the way school leaders go about their day-to-day work could be a contributing factor in success or failure in all aspects of the school. One of the contemporary leadership practices to be adopted at the school level is the idea of *sustainable* leadership for the purpose of successfully sustaining improvements to all facets of the school organisation (Fullan, Cuttress & Kilcher 2005). For instance, acquiring new knowledge and skills is vital for the continuation of successful sustainable leadership practices, which in turn would enhance school effectiveness and improvement even in times of crisis. In so doing, a distributive perspective of leadership, for example, would be a way forward in providing exposure and building experience of others in the professional learning community in order to continue to take the school forward. This will require some shift in the modes of leadership to make things possible. In fact all these boil down to school leaders' application and promotion of principles of sustainable leadership in a range of ways. In this regard, the seven principles of sustainable leadership as advanced by Hargreaves and Fink (2004) are worthy of consideration.

## **Principles of Sustainable Leadership: The Hargreaves and Fink Model**

Hargreaves and Fink (2004: 8) define sustainable leadership in the following way:

Sustainable leadership matters, spreads and lasts. It is a shared responsibility, that does not unduly deplete human or financial resources, and that cares for and avoids exerting negative damage on the surrounding educational and community environment. Sustainable leadership has an activist engagement with the forces that affect it, and builds an educational environment of organizational diversity that promotes cross-fertilization of good ideas and successful practices in communities of shared learning and development.

The definition is comprehensive as it covers a broad range of issues concerning leadership in schools. From the definition one can deduce that sustainable leadership constitutes a broad view of leadership. It is much more than the managerial style of administration or the maintenance type of practices of just keeping a school running which has outlived its relevance in contemporary times (Mitchell & Tucker 1992; Schratz 2003). Such a narrow view of leadership does not help in terms of effectively responding to the contemporary demands of work and at the same time achieving a progressive outlook for the school. The definition illustrates that school leaders are expected to wear many hats, and not just be an administrator or manager in the school. This calls for a paradigm shift in leadership to meet the demands of the changing times whilst actively contributing towards qualitative growth in education.

The shift as recommended in educational literature is from working in the system (management) to working on the system (leadership) (Senge 1990; Brewer 2001; Schratz 2003). Thus, for the long-term benefit of all with a vested interest in education, practising school leaders need to adopt sustainable leadership practices that will ensure continuous improvement of the different areas of the school. Duignan and Bezzina (2006) caution against the application of those leadership practices that were developed in past centuries but are regarded by some as still appropriate for the contemporary era. A glaring example of this is the autocratic style of leadership adopted in most Fiji schools, which should have been long outgrown (Tavola 2000). After all, times have changed, and school organisations have grown and at the same time have become more complex. It is, therefore, no longer practical or useful to lead and manage schools in contemporary times using leadership practices developed a long time ago (Cannon 2005). This would be like Peddiwell's (1939) famous story of the sabre tooth curriculum. The message of the story is that practices such as those of the leadership, no less than curriculum, should evolve with the changing times. This calls for a better preparation of school leaders (Clark & Clark 1996; Tavola 2000).

On the basis of the definition of sustainable leadership, Hargreaves and Fink (2004) go further, to derive the seven principles of sustainable leadership.

### ***Sustainable Leadership Creates and Preserves Sustaining Learning***

This principle refers to the provision to all children of learning that matters – learning that prepares them for life. Broadly, this means developing children in all dimensions: intellectually, spiritually, socially and emotionally. This principle suggests that the key responsibility for school leaders is to sustain the quality learning for the long-term benefit of the children (Stoll, Fink & Earl 2002). Here, holistic development of the children should be the primary responsibility of the school. School leaders should be concerned with a high quality of learning and teaching rather than teaching narrowly to test or examination requirements (Starratt 2004). This is considered as part of their ethic of responsibility to see that suitable conditions are created for authentic learning to take place, which can then make an everlasting impact on the children's lives (Duignan & Bezzina 2006).

### ***Sustainable Leadership Secures Success Over Time***

The second principle means that, over a period of time, hard-working and committed school leaders will certainly achieve success for their schools. Also, by grooming others in the professional learning community the leader can leave behind a team of dedicated and committed staff to keep the school moving in the right direction. Otherwise, the school is likely to suffer in cases where the incumbent retires or leaves the profession altogether (Hart 1993; Fink & Brayman 2004). The school leader together with the members of the school team should focus on both short-term and long-term objectives and work towards ongoing improvement of the school. This, as suggested in the literature (Hargreaves & Fink 2007), will encourage continuity and not discontinuity in terms of the desire to keep the momentum for further improvement and development of the school.

### ***Sustainable Leadership Sustains the Leadership of Others***

This principle of sustainable leadership involves the development of others to take up leadership positions in future. Qualitatively speaking, this is rather more than just grooming

someone for a leadership position. In this regard, an effective leader will encourage others to take up leadership roles and responsibilities. Active participation of staff in the governance functions of the school will give them relevant exposure and experience, which will help them later when they are promoted to leadership positions. The concept of shared leadership plays an important part here. It is to be applied and practised by the school leaders to ensure that the successors continue to move the school forward (Spillane, Halverson & Drummond 2001). In this way, members of the professional learning community will come to appreciate that they all share and have a say in school leadership. Harris (2002) and Starratt (2004) argue strongly the need for school leaders to share leadership responsibilities with other staff in the school. Through shared leadership, staff will become highly motivated and more committed to school improvement and change, raising the chances for school success (Crowther, Hann & Andrews 2000). After all, in reality it is impossible, and probably undesirable, for the principal or head teacher to lead and manage everything in the school without seeking the assistance of other staff (Fullan 2001).

### ***Sustainable Leadership Addresses Issues of Social Justice***

This principle of leadership covers issues relating to social justice on all counts. Under it, leaders need to exercise responsibility for social justice to all in the wider environment. For example, all children, irrespective of their colour, race, religion or economic background, must be given equal opportunities to attend school. Other examples of socially just practice for school leaders would include not restricting enrolment in one's own school only to high-achieving students or not seeking to entice the best-qualified teachers from neighbouring schools to join its staff. Such leadership actions would be likely to have an adverse impact on the surrounding environment including the clientele and other institutions (Berreth & Berman 1997). It is critical for school leaders to be ethically conscious of their actions and behaviours (Starratt 1991). In fact, the leader is to do things for the common good of everyone. In educational enterprise, supporting and working collaboratively with other schools in whatever way possible is considered a good gesture (Hargreaves & Fink 2007). That the school leader should be working in the best interests of all stakeholders in the wider school community forms part of this principle of sustainable leadership (Baker & Foote 2003).

### ***Sustainable Leadership Develops Rather Than Depletes Human and Material Resources***

The allocation and development of resources rather than their exploitation is the defining feature of this principle of sustainable leadership. School leaders are expected to be effective in their management of both human and material resources. Leaders need to know how to make best use of the resources during difficult times, to avoid exploitation, and at the same time find better ways and means to develop the human and material resources for the benefit of the school (Byrne 1994). In so far as human resource is concerned, school leaders should encourage staff to undertake professional development activities. This will help them to acquire new knowledge and skills with the hope that their application will raise staff performance and productivity at work for the overall benefit of the school and the community served by the school (Poplin 1992). With regard to material resources, school leaders are to look for ways to replenish and acquire suitable resources to enhance and at the same time sustain all activities of the school.

### ***Sustainable Leadership Develops Environmental Diversity and Capacity***

This principle involves treasuring all forms of diversity and varying abilities that exist in the environment, and at the same time facilitating ongoing improvement in all spheres in and beyond the school (Capra 1997). The task of the school leader will be to assist in whatever way possible to realise people's full potential. Building on people's strengths can help infuse new ideas, and these in turn can have a positive impact not only on the school but also the entire school community. The concept of cross-fertilisation of ideas is encouraged as it can contribute to improvement in all aspects of the school organisation (Louise & Kruse 1995). After all, education is everyone's business.

### ***Sustainable Leadership Undertakes Activist Engagement with the Environment***

Under this principle, school leaders are to be vigilant of outside forces and take a strong stand on issues that emerge in the environment, particularly ones that may not be helpful to the school (Oakes, Quartz & Lipton 2000). Here, to translate the principle into practice, the school leader needs to be proactive. By actively engaging in the environment the school leader will have some sense of the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats present in the environment, and helped by this will act appropriately for the benefit for the school and the entire education system.

The foregoing review of literature illustrates that sustainable leadership is more than just administering or managing a school day by day. Interestingly, the seven principles of leadership operate interactively and it is difficult to compartmentalise them. For these reasons, it is vital to explore and determine the extent to which the seven principles of sustainable leadership practices as advanced by Hargreaves and Fink (2004) are applied in schools in the Fiji context.

## **Sustainable Leadership in Fiji Schools: A Preliminary Study**

### ***Purpose of the Research***

The remainder of the paper discusses a small piece of research exploring the perceptions of a group of teachers on the seven principles of sustainable leadership as advanced by Hargreaves and Fink (2004). Specifically, it explores teachers' reflections on the seven principles of sustainable leadership and the extent to which they are apparent in their respective schools. The central research question under examination was: what are your reflections on the seven principles of sustainable leadership in relation to your school context?

### ***Rationale***

The literature demonstrates that although some small-scale studies had been conducted on certain aspects of educational leadership in the Fiji context, none so far had addressed the area of sustainable leadership. This study would, therefore, contribute valuable information and insights about the extent of the principles of sustainable leadership practices in Fiji schools.

Specifically, the findings of such a study would help various stakeholders, for example, to re-examine their stand on sustainable leadership issues and practices presently adopted. Also,

the outcome of this study could be used to institute as well as improve leadership training and development programmes mounted either in teacher education institutions or by the employer. The Ministry of Education as the principal stakeholder responsible for the education sector would benefit from this study, as the outcome would better inform their practice – that is, in terms of organising suitable in-service training programmes in future for the benefit of school leaders and, in turn, children’s futures. Even though this is a small-scale study, it has both local and international significance and, as such, the hope is that the findings will propel further investigations in various dimensions of educational leadership within and beyond Fiji, especially in the small island states of the Pacific.

### **Study Context**

Fiji became a crown colony of Britain in 1874, remaining so for nearly a century before it achieved independence in 1970. Although against the measuring stick of the industrialised world Fiji may be assessed dismissively as one of the small nations in the Pacific and economically not a very rich country, within the island region of the south west Pacific it is among the larger and more developed ones, in land mass and population second only to Papua New Guinea. Fiji compares quite favourably with those small nations in the Pacific region in all aspects including education. The multiracial population includes in the mix two major ethnic groups, Indigenous Fijians and Indo-Fijians, as well as several other smaller ones. Despite the disruption attendant on four coups since the early 1990s, the country is fairly stable. The government embarked on the 21st century armed with the report presented by a commission instituted to assess the present and chart a path for the future of the country’s education system. The multi-authored report, *Learning Together: Directions for Education in Fiji Islands: Report of the Fiji Islands Education Commission/Panel 2000*, now used as a guide for future developments in education, highlights educational leadership as one of the areas needing urgent attention.

### **Research Method**

A questionnaire survey was the chosen instrument for the collection of data. The two-part survey determined teachers’ reflections about each of the seven principles of sustainable leadership in relation to their respective schools. The survey sample comprised participants, all of them practising teachers, studying a postgraduate-level course on educational administration. As it encouraged participants to express their views freely, this questionnaire was considered an effective means of gathering data from the sample (Gay 1992).

The questionnaire consisted of two items. First, the respondents were asked to rate each of the listed seven principles of sustainable leadership on a five-point Likert scale ranging from one, as the lowest agreement, to five, the strongest agreement, in terms of how well it was reflected in their respective schools. This helped identify which principles were given adequate (or least) attention and at the same time determine the extent of recognition of the principle in the school. The second item opened the opportunity for participants to express their views on each principle of sustainable leadership on the basis of the rating they gave.

The researcher introduced the questionnaire by explaining its purpose and how the results could assist policy-makers and those who aspire to become school leaders. The researcher personally distributed and collected the completed questionnaires from the teachers, and the handling of the information was such that participants’ confidentiality and anonymity were



protected, as they were assured would be the case. Since the questionnaire was administered to all the teachers taking the course, the return rate of the completed questionnaires was 33 (100 per cent).

All participants in the study had already completed some courses at the postgraduate level and this course on leadership was another one in which they were enrolled. Most of them (80 per cent) had been teaching for more than 15 years and were fairly well versed in Fiji's education system. The sample included 13 females and 20 males. Two sets of data were collected. Analysis of the quantitative data set employed the common statistical mean (Mehrens & Lehmann 1991). The responses in the qualitative data set were grouped according to each principle of sustainable leadership. Suitable quotations are presented from the open-ended question responses, as 'some statements carry a rich density of meaning in a few words' (Ruddock 1993:19).

## Findings

The analyses of the quantitative and qualitative data are presented separately.

### Quantitative Data

The teachers were asked to rate each principle of sustainable leadership on a five-point scale (1= lowest agreement to 5= strongest agreement); that is, the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with each principle as it applied to their school context. Table 1 provides the summary of the results for the quantitative data.

**Table 1:** Ratings for the principles of sustainable leadership (N = 33)

Principles of sustainable leadership	Mean (on 5-point scale)	Standard deviation
Sustainable leadership creates and preserves sustaining learning.	2.6	0.34
Sustainable leadership secures success over time.	2.7	0.45
Sustainable leadership sustains the leadership of others.	2.9	0.36
Sustainable leadership addresses issues of social justice.	2.6	0.55
Sustainable leadership develops rather than depletes human and material resources	3.0	0.47
Sustainable leadership develops environmental diversity and capacity.	2.5	0.42
Sustainable leadership undertakes activist engagement with the environment.	2.3	0.38

### Qualitative Data

Presented here, with only a brief immediate generalisation, are some of the typical responses both positive and negative relating to each one of the principles. The discussion section that follows elaborates further.

### *Sustainable leadership creates and preserves sustaining learning*

Many times trial tests are done to prepare students for the main purpose of passing exams and this may not be sustaining as weaker students are often left out. Thus teaching a child how to read or how to tell the time is more meaningful and useful for future use.

Every Monday morning the [Head teacher] talked about Fiji Eighth Year Examination targets. He sets targets and incentives for students: \$20 for 100 per cent in any subject and \$100 for 100 per cent in the total mark.

My school concentrates on quantity of passes.

My school promotes and encourages children to take part in various activities throughout the year. The academic subjects is one side of the coin as the school takes keen interest in sports; namely, soccer, rugby, netball, volleyball, golf and athletics. Students take part in various art competitions, the school is part of the Nadi Green Schools, the school offers computer lessons for students from the pre-school to class eight and the school participates in quizzes and oratory. Recently the school has also formed clubs such as arts clubs, musical club, Red Cross Club, Scouts and Girl-Guides so that the different interests of the students could be harnessed and promoted.

Overall, most (60 per cent) of the participants felt that their school did not rate well in its application of this principle. Some of the comments were explicitly critical of the leader's overemphasis on narrow academic results and too little concern with other dimensions a more holistic approach should address. One implication is that the offer of the carrot needs to be made frequently – in other words, that short-term benefits need repeated emphasis because they are not in themselves sustaining.

### *Sustainable leadership secures success over time*

This is not happening in Fiji ... many leaders have suddenly retired and successors are not prepared for leadership positions.

My school had six leaders in ten years ... our current leader is the best compared to the previous ones ... unfortunately he was retired at the end of last year after two years at this school.

There was a big chaos after the compulsory retirement age in April 2009. The successor of the retired head teacher knew very little about school administration and she panicked a lot ... In less than two years of her leadership, we have seen the school standard, staff relationship, students' behaviour and performance deteriorating.

After a very experienced principal retired in 2009 the vice principal was promoted to head of the school. With the new reform driven climate like budget preparation, standards monitoring, OHS policies the new principal found it difficult to cope ... the results of the school dropped drastically.

Despite awarding a mean rating a little above the halfway mark, most of the participants (65 per cent) commented in ways that indicated that, on reflection, they did not find that their school performed well in its evaluation against this principle. Comments often underlined a

disturbing lack of continuity and an over-dependence on the accumulated experience of particular individuals, both factors that militate against longer-term sustainability.

### *Sustainable leadership sustains the leadership of others*

Gave opportunity to upgrade our qualifications, attend workshops and conduct professional development activities in the school.

Gave me opportunities to act in his position many times.

I would say that in my school it is very hard to see this ... our leader holds on to all responsibilities and it always creates a lot of problems and confusion for the school.

The school head with the help of the assistant head teacher and the executive teachers take up all the responsibilities and make all major decisions. The administrative team, as they call themselves, make all the major decisions before the commencement of the staff meetings. In addition, there are hardly any staff development programmes and the school head or his assistants and a few of the head's favourites attend workshops while other staff members are neglected.

As far as this principle is concerned, a majority of participants (69 per cent) was willing to award a positive rating and at a mean of 2.9, it was the second highest rating given. Feedback in the comments, too, was often positive, although there were some decidedly negative ones as well. It seems that while many school leaders have 'moved with the times' in the direction of more collaborative approaches, perhaps even willingness to mentor and delegate in leadership roles, there remain pockets of resistance to relinquishing or sharing the 'power' of running the school. Consideration of the second principle, too, could well keep this principle in mind.

### *Sustainable leadership addresses issues of social justice*

At present my school is discriminating as it only takes high achievers.

Fijian students from neighbouring schools and villages attend our school since we are offering Fijian Vernacular language, which most schools in our zone do not offer.

The school does not try to share ideas and resources with other neighbouring schools but tries to operate in isolation.

The school promised to provide a special treat to the class collecting the highest amount of money ... the school's administrative team with the help of school management neglected on their part and did not reward the students accordingly, that is, by giving them well deserved lunch.

In Nadi, several schools have cut-off marks for enrolment to increase results while others lobby for best soccer players and give them scholarships to maintain their soccer standards. The other secondary schools get mediocre and below average students, thus are not able to compete both academically and in sports ... [I] hope [the] zoning system will improve this. We should try to help the whole community and not to take best students and teachers.

The school leader is always dealing with one sector of the community and that is [the one] the school management comes from. Sponsors, well-wishers are used and disposed as if their durability has expired.

For a country that values highly the virtues of ‘caring and sharing’, responses on the principle of addressing social justice issues were most disappointing. Not only was the mean barely more than the midpoint, but 50 per cent of the participants returned negative feedback. While handing out some bouquets, participants were often most pointed in comments about their school’s failure to have much regard for social justice.

### *Sustainable leadership develops rather than depletes human and material resources*

My school leader recognised our potential and encouraged us to upgrade our qualifications.

In my school the head organises staff development programmes ... we actively participate.

At my school we are allowed to attend any workshop or seminar organised by the Ministry of Education.

The headship is doing very little ... not all teachers get a chance to attend workshops and there is hardly any staff development programme conducted at the school.

On the question of the stewardship of human and material resources, school leadership performance was rated much more positively. With the highest mean rating (3.0) and the highest percentage of positive respondents (70 per cent) this area of leadership resonates well for school leaders and their staff. Perhaps, on the grain-of-salt or -yeast principle, one approach to improving overall movement towards sustainable leadership would be to build on and improve this area, where performance is apparently already doing better, and then to move on to increasing the effort put into improving performance on the other principles. In so far as it is true that nothing succeeds like success, then finding the points where success or its beginnings are already apparent is urgent.

### *Sustainable leadership develops environmental diversity and capacity*

Teachers and students are free to try out various ways and means to learn and teach in school. Teachers are encouraged to go to different classes to take different lessons. The students are also exposed to different mediums of learning such as through researching in the library, through computers, field trips, group work and from various speakers who are invited to the school to speak on various issues.

At times my school organises special programmes for the people with the help of service organisations.

We hardly use the ideas of other people ... community.

Overall, 60 per cent of the participants indicated a positive reflection on their school’s performance with respect to this principle though the mean remained obdurately midstream. Comments indicate that many schools do seek actively to involve members of the community beyond the school and to widen the repertoire of teaching and learning styles. Schools and their leaders who have moved in this direction should be commended and encouraged; those who have not yet made this breakthrough should also be encouraged. Schools should be in and of the immediate community, not rarefied isolates.

### *Sustainable leadership undertakes activist engagement with the environment*

Most of the time my head of the school is confined to the school. He hardly goes out in the community. We even do not know most of the parents.

My school leader does not worry about ... he is 8am to 4pm person. I think the head should do more in this area.

We lack network with the community ... this is sad.

In my ten years of teaching, this was the first year when we had two organised community visits to the neighbouring villages and settlements, where we addressed the parents on issues relating to the school and the welfare of the children. The head teacher and the staff all went to these two gatherings and the response from the parents was overwhelming ... The head teacher has a good relationship with the community.

The school head tries to keep in touch with all stakeholders and in turn these stakeholders have many times helped the school. A very good example was when the school's land lease was near expiry. Due to the good relationship with the land owning unit, the school was granted a sixty year lease for a very less amount of money.

The final principle relates closely to the preceding one. Although selected comments suggest that some participants felt very pleased with how their school rated, it has to be pointed out that the mean rating was below the midpoint and 60 per cent of the teachers provided negative comments, so there is no room for complacency. Comments also indicate, though, that there is awareness, perhaps increasing awareness, among school leaders, teachers and communities that relationships between schools and their communities can and should be close and good, for the mutual benefit of all. That education should be seen as a mutually reinforcing collaboration among all stakeholders should be inculcated and nurtured among all stakeholders. Strong, committed, sustainable school leadership is critical to the development of this.

### **Discussion**

The purpose of the study was to garner from the teachers insights into the principles of sustainable leadership as practised in their respective school settings. In general the two sets of data indicate the presence of the seven principles of sustainable leadership in all schools. However, there is a clear necessity for more emphasis on all the principles of sustainable leadership, because they are not rated highly. Most of the mean scores obtained are not significantly above the mean score of 2.5 (Table 1). Added to the mean, the standard deviation (Table 1) for each principle of sustainable leadership shows that there were no considerable variations in the ratings. With regard to the qualitative data, the responses to some of the principles were skewed to the left and also to the right. This illustrates that some principles were not practised vigorously in the schools. What follows is a discussion based on each principle of sustainable leadership.

The principle that *sustainable leadership creates and preserves sustaining learning* has a rating of 2.6, but 60 per cent of the participants' comments were negative. This suggests that school leaders need to focus more on the holistic development of a child. In sustaining learning, school leaders can play an important part in emphasising a well-rounded education which is meaningful, everlasting and at the same time beneficial to the children as they prepare

themselves for later life and work, a value that is often expressed in the literature (Stoll, Fink & Earl 2002; Duignan & Bezzina 2006). However, the results from the study illustrate that Fiji school leaders tend to place more attention on narrow goals such as preparing children to pass examinations. Of course success in achieving this academic goal is necessary, but passing the examination should not be the sole emphasis, lest children miss out preparation for other vital areas of life. The analysis of the data in this study indicates school leaders' greater concern with short-term gains – that is, their almost exclusive focus on the students' academic achievement (Starratt 2004). This may change in future as the Ministry of Education proceeds with efforts to phase out external examinations and phase in continuous assessment, which could encourage holistic development of the child.

Likewise, the principle that *sustainable leadership secures success over time* did not receive a high rating (2.7). In terms of the teachers' comments, 65 per cent were negative. The government's sudden reduction in the retirement age policy from 60 to 55 in April 2009 was brutal, especially in the area of school leadership. This could be a contributing factor in the sad state of affairs in the area of leadership in some of the schools. At that point in time the Ministry of Education had no suitable option but to promote senior teachers from the ranks to head schools. Here both the employer and the then existing school leaders appear to have done little planning in terms of developing successors for the long-term benefit of the school (Hart 1993; Fink & Brayman 2004). They have been concerned more with the achievement of short-term goals without realising the need for long-term planning.

The principle *sustainable leadership sustains the leadership of others* received the second-highest rating of 2.9, and with 69 per cent of favourable comments. From the rating one can deduce that, in most schools, leaders still continue to control most of the things from the centre without sharing much of their responsibilities with other colleagues. One reason for the persistence of this leadership style could be that the hierarchical structures are in place and firmly entrenched; as a consequence there is always power over the staff (Bacchus 2000; Tavola 2000). This implies that those leaders are not really concerned about sustaining leadership of others. The need to recognise and to unleash the potential of others in the professional learning community is crucial for sustaining school improvement (Spillane, Halverson & Drummond 2001). Because of the current reforms in education, the work of school leaders is becoming ever more demanding. Without seeking support from other colleagues from both within and outside the school, it is to all intents and purposes impossible for them to work in all areas effectively (Schratz 2003). Opportunities for help are in abundance at the school level but it seems school leaders are not making optimal use of the opportunities and potentials available.

On the principle of *sustainable leadership addresses issues of social justice*, the rating (2.6) is not very pleasing. Similarly, only 50 per cent of the comments were positive. The feedback shows that some schools continue to cater for high achievers and tend to close the door for the low achievers, despite children's right to education. This is not a good practice as it contravenes issues of social justice (Hargreaves & Fink 2007). The introduction of school zoning may force schools to enrol students living nearby in the school neighbourhood, without any regard to their marks or socioeconomic standing. Another interesting feature of Fiji's education system is that the majority of schools are owned by non-government organisations and, as such, schools may not consider it wise to share resources of all types with other schools.

When compared with the other principles of sustainable leadership, the principle that *sustainable leadership develops rather than depletes human and material resources* received the most

favourable of the ratings (3.0). Likewise, 70 per cent of the comments were positive. School material resources appear to be well kept as the schools' management may be keeping a constant check on these. In relation to human resources, especially teaching staff, it is pleasing to note that they are encouraged to upgrade their qualifications and attend other in-service programmes. Opportunities afforded for the up-skilling of teachers would ultimately provide the benefit of a higher quality of education to the children (Byrne 1994). Thus more opportunities for staff development through various means would be a way forward towards providing a better quality of education for the children.

On the principle that *sustainable leadership develops environmental diversity and capacity*, the mean rating was 2.5 with 60 per cent of the comments being positive. This shows that not much was done in terms of creating a favourable platform where people with different capabilities can grow and develop. By taking this approach, the school would have benefited from their input in the long run. It is always wise for the school leader to consider the differences that exist and work towards strengthening them for the good of the school. It appears that school leaders were concerned more with their traditional role of school administrator (Tavola 2000).

Likewise, the principle that *sustainable leadership undertakes activist engagement with the environment* was not rated at all favourably as being prominent in school practice. It received a just-under-the-middle rating of only 2.3 with a 60 per cent negative comment rate. Perhaps the current political climate inhibits school leaders from engaging actively with the environment or neighbourhood, encouraging them instead to concentrate on their work in the immediate internal environment – that is, in the school. The literature, however, suggests that school leaders have much to gain from engaging themselves professionally in the wider environment beyond the school fence (Oakes, Quartz & Lipton 2000).

Overall, the responses obtained from the teachers through the closed and the open-ended items were lightly weighted towards a favourable picture about the pursuit of principles of sustainable leadership at the school level. This perhaps may be regarded as a hopeful starting point. However, more could be achieved if leaders were encouraged to be more aware of the principles of sustainable leadership and their positive impact on the entire school community. The education authorities, by placing more emphasis on the principles of sustainable leadership for sustaining all operations of the school, could materially assist in bringing about positive changes in the mind-sets of school leaders, as the evidence suggests that most school leaders are more inclined to working in the system rather than on the system (Senge 1990; Tavola 2000; Brewer 2001; Schratz 2003).

## Conclusion

School leaders have to keep their minds open and recognise the principles of sustainable leadership for the purpose of sustaining school improvement. The principles of sustainable leadership should form part of school leaders' day-to-day professional work to ensure optimal benefit to the school organisation and, in turn, to all stakeholders who have an interest in education. The small study reported here illustrates the need for extra effort on the part of school leaders to ensure effective implementation of sustainable leadership practices in the education system for the long-term benefit of the school, the community served by the school and, in turn, the nation. Most of the principles of sustainable leadership as suggested by Hargreaves and Fink (2004) were present but at a relatively low level, and school leaders could have done better if they had vigorously pursued and demonstrated sustainable leadership

practices for the overall good of the school. For example, the need to provide ample leadership opportunities to staff for the purpose of grooming them is vital for successful continuity. Leadership succession on the basis of the seven principles is professionally sound for the overall success of the school now and in the future.

It can be said on the basis of the data collected that the current school leaders could have done more in the area of sustainable leadership by effectively applying the principles that have been suggested. It is the responsibility of existing school leaders to be aware of the long-term benefits and implement the principles of sustainable leadership to enable future leaders to acquire and develop relevant skills to provide the best possible service not only to the children but also to the school community as a whole. Capacity-building of teachers in different areas of the school organisation can help them to acquire useful knowledge and skills to lead effectively and manage the school organisation in future in ways that contribute to school improvement. At the school level, the principles of sustainable leadership practices can be effectively translated into action for the benefit of all in the professional learning community. Conversely, leadership practices that are not aligned with the seven principles of sustainable leadership will certainly lead to a downward spiral of the school, with an adverse impact on all the members of the professional learning community and, in particular, the children.

As succinctly stated by Hargreaves & Fink (2004:10), 'If change is to matter, spread and last, sustainable leadership must also be a fundamental priority of the systems in which leaders do their work.' For this to happen successfully, the employer, in Fiji's case the Ministry of Education, should put in place appropriate mechanisms to encourage leadership practices consonant with the principles of sustainable leadership at all levels of education. To achieve desired results in this critical area requires both ongoing awareness and better training programmes for future school leaders. Through the effective application of the seven principles of sustainable leadership by the school leaders, more can be accomplished in all areas of the school for the benefit of all stakeholders and more so for the nation's children.

Even though this was a small-scale study with a small number of respondents, there is still sufficient consistency in the responses to warrant further and focused research in the area of sustainable leadership. Such research could ensure sustainability in all areas of schooling not only in Fiji schools but also in the schools of other small island states of the Pacific. A study on sustainable leadership should not only be confined to the school level, but also conducted at other levels of education such as tertiary-level institutions for the benefit of all people.

## References

- Aleta, S.J.T. (2010), Barriers to Effective Leadership in Tokelau Schools. Unpublished masters' thesis. The University of the South Pacific, Suva, Fiji.
- Bacchus, K. (2000), The Administration and Management of Education in Fiji, in *Learning Together: Directions for Education in Fiji Islands: Report of the Fiji Islands Education Commission/Panel* (Suva, Fiji: Government Printer): 369–387.
- Baker, M. & Foote, M. (2003), Changing Spaces: Urban School Interrelationships and the Impact of Standards-Based Reform, *Educational Administration Quarterly* 42(1): 90–123.
- Berreth, D. & Berman, S. (1997), The Moral Dimensions of Schools, *Educational Leadership* 54(8): 24–27.
- Brewer, H. (2001), Ten Steps to Success, *Journal of Staff Development* 22(1): 30–31.
- Byrne, B.M. (1994), Burnout Testing for the Validity, Replication, and Invariance of Causal Structure across the Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Teachers, *American Educational Research Journal* 31(3): 645–763.



- Cannon, H. (2005), *Redesigning the Principalship in Catholic Schools*. Unpublished doctoral thesis. Australian Catholic University, Sydney.
- Capra, F. (1997), *The Web of Life: A New Synthesis of Mind and Matter* (London: HarperCollins).
- Clark, D.C. & Clark, S.C. (1996), Better Preparation of Educational Leaders, *Educational Researcher* 25(9): 18–20.
- Crowther, F., Hann, L. & Andrews, D. (2000), Rethinking the Role of the School Principal: Successful School Improvement in the Post Industrial Era, *The practising Administrator*, 23(4): 12–14.
- Dinham, S. (2005), Principal Leadership for Outstanding Educational Outcomes, *Journal of Educational Administration* 43(4): 338–356.
- Duignan, P. & Bezzina, M. (2006), Distributed Leadership: The Theory and Practice. Paper presented at the CCEAM Annual Conference, Hilton Cyprus Hotel, Lefkosia, Cyprus, 12–17 October.
- Fink, D. & Brayman, C. (2004), Principals' Succession and Educational Change, *Educational Administration Quarterly* 42(4): 431–449.
- Fullan, M. (2001), *Leading in a Culture of Change* (San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass).
- Fullan, M., Cuttress, C. & Kilcher, A. (2005), Eight Forces for Leaders of Change, *National Staff Development Council Magazine* 26(4): 54–64.
- Gay, L.R. (1992), *Educational Research* (New York: Maxwell Macmillan International).
- Hargreaves, A. & Fink, D. (2004), The Seven Principles of Sustainable Leadership, *Educational Leadership* 61(7): 8–13.
- Hargreaves, A. & Fink, D. (2007), Energizing Leadership for Sustainability, in B. Davies (ed.), *Developing Sustainable Leadership* (London: Paul Chapman Publishing).
- Harris, A. (2002), Distributed Leadership in Schools: Leading or Misleading. Keynote paper presented at the BELMAS annual conference, Aston University Lakeside Conference Centre, Birmingham, England, 20–22 September.
- Hart, A.W. (1993), *Principal Succession: Establishing Leadership in Schools* (Albany, NY: SUNY Press).
- Lingam, G.I. (2010), School Heads Learn to be Effective Managers, *Solomon Star* (29 January), p. 2.
- Louise, K.S. & Kruse, S.D. (1995), *Professionalism and Community: Perspective on Reforming Urban High Schools* (Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press).
- Malasa, D.P. (2007), *Effective School Leadership: An Exploration of Issues Inhibiting the Effectiveness of School Leadership in Solomon Islands' Secondary Schools*. Unpublished masters' thesis. University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand.
- Mehrens, W.A. & Lehmann, I.J. (1991), *Measurement and Evaluation in Education and Psychology* (New York: Houghton Mifflin).
- Mitchell, D.E. & Tucker, S. (1992), Leadership as a Way of Thinking, *Educational Leadership* 49(5): 30–35.
- Oakes, J., Quartz, K.H. & Lipton, M. (2000), *Becoming Good American Schools: The Struggle for Civic Virtue in Education Reform* (San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass).
- Peddiwell, J.A. (1939), *The Saber Tooth Curriculum* (London: McGraw-Hill).
- Poplin, M.S. (1992), The Leader's New Role: Looking to the Growth of Teachers. *Educational Leadership* 49(5), 10–11.
- Ruddock, J. (1993), The Theatre of Daylight: Qualitative Research and School Profile Studies, in M. Schratz (ed.), *Qualitative Voices in Educational Research* (London: Falmer): 8–23.
- Schratz, M. (2003), From Administering to Leading a School: Challenges in German Speaking Countries, *Cambridge Journal of Education* 33(3): 395–416.

Senge, P.M. (1990), *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization* (New York: Doubleday).

Spillane, J.P., Halverson, R. & Drummond, J.B. (2001), Investigating School Leadership Practice: A Distributed Perspective, *Educational Researcher* 30(3): 23–28.

Starratt, R.J. (1991), Building an Ethical School: A Theory for Practice in Educational Leadership, *Educational Administration Quarterly* 27(2): 185–202.

Starratt, R.J. (2004), *Ethical Leadership* (San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass).

Stoll, L., Fink, D. & Earl, L. (2002), *It's About Learning: And it's About Time* (London: Routledge/Falmer).

Tavola, H. (2000), Secondary Education: Leadership and Administration, in *Learning Together: Directions for Education in Fiji Islands: Report of the Fiji Islands Education Commission/Panel* (Suva, Fiji: Government Printer): 93–116.

## Author Details

Govinda Ishwar Lingam

School of Education

University of the South Pacific

Fiji Islands

Email: govinda.lingham@usp.ac.fj

# Gendered Academia in a Market-Oriented Vietnam

**Dang Thi Anh Nguyet**

**Abstract:** *Since the mid-1990s, Vietnam has changed from a socialist state to a market-oriented state. Market values and practices and revived Confucian gender norms in society together with a strengthened centralised power structure inside academia have reshaped its gender relations and practices. This article will critically examine this gender regime. It shows a conservative restructuring of the roles and positions of female academics and strengthened gender disparity in academia. First, I will briefly overview the changing contexts of Vietnamese higher education. I will then examine the changing gender relations and practices in the university and causes of these changes. Finally, I will discuss implications and raise questions for further study on the topic.*

## **Introduction: Vietnamese contexts and academia**

The rise of Vietnamese academics started with the University of Indochina, the first Western higher-education institution, which was founded in the early twentieth century in Vietnam (M.G. Vu, Dao, Nguyen, Nguyen & Pham 2006). Since then, the academic sector has formed and developed amidst a myriad of socioeconomic and political turbulences, including the two wars against foreign domination, first against France and later against the United States till 1975. The wars were followed by a social economic crisis in the mid-1980s which triggered *Doi Moi*, an ongoing overall reform process in all aspects of society (D.T. Nguyen, Nguyen, Ho & Hoang, 1996).

The period from 1945 to the mid-1980s observed the development and failure of a heavily-centralised socialist state model where only the state and co-operative sectors were legitimate while other sectors were outlawed and became part of the shadow economy. The state sector operated under a planning and directing system in which the central government and the Communist Party played the key roles, determining detailed tasks, targets and allocation of resources (Le & Sloper 1995; M.H. Pham 1995; Huynh, Hang, Xuan, Quant, Nguyen, Dang et al. 2006).

After the 1980s, the state became market-oriented. It legitimised and allowed non-state sectors to develop. The central government gave more power to lower-level authorities and reduced its involvement in the economy and public welfare via the privatisation and equitisation of state-owned enterprises, and the socialisation of public services including education. In other words, people were now expected to pay partially for services which were not covered fully by state subsidies (D.T. Nguyen et al. 1996; N.H. Vu, Dang, Tran, Dang, Le, Dang et al. 2007). There has

been rapid economic growth along with growing social divides and inequalities across areas and regions (Nguyen-Vo 2008; Teerawichitchainan, Knodel, Vu & Vu 2010) as well as among groups of people in localities (Liu 2004; Werner 2009).

These changing contexts and the changing relations between the Communist regime and academia have played a dominant role in shaping and reshaping the academic sector (T.A.N. Dang, 2009). Particularly, state control over academia – including its purposes, organisation, staffing, funding and work practices – has changed (D.T. Nguyen et al. 1996; Huynh et al. 2006; N.H. Vu et al. 2007). Before the 1980s the state only permitted those universities and colleges which were run by various state ministries. Academics were state workers with state payroll salaries and were appointed by the respective ministries. They were expected to embrace socialism and communism, and worked under the state plans to produce socialist skilled workers for the Communist regime (M.H. Pham 1995).

The state reforms from the mid-1980s opened ways for private and foreign universities to set up their campuses, hire academic staff and provide tertiary training in return for private tuition fees (L.H. Pham & Fry 2004b). Public universities also had greater autonomy. They could enrol students outside state-funded quotas, provide consultancy services and run businesses to serve non-state customers and generate income, which was then at their disposal (Sloper & Le 1995; L.H. Pham & Fry 2004a; N.H. Vu et al. 2007; George 2010). Public universities were also allowed more self-control of personnel. For example, university staff could elect and nominate their directors to the government for official state appointment. The directors could choose suitable candidates to be vice directors, could appoint deans and vice deans based on the nomination of the faculty staff, and could recruit new academic and non-academic staff themselves (D.T. Nguyen et al. 1996; N.H. Vu et al. 2007; T.A.N. Dang 2009).

The state continued to reshape academia to meet its national targets in the 1990s and 2000s (George 2010; Harman, Hayden & Pham 2010; Hayden & Pham 2010). For example, under the Education Law, academics were assigned the tasks of human resource training, socialism propaganda, and contribution to science and technology development to support the newly reformed country. The role of the academic was to provide quality teaching and research to advance higher education and keep pace with the world. The state also set up various mechanisms to control academic work, for example via the enrolment quotas and quality-control mechanisms of Ministry of Education and Training (Harman & Nguyen 2010; T.N. Pham 2010).

As well as being shaped by the Communist regime, Vietnamese academia has been conditioned by socioeconomic contexts in particular way. Before the 1980s, wars and economic hardship created a poor infrastructure and severe shortages of resources that constrained work in academia. The economic crisis in the 1980s saw academics experience their worst status ever, with their subsistence wages making them very poorly regarded by public opinion. Academia came to the brink of being dismantled when the state could not pay salaries to the academics and some of them had to quit their jobs for other income-generating activities (T.A.N. Dang, 2009).

In the 1990s, market-economy developments introduced a new driving force for academia (N.H. Vu et al. 2007). These about more resources and income-generating opportunities into the sector as both the state and the population became richer and could afford university development via public funding and tuition fees (Hayden & Pham 2010), and international co-operation offered overseas resources from advanced countries such as the United States, Australia and the European Union (Welch 2010). As a result, Vietnamese higher education expanded in the number and types of institutions, the number of disciplines and training programmes at undergraduate

and postgraduate levels, including doctoral degrees, the number of academics and students, and other associated activities (U.V. Dang 2007; N.H. Vu et al. 2007; Hayden & Pham 2010).

Apart from state interventions and the social context, academics have obviously been responsible for organising universities and their working methods from inside academia. During the time the Communist Regime established and consolidated their control over the country from 1945 to the mid-1980s, academics adapted their work to the state ideologies of communism and socialism, embraced state-designated targets of skilled-worker training and followed state design of university organisation and other policies (V.G. Le 2003) in order to retain university control (T.A.N. Dang 2009).

In *Doi Moi*, academics were quick to embrace economic orientation. They utilised their cultural capital and directed the universities to gain resources and income in the new higher-education market (Hayden & Pham 2010). The university leadership and management, including directors and dean of faculties/ departments and professors, took advantage of the government reforms to strengthen their control over universities in terms of budget, resources and allocation of work (Hayden & Lam 2007; Hayden & Pham 2010). The university leadership and management also controlled personnel issues, as they had considerable power over decisions as to the number of academic and non-academic staff as well as the criteria for their recruitment and promotion (T.A.N. Dang 2009; T.K.H. Nguyen et al. 2011). At the bottom of the university hierarchy were academics and non-academic staff who were to carry out their jobs of teaching and providing non-teaching services (T.K.H. Nguyen et al. 2011).

## The Changing Gender Regime in Academia

The entry and increasing presence of women into the academic profession is recorded in the history of contemporary Vietnamese academia. From no presence at all, by 1980 the total of female academics was 4,044, accounting for 23 per cent of the total 17,592 university and college teaching staff members at that time (Tran, Lam & Sloper 1995). The proportion of women among the total academic staff has since continued to increase, reaching 31.4 per cent in 1990 (Tran et al. 1995) and 47.1 per cent in 2010 (T.H. Nguyen & Ngoc 2011).

Still, though, Vietnamese academia has remained a male-dominated field under state control (T.N. Pham & Sloper 1995). Male academics are in a majority and hold the highest qualifications and titles such as doctor degrees, professors, associate professors and the higher positions such as vice deans and deans of faculties, and vice directors and directors of universities. Women stay mainly in the lower layers of the academic hierarchy. They focus on undergraduate teaching and administrative works such as academic advisors, and administrative and logistic support at the faculty level (T.M.D. Tran 2010).

Most university professors and associate professors who lead teaching and research activities in academia are male. A survey in 1991–92 showed that just 2 out of the total 22 professors and 3 out of the total 151 associate professors in 35 universities and colleges were female (T.N. Pham & Sloper 1995). In 2010, there were 18 female professors, accounting for 7 per cent of the total professors, and 211 associate professors, representing 11.4 per cent of the total number of associate professors in universities in the whole country (T.N. Nguyen 2010; M. Pham 2010). Vietnam National University in Hanoi currently has no female professors, as all previous female professors have already retired (Dao 2009).

Men occupy most of the leadership and manager positions in academia. In a survey of 35 higher education institutions in Vietnam in 1991–92, there were only 5 female rectors and deputy

rectors, accounting for 4.7 per cent of the total 107 leaders, and the number of female deans and deputy deans was 32, or 7.34 per cent of the total 436 deans and deputy deans (T.N. Pham & Sloper 1995). Recent numbers are no better, with only 3 female rectors (T.N. Nguyen 2010) of the total 414 universities and colleges in 2010 (T.H. Nguyen & Ngoc 2011). As of June 2011, in six colleges of the Vietnam National University in Hanoi, for example, there is only one female leader among the 21 college leaders (including rectors and vice rectors), accounting for 4.76 per cent. There are more female deans and vice deans, 42 out of a total 133 deans and vice deans of faculties, representing 32.58 per cent (*my own calculations from available university reports*). This is similar to other countries in that more female academics are occupying low and middle-management ranks, but not the top positions in higher-education institutions (Currie & Thiele 2001).

Gender disparity in university positions and status comes in parallel with gender disparity in income. Particularly, the university pays salaries in positive proportion to working periods, degrees or qualifications and the positions of academics (Harman & Nguyen 2010; H.K. Nguyen 2011). Obviously, women have lower salaries than men who have higher degrees or qualifications and who occupy higher positions. Academics also have other sources of income both from inside and outside the university such as teaching, consultancy services and research contracts, and these incomes are generally in proportion to the positions, qualifications and social relations of the academics within and outside the university (T.A.N. Dang 2009; Dao 2010). Women might either be totally excluded, or only be responsible for supportive or logistic tasks and therefore receive little or no share in these activities (T.K.H. Nguyen et al. 2011).

Income disparity is huge in the university compared with the past. Now university leaders, managers and professors often have expensive cars and houses while some young lecturers can hardly sustain their living costs and some have to rely on subsidies from their families (H.K. Nguyen, 2011; Phan, 2011). Female academics tend to stay longer, or even forever, in a difficult financial situation compared to their male colleagues, given the existing job segregation in which they have much less chance of promotion to leadership, managerial roles or a professorship as well as of highly paid work outside academia (T.K.H. Nguyen et al. 2011).

The steady male dominance in the academic hierarchy has been strengthened by two major models for female academics corresponding to the periods before and after the 1980s. The first period featured a model of female academics as exemplary in the Communist women's campaign in the overall efforts of nationalism (Armstrong & Prashad 2005). In principle, women could access higher education and academia and be promoted, provided that they met the requirements of *hong* (red or communist) and *chuyen* (professional skilled); in other words, they and their families should pledge support to the communist regime and have sufficient individual merit (T.A.N. Dang 2009). They also had favourable conditions for fulfilling their duties at home, for example maternity leave and leave if they needed to care for sick children (Nguyen 2001; Tran et al. 2006).

Women entering the university were well supported and well motivated by the women's union, and by a spirit of nationalism that aroused a sense of greatness and sensible devotion to society and education, and a more perceived unity within academia in the previous period (M.G. Vu et al. 2006). Obviously, some female academics took advantage of the opportunities given to them and advanced in academia (Tran et al. 2006). Many others attempted to balance home and work duties like other working women (Adams, Rohland, Serra, Brylski & Pham 2006). Male academics, however, could invest all their time and efforts in improving their

political stance to become an active Communist Party member through communist education and propaganda on the one hand and university teaching and research on the other hand (T.A.N. Dang 2009; Dao 2009).

Since the 1980s, a new but more conservative model for female academics at work, at home and in society has been promoted in academia. For university work, there is a clear division of work for male academics to lead and female academics to support. Female academics should work hard and be ready to assume all supportive, logistic and administrative jobs assigned to them, comply with their managers' requirements, and be kind, friendly and supportive to other colleagues (T.M.D. Tran 2010).

With regard to home and social life, female academics are expected to marry properly – that is, to husbands with equal social status and a good income (Jamieson 1995; Williams & Guest 2005) during the ongoing marriage squeeze in Vietnam (Goodkind 1997). Then, they should have and bring up good children and keep good relations with their husbands (Jamieson 1995; Williams & Guest 2005; Werner 2009). In the past, the family well-being that female academics were responsible for was limited to the proper behaviour of family members and school results of children. As market economic development promotes material wealth and consumption in society (L.H. Pham & Fry 2004a; King, Nguyen & Minh 2008; Werner 2009) and increases living standards, family well-being criteria incorporate a successful husband and a wealthy family (T.A.N. Dang, Do, Hoang, Bui & Nguyen 2011).

There exists a system of policies and practices to reinforce this Confucian-and-consumption vision of female academics in the university. As to university work, I find that female academics are often reminded how to behave properly as women, which often implies that they need to comply with the existing order in everyday conversations, assessment and review meetings. Some of my female colleagues have always been asked to behave 'more flexibly' and in 'better harmony' with other colleagues because they have different opinions from their leaders and directors in meetings and activities. However, they are not to socialise with their male bosses and colleagues, and naturally male leaders and managers also avoid them in order not to encourage bad rumours of any potential improper behaviour. This is an obstacle that prevents them entering the supportive network male academics, leaders and managers have for promotion and advancement (Blackmore & Sachs 2001; Deem 2003; Fitzgerald & Wilkinson 2010).

Women's academic success and promotion are neither well respected nor approved, as the general feeling is that managers and leaders should usually focus on work and social relations which are not suitable for women, whose families should come first (T.V.A. Tran 2010). Some female professors I know are often used as examples of women taking poor care of their family or of behaving improperly. Male academics would never be subject to such reminders of how to behave correctly. Accordingly, female academics are supposed to perform well but not to achieve success or be promoted like men. They are expected to stop short in the lower positions of academia (T.K.H. Nguyen et al. 2011).

As the university focuses on performance and income generation, women can often be blamed for not trying as well as men to contribute to overall university outcomes and to a certain extent be neglected or excluded. T.K.H. Nguyen et al. (2011) find that pregnant women and women with young children might not be considered for enrolment in communist education classes, which is an essential criterion for promotion in public universities. Male managers might argue that women are distracted by family care so they will not be successful. This distraction, however, is justified by the Confucian norms of proper female behaviour, and has become an

accepted fact; it has become a must-do for female academics to exemplify traditional-and-modern womanhood (Nguy n 2001; T.B.N. Nguy n 2003).

As far as the domestic sphere is concerned, young female colleagues are reminded to find proper partners to marry. Married female academics are asked about happiness in relationships, and their responsibilities for bearing and raising children, including the academic performance of their children, and their jobs and life success when they grow up. Leaders, managers and colleagues might raise the issues kindly in personal conversation or make direct or indirect suggestions in meetings or social events, and joke about these issues in front of female staff or behind their backs.

'For women, children and family first' is the unofficial but overwhelming principle that a female manager in the university told me. We, female academics, are expected to compete for the annual awards of the university for 'doing good work and providing good family care' (*gioi viec nuoc dam viec nha*) and 'raising children to be healthy and intelligent' (*nuoi con gioi, day con ngoan*) via a voting system that permits peer assessment of both our achievement in the academy and our children's achievement at school.

Family success includes good investments as well as wealthy and tasteful consumption (L.H. Pham & Fry 2004a; King et al.2008; Werner 2009). Possessing a car and driving it yourself to work is a dream of many people, and owning a car increases one's status in comparison to other colleagues. It shows the earning power and the stylish, fashionable manner that others do not or cannot get. In Vietnamese society, people are admired and envied for their richness and luxurious belongings and are despised for being poor, and this is no different within academia. The topics of marriage, ideal partners, good housekeeping, childbearing and -rearing, earnings, houses, beautiful clothes and make-up, and cars dominate everyday conversation and naturally occupy the thoughts of many female academics whom I know in the university. These topics are preferred to those of research and scholarship, which people might usually avoid, reflecting the lack of conditions for realising these works in terms of material conditions, good governance and a healthy culture of teaching and research (T.N. Pham 2010). Individual academics compete against each other in terms of happiness and richness. The more you you can demonstrate your high status, the better success you have, and if you fail in this respect you are doomed to fail in the eyes of your colleagues, managers and leaders.

While families and incomes have been constraints to female academics everywhere (Luke 2000; Baker 2009, 2010; Fitzgerald & Wilkinson 2010), expectations of 'Confucian-and-consumption' womanhood in academic policies and practices have discouraged and driven Vietnamese female academics away from research and scholarship endeavour. This is in sharp contrast to the previous period, when women were part of the devotion to the national cause, and they worked within employment, at home and in society for national victory and success (Tran et al. 2006). During this period, also, they have lost the support of the trade unions, which no longer play any significant role in representing women and their interests in university policy-making and resource allocation (T.K.H. Nguyen et al. 2011). Instead, these unions have been sympathetic to the university leadership's agenda, and thus have contributed to increased gender disparity (Jeong 1997; Armstrong & Prashad 2005).

In summary, gender disparity has become further institutionalised in academia in the reformed Vietnam, and the gender relations, in some respects, resemble those in higher-education in other countries (Blackmore & Sachs 2001; Deem 2003; Fitzgerald & Wilkinson 2010). Female academics are firmly in the lower ranks of the academic hierarchy and are subjected to the new but



conservative role models at home, at work and in society via a system of policies and practices which have worked to place them in these low positions in academia, with low incomes and virtually no power over university affairs. Meanwhile, male academics generally have better status and potential for promotion. Male academic leaders and managers are in control of academia and have the best access to resources, incomes and promotion.

## Complex Causes of Change

The gender regime has developed as a result of a complex process in which all involved groups, including academics and the state, and macro- and micro-factors have interacted, and contributed to the situation. The entry of women into academia, and their early achievements, owed much to nation-building in Vietnam, and conditions during the war. As a large number of men were sent to the battlefield from the 1940s to the 1970s, women became the key force in the remaining society, and this opened up new opportunities for women to work, manage and lead (Armstrong & Prashad 2005). The communist regime fostered women's efforts when it adopted a progressive approach to women's role in society and work in the wartime period, to mobilise them for new nation-building, and later for their economic and social contribution to the two wars (Armstrong & Prashad 2005). It actually promoted the equal participation of women in labour from production to war fighting, if not their greater contribution (Scott & Chuyen 2007; Werner 2009; Teerawichitchainan et al. 2010). Understandably, the communist regime supported women's entry to academia, which had previously been a male domain, and this resulted in an increasing number of women attending university courses and becoming female academics (V.G. Le 2003; Tran et al. 2006).

The role models of female academics owed much to the state's policies and the adoptions of these policies in academia. During the wars of independence, the communist regime placed emphasis on socialist and national purposes, which aroused a sense of greatness and sensible devotion to, and unity with, society and education in most academics (M.G. Vu et al. 2006). This was obvious in the life and work of female academics who doubled their efforts to promote teaching and research while fulfilling their motherhood during difficult hardships in this period (Tran et al. 2006).

However, the war and the communist policies did not release women from family care but reinforced it. In fact, women's workloads doubled from the previous colonial and feudal regime, under the threefold expectation for them to provide excellent services to the state, take good care of their families and pursue self-improvement (Schuler et al. 2006). These criteria recognised women as a labour force while staying true to the Confucian ideal of women being good at housework, family care and fulfilment of their good deeds. These could be summarised in the four words of *cong, dung, ngon* and *hanh*; that is, to do hard work, to maintain a nice appearance, to speak nicely, and to be pious and keep chaste (Goodkind 1995; Jamieson 1995; H.N. Nguyen & Liamputtong 2007). Thus, women have never been released from the burden of housework and family responsibilities (Schuler et al. 2006; H.N. Nguyen & Liamputtong 2007; Jacka 2010). They were to work but not necessarily to lead or to challenge male domination, and in fact they were subordinated in the working sphere throughout the development of the Vietnamese state (T.T. Nguyen 2003; Truong 2008). This is also reflected in academia.

From the 1980s onwards, the state reforms resulted in major developments in society that have implications for the gender regime in academia. First, market values and practices were introduced to society while the state reduced its public-funded services and placed the burden

of income-generation and well-being back onto households and families (Müller 2007; Teerawichitchainan et al. 2010). Without material support from the state and elsewhere, women and girls are dependent on their families for their well-being. As communist ideologies floundered, the state turned to traditions and national identities for support of its regime and this led to a revival of Confucian ideals and other patriarchal values (Bradley 2004), including those concerning the 'proper' role of women (Teerawichitchainan et al. 2010), with a focus on reproductive relations: marriage, childbearing, family care and breadwinning (Hamilton 2009; Werner 2009). Girls are expected to get married, and unmarried girls are seen to be unfortunate for themselves and their families. Women are to bear children and maintain their families materially – that is, earning sufficient money – and spiritually – that is, comforting her husband's family despite their social status or incomes (Teerawichitchainan et al. 2010). Furthermore, girls' education is expected to facilitate these reproductive duties, not to harm them (Nguyen 2001). Market values and practices together with revived Confucian norms have reinforced and institutionalised gender disparity in state-decentralised academia. Particularly, male university academic professors, managers and leaders get much greater control over university activities and the allocation of work resources (Hayden & Lam 2007; Hayden & Pham 2010). They also control the relations between the university and other groups in society and, therefore, have the most access to opportunities outside the universities that these relationships create. For example, they can engage the university, faculties or departments in lawful services and businesses with state and non-state partners, and utilise and allocate the incomes generated from these activities (T.A.N. Dang 2009).

Male academic professors, managers and leaders also control university personnel and promotion via their loose interpretation and manoeuvre of the vague criteria of *hong* and *chuyen* (T.A.N. Dang 2009; T.K.H. Nguyen et al. 2011), which commonly feature patronage and nepotism like in other Asian countries (Luke 2000; T.N. Pham 2010). Unofficial networks that link powerful academics with potential successors are strengthened as a result, often within the male circle to the exclusion of women, as is also the case in some other countries (Blackmore & Sachs 2001; Deem 2003; Fitzgerald & Wilkinson 2010).

Female academics were separated from each other and from other women in society when the previous momentum to network and mobilise women for national independence ceased to exist (Armstrong & Prashad 2005), and the existing women's union stays firmly loyal to the university's leaders and managers under the Communist Party's control (Jeong 1997). As part of the new gender regime, this and the trade unions, the legal organisations for female academics in the university, do not play any significant role in representing women and their interests in university policy-making and resource allocation (T.K.H. Nguyen et al. 2011).

The revived Confucian gender norms are excuses to exclude female academics from the higher ranks of academia and to support male academic professors, managers and leaders in their domination over the university. Gender prejudices add to this situation. A recent survey in Vietnam National University in Ha Noi (T.K.H. Nguyen et al. 2011) shows that nearly 70 per cent of academic respondents consider male academics have better methods and skills than female academics in both teaching and research. Nearly 67 per cent of respondents consider that men are more creative than women in teaching. There were 51 per cent of respondents who considered that men were more creative than women in research, while only around 19 per cent of respondents had the opposite opinion. The survey shows that female academics are considered to have a higher sense of responsibility and to work harder than their male

colleagues. These and family care appear to foster male leaders and managers' decisions not to choose women for promotion to higher positions in the university and to assign them only to supportive and logistic works, and simple teaching and research tasks.

Female academics are also partly responsible for these changes, as they have been acquiescent to the advocated role models, and have compromised their university career to other causes. I find, for example, that many female academics I know choose to retreat from university and perform at a low level. This particularly applies to middle-aged female academics, who are well established in the profession and seek to have extra sources of incomes to support their life. Many see this as their accepted choices for their personal life devotion and not a demonstration of gender biases and inequity in the academy (T.K.H. Nguyen et al. 2011). They consider not making much effort is appropriate to their standing as women. Lobbying and competition are obviously seen to contradict their values, and similar attitudes may also be found with many female academics elsewhere (Probert 2005). Furthermore, as is also often found elsewhere, older female academics advise younger female academics to conform to the current expected models. Female academic leaders are also actively promoting role models in their attempts to be part of the academic elite and follow their policies and practices (Brooks & Mackinnon 2001).

The new gender expectations for female academics and their response to them reinforce each other and also reinforce the gender regime inside the university, because they not only position women as failures but also assure them that their failure is actually representative of success. Female academics need first and foremost to marry and take care of their families so they do not have to work hard in the university. Consequently, female academics can only take low positions and benefits – but not join the ranks of university leadership and management – because they do not try for, and thus do not have sufficient capacity for, these positions (T.M.D. Tran 2010; T.K.H. Nguyen et al. 2011).

## Conclusions

I have attempted to map out the changing gender regimes and expectations of female academics and the causes for this. The experience inside academia, however, differs among cohorts and groups of female academics. Some young female academics I know, for example, might be worse off. Because they are young, they are often less resilient to social pressures and might suffer more in adapting to the gender regime and ways of working inside academia. Their salary is too low and they have to depend on their families for support. All of these put further stress on them. The experience of failure in the academia might start from this very beginning of a woman's tenure. Vietnamese academics are facing changing and conflicting demands from the government, society and their students (Harman et al. 2010; Harman & Nguyen 2010), and these might shape the professional life of female academics in different ways, depending also on their own response and specific background and conditions. Understanding and reflecting on the academics' roles and work, as well as factors shaping their way of work and roles in relation to others, are the basis for the academics to challenge the situation and change for the better, and to draw out positive meanings from their work (Fitzgerald & Gunter 2005; Giroux 2007; Fitzgerald & Wilkinson 2010). All these will require further studies to illuminate these changes.

## Acknowledgements

The author would like to acknowledge the assistance of the Faculty of Education, La Trobe University, Australia, and Endeavour post-doctoral award provided by Australian government.

## References

- Adams, J.W., Rohland, K., Serra, M.T., Brylski, P. & Pham, T.M.H. (2006), *Vietnam Country Gender Assessment Report* (Ha Noi: The World Bank).
- Armstrong, E. B. & Prashad, V. (2005), Solidarity: War Rites and Women's Rights, *The New Centennial Review* 5(1), 213–253.
- Baker, M. (2009), Gender, Academia and the Managerial University, *New Zealand Sociology* 24(1), 24–48.
- Baker, M. (2010), Career Confidence and Gendered Expectations of Academic Promotion, *Journal of Sociology* 46: 317–334.
- Blackmore, J. & Sachs, J. (2001), Women Leaders in the Restructured University, in A. Brooks & A. Mackinnon (eds), *Gender and the Restructured University* (Buckingham and Philadelphia: The Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press): 45–66.
- Bradley, M.P. (2004), Becoming Van Minh: Civilizational Discourse and Visions of the Self in Twentieth-Century Vietnam, *Journal of World History* 15(1), 65–83.
- Brooks, A. & Mackinnon, A. (eds). (2001), *Gender and the Restructured University* (Buckingham and Philadelphia: The Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press).
- Currie, J. & Thiele, B. (2001), Globalization and Gendered Work Cultures in Universities, in A. Brooks & A. Mackinnon (eds), *Gender and the Restructured University* (Buckingham and Philadelphia: The Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press): 90–115.
- Dang, T.A.N. (2009), The Historical Development of Vietnam National University from a Bourdieusian Perspective. Unpublished PhD thesis. Unitech Institute of Technology.
- Dang, T.A.N., Do, T.H., Hoang, T.T., Bui, T.T.T. & Nguyen, T.T. (2011), Vietnamese Youth in the Paradox of Transition: How Concerns and Expectations Might Inspire Sustainable Practices, in United Nations Environment Programme Task Force on Sustainable Lifestyles (ed.), *Vision for Change: Recommendations for Effective Policies on Sustainable Lifestyles* (Paris: United Nation Environment Programme).
- Dang, U.V. (2007), *Phat trien giao duc dai hoc trong nen kinh te thi truong* (University Education Development in A Market Economy) (Ha Noi: Nha xuất bản Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội).
- Dao, T.T. (2009), *Di dong xa hoi cua cong dong khoa hoc: Nghien cuu trung hop cong dong khoa hoc Dai hoc Quoc gia Ha Noi* (Social Mobility of the Scientific Community: A Case Study into the Scientific Community in Vietnam National University, Ha Noi) (Ha Noi: Nhà xuất bản Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội).
- Deem, R. (2003), Gender, Organizational Cultures and the Practices of Manager-Academics in UK Universities, *Gender, Work and Organization* 10(2): 239–259.
- Fitzgerald, T. & Gunter, H. (2005), Trends in the Administration and History of Education: What Counts? A Reply to Roy Lowe, *Journal of Educational Administration and History* 37(2): 127–136.
- Fitzgerald, T. & Wilkinson, J. (2010), *Travelling Towards a Mirage? Gender, Leadership and Higher Education* (Australia: Post Pressed).
- George, E.S. (2010), Higher Education in Vietnam 1986–1998: Education for Transition to a New Era?, in G. Harman, M. Hayden & T.N. Pham (eds), *Reforming Higher Education in Vietnam: Challenges and Priorities* (London and New York: Springer): 31–49.
- Giroux, H.A. (2007), *The University in Chains: Confronting the Military-Industrial-Academic Complex* (Boulder, CO and London: Paradigm Publishers).
- Goodkind, D. (1995), Rising Gender Inequality in Vietnam since Reunification, *Pacific Affairs* 68(3), 342–359.
- Goodkind, D. (1997), The Vietnamese Double Marriage Squeeze, *International Migration Review* 31(1), 108–127.
- Hamilton, A. (2009), Renovated: Gender and Cinema in Contemporary Vietnam, *Visual Anthropology* 22(2): 141–154.

Harman, G., Hayden, M. & Pham, T.N. (2010), Reforming Higher Education in Vietnam: Challenges and Priorities. In G. Harman, M. Hayden & T.N. Pham (eds), *Reforming Higher Education in Vietnam: Challenges and Priorities* (London and New York: Springer): 1–13.

Harman, K. & Nguyen, T.N.B. (2010), Reforming Teaching and Learning in Vietnam's Higher Education System, in G. Harman, M. Hayden & T.N. Pham (eds), *Reforming Higher Education in Vietnam: Challenges and Priorities* (London and New York: Springer): 65–86.

Hayden, M. & Lam, Q.T. (2007), Institutional Autonomy for Higher Education in Vietnam, *Higher Education Research & Development* 26(1): 73–85.

Hayden, M. & Pham, T.N. (2010), Vietnam's Higher Education System, in G. Harman, M. Hayden & T.N. Pham (eds), *Reforming Higher Education in Vietnam: Challenges and Priorities* (London and New York: Springer): 14–30.

Huynh, S.P., Hang, C.N., Xuan, T., Quang, T., Nguyen, M.N., Dang, P. et al. (2006), *Dem truooc doi moi (The Night before Renovation)* (Hochiminh: Nha xuất bản Trẻ [the Youth Publisher]).

Jacka, T. (2010), Gender, the Family, Sexuality, and Governance: Vietnam and China, *Critical Asian Studies* 42(2), 311–322.

Jamieson, N.L. (1995), *Understanding Vietnam* (Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press).

Jeong, Y. (1997), The Rise of State Corporatism in Vietnam, *Contemporary Southeast Asia* 19(2): 152–171.

King, V.T., Nguyen, P.A. & Minh, N.H. (2008), Professional Middle Class Youth in Post-Reform Vietnam: Identity, Continuity and Change, *Modern Asian Studies* 42(4): 783–813.

Le, T.C. & Sloper, D.W. (1995), Higher Education in Vietnam: The Door Opens – From Inside, in D.W. Sloper & T.C. Le (eds), *Higher Education in Vietnam: Change and Response* (New York: St Martin's Press): 1–25.

Le, V.G. (2003), *Lich su gian luoc 1000 nam Giao duc Viet Nam (A Brief History of over 1000 Years of Vietnamese Education)* (Ha Noi: Nha xuất bản Chinh tri Quoc gia).

Liu, A.Y.C. (2004), Sectoral Gender Wage Gap in Vietnam, *Oxford Development Studies* 32(2): 225–239.

Luke, C. (2000), One Step Up, Two Down: Women in Higher Education Management in Southeast Asia, in M. Tight (ed.), *Academic Work and Life: What It Is To Be an Academic, and How This Is Changing* (New York: Elsevier Science): 285–305.

Müller, T.R. (2007), Education and Gender in Revolutionary Societies: Insights from Vietnam, Nicaragua, and Eritrea, *Compare* 37(5): 635–650.

Nguyen, D.T., Nguyen, T.D., Ho, T.H. & Hoang, M.K. (1996), *Lich su giao duc Viet Nam (Vietnam Education History)* (Ha Noi: Nha xuất bản Giao Duc).

Nguyen, H.K. (2011), *Vai net ve doi ngu can bo tre khoa lich su (Some Features of Young Staff in Faculty of History, University of Social Sciences and Humanities, Vietnam National University in Hanoi)*. Paper presented at the Hoi nghi can bo tre 2011.

Nguyen, H.N. & Liamputtong, P. (2007), Sex, Love and Gender Norms: Sexual Life and Experience of a Group of Young People in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam, *Sexual Health* 4: 63–69.

Nguyen, T.B.N. (2003), Phu nu Viet Nam voi thien chuc lam vo-lam me (Vietnamese Women and the Naturally Endowed Function of Being Wives and Mothers), in Ban vi su tien bo phu nu & Cong doan Dai hoc Quoc gia Ha Noi (eds), *Hoi nghi Khoa hoc nu lan thu 8 (The Eighth Women's Scientific Conference)* (Hanoi: Nha xuất bản Dai hoc Quoc gia Ha Noi).

Nguyen, T.H. & Ngoc, L. (eds) (2011), *Nien giam thong ke tom tat- 2010 (Vietnam Brief Annual Statistics in 2010)* (Ha Noi: Nha xuất bản thong ke).

Nguyen, T.K.H., Nguyen, T.T.N., Dang, T.A.N., Phan, H.G., Nguyen, T.H.H., Trinh, N.H. et al. (2011), *Cac giai phap nham nang cao vai tro cua nu can bo trong cong tac giang day va nghien cuu khoa hoc tai Dai hoc Quoc gia Ha Noi: Nghien cuu tai Truong Dai hoc Khoa hoc Xa hoi va Nhan van va Truong Dai hoc Khoa hoc Tu nhien (Measures*

to Improve the Roles of Female Academics in Teaching and Research in Vietnam National University, Hanoi: A Case Study in University of Social Sciences and Humanities and University of Natural Sciences) (Ha Noi: Vietnam National University).

Nguyen, T.N. (2010), *Bao cao tong ket thuc hien ke hoach hanh dong vi su tien bo phu nu giai doan 2006–2010 (Summary Report on the Implementation of the Action Plan for Women's Advancement in 2006–2010)* (Ha Noi: Vietnam Ministry of Education).

Nguyen, T.T. (2003), Van de gioi trong lanh dao va ra quyet dinh o Viet Nam: hien trang va giai phap (Gender Issues in Leadership and Decision-Making in Vietnam: Current Situation and Solutions), in Ban vi su tien bo phu nu & Cong doan Dai hoc Quoc gia Ha Noi (eds), *Hoi nghi Khoa hoc nu lan thu 8 (The Eighth Women's Scientific Conference)* (Hanoi: Nha xuất bản Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội): 534–542.

Nguyen, T.T.H. (2001), Phu nu Vietnam: Hien dai- Truyen thong (Vietnamese women: Contemporary–Traditional), in Ban vi su tien bo phu nu & Cong doan Dai hoc Quoc gia Ha Noi (eds), *Hoi nghi Khoa hoc nu lan thu 8 (The Eighth Women's Scientific Conference)* (Hanoi: Nha xuất bản Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội): 332–336.

Nguyen-Vo, T.-H. (2008), *The Ironies of Freedom: Sex, Culture, and Neoliberal Governance in Vietnam* (Seattle and London: University of Washington Press).

Pham, L.H. & Fry, G.W. (2004a), Education and Economic, Political, and Social Change in Vietnam, *Educational Research for Policy and Practice* 3: 199–222.

Pham, L.H. & Fry, G.W. (2004b), Universities in Vietnam: Legacies, Challenges and Prospects, in P.G. Altbach & T. Umakoshi (eds), *Asian Universities: Historical Perspectives and Contemporary Challenges* (Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press): 301–331.

Pham, M. (2010), Bo giao duc ton vinh 141 nu giao su, pho giao su (Vietnam Ministry of Education Praised 141 Female Professors and Associate Professors), *VietnamPlus* (14 October).

Pham, M.H. (1995), The Education System of Vietnam, in D.W. Sloper & T.C. Le (eds), *Higher Education in Vietnam* (New York: St Martin's Press): 41–61.

Pham, T.N. (2010), The Higher Education Reform Agenda: A Vision for 2020, in G. Harman, M. Hayden & T.N. Pham (eds), *Reforming Higher Education in Vietnam: Challenges and Priorities* (London and New York: Springer): 50–64.

Pham, T.N. & Sloper, D.W. (1995), Staffing Profile of Higher Education, in D.W. Sloper & T.C. Le (eds), *Higher Education in Vietnam: Change and Response* (New York: St Martin's Press): 75–116.

Phan, V.K. (2011), *Nhung kho khan cua can bo tre Truong Dai hoc Khoa hoc Xa hoi va Nhan van, nhin tu goc do giang vien tre (The Difficulties of Young Staff in University of Social Sciences and Humanities from a Young Lecturer's Perspectives)*. Paper presented at the Hoi nghi can bo tre 2011.

Probert, B. (2005), 'I just couldn't fit it in': Gender and Unequal Outcomes in Academic Careers, *Gender, Work & Organisation* 12(1): 50–72.

Schuler, S.R., Hoang, T.A., Vu, S.H., Tran, H.M., Bui, T.T.M. & Pham, V.T. (2006), Constructions of Gender in Vietnam: In Pursuit of the 'Three Criteria', *Culture, Health & Sexuality* 8(5): 383–394.

Scott, S. & Chuyen, T.T.K. (2007), Gender Research in Vietnam: Traditional Approaches and Emerging Trajectories, *Women's Studies International Forum* 30: 243–253.

Sloper, D.W. & Le, T.C. (Eds), (1995), *Higher Education in Vietnam: Change and Response* (New York: St Martin's Press).

Teerawichitchainan, B., Knodel, J., Vu, M.L. & Vu, T.H. (2010), The Gender Division of Household Labor in Vietnam: Cohort Trends and Regional Variations, *Journal of Comparative Family Studies* 41(1): 57–85.

Tran, C.D., Lam, Q.T. & Sloper, D.W. (1995), Organization and Management of Higher Education in Vietnam: An Overview, in D.W. Sloper & T.C. Le (eds), *Higher Education in Vietnam: Change and Response* (New York: St Martin's Press): 74–94.

Tran, T.M.D. (2010), *Dinh kien va ap luc xa hoi doi voi nu tri thuc (Social Prejudices and Pressures on Female Intellectuals)*. Paper presented at the Hoi thao nu tri thuc.

Tran, T.M.D., Nguyen, L.T., Truong, P.H., Hoang, X.D., Nguyen, T.H., Nguyen, A.T. et al. (eds) (2006), *Nu tien sy Dat hoc Quoc gia Ha Noi (Female Doctors in Vietnam National University in Hanoi)* (Hanoi: Nha xuất bản Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội).

Tran, T.V.A. (2010), *Nu tri thuc o vi tri quan ly, lanh dao (Vietnamese female intellectuals in Management and Leadership)*. Paper presented at the Conference Nu tri thuc Viet Nam doi voi su nghiep cong nghiep hoa, hien dai hoa.

Truong, T.T.H. (2008), Women's Leadership in Vietnam: Opportunities and Challenges, *Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society* 34(1): 16–21.

Vu, M.G., Dao, T.D., Nguyen, V.K., Nguyen, N.P. & Pham, H.T. (2006), *Mot the ky phat trien va truong thanh (A Century of Development)* (Hà Nội: Nhà xuất bản Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội).

Vu, N.H., Dang, B.L., Tran, K.D., Dang, Q.B., Le, T.C., Dang, N.D. et al. (2007), *Giao duc Viet Nam: Doi moi va phat trien hien dai hoa (Vietnam Education: Renovation and Modernisation Development)* (Hochiminh: Nhà xuất bản Giáo Duc).

Welch, A.R. (2010), Internationalisation of Vietnamese Higher Education: Retrospect and Prospect, in G. Harman, M. Hayden & T.N. Pham (eds), *Reforming Higher Education in Vietnam: Challenges and Priorities* (London and New York: Springer): 197–214.

Werner, J. (2009), *Gender, Household and State in Post-Revolutionary Vietnam* (London and New York: Routledge).

Williams, L. & Guest, M.P. (2005), Attitudes Toward Marriage among the Urban Middle-Class in Vietnam, Thailand and the Philippines, *Journal of Comparative Family Studies* 36(3): 163–186.

## Author Details

Dang Thi Anh Nguyet  
 Faculty of Management Sciences  
 Vietnam National University  
 Hanoi  
 Vietnam  
 Email: danganhnguyet@yahoo.com





# (Un)Ethical Practices and Ethical Dilemmas in Universities: Academic Leaders' Perceptions

**Lisa Catherine Ehrich, Neil Cranston, Megan Kimber and Karen Starr**

**Abstract:** *In this paper we report on the qualitative component of a study that explored middle-level academic leaders' experiences of (un)ethical practices and ethical dilemmas in their daily work. An electronic survey was distributed to academic leaders from universities across three Australian states. There are three major findings in this study. First, the messy context of universities is providing a fertile ground for ethical dilemmas to flourish. Second, the two main categories of unethical practices identified by participants were academic dishonesty and inappropriate behaviour towards staff and students. Third, the ethical dilemmas that emerged focused on the academic leaders' strong sense of professional ethics that were in conflict with an ethic of care, supervisors' directives, and the rules and policies of the organisation.*

## Introduction

I believe that much of my position's work requires me to act ethically, in dealing with matters related to students, staff and in teaching and research. I see it as part of my knowledge and skills to be informed about being ethical and to be alert for occasions when this might be challenged. (Academic leader)

The quotation above comes from a participant in a study that focused on ethical dilemmas faced by middle-level academic leaders, those leaders who occupy a course co-ordination role, in higher education institutions. In this study, 174 course co-ordinators across three universities in three Australian states completed an electronic survey that explored this topic. In this paper we investigate responses to open-ended questions on the electronic survey that asked academic leaders to (1) provide comments about the extent to which they have observed ethical practices and experienced dilemmas in their working environment and (2) to describe an ethical dilemma they faced and how they resolved it.

The paper begins by reviewing some of the salient literature in the field. This literature review has three components. The first provides some background on the recent changes in the university context and the impact of these changes on the work practices of academics and academic leaders. The second component of the literature review explores some of the research

on the different types of unethical conduct in universities. The final component of the literature review provides a discussion of theoretical approaches that are useful for understanding ethical decision making.

## Ethics in the University Context

Ethics is the 'study of proper thought and conduct' (Hosmer 1987: 91). Ethicists are concerned with what we ought to do and how we ought to behave. They ask questions about what is right and what is wrong (Ciulla 2006). Ethicist Peter Singer (1994: 4) says that ethics can be understood as a 'set of rules, principles or ways of thinking that guide, or claim authority to guide, the actions of a particular group'. Ethics is also about relationships and how we should interact and live with others (Freakley & Burgh 2000).

In recent times, there has been heightened media and public awareness of unethical behaviours in higher education institutions such as universities. Examples include plagiarism by staff and students, various forms of cheating, sexual harassment by staff and students in and out of the classroom, misuse of power, exchanging sexual activities for grades, and accepting money or gifts for grades (Robie & Keeping 2004; Ashford & Davis 2006). Hanson (2009: 2) goes as far as saying that, 'in higher education ... we face a decade in which institutional integrity and legitimacy is under fire... [it] is certainly "the worst of times" both economically and ethically for our nation'. Although he is referring to the United States, the same could be said of other countries facing similarly uncertain times. Many would agree with Margetson's assessment (1997: 22) that the changed climate of universities is 'inimical to ethical quality and conflicts with academic work'.

The higher education climate that Margetson (1997) refers to is one that has undergone major reform and restructuring in line with managerial practices. In universities, these practices have included the adoption of private sector practices with a strong focus on outcomes, key performance indicators, monitoring and measurement, and tighter 'efficiency' and accountability regimes. Performance indicators have been used to compare universities against each other, with those amongst the highest rankings receiving the most funding. Commentators (Currie & Newson 1998; Currie & Vidovich 1998; Macfarlane 2009) have referred to increasing competition where universities compete for domestic and international students and where academics compete for shrinking research funding and publication outlets. There has been a commodification of universities, with education being marketed as a product to be bought and sold. More and more staff are being employed on casual and short-term contracts, being considered as disposable assets by university management. This management climate is placing universities in danger of 'becom[ing] detached from a moral perspective' (Pring in Fitzmaurice 2008: 341).

These system-wide changes have increased the powers of executive leadership, placing control of universities in the hands of senior managers while directing control away from academics (Doyle in Meek & Wood 1997). Currie and Vidovich (1998) found this to be the case, with the majority of academics in their study in Australia and the United States claiming they were consulted less and less in major decisions. The academics noted that power was centralised 'in the hands of a few senior managers' (1998: 153), including vice-chancellors and deputy and pro-vice-chancellors. Currie and Vidovich found that the impact of managerialism was the 'micromanagement of academic work' (1998: 169), whereby academics lost both autonomy and direction. Given the continuing drift towards enhanced managerialism since their study was undertaken, it is likely that such situations are even more evident today.

A further consequence of managerialism has been the 'erosion of ethical standards' (Samier 2008: 3). This erosion derives from the strong focus on 'bureaucratic' rather than 'moral' accountability. Samier, citing Menzel, maintains that the current climate has created 'morally mute managers' who are neither moral nor immoral but who find themselves 'seduced by a sense of duty as competent purveyors of neutral information' (Menzel in Samier 2008: 3). She discusses the 'passive evil' that is practised by managers when they fail to respond to the everyday unethical behaviour of others. Unethical practice is also viewed as leaders who fail to support others who question unethical practices that take place within their organisation (Gottlieb & Sanzgiri 1996). Alternatively, unethical conduct by leaders is said to occur when they exert pressure on staff to act in unethical ways (Campbell 2003; Helton & Ray 2005). For instance, in the schooling context, school psychologists in Jacob-Timm's (1999) study considered a superior's direction to conduct 'inadequate assessment' or limit information to parents to be contrary to their beliefs about what was in the best interests of students (Helton & Ray 2005). What this short review of the literature suggests is that changing contexts in universities have created a 'climate' for matters of ethics to be more overt and more contested.

### **Emergence of Ethical Dilemmas**

Ethical dilemmas can be defined as decisions 'that require a choice among competing sets of principles, often in complex and value laden contexts' (Ehrich, Cranston & Kimber 2005: 137). Their emergence is unsurprising given the pressures and complexities of working within modern organisations (Whitton 1998). Universities are complex, pressured environments where academic leaders are faced with competing tensions and pressures when making decisions that affect diverse stakeholders such as students, colleagues, the local community, employers and corporate partners. Cerych et al. (in Meek & Wood 1997: 2) identify examples of tensions within higher education:

between the requirements of excellence and of egalitarianism; between the structure and size of individual demand for higher education and of labour market requirements; between the aspirations and interests of the different groups involved in higher education; and between the aspirations and expectations of individuals and the prevailing socio-economic constraints in terms of availability of resources, academic attitudes, institutional hierarchies, established cultural and social value structures.

There is a growing body of work that has explored ethical challenges facing academics (Robertson & Grant 1982; Robie & Keeping 2004; Strom-Gottfried & D'Aprix 2006; Fitzmaurice 2008). For example, Strom-Gottfried and D'Aprix (2006) identified four categories of dilemmas that are likely to arise for academic staff in universities within their research, teaching and service duties. These include authorship credit in research, conflicts of interest, dealing with underperforming staff, and a student's right to privacy. Robertson and Grant (1982) identified a number of dilemmas faced by academics in higher education. These include balancing encouragement and support with rigorous evaluation of students, the degree of neutrality in teaching versus indoctrination, and conflicts between the time demands of research and demands of teaching.

Fitzmaurice (2008) argues that teaching in universities provides opportunities for ethical dilemmas to arise as judgements are required in complex situations where there are no simple solutions. Indeed, our own research with 174 academics across three Australian universities

found that two-thirds had experienced or observed ethical dilemmas, indicating that such dilemmas are reasonably common (Cranston, Ehrich, Kimber & Starr 2012). Yet, according to Wilson (1982), ethical issues in research tend to be given a great deal of attention, via specially established committees that oversee research conduct, in contrast to teaching in universities, where ethical issues may not be raised. He argues that ethical questions in teaching need to be placed on the agenda so that the best judgements can be made to serve students.

In the next section of the paper we consider three ethical perspectives that are likely considerations in determining the way in which academic leaders make ethical decisions. These are: professional ethics, an ethic of care and institutional ethics.

### **Professional Ethics**

Professional ethics 'is the extension of everyday ethics into the nuances of the professional's practices' (Campbell 2003: 12). Hence 'professional ethics' refers to values and beliefs that provide guidance to a group of professionals in relation to their interactions with others such as clients (Wesley & Buysse 2006). Researchers in the field tend to discuss professional ethics in relation to professional codes of ethics that are written to guide professionals and professional groups. These codes consist of principles that identify appropriate standards of behaviour in a given field. Moreover, there are professional standards that identify appropriate types of behaviour, including ethical behaviour, for professionals in their given field. Baumgarten (1982: 282) claims that university teaching '[i]s a distinct professional activity, one with its own purposes and obligations'. He goes on to say that standards, fairness and obligations to help others form part of the ethics in the academic profession.

The American Association of University Professors (1987) *Statement on Professional Ethics* (cited in Strom-Gottfried & D'Aprix 2006) includes five core standards for the profession: responsibility for scholarly competence; holding students to ethical standards; evaluating students in a way that reflects their worth; treating colleagues in a fair and respectful manner; and promoting conditions of free inquiry and promoting understanding of academic freedom. In Australia, universities have their own codes of practice that encourage appropriate standards of professionalism. For example, in Queensland, many universities derive their Code of Conduct from the *Public Sector Ethics Act 1994* (Qld) (Queensland Parliamentary Counsel 2010). Five ethical principles in the Act are: respect for the law and the system of government; respect for persons; integrity; diligence; and economy and efficiency. Application of these principles to universities is to ensure academics are 'committed to the highest ethical standards' (Queensland Parliamentary Counsel 2010: 6).

While ethical codes of conduct provide some guidance for professionals, they tend to be seen as limited because they are removed from everyday dilemmas (Sumsion 2000; Shapiro & Stefkovich 2005) and fail to consider the complexity of different contexts. Several authors (Whitton 1998; Gregory & Hicks 1999; Preston, Samford & Connors 2002; Pajo & McGhee 2003) claim, however, that a code of ethics is an important part of an overall strategy for developing an ethical culture within an organisation.

### **Ethic of Care**

An ethic of care comes from feminist scholarship and is a version of virtue or character ethics (Freakley & Burgh 2000). In their work, feminist writers Gilligan (1982) and Noddings (1992) focused on relationships, foregrounding love, respect, care and sensitivity towards others. Hence,

advocates of the ethic of care put relationships at the heart of decisions about ethical matters. These advocates promote 'situational sensitivity' (Dempster, Carter, Freakley & Parry 2004). An ethic of care forms the basis of teacher–student relationships, and advocates are responsive to 'the shifting relational and situational demands of others' (Campbell 2003: 33). It is likely that academics who see teaching as an important dimension of their work will be drawn to an ethic of care.

Fitzmaurice (2008) examined 30 statements by lecturers who completed a postgraduate certificate in higher education on their philosophy of teaching to determine what they saw as good teaching in a university context. Thematic analysis revealed that lecturers did not present a narrow or technical view of teaching; rather, their statements provided insights into the moral nature of teaching as they referred to honesty, respect and care in their dealings with students. One key theme, 'professional values and morality', referred to the importance of relationships with students based on honesty, truthfulness and fairness with 'a personal commitment to be fair and just' (Fitzmaurice 2008: 349). According to Nixon (in Fitzmaurice 2008: 349), teaching and research are part of academic practice based on 'truthfulness (accuracy or sincerity), respect (attentiveness or honesty) and authenticity (courage or compassion)'. References to professional ethics can be found in these points.

### ***Institutional Ethics***

Institutional ethics is concerned with the way in which people live their lives within institutions (Preston & Sampford 2002). It is based on the assumption that individual responses to ethical issues are 'necessarily constrained or supported' (Preston et al. 2002: 9) within organisations and it is easier to act ethically in a culture that is deemed ethical than one that is not. According to Preston et al. (2002), institutional ethics needs to be built into the operations and core decision-making processes of organisations.

A starting point for considering institutional ethics is codes of ethical practice and policies, and procedures with guidelines on appropriate standards of behaviour. These policies should be part of an overall strategy to create ethical institutions. Yet Preston et al. (2002: 51) argue that what is required is a range of measures or an "ethics regime" that can transform the institution into a more ethical entity'. We concur with Gottlieb and Sanzgiri (1996), who argue that leaders have a key role to play in establishing an ethical tone in organisations. A good leader is an ethical leader (Ciulla 2006) who develops a culture that encourages not only open dialogue concerning ethics but also dissenting ideas and views. Thus, the ethical challenge facing leaders is 'multifaceted: it requires leading with integrity while respecting diverse, sometimes conflicting interests; it calls for leaders to be conscious about their own values and moral standards' (Maak & Pless 2006: 36). In sum, institutional ethics concerns using power ethically. Our interest in this paper, then, is leadership within universities and the perceptions of middle-level academic leaders regarding the extent to which ethical dilemmas have been experienced by them and the nature or type and extent of unethical practices in their context. The next part of the paper discusses the methodology that steered the research.

### ***Methodology***

This study forms part of a larger research project in which academic leaders across all faculties in three Australian universities were invited to complete an e-survey that explored their perceptions of the prevalence of ethical dilemmas in their respective institutions. We have defined academic leaders as those individuals who hold a course co-ordination role at either

undergraduate or postgraduate levels within universities. We focus on course co-ordinators, whom we consider middle-level academic leaders, because of the assumption that they are working closely with students and staff, and are positioned somewhere between senior managers (such as deans and heads of school) and academics who do not hold leadership positions. The assumption is that their location between these two groups would be more likely to leave them open to experience a variety of ethical dilemmas in their daily encounters.

Participation in the study was voluntary and participants were assured that their anonymous surveys would not reveal the name of their institution nor would there be any comparisons made across universities. Participants were asked to record their responses to two prompts:

- a. provide comments about the extent to which you have observed ethical practices and experienced dilemmas in your working environment; and
- b. describe an ethical dilemma that was faced and how it was resolved.

The majority of the 174 e-survey responses included written comments from participants to these two prompts. Many of the participants provided lengthy comments, indicating they were keen to put forward their views about this topic.

A process of identifying, coding and categorising the data was used to arrive at the themes (Patton 1990). Broad categories pertaining to ethical practices and ethical dilemmas that were discussed in the literature review helped to identify the direction for the analysis. The findings and discussion now follow.

## Findings

Two-thirds of participants in the e-survey indicated they had experienced an ethical dilemma or observed one or more in their work. In their comments these participants provided examples of ethical dilemmas as well as an array of unethical practices they had observed in action. Participants referred to the organisational culture of their university and how it had either supported or hindered the development of ethical practices and dilemmas.

### **Organisational Culture**

A small number of participants were satisfied that their workplace was ethical, referring to a very strong organisational culture that supported ethical practice. For example, one leader said:

My workplace is a very collegial and supportive one in which community values and commitment are highly valued. There is a strong culture of ethical practice, both towards colleagues and towards students.

In contrast, most of the participants identified a different picture – one that recognised a range of broader pressures such as the commodification of higher education, its corporatisation, a lack of resources, lowering standards to attract and maintain fee paying students – pressures that were seen to be impacting on universities in adverse ways and contributing to an environment where values clashed. One participant summed up a clash between academic values and corporate values thus:

Corporate goal: Sell a service, charge a fee, get income and demonstrate cost efficiencies in the process. Academic goal: Act according to an agreed standard of excellence in teaching, research and service.

The quotation below captures the changing university context, characterised by corporatisation and the commodification of knowledge. Noteworthy is its reference to international students: several participants indicated that their growing presence in universities is causing particular challenges for many academics:

The conceptualisation of university education as a commodity places significant importance on results rather than learning. This translates into pressure 'at the coalface' to ensure students progress through their degree quickly. Also, International students who are not even close to possessing the requisite language skills are admitted, and then struggle to cope with the material.

Other participants referred specifically to a lack of resources that resulted in junior staff taking on more responsibility than they should, and to the need to make difficult decisions about keeping some programmes and closing others due to limited resources. The quotation below is a pertinent illustration of these outcomes of managerialism:

We are constantly having to choose between two equally necessary elements in our workplace. We are ... forced – mainly through resource impoverishment – to jettison necessary things. People have to compromise or burn out fast.

Several comments by participants referred to a 'closed culture' within their respective universities that did not encourage questioning of unethical issues or practices. One academic leader referred to '[c]oncerns raised by staff member [that] were ignored / devalued by senior staff resulting in persistence of unethical practice'. Yet the comments made by academic leaders indicated that they wanted opportunities to discuss ethical issues with their supervisors and colleagues and to have a greater say about decisions that affected them. An illustration suggesting the unethical use of power is cited below:

The climate in the faculty does not make it likely that individuals will make a stand on ethical issues. The previous Head of the School ... departed under ambiguous and unexplained circumstances having clashed with the Head of Faculty. Anecdotally neither natural justice nor appropriate procedures were followed.

### **Unethical Practices**

Participants' comments were coded in terms of the nature and focus of the unethical practices that they had observed within their respective universities. There were two broad categories of unethical practices and these related to academic dishonesty and unethical conduct or behaviour. Within concerns about academic dishonesty, there were three sub-categories: standards; plagiarism by staff and students; and student and staff dishonesty. There were seven categories of unethical conduct or behaviour and these included exploitation of sessional or junior staff; bullying or personal vendettas; favouritism; sexual impropriety; inattention to policies or guidelines; lack of professional ethics or of care; and lack of confidentiality.

#### **Academic Dishonesty**

The main practice that was identified under academic dishonesty related to *standards* and how they were being compromised. The quote below refers to how standards were adjusted in order to keep the failure rate low:

There is too great an emphasis on shifting standards to meet the (in)capabilities [sic] of students in order to keep failure rates low ... This amounts to a compromising of standards.

There were many comments about how low standards enabled undeserving students to receive pass grades. For example, one respondent said there was 'pressure being exerted to give students passing grades when the quality of their work in assessment does not warrant it'. Some comments referred to the pressure to pass particular groups of students such as international students because of their fee-paying ability and for fear of being perceived as culturally insensitive:

The culture of the unit dictated that failing an international student equated to cultural insensitivity/discrimination. Yet when two domestic students were failed, no questions were asked.

At the heart of the many concerns raised by participants was the perception that senior staff had asked them to take an action which they thought was inappropriate or unfair.

*Plagiarism* was a frequently mentioned unethical practice undertaken by students. Many comments relating to plagiarism referred to times when it is 'detected and ignored' or when it is treated 'very leniently'. Participants pointed to situations where incidents of plagiarism had been reported but where resultant actions were overturned in students' favour by senior members of staff:

[A] student [was] accused of plagiarism which he admitted. The lecturer failed the student in the subject. This decision was overruled by the Dean.

Other examples of academic dishonesty referred to *student and staff dishonesty*. Here students falsified information and were dishonest in relation to submitting their work on time whereas staff were dishonest about the ownership of their work. An illustration of the latter was:

a lecturer claimed that he had written several 'new' courses – [we] later found out that [he] had not and that the courses had been written by a previous lecturer who was given no credit for them.

### *Unethical Conduct or Behaviour*

We have categorised seven main types of unethical conduct or behaviour. These categories are illustrated in Table 1.

Of these illustrations of unethical practices, the three most frequently mentioned fitted within the categories of bullying, exploitation of sessional staff or junior staff, and staff not following guidelines.



**Table 1:** Categories of unethical practices and participants' illustrations of them

Category of unethical practices	Illustrations provided by participants
Exploitation of sessional staff or junior staff	'Early career academics who are desperate for a) \$ and b) opportunities to gain employment and research opportunities are often taken advantage of.'
Bullying or personal vendettas towards staff	'Bullying power trip to control students – suggesting if they didn't do what was asked they would fail.'
Favouritism	'Academic staff member teaching a family member but not assessing formal assignments.'
Sexual impropriety	'At my previous workplace a staff member was sleeping with students.'
Staff who do not follow policies and guidelines	'In my experience as course coordinator, staff often relied on word of mouth for advice in dealing with ethical dilemmas instead of consulting [a manual] or Code of Conduct ... they seemed to "make it up as they went along" rather than rely on any principles or policies.'
Lack of professional ethics or care	'Not speaking to students about their marked paper as they [lecturers] "don't have time" and totally trust the marking of an inexperienced person in their team.'
Confidentiality issues	'Inappropriate discussions about academic job applicants and appointment.'

### ***Nature of Ethical Dilemmas***

The responses from several participants suggested that they experienced anxiety and tension when they found themselves faced with an ethical dilemma. The comment below is reflective of several participants' comments, highlighting the degree of their anxiety:

Sorting through ethical dilemmas in my role as unit coordinator is one I take seriously; it causes me angst and effort. These issues are often the most unpleasant aspect of my work role.

A closer examination revealed that participants faced a variety of ethical dilemmas ranging from conflicts of interest to issues of plagiarism, to underperforming staff and students, to those that caused them to question personal or professional ethics. Most of the dilemmas that surfaced for participants were connected to a clash between their professional ethics and other values. Based on the responses provided by participants, we have arrived at three main dilemmas.

### ***Professional Ethics Versus Supervisor's Directives***

Many examples provided by participants referred to dilemmas that emerged when there was a clash between their professional ethics and a supervisor's directives. As identified earlier, this

tension often arose in terms of being instructed to lower standards or pass particular students. For example:

I have observed course coordinators, part-time and full-time staff being pressured to raise marks for students against their judgement.

Being told explicitly by the Head of School that I needed to 'drop my teaching standards, like everyone else has to'.

### *Professional Ethics Versus Ethic of Care*

There were several examples of where academics' professional ethics were in tension with an ethic of care. For example, one participant said, 'whether to pass a student who is borderline'. Another referred to a dilemma of passing a student who failed his final supplementary exam. This student was an international student whose family were flying into Australia for his graduation. The quotation below illustrates one participant's dilemma of having to balance the interests of a colleague (i.e. ethic of care) with those of students in a programme (professional ethics and ethic of care):

My colleague was experiencing an extremely difficult period due to chronic ill health and a family tragedy, and her teaching effectiveness and overall performance was significantly affected. She asked to be assigned a specific subject to coordinate – an important foundation subject which required a special sort of orientation and rapport with students – and I did not believe that she could perform that role effectively at that time. I was torn between the need for equitable treatment and support of my colleague and the needs of the students involved.

### *Professional Ethics Versus Rules and Policies*

There were a number of illustrations of dilemmas between professional ethics and the rules and policies of the university that dictated a certain course of action. The quotation below highlights the tension that can sometimes arise for an academic leader between the policy and what they think is the best for students:

Faculty quite often asks for us to implement initiatives that are not necessarily in the pedagogical interests of the majority of students.

Similar concerns can arise around policies related to supplementary assessment. The way one leader dealt with the issue was by resigning:

Having to provide supplementary assessment for students who have demonstrated a complete lack of commitment to study to assist them in gaining the opportunity to obtain a passing grade ... The current policy in relation to supplementary assessment for students gaining a grade of 2 or 3 was part of one of two reasons for my resignation.

### **To Challenge or not to Challenge? That Is the Question**

An important theme that came through the data was whether to challenge unethical practices, with a number of participants indicating they would not challenge what they deemed unethical practices for a variety of reasons including 'fear of legal action', being 'too busy', deeming it

‘too hard and too time consuming’, or previous experience having taught them not to ‘rock the boat’ because of negative repercussions. The first quotation below reflects a decision to challenge student plagiarism, while the second comment comes from a participant who claims he or she would not pursue student plagiarism issues because of the ‘personal cost’:

A number of students were caught plagiarising on an assignment. There were two ways of approaching the situation: a) follow university processes and report the behaviour, or b) ignore it and give them low marks. Following university procedures requires a large amount of paper work and detailed submissions. It would have been a much easier way forward to ignore the findings and mark the papers. Our team discussed the situation and decided to follow the formal process – in fairness to the other students.

Plagiarism by students [reported by staff] ... students not penalised. Students retaliated with unrelated accusations against staff – very unpleasant. Staff were advised not to pursue the matter ... NONE OF US WOULD EVER, UNDER ANY CIRCUMSTANCES, AGAIN REPORT A CASE OF STUDENT PLAGIARISM. THE PERSONAL COST TO STAFF IS TOO GREAT. STUDENTS HAVE ALL THE POWER. This is not an isolated incident... [capitals in original].

## Discussion and Conclusion

The findings from this research confirm the conclusions identified in the literature cited earlier. For example, misdemeanours such as plagiarism, cheating (Woody 2008), sexual impropriety (Robie & Keeping 2004) and abuse of power (Ashford & Davis 2006) are seen to be common to the university context and were raised in this study. Upholding the standards of the profession through the evaluation of student work emerged as an ethical issue for academics – this was unsurprising given that assessment of student work is a component of academics’ work (Robertson & Grant 1982). As indicated by many respondents, the process of inflating students’ academic marks was viewed as unfair to the student concerned and to other students in that it violates the principle of academic honesty (Campbell 2003: 29). Such action contravenes professional codes of conduct for universities (e.g. QUT MOPP 2012) that uphold fairness and honesty in carrying out professional duties towards and when dealing with students.

School teachers in a study by Colnerud (in Campbell 2003) indicated that they experienced anxiety when they were asked to compromise their professionalism by punishing students whom they felt did not deserve to be punished. In the current study, some academics expressed a similar type of anxiety when they were asked not to administer the consequences of inappropriate behaviour (cheating, plagiarism, etc.) to students.

A small number of comments made by the academic leaders referred to their organisation as being characterised by a supportive or a collaborative culture that promoted ethical practice. Such a culture is one that is likely to uphold institutional ethics (Preston et al. 2002). Yet the majority of participants indicated the contrary – unethical practices were observed and supervisors or others in senior management either ignored or encouraged such practices to operate. This issue is taken up later in the discussion.

An important theme that emerged in this research was the question of whether one should challenge unethical behaviour and face wrong-doers, or do nothing. Most of the participants chose not to challenge for a variety of reasons, suggesting that they might be becoming tolerant

of various types of ethical violations. Such avoidance contributes to a culture of unethical behaviour (Preston et al. 2002).

Participants were aware of the broader factors impacting on the university context that have been creating a fertile field in which dilemmas have been flourishing. This understanding was most clearly identified by a participant who contrasted corporate goals with academic goals and the competing tensions this brings. The three broad types of dilemmas that emerged from the findings (i.e. professional ethics versus supervisor's directives; professional ethics versus an ethic of care; and professional ethics versus rules and policies) are now considered.

### *Professional Ethics Versus Ethics of Care*

A strong theme in the study was the desire of academic leaders to uphold professional standards by being just in their dealings with students and staff (Fitzmaurice 2008). However, their professional ethics clashed with an ethic of care when they were required to make a decision that involved their care or feelings for staff or students and brought into question their professional ethics regarding standards or a sense of fairness. In research on school teachers (Campbell 2003) and school leaders (Cranston, Ehrich & Kimber 2006), this tension was apparent. These researchers referred to educators who faced an ethical dilemma that involved choosing between their colleagues (who were underperforming or acting in a way that was not deemed appropriate) and the wellbeing of students. Campbell (2003) referred to the tension that can arise for teachers in the complex area of student evaluations. She gave the example of the sympathetic teacher who has to deal with the failing student who has tried very hard. Academic leaders in the current study made similar comments relating to passing or not passing particular groups of students.

### *Professional Ethics Versus Rules and Policies*

The academic leaders mentioned times when their professional values clashed with policies or procedures they thought were unfair or inappropriate. Indeed, one of the academic leaders resigned her post as course co-ordinator because she could not uphold what was seen as the university's unreasonable policy on supplementary assessment. Shapiro and Stefkovich (2005) use the terms 'responsibility' and 'accountability' as operating in tension with one another. In some ways their description of these terms is akin to the dilemmas that can emerge between professional ethics (i.e. responsibility to the profession) and policies and procedures (accountability via government mandates).

One of the academic leaders in the study said that ethical dilemmas within their organisation were 'rare as there are strong rules in place'. This comment suggests that staff within that organisation were aware of the rules and policies, and that those rules and policies were being followed. In contrast, a number of comments made by academic leaders suggested that policies and codes of behaviour could be better understood by academics, and that following such policies is preferable to behaving in ad hoc ways when dilemmas arise. As argued earlier, codes of conduct are an important framework to help professionals make decisions about ethical issues even though they cannot provide total clarity in terms of institutional expectations or the resolution of ethical dilemmas (Thompson 2004).

### *Professional Ethics Versus Supervisors' Directives*

Comments from several academic leaders underscored the point that universities are political institutions where power is used to influence others, protect others and achieve particular goals

(Blase & Anderson 1995). Some participants referred to the misuse of power by supervisors or those in senior management when they used their legitimate power base to encourage, cajole or force course co-ordinators to pursue a course of action that did not align with their professional ethics. This was a case of authoritarian leadership (Blase & Anderson 1995) where there was little discussion or negotiation with staff.

Many comments from the academic leaders referred to situations when they were instructed to follow certain directives that were contrary to their professional ethics. Samier's (2008) notion of 'passive evil' and 'mute managers' resonated in participants' comments in this study when they referred to supervisors who ignored or devalued their pleas for remedying unethical practices. From the reported statements, there were clear examples of pressure being exerted by supervisors, and this type of pressure has been reported in other research studies (Campbell 2003; Helton & Ray 2005). Similarly there were comments indicating that the supervisors of academic leaders were unsupportive when unethical practices were questioned. However, speaking out is needed when it comes to addressing unethical behaviour in organisations. As Gottlieb and Sanzgiri (1996) state, dialogue and discussion are critical in organisations so that basic ethical assumptions can be questioned and critiqued, and new understandings developed. Indeed, analysis, critique and discussion are important elements of academic work. As Gottlieb and Sanzgiri (1996: 1282) state, 'Leaders with integrity are able to engender the trust necessary for open dialogue concerning ethics, embedding new ethical assumptions at the group level'.

The nature of the ethical dilemma points to the need for institutional ethical decision-making in universities, not only for individuals and their supervisors but also in terms of the policies and practices within universities (Preston et al. 2002). As we have argued elsewhere, if educational institutions are serious about embedding ethical practices into their culture and practices, then leadership (at all levels) needs to play a strong role (Cranston et al. 2006). Leadership is a key factor in the development and maintenance of culture within an organisation (Schein 1985), and leaders have the potential to have an impact on ethical decision-making within the organisation by leading through example (Gottlieb & Sanzgiri 1996).

Based on the findings of this study, we concur with Strom-Gottfried and D'Aprix (2006), who argue that academic leaders would benefit from opportunities to think about ethical dilemmas and how they might go about resolving them in a responsive manner. Some authors (Mahoney 2008; Shapiro & Gross 2008) point out that an understanding of ethical reasoning is essential, and they suggest case studies or authentic dilemmas be part of leadership training. Robie and Keeping (2004) argue that all new staff should be trained using a range of activities such as role plays and simulations. Woody (2008) concurs, saying that university or college teachers need opportunities to learn about ethical principles and how they might apply to the complex world of higher-education classrooms.

Yet the reality is that ethics in teaching within universities has received scant attention (Wilson 1982; Mahoney 2008) in comparison to research, where it has been given a higher profile, with committees that approve research applications and advise on ethical matters. As the findings of this study indicate, ethical issues can and do arise in university teaching (Baumgarten 1982; Wilson 1982), and professional development learning opportunities would be a useful starting point.

One of the worrying aspects of this study's findings is the sense of powerlessness that many academics apparently feel when matters of ethics arise and confront them in their practice. Even if university middle-level academic leaders are prepared more effectively for problematic

situations and dilemmas, there will be little change until the dominant culture of universities changes and institutional ethics are key features of the landscape. Leaders at all levels will need to encourage open and honest dialogue, and move away from the idea that ethical decision-making is a solitary activity (Norberg & Johansson 2007).

## References

- Ashford, T. K. & Davis, L. (2006), Defining Professional Behaviour: A Situational Look at Ethics in the Classrooms and Laboratories of American Colleges and Universities. Proceedings of the 2006 Informing Science and IT Education Joint Conference. Retrieved from <http://proceedings.informingscience.org/proceedings/inSITE2006/ProcAshf116.pdf>.
- Baumgarten E. (1982), Ethics in the Academic Profession: A Socratic View, *The Journal of Higher Education* 53(3): 282–295.
- Blase, J. & Anderson, G. (1995), *The Micropolitics of Educational Leadership: From Control to Empowerment* (London: Cassell).
- Campbell, E. (2003), *The Ethical Teacher* (Maidenhead: Open University Press).
- Ciulla, J. (2006), Ethics: The Heart of Leadership, in T. Maak & N.M. Press (eds), *Responsible Leadership* (London: Routledge): 17–32.
- Cranston, N., Ehrich, L.C. & Kimber, M. (2005), Ethical Dilemmas: The 'Bread and Butter' of Educational Leaders' Lives, *Journal of Educational Administration* 44(2): 106–121.
- Cranston, N., Ehrich, L., Kimber, M. & Starr, K. (2012), An Exploratory Study of Ethical Dilemmas Faced by Academics in Three Australian Universities, *Journal of Educational Leadership, Policy and Practice* 27(1): 3–15.
- Currie, J. & Newson, J. (eds) (1998), *Universities and Globalization* (Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage).
- Currie, J. & Vidovich, L. (1998), Micro-Economic Reform through Managerialism in American and Australian Universities, in J. Currie & J. Newson (eds), *Universities and Globalization* (Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage): 153–172.
- Dempster, N., Carter, L., Freakley, M. & Parry, L. (2004), Conflicts, Confusions and Contradictions in Principals' Ethical Decision Making, *Journal of Educational Administration* 42(4): 450–461.
- Ehrich, L.C., Cranston, N. & Kimber, M. (2005), Academic Managers and Ethics: A Question of Making the Right Decision, in A. Brew & C. Asmar (eds), *Higher Education in a Changing World: Research and Development in Higher Education* (Milperra: HERDSA): 134–141.
- Fitzmaurice, M. (2008), Voices from Within: Teaching in Higher Education as a Moral Practice, *Teaching in Higher Education* 13(3): 341–352.
- Freakley, M. & Burgh, G. (2000), *Engaging with Ethics: Ethical Inquiry for Teachers* (Australia: Social Science Press).
- Gilligan, C. (1982), *In a Different Voice: Psychological Theory and Women's Development* (Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press).
- Gottlieb, J.Z. & Sanzgiri, J. (1996), Toward an Ethical Dimension of Decision Making in Organizations, *Journal of Business Ethics* 15(12): 1275–1285.
- Gregory, R. & Hicks, C. (1999), Promoting Public Service Integrity, *Australian Journal of Public Administration* 58: 3–15.
- Hanson, W.R. (2009), Ethical Leadership in Higher Education: Evolution of Institutional Ethics Logic. A dissertation presented to the Graduate School of Clemsn University. UMI NO: 3360119. Proquest.
- Helton, G.B. & Ray, B.A. (2005), Strategies School Practitioners Report they would Use to Resist Pressure to Practice Unethically, *Journal of Applied School Psychology* 22(1): 43–65.

- Hosmer, L.T.(1987), *The Ethics of Management* (Homewood, IL: Irwin).
- Jacob-Timm S. (1999), Ethically Challenging Situations Encountered by School Psychologists, *Psychology in the Schools* 36: 205–217.
- Maak, T. & Pless, N.M. (2006), Responsible Leadership: A Relational Approach, in T. Maak & N.M. Press (eds), *Responsible Leadership* (London: Routledge): 33–53.
- Macfarlane, B. (2009), *Researching with Integrity: The Ethics of Academic Enquiry* (New York: Routledge).
- Mahoney, D. (2008), *Ethics in the Classroom: Bridging the Gap between Theory and Practice* (Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield).
- Margetson, D. (1997), Ethics in Assessing and Developing Academic Quality, *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education* 22(2): 123–134.
- Meek, V.L. & Wood, F.Q. (1997), Higher Education Governance and Management: An Australian Study. Evaluations and Investigations Program, Higher Education Division, Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs (Canberra: Commonwealth of Australia).
- Noddings, N. (1992), *The Challenge to Care in Schools: An Alternative Approach to Education* (New York: Teachers College Press).
- Norberg, K. & Johansson, O. (2007), Ethical Dilemmas of Swedish School Leaders: Contrasts and Common Themes, *Educational Management, Administration & Leadership* 35(2): 277–294.
- Pajo, K. & McGhee, P. (2003), The Institutionalisation of Business Ethics: Are New Zealand Organisations Doing Enough?, *Journal of the Australian and New Zealand Academy of Management* 9(1): 52–65.
- Patton, M.Q. (1990), *Qualitative Evaluation and Research Methods* (Newbury Park, CA: Sage).
- Preston, N. & Samford, C. with Connors, C. (2002), *Encouraging Ethics and Challenging Corruption* (Sydney: The Federation Press).
- Queensland Parliamentary Counsel (2010), *Public Sector Ethics Act 1994* (Brisbane: Parliament of Queensland).
- QUT MOPP (2012) *QUT Staff Code of Conduct* (Brisbane: QUT) URL: [www.mopp.qut.edu.au/B/B\\_08\\_01.jsp?view=print](http://www.mopp.qut.edu.au/B/B_08_01.jsp?view=print) (accessed 2 March 2012).
- Robertson, E. & Grant, G. (1982), Teaching and Ethics: An Epilogue, *The Journal of Higher Education* 53(3): 345–357.
- Robie, C. & Keeping, L.M. (2004), Perceptions of Ethical Behaviour Among Business Faculty in Canada, *Journal of Academic Ethics* 2: 221–247.
- Samier, E. (2008), The Problem of Passive Evil in Educational Administration: Moral Implications of Doing Nothing, *International Studies in Educational Administration* 36(1): 2–21.
- Schein, E.H. (1985), *Organizational Culture and Leadership* (San Francisco: Jossey Bass).
- Shapiro, J.P. & Gross, S.J. (2008), *Ethical Educational Leadership in Turbulent Times: (Re)solving Moral Dilemmas* (New York: Taylor & Francis).
- Shapiro, J.P. & Stefkovich, J. (2005), *Ethical Leadership and Decision Making in Education: Applying Theoretical Perspectives to Complex Dilemmas* (Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates).
- Singer, P. (1994), Introduction, in *Ethics* (Oxford: Oxford University Press).
- Strom-Gottfried, K. & D'Aprix, A. (2006), Ethics for Academics, *Social Work Education* 25(3): 225–244.
- Sumsion, J. (2000), Caring and Empowerment: A Teacher Educator's Reflection on an Ethical Dilemma, *Teaching in Higher Education* 5(2): 167–179.
- Thompson, P. (2004), University Governance and the Accountability of Academic Administrators, *Journal of Academic Ethics* 2: 187–197.

Wesley, P.W. & Buysse, V. (2006). Ethics and Evidence in Consultation, *Topics in Early Childhood Special Education* 26(3): 131–141.

Whitton, H. (1998), Wisdom, Values and Ethics in the Public Sector: Or, Where the Woozle Wasn't, *Canberra Bulletin of Public Administration* 89: 53–61.

Wilson, E.K. (1982), Power, Pretense and Piggybacking: Some Ethical Issues in Teaching, *The Journal of Higher Education* 53(3): 268–281.

Woody, W.D. (2008), Learning from the Codes of the Academic Disciplines, *New Directions in Higher Education* 142: 39–54.

## Author Details

Lisa Catherine Ehrich  
School of Learning & Professional Studies  
Queensland University of Technology  
Victoria Park Road  
Kelvin Grove QLD 4059  
Australia  
Email: l.ehrich@qut.edu.au

Neil Cranston  
Faculty of Education  
University of Tasmania  
Private Bag 66  
Hobart TAS 7001  
Australia  
Email: Neil.Cranston@utas.edu.au

Megan Kimber  
School of Learning & Professional Studies  
Queensland University of Technology  
Victoria Park Road  
Kelvin Grove QLD 4059  
Australia  
Email: m.kimber@qut.edu.au

Karen Starr  
Faculty of Arts and Education  
Deakin University  
221 Burwood Hwy  
Burwood VIC 3125  
Email: k.starr@deakin.edu.au



# Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration and Management (CCEAM)

## BOARD OF DIRECTORS 2012

### EXECUTIVE

- 1. President**

Emeritus Professor Frank Crowther, AM  
86 Ellison Road  
Springwood, NSW 2777  
New South Wales  
AUSTRALIA
- 2. Immediate Past President**

Anusha Naidu,  
Matthew Goniwe School of Leadership and Governance  
Corner Eighth and Hull Street  
Vrededorp 2091  
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA  
*Phone:* +27 11 830 2200  
*Fax:* +27 86 509 5231  
*Email:* anushan@mgsi.co.za
- 3. Elected Vice President**

Dr Andreas Tsiakkiros  
CCEAM Vice President  
Open University of Cyprus  
PO Box 12794, 2252 Latsia  
CYPRUS  
*Phone:* +357-22411600, +357-99634344  
*Fax:* +357-22411971  
*Email:* tsiakkiros@ouc.ac.cy  
*Website:* www.ouc.ac.cy
- 4. Member**

Ken Brien, EdD  
Associate Professor  
Educational Administration and LEadership  
Faculty of Education  
PO Box 4400  
Fredericton, NB  
CANADA E3B 5A3  
*Phone:* (506) 452 6213
- 5. Member**

Dr Neville Highett (ACEL)  
2 King Edward Avenue  
Hawthorn, SA 5062  
AUSTRALIA  
*Phone:* +61 8 8172 0026 or +614 08 843 768  
*Email:* neville@qualityinsight.net

## NATIONAL AFFILIATES' REPRESENTATIVES 2012

- 1. Australia**  
Dr Neville Highett  
2 King Edward Ave  
Hawthorn, SA 5062  
AUSTRALIA  
*Phone:* +618 8172 0026 or +614 08 843 768  
*Email:* neville@qualityinsight.net
- 2. Barbados**  
Maureen Yard  
Bert Ville, 1st Avenue  
Rockley, Christ Church  
BARBADOS  
*Phone:* +246 427 0885  
*Fax:* +246 427 0885  
*Email:* mtyard@caribsurf.com
- 3. Cameroon**  
Mandi Manga Obase  
PO Box 189  
DIDI Cyber Menoua Division  
WP CAMEROON  
*Phone:* +237 7639090  
*Fax:* +237 3354454  
*Email:* cam\_rcs@yahoo.com
- 4. Canada**  
Ken Brien  
Faculty of Education  
University of New Brunswick  
Fredericton, NB  
CANADA E3B 5A6  
*Phone:* +15064526213  
*Fax:* +15064533569  
*Email:* kbrien1@unb.ca
- 5. Cyprus**  
Dr Yiannis Savvides  
4A Amorgou Street  
1048 Lefkosia  
CYPRUS  
*Phone:* +357 2280 0996 or +357 9942 4291  
*Fax:* +357 2243 8220  
*Email:* yiannis.savvides@ouc.ac.cy
- 6. Cyprus**  
Dr Georgia Pashiardis  
Constantinoupoleos 22  
Apt. 502 2107, Aglantzia, Lefkosia  
CYPRUS  
*Phone:* +357 9954 1478 or + 357 2233 6807  
*Fax:* +357 2233 8052  
*Email:* georgia.pashiardis@cytanet.com.cy
- 7. Fiji**  
Vinod Naicker  
*Email:* labasamuslim@yahoo.com
- 8. India**  
Dr Hemlata Talesra  
12-A Panchwati  
Udaipur-313001  
Rajasthan  
INDIA  
*Phone:* +91-2942427071  
*Fax:* +294 2427071  
*Email:* htalesra@gmail.com; htalesra@rediffmail.com

- 9. Kenya**  
 Dr Wanjiku Khamasi  
 PO Box 5706, Eldoret 30100  
 KENYA  
*Phone:* +254 722 454679  
*Fax:* +254 53 2063257  
*Email:* jchiko@africaonline.co.ke
- 10. Malta**  
 Prof. Christopher Bezzina, FCCEAM  
 Educational Leadership Programme  
 Department of Education Studies  
 Faculty of Education  
 University of Malta  
 Msida MSD 2080  
 MALTA  
*Phone:* +356 2340 2039  
*Email:* christopher.bezzina@um.edu.mt
- 11. Namibia**  
 Professor Rehabeam K. Auala  
 Faculty of Education  
 University of Namibia  
 Private Bag 13301  
 340 Mandume Ndemufayo Avenue  
 Pionierspark  
 Windhoek  
 NAMIBIA  
*Phone:* +264 61 206 3723 or +264 81 129 1499  
*Fax:* +264 61 206 3980 or +264 61 254525  
*Email:* rauala@unam.na or rauala@mweb.com.na
- 12. New Zealand**  
 President  
 Jeremy Kedian  
 University of Waikato Educational Leadership Centre, PB  
 3105 Waikato Mail Centre  
 Hamilton 3240  
 NEW ZEALAND  
*Phone:* 0064 (0)7 858 4500  
*Email:* kedian@waikato.ac.nz
- Secretary  
 Dr Ann Briggs  
 266A Gorge Road  
 Maungaturoto 0588  
 NEW ZEALAND  
*Phone:* 0064 (0)9 431 8401  
*Email:* ann.briggs@ncl.ac.uk
- 13. Nigeria**  
 Professor Uche Emetarom  
 Department of Educational Administration and Planning  
 Abia State University, P.MB. 2000, Uturu  
 Abia State  
 NIGERIA  
*Phone:* + 234 803 349 6381  
*Email:* uchemeta@yahoo.com
- Professor Emmanuel Olukayode Fagbamiye  
 Department of Educational Administration and Planning  
 University of Lagos  
 Akoka  
 Lagos State  
 NIGERIA  
*Phone:* +234 802 311 3823 or +234 809 051 0642  
*Email:* efagbamiye@yahoo.com

Professor Alice Ndu  
Department of Early Childhood and Primary Education  
Nnamdi Azikiwe University  
Awka Anambra State  
NIGERIA  
*Phone:* +234 813 304 3095  
*Email:* alice\_ndu@yahoo.com

**14. Papua New Guinea** Trevor Birney  
President PNGCEA  
The International Education Agency for Professional Development  
PO Box 6974, Boroko NCE  
PAPUA NEW GUINEA  
*Phone:* +325 3814  
*Fax:* +325 8193  
*Email:* tbirney@iea.ac.pg

**15. Seychelles** Jean Alcindor  
President SELMA  
Maritime Training Centre  
Mont Fleuri, Mahe  
SEYCHELLES  
*Phone:* +248 324550 or +248 322663 or +248 722963  
*Fax:* +248 323609  
*Email:* alcindorja@eduhq.edu.sc

**16. South Africa** Advocate Allison Bengston-Mali  
Chair EMASA  
Gauteng East District  
Private Bag X09  
Springs 1560  
Gauteng Province  
SOUTH AFRICA  
*Phone:* +27 (0) 11736 0887  
*Fax:* +27 (0) 11 746 8027

**17. St Vincents and Grenadines** Dr Veronica Marks  
Prospect  
PO Box 2246  
Kingstown  
ST VINCENT AND THE GRENADINES  
*Email:* vca.marks@gmail.com

**18. Tonga** Knowlton Itaaehau  
*Email:* ItaaehauKn@ldschurch.org

**19. Trinidad and Tobago** Dr Freddy James,  
12 Ormidale Avenue  
Cocoyea Village  
San Fernando  
Trinidad  
WEST INDIES  
*Email:* freddyleejames@hotmail.com

**20. Uganda** Sam K. Busulwa  
Academic Registrar  
Nkumba University  
PO Box 237, Entebbe  
UGANDA  
*Phone:* +041 320283 or +041 200557 or +075 2692118  
*Email:* busulwas@gmail.com

**21. United Kingdom**

Dr Megan Crawford  
 Faculty of Education  
 University of Cambridge  
 184 Hills Road  
 Cambridge CB2 8PQ  
 UNITED KINGDOM  
*Phone:* +44 (0) 1223 76769  
*Email:* mpc52@cam.ac.uk

And

Professor Tim Simkins  
 Centre for Education and Inclusion Research  
 Sheffield Hallam University  
 Unit 7, Science Park  
 Sheffield S1 1WB  
 UNITED KINGDOM  
*Phone:* +44 (0) 114 225 4985  
*Email:* t.j.simkins@shu.ac.uk

**JOURNAL EDITORS (International Studies in Educational Administration)**

Dr Tom Bisschoff  
 School of Education  
 University of Birmingham  
 Edgbaston, Birmingham  
 B15 2TT  
 UNITED KINGDOM  
*Phone:* +44 (0) 121 414 4804  
*Fax:* +44 (0) 121 414 4865  
*Email:* isea@contacts.bham.ac.uk

Dr Christopher Rhodes  
 School of Education  
 University of Birmingham  
 Edgbaston, Birmingham  
 B15 2TT  
 UNITED KINGDOM  
*Phone:* +44 (0) 121 414 3805  
*Fax:* +44 (0) 121 414 4865  
*Email:* isea@contacts.bham.ac.uk

## MEMBERSHIP SECRETARIES 2012

### AFRICA

- 1. Cameroon – CACEM**

Dickong Dickson  
 M Secretary CACEM  
 PO Box 470, Meme Division  
 Kumba, South West Region  
 CAMEROON  
*Phone: +237 7361781*  
*Fax: +237 3354454*  
*Email: cam\_rcs@yahoo.com*
- 2 Kenya – KAEAM**

Mr. Hosea Kiplagat  
 Secretary KAEAM  
 Chepkoilel University College  
 Department of Technology Education  
 P.O.Box 1125, Eldoret, 30100  
 KENYA  
*Email: hoskiphokip@yahoo.com*
- 3 Namibia – NEMAS**

Dennis D.J. Fredericks  
 92 Tunschel Street  
 Pionierspark  
 Windhoek  
 NAMIBIA  
*Phone: +264 61 241868 or +264 61 207 2857 or +264 81 2615112*  
*Fax: +264 886 34126*  
*Email: defredericks@polytechnic.edu.na*
- 4. Nigeria – NAEAP**

Dr Gospel G. Kpee  
 Department of Educational Administration and Planning  
 Faculty of Education, University of Harcourt  
 Rivers State  
 NIGERIA  
*Phone: 08032700454*  
*Email: gospelkpee@yahoo.com*
- 5. Seychelles – SELMA**

Ralph Jean-Louis  
 Secretary SELMA  
 Ma Josephine, Mahe  
 SEYCHELLES  
*Phone: +248 283162 or +248 324958 or +248 521517*
- 6. South Africa – EMASA**

Anusha Naidu  
 Chief Operations Officer  
 Matthew Goniwe School of Leadership and Governance  
 Corner Eighth and Hull Street  
 Vrededorp, 2091  
 SOUTH AFRICA  
*Phone: +27 11 830 2200*  
*Mobile: +27 83 611 7147*  
*Fax: +27 86 637 4853*  
*Web: <http://www.mgslg.co.za>*
- 7. Uganda – UCEA**

Sam Busulwa  
 M Secretary UCEA  
 UGANDA  
*Phone: +2575 269 2118*  
*Email: busulwas@gmail.com*

**AMERICAS****8. Barbados  
– CARSEA**

Maureen Yard  
President CARSEA  
Bert Ville 1st Avenue Rockley, Christ Church  
BARBADOS  
*Phone:* +246 427 0885  
*Fax:* +246 427 0885  
*Email:* mtyard@caribsurf.com

**9. Canada  
– CASEA/CSSE**

Tim Howard  
Membership Secretary  
CSSE Office  
260 Dalhousie Street, Suite 04  
Ottawa, ON  
CANADA, K1N 7E4  
*Phone:* +613 241 0018  
*Fax:* +613 241 0019  
*Email:* csse-scee@csse.ca

**10. St Vincent &  
The Grenadines  
– CARSEA-SVG**

Dr Veronica Marks  
President CARSEA-SVG  
c/o St Vincent Teachers' College  
PO Box 242, Amos Vale, St Vincent  
WEST INDIES  
*Phone:* +784 457 0178  
*Email:* vcemarks@gmail.com

**11. Trinidad and  
Tobago – TELMAS**

Sharon Phillip  
Membership Secretary  
6 Ibis Drive, Pleasantville  
San Fernando  
Trinidad  
WEST INDIES  
*Phone:* 18683297577  
*Email:* sphillipeters@gmail.com

**ASIA****12. India – Assam  
– ACEAM**

Professor Nilima Bhagabati  
Secretary ACEAM  
Department of Education, Gauhati University, Guwahati  
Assam 781014  
INDIA  
*Phone:* +94 35195542 or +98 64066459  
*Fax:* +94 03612570275  
*Email:* b\_nilima@sify.com or nilimabhagabati@hotmail.com

**13. India – Gujarat  
– GCEAM**

Yogita Deshmukh  
Secretary GCEAM  
c/o Jaimin Purohit, B/h Nagarik Bank, Gaurav Path  
Tower Road, Himatnagar, Pin- 383 001, Dist. Sabarkantha, Gujarat  
INDIA  
*Phone:* +91 02772244816 or +91 09426025391  
*Email:* yogitajaimin@yahoo.co.in

**14. India –  
Maharashtra  
– MCEAM**

Ms Sudha Sathaye  
President MCEAM  
c/o Ultimate Kitchen and Furniture  
Ground Floor, Hema-Prabha Society  
Chittaranjan Road Vile-Parle  
East Mumbai 40057  
INDIA  
*Email:* sudha.shreevidya@gmail.com

- 15. India – Rajasthan – RCEAM**  
Dr Indu Kothari  
12- A panchwati,  
Udiapur (Rajasthan)  
INDIA  
*Phone:* 91 9414164761; 91 9414157857
- 16. India – Uttarpradesh – UCEAM**  
Dr Nasrin Nasrin  
Secretary UCEAM  
Reader, Department of Education  
Aligarh Muslim University  
Aligarh – 20002, INDIA  
*Phone:* +571 9297451671  
*Email:* mhsiddiqui50@rediffmail.com
- 17. India – NCEAM**  
Dr Ushoshi Guha  
President, NCEAM  
246 Gandhinagar  
Nagpur - 440010  
INDIA  
*Phone:* 919373118208  
*Email:* uguha@rediffmail.com

## AUSTRALASIA

- 18. Australia – ACEL**  
Kathy Hangan  
Level 1 Suite 9  
308 High Street  
Penrith, New South Wales 2750  
AUSTRALIA  
*Phone:* 61 2 4732 1211  
*Fax:* 61 2 4732 1711  
*Email:* membership@acel.org.au
- 19. Fiji – FPA**  
c/o Brij Deo  
Principal – Tavua College  
PO Box 85  
Tavua  
FIJI ISLANDS  
*Email:* brij\_swaroop@yahoo.com.au
- 20. New Zealand – NZEALS**  
Dr Kate Thornton  
18D/9 Chews Lane  
Wellington 6011  
NEW ZEALAND  
*Phone:* +64-4-463 9776  
*Email:* Kate.Thornton@vuw.ac.nz
- 21. Papua New Guinea – PNGCEA**  
Eva Misitom  
PO Box 6974  
Boroko NCD  
PAPUA NEW GUINEA  
*Phone:* +675 3214720  
*Fax:* +675 3214668  
*Email:* pngce@iea.ac.pg
- 22. Tonga – TEALS**  
Knowlton Itaaehau  
*Email:* ItaaehauKn@ldschurch.org



**EUROPE****23. Cyprus – CEAS**

Dr Georgia Pashiardis  
Membership Secretary CEAS  
22 Constantinoupoleos Street  
Apt.502, 2107  
Aglantzia, Lefkosia  
CYPRUS  
*Phone:* +357 2233 6807  
*Fax:* +357 2233 8052  
*Email:* georgia.pashiardis@cytanet.com.cy

**24. Malta – MSEAM**

Dr Christopher Bezzina  
President MSEAM  
Faculty of Education  
University of Malta Msida MSD 2080  
MALTA  
*Phone:* +356 2340 2039  
*Email:* christopher.bezzina@um.edu.mt

**25. United Kingdom  
– BELMAS**

Richard Davis  
Business Manager, BELMAS  
Room 50, Victoria Hall  
Norfolk Street  
Sheffield, S1 2JB  
UNITED KINGDOM  
*Phone:* +44 11427 99926  
*Fax:* +44 11427 96868  
*Email:* info@belmas.org.uk



# **International Studies in Educational Administration**

## **Notes for contributors**

### **Copyright**

Papers (including abstracts) accepted and published become the copyright of the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration and Management (CCEAM). This enables the CCEAM and its publisher to ensure full copyright protection and to disseminate the article, and the journal, to the widest possible audience through print and electronic formats.

Once articles have been published in International Studies in Educational Administration (ISEA) authors are free to use them elsewhere without permission from CCEAM or the publisher, provided that acknowledgement is given to ISEA as the journal of original source of publication.

### **Submitting an article**

Articles should be sent to one of the following editors: Dr Tom Bisschoff and Dr Christopher Rhodes at: School of Education, University of Birmingham, Edgbaston, Birmingham, B15 2TT, United Kingdom. Email: [isea@contacts.bham.ac.uk](mailto:isea@contacts.bham.ac.uk), Phone: +44 (0) 121 414 4804 or +44 (0) 121 414 3805.

An electronic version of the manuscript, by email or on disk, should be sent to the editors. Where this is not feasible a hard copy will be accepted. The article should be double spaced, with wide margins, and bear the title of the article, the name(s) of the author(s) and the address(es) where the work was carried out. The article should be accompanied by an abstract of the contents of no more than 150 words. If more than one author is involved then the author who will be the main point of communication must be identified with a full postal address and email address if possible. Proofs will be sent to this author, and should be returned within one week after they have been received. A telephone number should also be given. Off-prints and copies of the journals will be sent to the lead author. All pages should be numbered. It is essential to give a word count, which should cover the article and references, footnotes and the abstract.

Authors should be aware that the circulation of ISEA is global, mainly throughout the Commonwealth. UK English must be used, with some sensitivity to the international nature of readership.

No manuscript or parts thereof will be returned to authors. The publishers reserve the right to copyedit, proof-read and correct all articles for publication.

Contributors are reminded that all submissions are peer reviewed by two independent reviewers. On average 40% of submissions received in a year are published.

### **Figures and tables**

Figures and tables should have their positions clearly marked in the text, but be provided on separate pages. Figures must be submitted as one set of artwork in a finished form. They will not be redrawn by the publisher.

### **References**

References should be indicated in the typescript by giving the author's name, with the year of publication in brackets. If more than one paper by the same author published in the same year is given, then a lower case letter (i.e. a, b, c etc) should be placed after the year of publication. The references should be listed in full at the end of the article. The full title of books, journals and magazines should be given. Abbreviations should not be used.

### **Off-prints**

An electronic copy of the journal, in Adobe Acrobat PDF file format, will be sent to authors on request from which they may make off-prints.

# International Studies in Educational Administration

## Volume 40, No. 2, 2012

Editorial Note <b>CHRISTOPHER RHODES AND TOM BISSCHOFF</b>	<b>1</b>
The Internship and School Leadership Preparation: An Inquiry and Reflection <b>CARMEN MOMBOURQUETTE AND GEORGE BEDARD</b>	<b>3</b>
Journeying Together: Understanding the Process of Teacher Change and the Impacts on Student Learning <b>JAKE MADDEN, JUDITH WILKS, MARIA MAIONE, NAOMI LOADER AND NGAIRE ROBINSON</b>	<b>19</b>
On the Need for Philosophic-Mindedness in Educational Administration: Are We Still on Track? <b>JOHN FRIESEN</b>	<b>37</b>
International Approaches to Secondary Education <b>LAUREN SEGEDIN AND BEN LEVIN</b>	<b>49</b>
Principles of Sustainable Leadership: The Case of School Leaders in the Fiji Islands <b>GOVINDA ISHWAR LINGAM</b>	<b>69</b>
Gendered Academia in a Market-Oriented Vietnam <b>DANG THI ANH NGUYET</b>	<b>85</b>
(Un)Ethical Practices and Ethical Dilemmas in Universities: Academic Leaders' Perceptions <b>LISA CATHERINE EHRICH, NEIL CRANSTON, MEGAN KIMBER AND KAREN STARR</b>	<b>99</b>