PROCEEDINGS

3rd REGIONAL CONFERENCE ON EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

PROCEEDINGS

3rd REGIONAL CONFERENCE ON EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

"Educational Leadership and Management:

Exploring New Possibilities"

19-21 November 2013

INSTITUT AMINUDDIN BAKI
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION MALAYSIA

Published by:

Institut Aminuddin Baki
(National Institute of Educational Management and Leadership)
Ministry of Education Malaysia
Kompleks Pendidikan Nilai
71760 Bandar Enstek, Negeri Sembilan

All papers in this proceedings were presented in the 3rd Regional Conference on Educational Leadership and Management organized by Institut Aminuddin Baki Ministry of Education Malaysia on 19-21 November 2013 at Institut Aminuddin Baki Genting Highlands Branch.

National Library of Malaysia
Cataloguing Data-In-Publication

ISBN 978-967-13573-2-3

First Printing 2015

Printed by:

Idaman Print Sdn. Bhd.
No. 11, Jala E1, Fasa 4,
Taman Melawati, 53100 Kuala Lumpur.
Tel.: 03-41088472/41058472
Faks.: 03-41065472

PROCEEDINGS PUBLICATION COMMITTEE
3rd REGIONAL CONFERENCE
ON EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

Patrons

Hajah Serina Sauni
Director of Institut Aminuddin Baki

Mistrine Radin
Haji Hashim Mohd. Zin
Deputy Directors of Institut Aminuddin Baki

Advisors

Mohd. Zanal Dirin
Director of Institut Aminuddin Baki Northern Branch

Abdul Zubir Abdul Ghani, PhD
Deputy Director of Institut Aminuddin Baki Northern Branch

Editorial Team

Adz Jamros Jamali
Ahmad Hanizar Abdul Halim
Balasandaran A. Ramiah, DBA
Hamzah Said
Hilmun Baharudin
Ismail Ibrahim@Mat Isa
Khairul Badri Ahmad
Maimunah Husien, PhD
Noor Fauza Zabidi, PhD
Nor Ashikin Salleh, PhD
Norihan Azizan
Noriza Mohamed Nasir
Premavathy Ponnusamy, PhD
Rahimi Abdul Majid
Suzana Abd. Latif

Graphic and Design

Noriati Roseni Ghazali
Salawaty Zainal

CONTENTS

Foreword

Director of Institut Aminuddin Baki Northern Branch

PART I
KEYNOTE ADDRESS

SCHOOL LEADERSHIP IN THE 21st CENTURY: GLOBAL PERSPECTIVES **2**

Professor Tony Bush
University of Nottingham: UK and Malaysia

PART II
ENGLISH PAPERS PRESENTED

PERSONAL QUALITIES OF AUTHENTIC SCHOOL PRINCIPALS **18**

Ahmed Adeel Naseer
Abdul Aziz Nor
Takeyuki Ueyama
Sultan Hassanal Bolkiah Institute of Education (SHBIE)
University Brunei Darussalam (UBD)

BUILDING EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP CAPACITY WITHIN THE PUBLIC EDUCATION SYSTEM THROUGHOUT KINGDOM OF BAHRAIN **37**

Steven Reissig, PhD
Ahlam Al Amer
Ministry of Education, Kingdom of Bahrain

CULTURE OF TEACHING AND LEARNING (COTL): THE ROLE OF THE CHARACTER TRAITS OF ROLE PLAYERS IN SCHOOLS **53**

Masoumeh Pourrajab
Ramli Basri
Shaffe Mohd Daud
Soaib Asimiran
Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM)

A REVIEW OF TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT MODELS **64**

Roya Roustaee
Shuhaida Abdul Kadir
Soaib Asimiran
Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM)

PUPILS' PERCEPTIONS AND PRACTICES IN PERFORMING HOMEWORK IN SCHOOLS OF MALDIVES **71**

Visal Moosa
Noonu Atoll Education Centre, Maldives

Muhammad Sani Ibrahim
University of Malaya, Malaysia

DE-SHIFTING TO SINGLE SESSION SCHOOLS: PROSPECTS AND PROBLEMS IN SCHOOLS OF MALDIVES **92**

Ahmed Mohamed
Dhaal Atoll Education Centre, Maldives

THE INFLUENCE OF USING TASK-BASED LEARNING (TBL) TOWARDS TEACHING PROFESSIONAL MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP **115**

Dr. Noer Doddy Irmawati
Ahmad Dahlan University, Yogyakarta, Indonesia

MEDIA LITERACY LEVELS OF TURKISH UNIVERSITY STUDENTS **130**

Hilmi Sungu
Bozok University, Turkey

Mustafa Bayrakci
Murat Topal
Sakarya University, Turkey

A POLICY ANALYSIS ON RECENT 12-YEAR-COMPULSORY EDUCATION LAW IN TURKEY **137**

Hilmi Sungu
Bozok University, Turkey

Mustafa Bayrakci
Sakarya University, Turkey

THE IMPORTANCE OF STATE FUNDING FOR QUALITY EDUCATION: SOUTH AFRICAN PERSPECTIVE **142**

Takalani Samuel Mashau
Humbulani Nancy Mutshaeni
University of Venda

APPLYING APPRECIATIVE INQUIRY APPROACH AS A FOUNDATION TO IMPROVE TEACHER PERFORMANCE **162**

CarolusPatampang
Saint Louis University-Baguio City, Philippines

NEW WAVE OF SOCIAL CHANGE **187**

K.N. Janardhana
Rural Development and Self-employment Training Institute (RSETI)

DIFFERENTIATED SUPERVISION MODEL: A WAY OF IMPROVING SCHOOL LEADERSHIP IN SAUDI ARABIA **193**

Rashid Alabdulkareem
King Saud University, Saudi Arabia

SELF-DETERMINATION, MOTIVATION AND STUDY ENGAGEMENT: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF UNDERGRADUATES IN MALAYSIA **201**

Arif Hassan
Ibrahim Hizam Al Jubari
International Islamic University Malaysia

DISTRIBUTED LEADER DEVELOPMENT AND THE MORAL IMPERATIVE FOR COMMUNAL ACTION REFLECTION LEARNING **216**

Asiyath Mohamed Didi
Terence J Sullivan
TakeyukiUeyama
Sultan Hassanal Bolkiah Institute of Education, University Brunei Darussalam

POSITIVE REINFORCEMENTS AS EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP SKILLS: USING NEGATIONS IN CLASSROOM INTERACTIONS **232**

Mazlin Azizan
Albukhary International University, Malaysia

EXPLORING THE CHALLENGES RELATED TO AN INTERNATIONAL MASTER'S PROGRAMME 248

Dr. Päivi Haapalainen
University of Vaasa, Finland

LEADING SCHOOL CHANGE IN CHINA: A PRELIMINARY INVESTIGATION 255

Tang Shaobing
Philip Hallinger
Lu Jiafang
Hong Kong Institute of Education

LEADING IN DIVERSITY: A TALE OF TWO SCHOOLS 282

Cheah Chu Tai
Apin-Apin Secondary School, Malaysia

AN ANALYSIS OF PREVALENCE AND SERIOUSNESS OF ACADEMIC DISHONESTY AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS 291

Imelia Laura Daneil
*P*armjit Singh *Aperapar Singh*
Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM), Malaysia

AN EFFECTIVE EMPLOYEES' RETENTION STRATEGY: SERVANT LEADERSHIP 312

Ng Xin Le
Choi Sang Long
Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

PART III
MALAY PAPERS PRESENTED

KEPIMPINAN TEKNOLOGI PENGETUA DALAM PENGURUSAN SEKOLAH 324

Faridah Juraime
Mohd. Izham Mohd.Hamzah
Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia

KEPIMPINAN UNTUK PEMBELAJARAN **335**

Hasmirati Bakkareng
Universiti Utara Malaysia

PENGGUNAAN MODEL KONSTRUKTIVISME DALAM PENGAJARAN DAN PEMBELAJARAN BAHASA MELAYU **344**

Norul Haida Hj. Reduzan
Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris

KEMAHIRAN PENGURUSAN BENGKEL DALAM KALANGAN GURU KEMAHIRAN HIDUP BERSEPADU **355**

Sharifah Shafie
Suhaida Abdul Kadir
Soaib Asimiran
Universiti Putra Malaysia

TAHAP PERSEKITARAN SEKOLAH DALAM PELAKSANAAN AKTIVITI KOKURIKULUM DI SEKOLAH **368**

Mohd Fazli Hasan
Suhaida Abdul Kadir
Soaib Asmiran
Universiti Putra Malaysia

BEBAN TUGAS GURU KEMAHIRAN HIDUP BERSEPADU: ISU DAN CADANGAN **380**

Sharifah Shafie
Suhaida Abdul Kadir
Soaib Asimiran
Universiti Putra Malaysia

PART IV
ARABIC PAPERS PRESENTED

THE PROPHETIC WAY OF CREATING FUTURE LEADERS THROUGH EDUCATION **392**

Dr. Muhammad Zaid Malik
King Saud University, Riyadh

405 واقع تطبيق مبادئ الجودة الشاملة في إدارة النشاط الطلابي غير الصفي في المدارس الثانوية

د.عبد الكريم بن عبد العزيز المحرج
الأستاذ المساعد في قسم الإدارة والتخطيط التربوي
كلية العلوم الاجتماعية ـ جامعة الإمام محمد بن سعود الإسلامية
المملكة العربية السعودية

419 اتجاهات تلاميذ المرحلة الإعدادية نحو التنوع الثقافي في المجتمع المصري عقب ثورة

دكتور إدريس سلطان صالح
أستاذ مساعد بكلية التربية ـ جامعة المنيا ـ جمهورية مصر العربية

428 الكفايات التقنية للقيادات التربوية التحويلية في ظل ثورة المعلومات والاتصال (تصور مقترح)

د: ظافر بن أحمد مصلح القرني
دكتوراه الفلسفة في المناهج وتقنيات التعليم
مدير إدارة شؤون المعلمين بالإدارة العامة للتربية والتعليم بمحافظة جدة
محاضر بكلية الآداب بجامعة الملك عبدالعزيز
محاضر بقسم التربية بالجامعة العربية المفتوحة ـــ فرع جدة

PART V
ANNEXES

Conference Details **454**
Programme Schedule **455**
Organisers
- Ministry of Education Malaysia (MoE)
- Institut Aminuddin Baki (IAB)
- Malaysian School Principals' Council
- Malaysian Headmasters' Council (MGB)

Main Committee **470**
Organising Committee **471**

Foreword

Director of Institut Aminuddin Baki
Northern Branch

It is a great achievement to Institut Aminuddin Baki, Ministry of Education that the 3rd Regional Conference on Educational Leadership and Management (RCELAM) has been a success. The conference which was held for the third time focuses on the theme of **Educational Leadership and Management: Exploring New Possibilities.**

Throughout the conference, a total of 120 papers were presented in five parallel sessions. As with the 1st and 2nd RCELAM, the 3rd RCELAM has managed to include papers not only from the locals, but also international presenters as far as Bahrain, Brunei Darussalam, China, Finland, India, Maldives, Philippines, Saudi Arabia, South Africa and Turkey. 3rd RCELAM was more meaningful with the presentation of four keynote addresses presented by renowned speakers from diverse background. They were Prof. Tan Sri Dato' Dzulkifli Abd. Razak, President of International Association of Universities, UNESCO House, Paris, France; Prof. Dr. Tony Bush from Nottingham University, United Kingdom; Dr. David Zyngier from Monash University, Australia, and Prof. Dr. Alma Harris from University of Malaya, Malaysia.

The proceedings compile one keynote address and 31 full papers; 21 were in English Language, six were in Malay Language and four in Arabic. The annexes contain conference details, programme schedule, organizers profile, and list of committee members. The findings of the proceedings will be disseminated to the participating countries, decision makers, curriculum planners, implementers at states and district levels, academicians and practitioners in the host country. It is hoped that this documentation will serve to provide references on current issues in educational leadership and management.

MOHD. ZANAL DIRIN

PART I

KEYNOTE ADDRESS

SCHOOL LEADERSHIP IN THE 21st CENTURY: GLOBAL PERSPECTIVES

Professor Tony Bush
University of Nottingham: UK and Malaysia

INTRODUCTION

Education is increasingly regarded as the key to economic and social development. Many governments, including Malaysia, are reforming their education systems to bring about school improvement. This paper will explore the leadership implications of educational reform, in recognition that change succeeds, or may falter, at the school level. The paper will examine the nature and scope of school leadership and consider how good leaders manage their schools. The Malaysia Education Blueprint (Ministry of Education 2012) advocates instructional leadership and the paper will address what this means for school leaders. The paper will consider the evidence on the impact of school leadership on learner outcomes and discuss the implications of reform for the development of leaders.

Education Systems in the 21st Century – Towards Decentralisation

Educational leaders in every country operate within a legislative and policy framework set by government. These frameworks differ along a number of overlapping dimensions:

- Centralisation and decentralisation
- System and school-level decision-making
- Hierarchy and stakeholder participation
- Autonomy and accountability
- Sufficient scope for leaders to act but within an agreed framework

The Malaysia Education Blueprint (Ministry of Education 2012) addresses all these issues.

Malaysia Education Blueprint

The Malaysia Education Blueprint is an ambitious and wide-ranging document, which analyses Malaysia's current educational status and sets out strategies for development. All governments scrutinise the international comparative tables on learner outcomes. This is a sensible recognition of the need to have a highly educated workforce to compete in a global knowledge-based economy. The Blueprint shows that Malaysia's educational performance was below average in the 2009 PISA rankings, in reading, mathematics and science, despite education spending being above the OECD average. The countries and territories performing best in these rankings are mostly in Asia; China (Shanghai), Korea, Hong Kong,

Singapore, and Japan. The only consistently high performing country outside Asia is Finland (PISA 2009).

It is tempting to emulate the practices in these very successful nations. England, for example, has sent educational task forces to China and Finland, to try to establish why they are successful, but the reasons differ and it is hard to develop an international template for success. Every country has its own culture and contextual variables, which makes policy borrowing unwise. In China, there is very high parental commitment to education, which means that children spend a high proportion of their time (in and out of school) learning. In Finland, the best graduates are attracted into the teaching profession, rather than law, engineering or medicine, and all prospective teachers must be educated to master's level.

The Blueprint does not succumb to the temptation to model the Malaysian education system on these high performing systems. However, it does set out five 'system aspirations':

- Access
- Quality
- Equity
- Unity
- Efficiency

These are worthy aspirations. In particular, they address inequitable outcomes for boys (a global problem), in rural areas, and for children from poorer families (see also Dahlan et al 2010 and Othman and Muijs 2013).

Factors Affecting Learner Outcomes

The international literature (e.g. Leithwood et al 2006, Robinson 2007) discusses the four main factors which influence learner outcomes. These are:

- Socio-economic factors, including class, gender, race and ethnicity, and school context).
- Structure of the education system, including support and resources.
- Classroom teaching, notably teacher quality and commitment.
- School leadership, including scope, quality and training.

All these issues are addressed in the Blueprint.

WHAT IS SCHOOL LEADERSHIP?

School leadership is an internal function, which embraces all aspects devolved to school level. As noted above, education systems vary in the extent to which they devolve decision-making to school leaders. A wider scope makes good use of school leaders' talents, knowledge and skills, and provides the potential for innovation and creativity. According to Caldwell (2008), schools are the centre of

change and significant levels of devolution increase the prospects for enhanced school and student outcomes. However, many education systems prefer a more centralised model, as this provides greater consistency across schools and adherence to central policies. The weakness of excessive centralisation, though, is that school leaders may become over cautious and look to the Ministry of Education to solve every problem. I will provide a Malaysian example of this problem in a later section of the paper.

Who are School Leaders?

School leadership has traditionally been configured as a solo activity, with the principal having the decisive role, especially within hierarchical systems. However, there is increasing recognition that it should be a shared function, with other leaders supporting the principal. While principals are ubiquitous, found in all education systems, other levels of leadership vary across countries. Increasingly, though, deputy and/or assistant principals can be found, and most nations have middle leaders, who typically exercise a subject management role. In many countries, leaders work together in senior leadership or management teams (Bush and Glover 2012, Bush and Glover 2013a). Team work, when it is effective, strengthens and broadens leadership and provides a coherent and consistent message about school policies and decisions (Bush and Glover 2012).

Another important consideration is that leadership is defined as 'influence' and is not confined to those with formal managerial roles. Wise leaders encourage the growth of informal leadership, for example through teacher leaders, as it provides greater leadership density and avoids excessive pressure on the principal.

School Leadership and the Malaysian Education Blueprint

According to Madden (2009), Malaysian school leadership is modelled on England. This seems to include the introduction of the National Professional Qualification for Educational Leadership (NPQEL), based on the English National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH). The Blueprint reflects the importance of leadership in raising learner outcomes but it is very ambitious in its intention that every school will have a high performing principal. I am not aware of any education system where this is the case. The Blueprint signals an intention to work towards this aim in several ways:

- Tenure-based selection will be replaced by a process which focuses on the demonstration of leadership competences.
- Every principal will be required to complete NPQEL before they can be appointed.
- The Ministry will institute a succession planning process that identifies and cultivates high potential individuals.

- The leadership base will be strengthened with assistant principals, subject heads and department heads being developed as instructional leaders in their own right.

These are all sensible policies which should contribute to improving the overall standard of leadership in Malaysia's school but they would not be enough to ensure high performance in every school. The decision to provide coaching for under-performing principals, and to redeploy those who consistently underperform as teachers in another school, suggests a 'carrot and stick' approach and a determination to address weak leadership.

These leadership strategies have also been employed in other education systems. More countries are requiring that their leaders are trained before appointment (e.g. Canada, France, Scotland, Singapore, South Africa, United States and Wales) but this decision has recently been reversed in England (Bush 2013a). England recently instituted a succession planning process, intended to improve the supply and quality of leaders (Bush 2011, 2012). As noted above, developing other senior and middle leaders also contributes to enhanced leadership density and quality. Coaching and mentoring are widely used to develop school principals (Bush 2008). Only Singapore deals with under-performance by downgrading principals, although England may close under-performing schools, leading to the principals losing their jobs.

Overall, the package of measure signalled in the Blueprint has the potential to make a significant positive impact on leadership quality, as a step to system transformation.

Models of School Leadership

High performing principals generally deploy a range of leadership approaches, based on careful assessment of the school context and the situation being addressed. Eight of these theories are reviewed in this section, drawing on Leithwood et al (1999), Bush (2011), and Bush and Glover (2013b).

Instructional leadership

The Blueprint stresses the importance of instructional leadership, which emphasises teaching and learning as the core activities of educational institutions. The emphasis is on the direction and impact of influence rather than the influence process itself.

> *'Instructional leadership . . . typically assumes that the critical focus for attention by leaders is the behaviour of teachers as they engage in activities directly affecting the growth of students' (Leithwood et al 1999: 8).*

Instructional leadership is the longest established concept linking leadership and learning. However, several other terms may be used to describe this relationship, including pedagogic leadership and leadership for learning. However, instructional leadership has been criticised on two grounds. First, it is perceived to be primarily concerned with teaching rather than learning (Bush 2013b). Second, it is focused too much on the principal as the centre of expertise, power and authority' (Hallinger 2003: 330). As a consequence, it tends to ignore or underplay the role of other leaders such as deputy principals, middle managers, leadership teams, and classroom teachers. Lambert (2002: 37) notes that 'the days of the lone instructional leader are over. We no longer believe that one administrator can serve as the instructional leader for the entire school without the substantial participation of other educators'. The Blueprint recognizes this point by its focus on the instructional role of other senior and middle leaders.

Managerial leadership

Managerial leadership assumes that the focus of leaders ought to be on functions, tasks and behaviours and that, if these functions are carried out competently, the work of others in the organisation will be facilitated. Leithwood et al (2009: 15) say that 'there is evidence of considerable support in the literature and among practicing leaders for managerial approaches to leadership'. Managerial leadership is often found in centralised systems, as principals focus their attention on responding to the demands of the bureaucracy, rather than the needs of their learners and stakeholders. Principals derive their authority from their position rather than their expertise as educational leaders (Bush 2011a). The Blueprint refers to this model as 'administrative leadership.

Transformational Leadership

This form of leadership assumes that higher levels of personal commitment to organisational goals, and greater capacities for accomplishing those goals, are assumed to result in extra effort and greater productivity (Leithwood et al 1999: 9). Leithwood's (1994: 506) research concludes that transformational leadership practices had significant direct and indirect effects on progress with school-restructuring initiatives and teacher-perceived student outcomes. The transformational model focuses primarily on the process by which leaders seek to influence school outcomes rather than on the nature or direction of those outcomes. However, transformational language is also used by governments to encourage, or require, practitioners to adopt and implement centrally-determined policies. Capacity building is essential if principals are to become effective transformational leaders, as the Blueprint implies.

Moral leadership

The moral leadership model is based on the values, beliefs and ethics of leaders. Authority and influence are derived from defensible conceptions of what is right or

good (Leithwood et al, 1999: 10). Several other terms have also been used to describe values-based leadership, including ethical, authentic and spiritual leadership. West-Burnham (1997: 241) says that moral leadership requires the capacity to act in a way that is consistent with an ethical system. While most people can identify with a moral approach to leadership, it is not always easy to enact, as I shall show later. It should also be noted that both moral and managerial leadership are required. 'The challenge of leadership is to make peace with two competing imperatives, the managerial and the moral. The two imperatives are unavoidable and the neglect of either creates problems' (Sergiovanni 1991: 329).

Participative leadership

Hoyle and Wallace (2005: 124) say that participation refers to 'the opportunities that staff members have for engaging in the process of organizational decision-making'. This model is based on the assumptions that participation is justified by democratic principles and by the belief that it will increase school effectiveness. Participative leadership has been superseded by distributed leadership in much of the literature.

Distributed leadership

Distributed leadership has become the normatively preferred leadership model in the 21st century. Harris (2010: 55) states that it 'represents one of the most influential ideas to emerge in the field of educational leadership in the past decade'. An important starting point for understanding distributed leadership is to uncouple it from positional authority. As Harris (2004: 13) indicates, 'distributed leadership concentrates on engaging expertise wherever it exists within the organization rather than seeking this only through formal position or role'. This means that it is not easy to accommodate within traditional hierarchical structures. Heads and principals retain much of the formal authority in schools, leading Hartley (2010: 82) to conclude that 'distributed leadership resides uneasily within the formal bureaucracy of schools'. However, as schools gain more autonomy, as indicated in the Blueprint, a distributed approach may be just as valid as formal managerial leadership. Gronn's (2010: 77) 'hybrid' model of leadership may offer the potential to harness the best of both individual and distributed approaches.

Teacher leadership

There are clear links between teacher leadership and distributed leadership. Frost (2008: 337) characterises the former as involving shared leadership, teachers' leadership of development work, teachers' knowledge building, and teachers' voice. Muijs and Harris's (2007: 961) research in three UK schools showed that 'teacher leadership was seen to empower teachers, and contributed to school improvement through this empowerment and the spreading of good practice and initiatives generated by teachers'. They conclude that 'teacher leadership requires active

steps to be taken to constitute leadership teams and provide teachers with leadership roles. A culture of trust and collaboration is essential' (ibid: 126).

Contingent leadership

The models of leadership examined above are all partial. They provide valid and helpful insights into one particular aspect of leadership. None of these models provide a complete picture of school leadership. As Lambert (1995: 2) notes, there is 'no single best type'. The contingent model provides an alternative approach, recognizing the diverse nature of school contexts, and the advantages of adapting leadership styles to the particular situation, rather than adopting a 'one size fits all' stance. As Vanderhaar, Munoz and Rodosky (2007) suggest, leadership is contingent on the setting. Leadership requires effective diagnosis of problems, followed by adopting the most appropriate response to the issue or situation (Morgan 1997).

IMPLICATIONS FOR SCHOOL LEADERS

The leadership typology discussed in this paper provides many clues for heads, senior and middle leaders, and senior leadership teams. Managerial leadership, operating through the hierarchy, can mandate clearly targeted change, such as a stronger focus on examination and test scores. However, this often depends on a single leader and may not lead to sustainable change. Transformational leadership approaches aim to widen commitment to school-wide objectives, through the development of shared vision, but the 'vision' is often that of the head or principal with acquiescence, rather than genuine commitment, from teachers and other staff.

The limitations of the hierarchy have led to a plethora of alternative models; participative, distributed and teacher leadership, which are all designed to broaden leadership and to stress lateral as well as vertical relationships. These are often manifested in team-based structures. Bush and Glover's (2012) study of high performing senior leadership teams showed their value in providing coherence and leadership 'density'.

While there are different approaches to leadership and management, a focus on leadership for learning, or 'instructional leadership', is an essential element for successful schooling, as the Blueprint advocates. Contingent leadership suggests that a flexible approach is required but attention to leadership for learning should be non-negotiable.

Enacting Instructional Leadership

The Blueprint's emphasis on instructional leadership echoes much of the international research and literature. However, relatively little guidance is available for principals and other leaders seeking to adopt this approach (Bush 2013b).

Hallinger and Heck (1999) argue that learning-centred leaders influence learning and teaching in three ways:

1. *Directly, by personal intervention*
   This may be enacted through their own teaching, or through modelling good practice.

2. *Reciprocally, by their work alongside other teachers*
   This may be enacted through classroom observation and constructive feedback.

3. *Indirectly, via other staff*
   This may be enacted, for example, through dialogue with teachers.

The third approach is the most common because it is usually teachers, not principals, who work directly with learners in the classroom. Instructional leaders may be engaged in monitoring and evaluation of learning.

Southworth (2004: 79) says that monitoring includes analysing and acting on students' progress and outcome data, for example assessment and test scores. 'Leadership is stronger when it is informed by data on students' learning, progress and achievements as well as by direct knowledge of teaching practices and classroom dynamics' (p.79). He adds that monitoring involves visiting classrooms, observing teachers at work and providing them with feedback. The English Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) (2003) found that there was a very strong link between good monitoring and good teaching. Southworth (ibid: 80) adds that 'monitoring classrooms is now an accepted part of leadership'. He concludes that monitoring is a widely distributed role, including head teachers, deputies and heads of department.

As noted above, evaluation means assessing teaching and learning at a strategic level, for example through analysing examination and test scores, and devising strategies for improvement. This should be addressed on a whole-school basis and at the level of individual learning areas. An effective evaluation programme would:

- Provide a systematic review of performance across learning areas, with an appraisal of the reasons for perceived under-performance. These reasons should go beyond 'blame the learner' responses to a careful assessment of how educators and leaders can work towards improved outcomes.
- Devise context-based strategies to enhance learner outcomes. These might include professional development for educators, modelling of good practice by effective teachers, and monitoring the performance of less effective educators.
- Address within-school variation (see below) by asking more successful educators and managers to mentor those who are less successful.

(Bush and Glover 2009)

Within-school variation

It is widely recognised that the school's context has a significant impact on learner outcomes. As noted in the Blueprint, socio-economic factors, gender, and rural/urban differences, influence examination and test scores. There are no such contextual constraints when comparing outcomes across learning areas *within* a school. One important aspect of evaluation, therefore, is analysis of within-school variation. Leaders should carry out a forensic analysis of differences across subjects and act on the findings. Reynolds (2007: 18) stresses that there should be a collegial approach to addressing within-school variation, leading to a clear focus on teaching and learning. This requires the development of high-quality observational systems.

Observation

O'Sullivan (2006: 253) stresses that educational quality can only be improved if there is systematic observation of what is happening in the classroom. Observation may be used for teacher development or as a tool for teacher assessment or performance management. A teacher development focus targets the improvement of teaching and learning while a performance management approach is more instrumental, seeking to 'weed out' inadequate teachers. Observation needs to be seen as a formative process, intended to raise standards of classroom practice, if it is to gain the co-operation of educators, but O'Sullivan (2006: 258) comments that much observation is assessment and performance-management driven.

Observation needs to be regarded as a 'normal' aspect of school management if it is to become embedded. This is likely to require a paradigm shift in many schools, prompted by firm but supportive leadership. One way for principals to encourage acceptance of observation is to invite educators to observe their own teaching, a form of reflective practice, and to provide feedback. Some principals may lack the confidence to do this, but it does provide the potential to 'model' good classroom practice (Bush and Glover 2009).

Modelling

Where teachers' pedagogic skills are weak, monitoring alone is unlikely to be effective in raising standards. Identifying aspects needing improvement is only a starting point. Good feedback is essential but this may need to be supported by professional development. While workshops may help to improve classroom teaching, modelling of good practice by the principal, or another senior leader, is more likely to be produce favourable outcomes.

Southworth (2004: 78) claims that 'modelling is all about the power of example'. Successful leaders are aware that they must set an example and use their actions to show how colleagues should behave. The concept of 'role model'

underpins this approach. 'Learning-centred leaders are role models to others because they are interested in learning, teaching and classrooms' (ibid: 79). Modelling provides the potential for demonstrating good practice and generalising it throughout the school. I noted earlier that China is ranked highly in the PISA rankings of learner performance. Their middle managers make extensive use of modelling and observation to raise standards of teaching and learning (Bush, Coleman and Si 1998).

Autonomy and Accountability

The Education Blueprint signals enhanced school autonomy, notably in respect of operational decision-making, including budget allocation and curriculum implementation. This shift is consistent with the international evidence that autonomous schools are more likely to succeed than those constrained by the external bureaucracy. However, much depends on the extent of autonomy and international evidence shows a wide range of practice (Caldwell 2008). The Blueprint states that all schools and districts must remain aligned to the Ministry's strategic priorities. It also refers to tailored district 'support' for schools. Light touch support is consistent with school autonomy but a heavier touch may compromise it. As with many large-scale policy initiatives, the 'devil is in the detail'. The Blueprint also stresses that autonomy will be accompanied by 'sharper accountability' for school principals. This is a common feature of devolution programmes (Glatter 2012), but high performing systems ensure that heightened accountability is focused on outcomes, not on process, which should be left to school leaders to determine.

Successful autonomous schools also require a paradigm shift in the behaviour of leaders. Principals who are used to operating as administrative leaders, within a strong hierarchy, may lack the confidence to operate in a different way. During my August visit to Malaysia, I was struck by a news item in the New Straits Times. A principal was considering whether to allow students to use e-cigarettes on school premises and planned to seek guidelines from the Ministry of Education. There are two major leadership issues arising from this case. First, there is a clear moral issue. Should principals allow minors to imbibe a highly addictive drug on school premises? I am clear about the answer to this, as I hope you are. Second, there is an issue of leadership scope. Why does the principal need to seek guidelines on an issue which clearly requires a school-based decision? The answer is that some principals have become so dependent on the external bureaucracy that they fail to use even the limited discretion they currently enjoy. A change of mindset is required for potentially autonomous schools and leaders to overcome such timidity.

The Impact of School Leadership

As noted above, and in the Education Blueprint, the most important school-based factors influencing learner outcomes are classroom teaching and school leadership. The Blueprint states that an outstanding principal, focused on instructional, not

administrative, leadership, can raise student outcomes by as much as 20%. The widely-cited research by Leithwood et al (2006) goes further, showing that 'total leadership accounted for a quite significant 27 per cent variation in student achievement across schools'. Robinson (2007) endorses the Blueprint's view about the importance of instructional leadership. Based on a meta-analysis of relevant research, she shows that the closer leaders are to classroom teaching and learning, the greater their impact on student outcomes. Leithwood et al (2010) also stress the importance of leaders engaging with families in order to address, rather than simply to accept, the socio-economic factors which often undermine learner progress.

Developing School Leaders

The Education Blueprint identifies the training and development implications of the reform agenda. This has a number of highly significant aspects:

- Aspiring principals will require the NPQEL.
- Soon-to-be-appointed principals will spend one month under the mentorship of the principal who will be leaving.
- They will also receive coaching and mentoring from an experienced principal or district School Improvement Partner (SIP).
- Existing principals will receive extra coaching if their schools under-perform.

These measures collectively suggest a comprehensive approach to the considerable training needs which inevitably arise from the Government's ambitious plans. It will also require a substantial increase in the capacity of the IAB, and of school districts.

Hallinger (2003: 342) notes that 'there has been an unprecedented global commitment among government agencies toward principal training', so the plans articulated in the Blueprint are consistent with good international practice. Hallinger (ibid) also stresses that 'the focus of much of this training is towards instructional leadership'. A programme to develop instructional leaders requires three fundamental elements:

- A strong and lasting focus on teaching and learning as the main purpose of schooling.
- Skills development to enable principals and other school leaders to model good practice and to monitor and evaluate classroom activities.
- A commitment to openness, dialogue and distributed leadership, recognising that expertise may be independent of formal hierarchies.

(Bush and Glover 2009)

CONCLUSION: TOWARDS EXCELLENT LEADERSHIP

The international research evidence, and the Malaysia Education Blueprint, both show that effective leadership is central to successful schooling. The Blueprint foreshadows a number of significant measures designed to transform learner outcomes. The international literature shows that principals require sufficient scope to enact leadership across a range of dimensions, and the Blueprint signals an important step in that direction. Just as important is a change of mind-set, so that principals are confident to exercise the powers they have now and are likely to acquire. Linked to this is the need for principals to encourage other leaders to use their own initiative to promote school improvement, notably in respect of instructional leadership, and not for them to seek prior approval for every change. Within and beyond schools, traditional 'top-down' leadership has to be modified to allow 'bottom-up' innovation and lateral decision-making. Developing current and aspiring principals and leaders to act in this way is the key to the success of the Government's ambitious reform agenda.

REFERENCES

Bush, T. (2008), *Leadership and Management Development in Education*, London, Sage.

Bush, T. (2011a), *Theories of Educational Management: Fourth Edition,* London, Sage.

Bush, T. (2011b), 'Succession planning in England: New leaders and new forms of leadership', *School Leadership and Management*, 31 (3): 181-198

Bush, T. (2011c), 'Succession planning and leadership development: Comparing English and South African approaches, *Compare,* 41 (6): 785-800

Bush, T. (2013a), 'Preparing headteachers in England: Professional certification, not academic learning', *Educational Management, Administration and Leadership*, 41 (4): 453-465.

Bush, T. (2013b), Instructional leadership and leadership for learning: Global and South African Perspectives, *Education as Change*

Bush, T. and Glover, D. (2009), *Managing Teaching and Learning: A Concept Paper,* Johannesburg, MGSLG.

Bush, T. and Glover, D. (2012), 'Distributed leadership in action: Leading high performing leadership teams in English schools', *School Leadership and Management,* 32 (1): 21-36.

Bush, T. and Glover, D. (2013a), 'School management teams in South Africa: A survey of school leaders in the Mpumalanga province', *International Studies in Educational Administration*, 41 (1): 21-40.

Bush, T. and Glover, D. (2013b), *School Leadership: Concepts and Evidence*, Nottingham: National College for Teaching and Leadership.

Bush, T., Coleman, M. and Si, X. (1998), Managing secondary schools in China, *Compare,* 28 (2), 183-196.

Caldwell, B. (2008), 'Reconceptualising the self-managing school', *Educational Management, Administration and Leadership*, 36 (2): 235-252.
Dahlan, N., Noor, N., Mustafa, S., Hashim, K and Zulkifli, V. (2010), Exploring the gender gap in achievement in Malaysia: A case for learning styles, *The International Journal of Learning*, 17 (4)
Frost, D. (2008), 'Teacher leadership: values and voice', *School Leadership and Management*, 28 (4): 337-352.
Glatter, R. (2012), 'Persistent preoccupations: The rise and rise of school autonomy and accountability in England, *Educational Management, Administration and Leadership*, 40 (5): 559-575.
Gronn, P. (2010), 'Where to next for educational leadership?', in Bush, T., Bell, L. and Middlewood, D. (Eds.), *The Principles of Educational Leadership and Management*, London, Sage.
Hallinger, P. (2003), 'Leading educational change: Reflections on the practice of instructional and transformational leadership, *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 33 (3): 329-350.
Hallinger, P. and Heck, R. (2010), 'Leadership for learning: Does distributed leadership make a difference in student learning? *Educational Management, Administration and Leadership,* 38 (6): 654-678.
Harris, A. (2004) 'Distributed leadership in schools: leading or misleading?' *Educational Management, Administration and Leadership,* 32 (1): 11-24.
Harris, A. (2010), 'Distributed leadership: Evidence and implications', in Bush, T., Bell, L. and Middlewood, D. (Eds.), *The Principles of Educational Leadership and Management*, London, Sage.
Hartley, D. (2010), 'Paradigms: How far does research in distributed leadership "stretch"', *Educational Management, Administration and Leadership,* 38 (3): 271-285.
Hoyle, E. and Wallace, M. (2005), *Educational Leadership: Ambiguity, Professionals and Managerialism*, London, Sage.
Lambert, L. (1995), 'New directions in the preparation of educational leaders', *Thrust for Educational Leadership*, 24 (5), 6-10.
Lambert, L. (2002), 'A framework for shared leadership', *Educational Leadership*, 59 (8): 37-40.
Leithwood, K. (1994) 'Leadership for school restructuring', *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 30 (4): 498–518.
Leithwood, K., Jantzi, D. and Steinbach, R. (1999) *Changing Leadership for Changing Times*, Buckingham: Open University Press.
Leithwood, K., Day, C., Sammons, P., Harris, A. and Hopkins, D. (2006), *Seven Strong Claims about Successful School Leadership,* London, DfES.
Leithwood, K., Anderson, S., Mascall, B. and Strauss, T. (2010), 'School leaders' influences on student learning: The four paths', in Bush, T., Bell, L. and Middlewood, D. (Eds.), *The Principles of Educational Leadership and Management*, London, Sage.
Madden, K. (2009), 'You're the best, Malaysia tells England, *Times Educational Supplement*, 19.

Ministry of Education (2012), *Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025*, Kuala Lumpur, Ministry of Education.
Morgan, G. (1997), *Images of Organisation*, Newbury Park, CA, Sage.
Muijs, D. and Harris, A. (2007), 'Teacher leadership in (in)action: Three case studies of contrasting schools', *Educational Management, Administration and Leadership*, 35 (1): 111-134.
Office for Standards in Education (2003), *Leadership and Management: What Inspection Tells Us?* London, Ofsted.
O'Sullivan, M. (2006) Lesson observation and quality in primary education as contextual teaching and learning processes, *International Journal of Educational Development, 26,* 246-260.
Othman, M. and Muijs, D. (2013), Educational quality differences in a middle-income country: The urban-rural gap in Malaysian primary schools, *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 24 (1): 104-121.
Programme for International Student Assessment (2009), *PISA International Rankings,* Paris, OECD.
Reynolds, D. (2007), *Schools Learning from their Best: the Within School Variation project,* Nottingham, NCSL.
Robinson, V. (2007), *School Leadership and Student Outcomes: Identifying What Works and Why,* Winmalee, New South Wales, Australian Council of Leaders.
Sergiovanni, T. J. (1991), *The Principalship: A Reflective Practice Perspective*, Needham Heights, MA, Allyn Bacon.
Southworth, G. (2004), 'Learning-centred leadership', in Davies, B. (ed.), *The Essentials of School Leadership,* London, Paul Chapman Publishing.
Vanderhaar, J.E., Munoz, M. and Rodosky, R. (2007), 'Leadership as accountability for learning: The effects of school poverty, teacher experience, previous achievement and principal preparation programs on student achievement', *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education,* 19 (1 & 2): 17-33.
West-Burnham, J. (1997), 'Leadership for learning: Re-engineering "mind sets"', *School Leadership and Management*, 17 (2): 231-243.

PART II

ENGLISH PAPERS PRESENTED

PERSONAL QUALITIES OF AUTHENTIC SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Ahmed Adeel Naseer
Abdul Aziz Nor
Takeyuki Ueyama

Sultan Hassanal Bolkiah Institute of Education (SHBIE)
University Brunei Darussalam (UBD)

ABSTRACT

Even though authenticity goes back to couples of decades, authentic leadership falls back to just more than a decade. Many scholars write on authentic leadership and what it constitutes. However, so far no research based clear construct of authentic leadership is formed. The notion of authentic leadership has not fully come into the school setting. This paper analysed the personal qualities of authentic school-principals. For this purpose, seven school principals in Brunei Darussalam were selected. Episodic interviews were conducted with all the principals. In addition, semi-structured interviews were also carried out with people who work with the principals (including teachers, colleagues and senior officers) as validation measure. Thematic analysis was used to analyse personal qualities of authentic school principals. The findings revealed baseline qualities which mark the entry point of authentic principalship.

Keywords: *educational leadership, authenticity, authentic leadership, leader personality*

INTRODUCTION

Schools have become more complex than many people have ever wondered. They have drastically changed from traditional transactional systems to modern transformational systems. In the traditional systems of education, learners (i.e. students) were very much alienated from the major elements of learning, especially the curriculum (Salimi & Ghonoodi, 2011).Twenty-first century schools have shifted from knowledge transferring institutions to a level that schools are considered as complex (Neubauer, 2008),living (Senge, 2000)and intelligent (MacGilchrist, Myers, & Reed, 2004) communities within communities (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2010).

This transformation of schools from society-alienation to community-collaboration has forced educational/school leaders to go beyond management and facilitation (Ordones, 2008) and be more diverse and innovative (Hershock, 2008) in their professional practice. Leaders are forced to get directly involved in the wellbeing of the community (Goddard, 2003).School principals need to come out from their allocated space and participate in both internal and external activities

related to the school. They are expected to get actively involved in the instruction, which is their core business (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2010). Simultaneously, they are expected to give adequate input in taking the schools out into the communities and taking the communities into the schools. In short, they are expected to unify community goals and individual goals (ibid).

There were some school principals who showed high level of commitment in the initial stages of their career, and showed great improvements in their performance for a duration of time. However, after a few years, not only they start falling in their performances, but also ruin the whole institution in no time (Avolio, 2010). This sometimes causes these leaders to transfer to other schools, take a long break away from the system, or in very severe cases move out of the system.

It is also a common phenomenon to see publications on local and global media about ethical violations by the leaders (Neider & Schriesheim, 2011).This is not an exception for school principals. Some school principals and school staff are also accused of corruption, abusing of power, deceiving ministry and public, and most importantly, working for personal gain. Some exceptional leaders are also involved with this infringement.

This shows that there is something missing in renowned styles of leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). (Refer Avolio and Gardner, 2005, for a clear account of the differentiation between authentic leadership theory and other related leadership theories.) For instance, transformational leadership which focuses on positive and moral traits are primarily targeted on the transformation of the organization, people, resources, etc. However, the principals would be in trouble if s/he is not able to align his transformative ideas with that of the teachers. Critical questions like "Are the followers ready to be transformed?" and "Does the system and culture allow them to be transformed?" emerged.

As a result, authentic leadership emerges into the literature of leadership as to "responds to many of the concerns about the lack of honesty and integrity" (Duignan & Bhindi, 1997, p. 208). Even though some scholars see it as a root construct for all other forms of leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Luthans, Norman, & Hughes, 2006), the construct of authentic leadership is yet ambiguous (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner, Cogliser, Davis, & Dickens, 2011). For instance, Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans and May (2004, p. 806) raise some important questions about authentic leadership: "What constitutes authentic leadership? What behavio[u]rs constitute acts of authentic leadership? How can authentic leadership and followership be developed?"

These concerns of authentic leadership would exist in school principalship too. If authentic leadership works in other organizations, authentic principalship is essential in school setting, in order to cater for the social, political, professional and academic concerns. Therefore, in this continuously changing process of education, there is an urge to study authentic leadership in school settings; to identify what constitutes

authentic school principalship. Since it is assumed that authentic leader in one setting/field cannot necessarily be authentic in another setting/field (Shamir & Eilam, 2005). Most literature written on authentic leadership is in the area of corporate businesses. Therefore, this study of authentic principalship in school setting is indeed noteworthy.

LITERATURE

In the past few decades, the perspective of education has changed greatly. Traditionally education was passive that students were expected to absorb whatever the teachers said (Salimi & Ghonoodi, 2011). However, globalisation in the modern world requires education "to shift from passive modes of knowledge transmission – knower to learner – to active modes of knowledge engagement – learner to learner" (Neubauer, 2008, p. 56). Teachers are not any more considered as masters of everything, but continuous self-learners. Students are no more seen as masters of nothing, but potential explorers. Education needs to develop citizens beyond village/national level to global orientation (Mason, 2008). Contemporary globalisation has a great effect on the world's educational navigation (Dimmock & Walker, 2005; Hawkins, 2008), and thus force a change in school context.

As the type and nature of schools in the past are not able to justify and remedy the issues in the 21st century (Kis & Konan, 2010), there is a deep desire for schools to change from industrial teaching/learning models to organic models (MacGilchrist, Myers, & Reed, 2004). Today, schools are considered as unique (Sergiovanni, 2001), complex (Kis & Konan, 2010), living (Senge, 2000), intelligent (MacGilchrist, Myers, & Reed, 2004) communities (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2010). Thus, modern schools require more value based leadership, which is a "sophisticated, knowledge-based, and skilful approach", rather than traditional "mechanistic, short-sighted, precedent focused and context-constrained practice" (Begley, 2001, p. 354). The school principals are expected to be ethical, spiritual, contextual, operational, emotional, collegial, reflective, pedagogical and systemic (MacGilchrist, Myers, & Reed, 2004). They are further required to go beyond transactional, charismatic, instructional or spiritual (etc.) leadership styles to a more genuine or authentic form of leadership (authentic leadership).

Authenticity is a term related to Greek philosophy, in which it means "To thine own self be true" (Luthans & Avolio, 2003) and originated from the word *authento*, which means "to have full power"(Gardner, Cogliser, Davis, & Dickens, 2011). The historical meaning of authenticity can be identified in terms of philosophy and psychology (Novicevic, Harvey, Buckley, Brown, & Evans, 2006). "Philosophical meanings of authenticity have been historically articulated in terms of individual virtues and ethical choices, while psychological meaning of authenticity have been historically articulated in terms of individual traits/states and identities" (p. 65).This search for the historical meaning of authenticity encompasses four interrelated key components: "[self] awareness, unbiased processing, [authentic] behavio[u]r, and relational orientation" (Kernis & Goldman, 2006, p. 344).

Even though the concept of authenticity dates back to couples of decades, leadership authenticity has become a major focus among the leadership scholars only since the past decade (Gardner, Cogliser, Davis, & Dickens, 2011). Despite authenticity in leadership being still an emerging paradigm of leadership (Duignan & Bhindi, 1997), many definitions of authentic leadership can be identified today. Below are some of the significant definitions of authentic leadership from views of metaphor, process and pattern of behaviour.

"Authentic leadership may be thought of as a metaphor for professionally effective, ethically sound, and consciously reflective practices in educational administration. This is leadership that is knowledge based, values informed, and skilfully executed." (Begley, 2001, p. 353)

"Specifically, we define authentic leadership in organizations as a process that draws from both psychological capacities and a highly developed organizational context, which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behavio[u]rs on the part of the leaders and associates, fostering positive self-development." (Luthans & Avolio, 2003, p. 243)

"Our definition of authentic leadership included the authentication of the leader by the followers, namely the judgment by followers that the leader's claim for leadership is based on personally held deep values and convictions rather than on mere conventions of an appointed office or the desire for personal power, status or other benefits, and that the leader's behavior[u]rs are consistent with his or her beliefs, values and convictions."(Shamir & Eilam, 2005, p. 408)

"We define authentic leadership as a pattern of leader behavio[u]r that draws upon and promotes both positive psychological capacities, an internalized moral perspective, balanced processing of information, and relational transparency on the part of the leaders working with followers, fostering positive self-development." (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008,p. 94)

The definitions of authentic leadership can be classified into intrapersonal (Shamir & Eilam, 2005), interpersonal (Gardner, Avolio, May, & Walumbwa, 2005) and developmental (Avolio & Gardner, 2005) definitions (Northouse, 2013).In general, whatever wordings the scholars choose to define authentic leadership, all the definitions and concepts of authentic leadership describes it as genuine-leadership, which underlies all the other components and aspects of it. This does not mean that authentic leaders are necessarily perfect people (without any weakness), but "genuine people who are true to themselves and to what they believe in" (George & Sims, 2007, p. xxxi).

The breath of authentic leadership has widened to many aspects and components. The core theory of authentic leadership converges around four main components

(Mazutis, 2013). They are self-awareness, relational transparency, balanced processing, and internalised moral perspective (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner, Avolio, May, & Walumbwa, 2005; Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008), which are based on Kenis's (2003) components – awareness, unbiased procesing, (authentic) action/behaviour and relational orientation (Kernis, 2003; Kernis & Goldman, 2006). Subsequently, Avolio and Gardner (2005) have identified ten major components and related subcomponents of authentic leadership (Refer Table 1).

Table 1: *Components and related subcomponents of Authentic Leadership Theory*

Components	**Related Subcomponents**
Positive psychological capital	-
Positive moral perspective	-
Leader self-awareness	Values
	Cognitions
	Emotions
Leader self-regulation	Internalised
	Balanced processing
	Relational transparency
	Authentic behaviour
Leadership process/behaviour	Positive modelling
	Personal and social identification
	Emotional contagion
	Supporting self-determination
	Positive social exchange
Follower self-awareness	Values
	Cognition
	Emotions
Follower self-regulation	Internalised
	Balanced processing
	Relational transparency
	Authentic behaviour
Follower development	-
Organizational context	Uncertainty
	Inclusion
	Ethical
	Positive, strengths-based
Performance	Veritable
	Sustained
	Beyond expectation

Source: Avolio and Gardner (2005, p. 323)

Positive psychological capital: This is part of the human capital. It indicates the psychological readiness of the organisation manpower in achieving personal, organizational, national and global goals. Psychological capital "is an individual's

positive psychological state of development and is characterised by self-efficacy – confidence to succeed; optimism – realistic and flexible; hope – the will and the way; and resiliency – bouncing back and beyond (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007, p. 3). These positive psychological states increase self-awareness and self-regulatory behaviours (Avolio & Gardner, 2005), and help in the development of positive work environment (Wooley, Caza, & Levy, 2011) and employee creativity (Rego, Sousa, Marques, & Cunha, 2012).

Positive moral perspective: Authentic leadership includes of an ethical/moral perspective (Luthans & Avolio, 2003).It is not only one of its innate components (Avolio & Gardner, 2005), but which fosters its development (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008). Authentic leaders judge issues ethically and transparently by using their moral-capital, which includes moral-capacity, moral-efficacy, moral-courage and moral-resiliency, in order to act authentically and achieve sustained authentic behaviour (May, Chan, Hodges, & Avolio, 2003).

Self-awareness: In authentic leadership, self-awareness of both leader and followers play an essential role. Even though London (2002) sees self-awareness as situational, with regard to authentic leadership, it goes beyond situations to what London refers to as self-insight and self-identity. Understanding oneself is a continuous process of identifying ones strengths and weaknesses of personal identity, goals, motives, beliefs, attitudes, values and emotions (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner, Avolio, May, & Walumbwa, 2005; Kernis, 2003; Kernis & Goldman, 2006). "Authentic leaders remain cognizant of their own vulnerabilities and openly discuss with associates" (Luthans & Avolio, 2003, p. 248) in order to gain self-awareness, which is "a key for change in leadership development" (p. 257).

Self-regulation: Similar to self-awareness, self-regulation of the leader and followers positively affect one another and is important for authenticity. Self-regulation, which stems from self-awareness or self-insight (London, 2002) is the "process through which authentic leaders align values with their intentions and actions" (Avolio & Gardner, 2005, p. 325). This process of achieving autonomy (Ryan & Deci, 2006) includes of components that define authentic leadership (Gardner, Avolio, May, & Walumbwa, 2005). These components are internalisation of regulation, balanced (unbiased) processing, relational transparency and authentic behaviour (ibid; Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Deep self-regulation ensures the reliability of one's words and validity of one's actions (Sparrowe, 2005).

Leadership process: This can be described as the leader's behavioural steps carried out in influencing self-development and followers towards the intended motives, goals and standards. This process of leadership depends on many other authentic leadership components, such as self-awareness, self-regulation, psychological capital and positive moral perspective. Leadership process comprises of many activities, through which leaders influence follower and develop them (Avolio & Gardner, 2005) through positive role modelling (Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005; Gardner, Avolio, May, &Walumbwa, 2005); personal and social

identification (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004; Ilies, Morgeson, &Nahrgang, 2005); emotional influence (Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005); positive social exchange (ibid); and supporting self-determination (supporting all other components).

It is also important to note about the research methodologies in authentic leadership studies. In a review of authentic leadership theory and research agenda, Gardner, Cogliser, Davis and Dickens (2011) have identified several facts about the research methodologies in authentic leadership studies. These facts showed that only few qualitative studies were conducted compared to quantitative studies. It also shows that out of nine qualitative studies, only three used interviews and two applied narratives as data collection techniques. Moreover, it does not state that any qualitative studies were conducted in Asia, whereas it states that only one quantitative study on authentic leadership was done in Asia (Singapore). This indicates that qualitative empirical studies are very much necessary in Asian countries, in order to extend and investigate authentic leadership theory in such cultures and contexts. Furthermore, Gardner, Cogliser, Davis and Dickens (2011) also highlight some suggestions for future research. They suggested strengthening the theory through practitioner and empirical studies; expansion of nomological networking to reduce the gap between theoretical and empirical framework; using rigorous and diverse methods in empirical studies; and authentic leadership studies need to be focused on authentic leader and follower development.

Therefore, authentic leadership gives hope to many ethical concerns in the field of leadership, especially school principalship. Almost all the scholars unanimously agree that authentic leadership offers genuine leaders. This does not necessarily imply that they are without weaknesses (George & Sims, 2007). As authentic leaders, they accept weakness as a human factor and thus result in the enhancement of authentic leadership components, especially authentic follower development (Diddams & Chang, 2012).

THE STUDY

As the literature of authentic leadership shows a necessity for the exploration of how authentic leaders develop (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004), a clear account of the development of authentic leadership can be easily identified by various other preliminary steps. Firstly, the aspects that play a critical role in authentic leadership have to be identified. Personal, organizational and socials aspects of the theory are some of the possible aspects, which need to be focused in such studies. Secondly, the theory has to be studied and tested in specific professional fields and settings, such as education/school settings. Finally, it also has to be studied in various (value based) cultural contexts like East-Asian countries.

This paper is based on one of the research questions of an ongoing philosophical doctorate thesis, which is primarily aimed at understanding what constitutes authentic school-principalship. The focus of this paper is on the personal aspect of authentic

school-principalship: what are the qualitative personal aspects that describe a school principal as authentic? As mentioned in the question, qualitative elements of the aspect are given specific attention. This implies that the research is not targeted on quantitative elements. For the purpose of this study, qualitative is defined as anything which cannot be valued in terms of numbers, like maturity, anger, and confidence. It is universally understood that quantity has less effect without quality. For instance, the number of certificates or experience of a person has no significant effect on ones environment, without vision and commitment.

This study was done in Brunei Darussalam, which is an Islamic constitutional sultanate (locally referred to as Malay Islamic Monarchy). It is divided into four districts, namely Kuala Belait, Tutong, Brunei-Muara and Temburong. Even though the country's formal language is Malay, English Language is widely spoken across the nation and in schools. The country's latest educational reform movement of SPN21 is focused on helping pupils adapt to the arising changes of the 21st century (Abd Rahman, Undated). This has created an arising need for transformation and transformational leadership. Thus, leadership training programmes focus to drive principals towards the change of the schools and community (ILIA, Undated).

The study was conducted using two groups of respondents. A purposeful sampling approach was utilised to select the primary group (the target group) of seven school principals. They were selected based on the suggestions of Kernis's (2003) four components of authenticity. The principals are selected from all districts of Brunei based on the frequency of repetition. The secondary group of respondents includes 26 respondents who work with the principals. They consist at least of two teachers/staff, one colleague, and one senior officer for each principal. The measures used in the selection of the primary group respondents played a significant role in the validity of the findings. It was assumed that the primary respondents have some qualities of authenticity because they were selected based on social and professional recognition.

Since authentic leadership is an emerging theory and this study needs precise data, collection of personal stories were enriched with the orientation of interpretivism and constructivism. The collection of data was based on meaningful interactions using episodic interview (Flick, 2000), and semi-structured interview. After interviewing, narrations and other accounts were transcribed and informed to the respondents for verification. Sound Organizer Version 1.4 and Dragon Naturally Speaking 11.5 were partially used for transcribing, and ATLAS.ti Version 7, which is a Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS), was used to analyse data. This phase of data analysis was mainly based on thematic analysis (Flick, 2009) while Arksey and Knight's (1999) data analysis process was used as the general procedure. Figure 1 shows the methodological framework of the study.

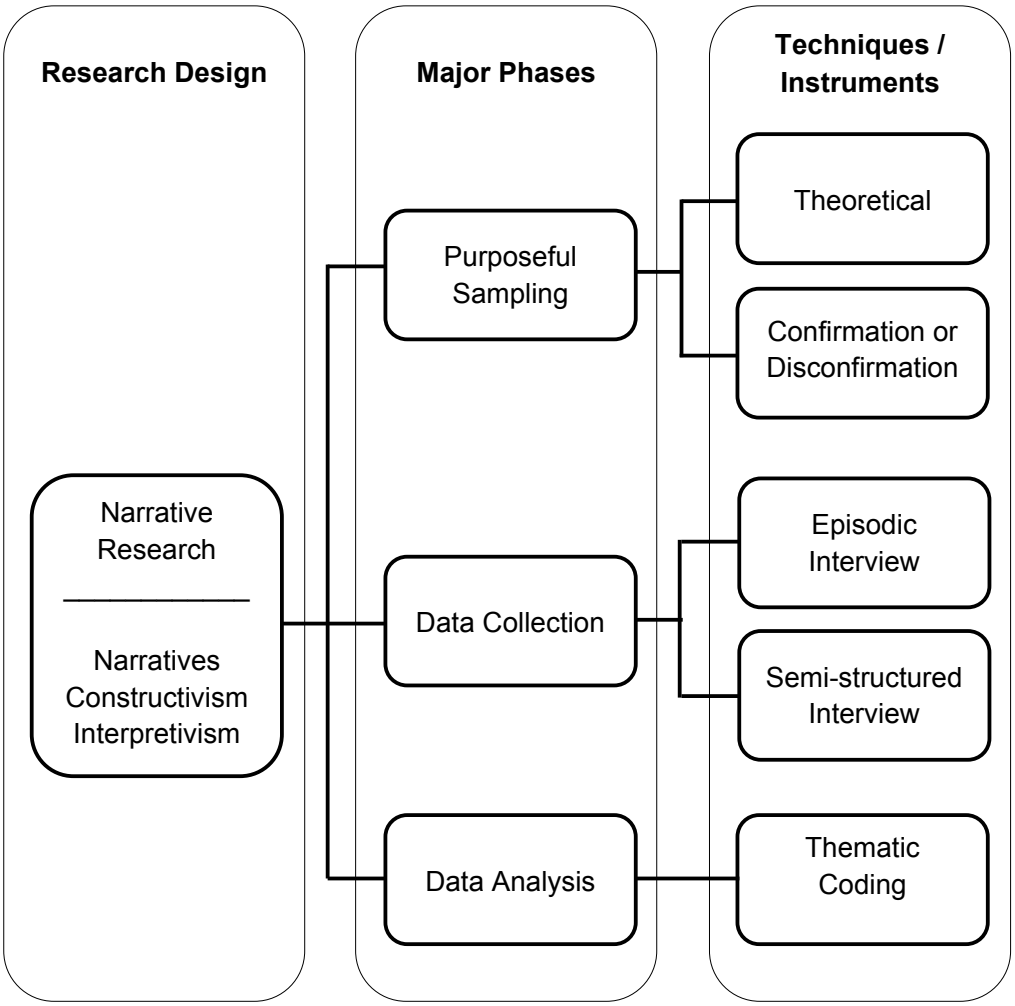


Figure 1: Methodological framework

The study was planned in a way that it could be analysed easily. It triangulated the rank of respondents in the frequency of repetition in the suggestions list, the self-narrations of the respondents, and the responses from staff, colleagues, and superiors. Thus, qualities which were seen to be positive when triangulated and do not go against the notion of authenticity as in the literature were noted as personal qualities of authentic school principals. Also comparisons of personalities between respondents were made in order to further understand the significance of the authenticity of the school principals.

FINDINGS

The findings of this study showed that personality plays a significant role in the description of an authentic school-principal. It also showed that the effectiveness of all other aspects foreign to self completely depend on the presence of authentic personal qualities. Some of the respondents were found to be more authentic than others.

Unanimously, all the respondents were found to be *psychologically harmonious*. They also faced challenges in their career and personal life. However, there is no significant evidence in the data that they took home problems related to school, and vice versa. This relaxation in mind is very much based on their *self-confidence*. Some of them are confident to the extent that they did not hesitate to admit self-weaknesses and mistakes. They were also very *hopeful* in achieving their targets and they think positively regarding almost everything. They were not worry much about the challenges they faced and handled it well. The trust they had in others, especially their staff, also helped them to be less worried. Most importantly, the faith they have in God plays a vital role in their psychological harmony. Almost all the respondents were found to be highly *faithful to God*. As all the respondents in this study were Muslims, they strongly believed that nothing, including the desires or thoughts, could be hidden from Allah – their one and only God. Moreover, some of the respondents choose to be faithful because of their love to God as the Creator and Caretaker of everything.

"I practice religious teaching fully. I follow moderately. In my everyday life, I pray with my family and then before coming to school, I recite Du'a. I read Surah Al-Waqi'ah, Al-Mulk, Al-Ikhlaas, Al-Falaq, An-Naas [chapters of Quran], before I come to school every day. Because we need Allah to protect us, to give us Hidayat, wisdom. … So to be successful, we need to do three things: work hard; pray to Allah because only He has the power to do anything; and Tawakkul [trust in God]. Sometimes we work hard, but miss one of these things, then we fail. Because Allah knows everything. He knows what will happen today, tomorrow. That is what I implement in this school. Teachers work hard, perform prayers; we read Surah Yassin every Thursday. We obtain the results. We work hard. We recite the Du'a. Only Allah can help". (R3)

Respecting others and self is another quality found as an important characteristic of the respondents. Most importantly, they respected the staff as professionals, as much as they respected themselves. They wanted others to get everything they wanted as individuals. Even though the degrees of respecting others and self differ between respondents, they did not have the intentions of bossing others. They actively participated with the teachers in every task in the school. Similarly, they respected the parents, colleagues, seniors and others. They see these people as important stakeholders for the success of the school. They talked to them politely and helped them in any regard possible. This causes them to be *truthful l*and *transparent* in every

move they made. They had no intentions of hiding any of their actions from the public. In most of the cases they made collaborative decisions, which dissolve the possible necessity for hiding those actions.

"I did not think as the head, I am their friend. I do not want to talk confidential things in front of others. So I call the individual teachers. … So when the teacher comes, I praise first, then only I talk about solving the issue. Then I advise them regarding the issue". (R6)

The collaborative nature of their management is based on their *loyalty* to everything that surrounds them – from themselves to the community. They are committed in the development of themselves with no less attention to the development of the school and community. They have individual goals to achieve, and they have strong visions for the school. However, they do not show biasness towards any of the individual or action. They are *unbiased* in their action. They neither sacrifice themselves nor others, rather they maintain a balance between everyone and everything.

Self-determination is another personal quality, which was evident from the respondents. Whatever task they are working on and whatever responsibility they accept, they show determination in achieving the set targets. They are ambitious in helping themselves and others in achieving the targets. They are also determined to direct others towards the vision. These respondents 'determination causes them to be *autonomous*. Even though operation in bureaucratic structures is not easy, some of the respondents were found to be having high level of self-regulation, whereas others also operate at different levels of autonomy. They are aware of what they are doing and what they have to do. They maintain a "glocal" network, from which they seek help when necessary. The network is mostly based on popular mediums like Facebook and Whatsapp.

As fairness is a major concern of all the respondents, they were found to be *balanced in their action*. They have no intentions of exercising personal agendas in the school. This may be due to the reason that they are truthful to others and faithful to God. Many teachers, colleagues and seniors also acknowledged their un-biasness in dealing with personal and professional issues. Most important, they maintain a balance in everything they do. They do not spend their time too much on particular tasks, but look at the importance and urgency of the tasks and issues, based on the information collected from the "glocal" networks.

In order to run the school effectively all the respondents give importance in building up *transparent relationship* with teachers, parents, colleagues, students, seniors and others. There is no evidence in the data that any of the respondents holds secret and uncertain relationships with teachers and students. Their relationship with the stakeholders is their greatest effort in reaching the targets. Professionally they use this relationship as a mode of collaboration, whereas personally they use it to gain and extend respect. In both ways, this acts as a mode of eradicating contextual

conflicts/disharmony and building personal, professional, organizational and social harmony.

I always tell my teachers that our relationship with people must be good too. Sometimes people see you… Make them your friends! Sometimes we have enemies, but if we change we may change the enemy to be our friend. That is what I belief. If you have lots of friends, you have a strong team, you can enjoy. But if you have lots of enemies, you cannot stand here. That is also what I tell my colleague. (R1)

Self-reflection is another personal quality that the respondents have. All the respondents try to reflect on their everyday actions. However, some of the respondents are less efficient than others. Those who have learnt to do productive reflection, do it better than those who have just heard about it. They also have gone far beyond in understanding themselves (*self-aware*). Some are just merely aware about themselves, whereas other can see multiple perspectives about them. Generally, all the respondents know their weaknesses and strengths to some extent. However, only few have gone to the extent of taking actions to remedy the weaknesses and consolidate the strengths. Those who are highly self-aware know how to attend to their weaknesses, even though they are not able to change those behaviours right away. As part of being self-aware, they also understand how to integrate others' views with theirs. They rather identify themselves as important substances in their environment. This causes them to be *morally ethical* in dealing with issues. They take the necessary ethical consideration to ensure that students, teachers, others and themselves are not neglected due to their ignorance about themselves and the community. They follow good mechanism of decision making with high level of courage and hope.

There was an incident [once]. … Normally I do not let the teachers see the parents [regarding issues]. In this case I arranged a meeting with the parent. So the parent talked to the teacher. I just let the parent expressed his dissatisfaction until the teacher apologised to the parent. So in cases like this, I will deal it this way. I do not think many principals will let the parents meet the teachers. But my concern was my kids, teachers are second. (R2)

Most of the respondents were found to be *empathetic* in their day to day life. They do not take issues simply, but critically. Every issue is critical and big for them. They attend to the teachers' professional and personal issues with kind hearts. They are accepted as emotional soothers by their staff. If they have to laugh with the teachers, they laugh, and if they have to cry with the teachers, they cry. Some of their staffs see them as a father/mother figure, while some of their colleagues see them as a kin. In this regard, they attract and sooth people by sharing incidents in their lives. They are *good narrators*, especially those who had encountered vital experience. They relate their stories to their family members, teachers, colleagues and others in order to motivate them towards the vision and mission.

Two years back I had a very big problem regarding my admission to [the university]. … [S/he] tried to calm me down. I was so disappointed at that time. So when [s/he] saw me in the staffroom, [s/he] called me and tried to comfort me, and tried to tell me everything. [S/he] said that I got that position, [s/he] felt sorry about what happened. [S/he] actually did not have to feel that way, because [s/he] has done [her/his] part. [S/he] took about 3-4 months like that to comfort me. When [s/he]saw me, thinking that I was disappointed,[s/he]said that may be Allah has something better for me; it is that I am not supposed to be in that university, so not to worry. [S/he] suggested me many things. [S/he] suggested me to take study leave too. [S/he] helped me a lot. Slowly I could accept it. But during that time my health was also not very good. I was having blood pressure problems. So I got comfortable when [s/he] called me in. I realised that [s/he] is somebody supportive. The principal is helpful and encourage us to upgrade ourselves. [S/he] tries [her/his] best to make us understand things. Maybe [s/he was right], Allah has another plan for me. (R18's comment about R6)

Irrespective of their age and experience in the field, all the respondents were found to be committed in teaching. They were very good teachers in their subject areas before they were promoted to be the principals and are still actively participating in the teaching processes. Some of the respondents taught classes, while others special remedial classes. In addition to that, they also actively participate with the teachers in different phases of teaching. It looks like that they are born educators.

Surprisingly, there is no evidence in the data that showed age or year of experience has a change in the degree of positive personal qualities of the respondents. In fact, the data shows that all the respondents are *mature and wise*. However, there is no evidence that this maturity is related to age or number of years of experience. The data showed that respondents who are young make more informed, conscious and mature decisions than those who are close to their retirement. This is further found to be related to some qualitative personal factors, like self-reflection, critical incidents, intensity of the qualification (not certification), and active involvement in professional and personal life.

On the whole, all the respondents have many good personal qualities. However, the depth and breadth of these qualities depend on the authenticity of the principals. It is also understood that those respondents who are socially and professionally recognised as authentic principals by external sources do not necessarily be considered as authentic by internal sources. Teachers and other staff are found to be important stakeholders who can comment on the personality of the authenticity of their principals. It is important to note that none of the respondents were found to have acquired all the qualities described here. However, most of these qualities were identified in respondents who had encountered critical experiences and learnt to carry out self-reflection.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The findings of this study about personal qualities of authentic school-principals, very much aligned with most of the current literature of authenticity (Kernis, 2003; Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Authentic school-principals exhibit personalities of self-awareness, relational transparency, balanced action, self-regulation, (Kernis, 2003) and moral perspective (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Even though the wordings are different, this view is also supported by George and Sims (2007). However, the literature does not support that personal qualities of authentic principals can be limited. Hence, this study shows that there are other dimensions of personal related factors which describe a principal's authenticity.

As authentic leadership is drawn partly from positive organizational behaviour (Luthans & Avolio, 2003), psychological capital (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007) plays an important role in the existence and development of authentic principals. On this regard, this study also has found that authentic principals are psychologically harmonious, which is based on their cognitive and emotional capacity. It further shows that psychological harmony is a pathway for elements of psychological capital – confidence, hope, optimism and resiliency, which are also important personal qualities of authentic school principals.

The research also concludes that one of the most prominent qualities of authentic school-principals is strong believe in God. Having faith in God helps principals to be at peace at all times, especially when they face challenges. Being faithful to God, on the other hand, insures their positive moral perspective and behaviours, such as authentic behaviour, transparency, fair and self-awareness. As religion's two main functions are "promoting personal stability and others' welfare and social harmony" (Aghababaei, 2013, p. 197), the result of having faith in God and being faithful to God as an essential personality of authentic principals (at least in religion based societies) is strengthened.

Since Brunei has a highly value based culture, respectfulness and loyalty, are widely practiced in the community. It is not surprising for the school principals to show such behaviour in their professional interactions as well. However, the degree of these qualities observed in the respondents is noteworthy: for instance, they give the deserved respect and aids to students and other people in the school community. Thus, this shows that respecting others and self is also a baseline personal quality of authentic school principals.

The quality of authenticity in principals depends on the personal maturity and qualification. Even though some scholars' descriptions of the development of authenticity depends on age (George & Sims, 2007), the finding of this study shows that maturity directly affects authenticity, but not age. The data strongly support that personal maturity and qualification are directly related, that is, when the quality of one increases the other increases too and vice-versa. Similarly, self-reflection process of authentic principals helps in upgrading the maturity and professional qualification.

This process further is enhanced through narration of personal critical experiences (Sparrowe, 2005).

Authentic school-principals as instructional leaders engage in the total development of the school. Their commitment in the improvement of instruction is their greatest success in achieving professional and social recognition. They are dedicated towards school vision/mission, teacher-student development, school context enhancement, and community development (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2010). The autonomous involvement in these aspects, especially teaching and learning, is the core business of authentic school-principals.

Finally, three major conclusions can be driven from this study. Firstly, personal qualities of authentic school-principals include many positive personal qualities of other forms of leadership, like transformational leadership, ethical leadership, and instructional leadership. The finding of this study concludes that personal qualities of authentic principals are very much similar and can be summarised into MacGilchrist, Myers and Reed's (2004) nine intelligences that are ethical, spiritual, contextual, operational, emotional, collegial, reflective, pedagogical and systemic. This view is also concurrent with many other available literature (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004; Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Luthans & Avolio, 2003). Secondly and most importantly: faithful to and having faith in God; commitment towards instruction (core business), and respectfulness (towards self and others) are found to be the baseline of personal qualities, which are entry points of authentic school-principals. In other words a principal may happen to be recognised as authentic through higher level of acquisition of one of these three qualities, while the other two qualities may be at any lower degree at the entrance, but later develops those to a higher level. It is evident that all the other positive personal qualities are developed on one of these qualities and sustained when these three qualities are integrated, at least in the context of Brunei. Finally, it can be considered that principals who have more positive qualities present in their personalities are more authentic than those who have less personal qualities present in their personalities.

However, neither the qualities highlighted in this paper are adequate to judge a school-principal as fully authentic, nor the opposites of these qualities are adequate to judge a school-principal as inauthentic, for two major reasons. Firstly, the findings need to be thoroughly validated in order to generalise it to a mass group. Secondly, an authentic principal in one school context might not necessarily be authentic in another school setting (Shamir & Eilam, 2005).

The findings of this study can be useful for in-school professional development sessions, short-termed in-service training programmes and college/university based academic-training courses for school principals and other educational personnel. In order to incorporate authenticity components in such programmes designers and organisers can take these findings into consideration. Moreover, self-reflecting school-principals can use these personal qualities as a guideline for reaching higher authenticity.

REFERENCES

Abd Rahman, I. B. (Undated). *The Brunei national education system for the 21st century (SPN21) - a synopsis.* Retrieved July 19, 2013, from SEASPF: http://www.seaspf.org/index.php/component/content/.../18--a-synopsis

Aghababaei, N. (2013). Between you and God, where is the general factor of personality? Exploring personality-religion relationships in a Muslim context. *Personality and Individual Differences, 55*(2), 196-198.

Arksey, H., & Knight, P. (1999). *Interviewing for social scientists: an introductory resource with examples.* London: SAGE Publication.

Avolio, B. J. (2010). Pursuing authentic leadership development. In N. Nohria, & R. Khurana (Eds.), *Handbook of Leadership Theory and Practice: A Harvard Business School Centennial Colloquium* (pp. 739-768). Massachusetts: Harvard Business School Publishing.

Avolio, B. J. (2011). *Full range leadership development* (2 ed.). USA: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Avolio, B. J., & Gardner, W. L. (2005). Authentic leadership development: getting to the roots of positive forms of leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16*, 315-338.

Avolio, B. J., Gardner, W. L., Walumbwa, F. O., Luthans, F., & May, D. R. (2004). Unlocking the mask: a look at the process by which authentic leaders impact follower attitudes and behaviour. *The Leadership Quartely, 16*(6), 801-823.

Begley, P. T. (2001). In pursuit of authentic school leadership practices. *Internationa l Journal of Leadership in Education, 4*(4), 353-365.

Day, D. V., & Lance, C. E. (2004). Understanding the development of leader complexity through latent growth modeling. In D. V. Day, S. J. Zaccaro, & S. M. Halpin (Eds.), *Leader development for transforming organizations: growing leaders for tomorrow* (pp. 41-70). New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Diddams, M., & Chang, G. C. (2012). Only human: exploring the nature of weakness in authentic leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly, 23*(3), 593–603.

Dimmock, C., & Walker, A. (2005). *Educational leadership: culture and diversity.* London: SAGE Publications.

Duignan, P. A., & Bhindi, N. (1997). Authenticity in leadership: an emerging perspective. *Journal of Educational Administration, 35*(3), 195-209.

Flick, U. (2000). Episodic interviewing. In M. W. Bauer, & G. Gaskell (Eds.), *Qualitative researching with text, image and sound: a practical handbook* (pp. 75-92). London: SAGE Publications.

Flick, U. (2009). *An introduction to qualitative research* (4th ed.). London: SAGE Publications.

Gardner, W. L., Avolio, B. J., May, D. R., & Walumbwa, F. (2005). "Can you see the real me?" a self-based model of authentic leader and follower development. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16*, 343-372.

Gardner, W. L., Cogliser, C. C., Davis, K. M., & Dickens, M. P. (2011). Authentic leadership: a review of the literature and research agenda. *The Leadership Quarterly, 22*(6), 1120-1145.

George, B., & Sims, P. (2007). *True north: discover your authentic leadership.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Glickman, C. D., Gordon, S. P., & Ross-Gordon, J. M. (2010). *Supervision and instructional leadership: a developmental approach* (8th ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Goddard, J. T. (2003). Leadership in the (post)modern era. In N. Bennett, & L. Anderson (Eds.), *Rethinking educational leadreship: challenging the conventions* (pp. 11-26). London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Hall, D. T. (2004). Self-awareness, identity, and leader development. In D. v. Day, S. J. Zaccaro, & S. M. Halpin (Eds.), *Leader development for transforming organizations: growing leaders for tomorrow* (pp. 153-176). New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Hawkins, J. N. (2008). The intractable dominant educational paradigm. In P. D. Hershock, M. Mason, & J. N. Hawkins (Eds.), *Changing education: leadership, innovation and development in a globalizing Asia Pacific* (pp. 137-162). Hong Kong: Comparative Education Research Centre.

Hershock, P. D. (2008). Leadership in the context of complex global interdependence: emerging realities for educational innovation. In P. D. Hershock, M. Mason, & J. N. Hawkins (Eds.), *Changing education: leadership, innovation and development in a globalizing Asia Pacific* (pp. 227-247). Hong Kong: Comparative Education Research Centre.

ILIA. (Undated). *SLP Focus*. Retrieved 8 20, 2013, from The Leader Effect: School Leadership Programme - Brunei Darussalam: http://www.slpbrunei.edu.bn/programme/focus.php

Ilies, R., Morgeson, F. P., & Nahrgang, J. D. (2005). Authentic leadership and eudaemonic well-being: understanding leader-follower outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16*, 373-394.

Kernis, M. H. (2003). Toward a conceptalization of optimal self-esteem. *Psychological Inquiry, 14*, 1-26.

Kernis, M. H., & Goldman, B. M. (2006). A multicomponent conceptualization of authenticity: theory and research. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, 38*, 284-357.

Kis, A., & Konan, N. (2010). The characteristics of a learning school in information age. *Procedia - Social and Behavioural Science, 2*, 797-802.

London, M. (2002). *Leadership development: paths to self-insight and professional growth.* New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Luthans, F., & Avolio, B. (2003). Authentic leadership development. In K. S. Cameron, J. E. Dutton, & R. E. Quinn (Eds.), *Positive organizational scholarship: foundations of a new discipline* (pp. 241-261). California: Berrett-Koehler Publishers, Inc.

Luthans, F., Norman, S., & Hughes, L. (2006). Authentic leadership: a new approach for a new time. In R. J. Burke, & C. L. Cooper (Eds.), *Inspiring leaders* (pp. 84-104). New York: Routledge.

Luthans, F., Youssef, C. M., & Avolio, B. J. (2007). *Psychological capital: developing the human competitive edge.* New York: Oxford University Press, Inc.

MacGilchrist, B., Myers, K., & Reed, J. (2004). *The intelligent school* (2nd ed.). London: SAGE Publications.

Mason, M. (2008). Multiculturalism, shared values, and an ethical response to globalization. In P. D. Herschock, & J. N. Hawkins (Eds.), *Changing education: leadership innovation and development in globalizing Asia Pacific* (pp. 93-113). Hong-Kong: Comparative Education Research Centre.

May, D. R., Chan, A. Y., Hodges, T. D., & Avolio, B. J. (2003). Developing the moral component of authentic leadership. *Organizational Dynamics, 32*(3), 247-260.

Mazutis, D. (2013). Authentic leadership. In W. G. Rowe, & L. Guerrero (Eds.), *Cases in leadership* (3rd ed., pp. 295-339). California: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Neider, L. L., & Schriesheim, C. A. (2011). The Authentic Leadership Inventory (ALI): Development and empirical tests. *The Leadership Quarterly, 22*(6), 1146-1164.

Neubauer, D. (2008). Globalization and education: characteristics, dynamics, implications. In P. D. Hershock, M. Mason, & J. N. Hawkins (Eds.), *Changing education: leadership innovation and development in a globalizing Asia Pacific* (pp. 29-62). Hong Kong: Comparative Education Research Centre.

Northouse, P. G. (2013). *Leadership: theory and practice* (6th ed.). California: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Novicevic, M. M., Harvey, M. G., Buckley, M. R., Brown, J. A., & Evans, R. (2006). Authentic leadership: a historical perspective. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 13*(1), 64-76.

Ordones, V. (2008). The changing role of leadership (or a changing leadership for a changing world). In P. D. Hershock, M. Mason, & J. N. Hawkins (Eds.), *Changing education: leadership innivation and development in a globalizing Asia Pacific* (pp. 249-272). Hong Kong: Comparative Education Research Centre.

Rego, A., Sousa, F., Marques, C., & Cunha, M. P. (2012). Authentic leadership promoting employees' psychological capital and creativity. *Journal of Business Research, 65*(3), 429-437.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2006). Self-regulation and the problem of human autonomy: does psychology need choice, self-determination, and will? *Journal of Personality, 74*(6), 1557-1585.

Salimi, L., & Ghonoodi, A. (2011). The study and comparision of curriculum in smart and traditional schools. *Procedia -Social and Behavioral Science, 15*, 3059-3062.

Senge, P. M. (2000). Systems change in education. *Reflections, 1*(3), 52-60.

Sergiovanni, T. J. (2001). Moral authority, community and diversity: leadership challenges for the twenty-first century. In K.-c. Wong, & C. W. Evers (Eds.), *Leadership for quality schooling: international perspective* (pp. 1-11). London: RoutledgeFalmer.

Shamir, B., & Eilam, G. (2005). "What's your story?" A life-stories approach to authentic leadership development. *The leadership quareterly, 16*, 395-417.

Sparrowe, R. T. (2005). Authentic leadership and the narrative self. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16*, 419-439.

Walumbwa, F. O., Avolio, B. J., Gardner, W. L., Wernsing, T. S., & Peterson, S. J. (2008). Authentic leadership: development and validation of a theory-based measure. *Journal of Management, 34*(1), 89-126.

Wooley, L., Caza, A., & Levy, L. (2011). Authentic leadership and follower development: psychological capital, positive work climate, and gender. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 18*(4), 438-448.

BUILDING EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP CAPACITY WITHIN THE PUBLIC EDUCATION SYSTEM THROUGHOUT KINGDOM OF BAHRAIN

Steven Reissig, PhD
Ahlam Al Amer

Ministry of Education, Kingdom of Bahrain

ABSTRACT

There is a plethora of educational leadership theories as well as stories of individual leaders having an impact upon organizations and education systems. This paper describes how educational leadership at a system level was became the catalyst for large-scale public school improvement in the Kingdom of Bahrain. This has been a five (5) year journey and is ongoing. In this successful transformation of the system is a story with an emphasis upon balancing 'performance' and 'health' maintaining a close relationship between 'support' and 'accountability' at all levels. This paper highlights a priority placed on educational leadership and describes seven levers supporting on-going learning, improvement and innovation:(1) School, student improvement; (2) Creating and maintaining a culture of professionalism; (3) Leadership development and capacity building; (4) Re-designing organizational structures; (5) Parent and community learning, support and engagement; (6) Succession planning, including recruitment; and (7) Formal pathways and Cadre. Central to the success at a system level has been the transformation of leaders' mind sets and behaviours. We refer to this transformation as a 'commitment to action'; leadership is located within a quasi-decentralized model sifting from a MoE-centralized to a more school-focused model. This model encourages and empowers existing school leaders to shift their learning and leadership from administrative to instructional practices. This paper focuses on a case study: the Bahrain educational leadership strategy. This strategy links with Bahrain's Economic Vision 2030 approved National Key Performance Indicators and Bahrain School Agenda.

Keywords: *education reform, educational leadership, educational leadership strategy*

INTRODUCTION

When a country's education system is committed to a major system reform it is making a genuine investment in the future of its people. Each year, countries experience a plethora of educational system reform, or improvement initiatives, in school, district, provincial, state and/or national levels. Clearly system reform is multi-dimensional, multi-faceted and necessarily extremely complex. Nonetheless, all worthwhile reforms have a similar starting place, a comprehensive diagnostic survey

of the 'current state'. Subsequently, key leaders and policymakers work collaboratively in order to plan and prioritise those areas through which targeted educational reform will be implemented.

Bahrain, a small country in the Middle East, with a population of just over 1.2 million has approximately 206 public schools. It started this journey in 2005. This paper will focus on one aspect of the education reform – educational leadership. The paper will discuss briefly the early diagnostic report findings and lead into what the Ministry of Education implemented as part of improving the quality of school leadership. Three key phases were identified for improving educational leadership at the system level in Bahrain – (1) Disturbing the status quo, (2) Influencing with impact, and (3) Enriching and embedding. As a broad roadmap we have seen these three phases at a local school level, shifting to a cluster level as part of the overall system design to capture all leaders. This paper will describe Bahrain's shift in educational management emphasis through the vehicle of educational leadership and forecast changes for the next three years. In doing so it will emphasise 'practical' or 'applied'' aspects of relevant theories and concepts, praxis no less, in guiding this innovative educational reform movement. Educational leadership is used to describe the leadership that occurs both in the school and also the MoE with direct impact and influence on the schools to inspire current and future generations.

There is no doubt educational leadership has an impact on student outcomes. Relevant research is emerging to suggest that after the important influence teachers have on student achievement, school leadership is the most significant (Hattie, 2003; Leithwood et al, 2006; Barber et al, 2010). At a system level, defined as the Ministry of Education (Bahrain) which has overall responsibility for education in the Kingdom, which is the landscape about which this paper is written, leadership involves creating opportunities, structures and mind-set shifts in existing policy makers, leaders and teachers to impact student outcomes in every school. Craig and Bentley (2005), reinforce this suggesting that system leadership (in this case within the central MoE) influences leadership across a system. It represents both a shift in the practice of leaders to ensure wider influence than other factors and in the system itself to make this possible. As will be illustrated, the education system's leaders in Bahrain have made a huge personal commitment to support the transformation and improvement agenda, primarily by shifting educational leaders' mindsets from 'administrative' and 'institutional'. Our aspiration is for leaders to be seen and active in 'instructional leadership', 'curriculum leadership' and 'transformational leadership'.

BAHRAIN AND THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

Bahrain is a small archipelago located on the Southern side of the Arabian Gulf about midway between Kuwait and UAE and linked by a causeway to Saudi Arabia. Bahrain achieved independence from the United Kingdom in 1971 and has very close ties with its neighboring GCC countries; Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates. Today, there are 206 public schools and 58 private schools

that provide formal education to children, as well as approximately 130 privately owned Kindergartens. School leaders have been historically appointed (prior to the school improvement program's commencement in 2008), according to their year of experience. The pathway to becoming a school leader was not highly competitive and the selection process took performance management into consideration, of which 99 percent of all leaders were assessed as 'outstanding'.

In 2005, a United Nations Development Program (UNDP) report as well as a diagnostic evaluation commissioned by the Bahrain Economic Development Board awarded to McKinsey & Co. suggested the public education system was in need of urgent reform. The latter report identified key gaps in student learning across the Kingdom and recommended the quality of teaching and leadership needed to improve. Specifically with respect to students the report highlighted other areas in need of urgent development including: the need to increase the time for learning, need to develop critical thinking skills, and to improve student behavior. Perhaps the most significant shortcoming regarding educational leadership was a lack of understanding and application of 'instructional leadership' by incumbents. In short, a high percentage of senior teachers, assistant principals and principals were rather comfortable as administrators that are responding to faxes, writing reports and spending very little time on classroom instruction. For many existing leaders, administration was relatively easy and required little effort. Many of them simply did not have a basic understanding of what instructional leadership involved and had little idea of what their role was to support teachers and student learning. Unfortunately these leaders rarely had their professional performance challenged; there were no career goals and no means of obtaining professional learning and development. Clearly, for the sake of the country, educational change was needed, and soon.

In 2007, immediately after the release of these diagnostic summaries and after careful analysis and planning, the full education reform programme commenced. The Kingdom established a number of appropriate institutions such as the Quality Assurance Authority, Bahrain Teachers College, and Bahrain Polytechnic, all aimed at improving the quality of general and vocational education within the Ministry of Education. A number of international partners were engaged to support this reform movement; OfSted (United Kingdom), PINZ (New Zealand), NIE (Singapore), Department of Education (Victoria, Australia), McKinsey & Co. and a small team of international school-improvement consultants. Within the vocational and technical education improvement programme, a strategic decision was made to implement an apprenticeship programme supporting students with this learning pathway.

The Bahrain Teachers College (BTC) was one the institutions that were established as part of the education reform with a clear mandate to provide quality pre-service and in-service training programs. The BTC currently provides a number of quality leadership development programs for senior teachers, assistant principals and principals as part of the MoE's required pre-requisites before eligibility for promotion. In short, a senior teacher is appointed to a position in an 'acting' capacity of which he must attend and satisfactorily complete the *Educational Leadership*

Program 1 which is approximately 60 hours of in-class learning. This serves as part of his/her requirements before being eligible to be considered for permanency as a senior teacher. A similar process occurs with acting assistant principals who attend *Educational Leadership Program 2* and acting principals who attend *Educational Leadership Program 3*. Initially the BTC offered one Educational Leadership Program that consisted of 360 hours in-class learning along with a study trip. As part of the ongoing reflection embedded within the education reform program, a decision was made to segregate the program into three parts that target the competencies required of each of the three categories of leaders.

Perhaps what is unique about Bahrain's education reform is the fact that apart from engagement of international firms, it has been designed and grounded in the need to ensure Bahraini Nationals can continue to lead continuous education improvement. At all stages and phases of the 2007 education reform, educational leadership has been a primary focus. To achieve progress there was careful planning, calculated risk and a determination and commitment to 'do what's right' as opposed to 'doing what's easy'. Changing long-held mindsets held by existing personnel is never easy. In this instance improving educational leadership meant striking the right balance of support and accountability at each level and layer of the educational system. In Bahrain, leaders were unintentionally focusing on the wrong priorities in schools with significant investment of time, as opposed to focusing on the 'right' priorities and implementing them fully.

Lessons learned from other education reforms both in the region and internationally have provided rich platforms for reflection and analysis. Mehta, Schwartz, and Hess (2012) suggest that sensible best practices do have a place in the efforts of education reform, but in order to truly maximize such efforts we must recognize that the 'best practices' approach only addresses the tip of the iceberg and the failure of such efforts rests with the six-sevenths of the iceberg below the surface (p. 4). In Bahrain, there has been a concerted effort in formal training programs with leaders to explain the importance of knowing each leader's 'iceberg' where the visible behavior and actions is significantly influenced by the values, previous experiences and beliefs of the individual.

Phase One: Disturbing The Status Quo With Respect To Educational Leadership

Educational reform means disturbing conventional patterns of how things get done. Senior educational personnel were presented with a Performance Management System (PMS) based on the three-track system prototyped by the Singapore Education System. It required setting annual targets with mid- and end-of-year appraisals for 20 leadership competencies placed within a number of key domains. School leaders were required to collect evidence of their achievement and they became responsible for principal performance too, by calibrating assessments. The responsibility for moderating the ongoing performance of school leaders was initially placed with Directors of Education (Primary, Intermediate, Secondary, Vocational),

but in 2011 it was allocated to the Chief of Schools. All leaders were exposed to professional learning and development, offered by the newly established Bahrain Teachers College as well as internationally appointed school-improvement consultants. Furthermore, the Ministry of Education announced that there was a need to review the entire Cadre system, in which it outlined the requirements needed for a leader to be eligible for promotion. In the Bahrain system, a Cadre is the formal process that human resources use to promote and determine the salary increments of employees.

To achieve consistency, a common perspective was adopted. For instance 'system leadership' embraced a wider view of education, including what went on beyond the school gates. In Bahrain, to improve educational leadership at the system level we needed to constantly adopt a 'balcony' and 'dance floor' analogy (as Heifetz & Linksy suggested (2002, p. 53). Achieving a balcony perspective means taking yourself out of the dance, even if only for a short period of time. So, our focus is to have leaders at all levels (central MoE and in schools) to be able to lead specific initiatives and see how things connect strategically. Additionally, adopting a system leadership perspective required a shift in thinking by existing leaders and thus a series of policy initiatives were made to ensure wider benefits of policy impacted on all Government schools. In Bahrain, in 2013 we initiated a full educational leadership strategy to further enhance the quality of leadership over the next three years.

Phase Two: Having An Influence With Impact

Because the previous culture had ossified educational leaders' willingness and engagement, any shift in emphasis had to be handled tactfully and with respect. In an Arabian culture respect is fundamental; one cannot demand simultaneous change from hundreds of existing personnel. To preserve continuity and at the same time initiate change, it was decided to emphasise the interdependence of performance and health. This necessitated careful planning, change-team resilience and an understanding of the change management process in this culture. In effect, although the Ministry's actions were informed by international literature on this topic, its application had to be home-grown, transplanted into prepared sites. In Bahrain, we worked hard to ensure we had a balance between 'performance' and 'health' where leaders' 'performance' could be ascertained by, say, functional KPI's and 'health' as corresponding socio-emotional aspects, such as how the leader was feeling throughout this change process. To ensure we had leaders make an impact in their schools and ultimately the system itself, we needed to work collaboratively and design systems which could assess both 'performance' and 'health', making sure support systems for both were adequate. This concept is referred to as empathic leadership (Reissig, 2007).

Educational leadership reform in Bahrain was developed from a shared vision and understanding of what effective leadership looked like at all levels. The PMS defined the required competencies and possible indicators, but we needed to get closer to the hearts and minds of all leaders thus emphasising respect and

commitment. The school improvement programme provided the ideal approach to field-test and apply best practices in a local context. The Ministry of Education (MoE) selected 10 'pilot schools' to implement these approaches, including the Principal Leadership Academy, Educational Leadership Program, as well as ongoing coaching and mentoring. An accountability structure was created where principals and their school-improvement teams were challenged every eight weeks through 'performance dialogues'; their emergent story.

A performance dialogue (PD) within this context is a structured and documented process where a team from the central MoE supplied school leaders with the dates and themes for each PD. Using this information, the school-improvement team responded with actual evidence. Following each PD a formal report is prepared. These reports outlined current status of the school using the Quality Assurance Authority assessment scale (inadequate, satisfactory, good, and outstanding). 'Leadership and management' is a specific focus for one PD. After the initial 10 pilot schools, the school improvement program scaled from 20, 40, and to 100 and later in 2012/13 all 206 schools are part of this programme. It is pleasing to report that PD's provide one avenue for the school's leaders to reflect as a team on their collective leadership and impact.

Other accountability initiatives embedded in the PD include the mid and end-year PMS appraisal for all leaders. Principals who are seen by their line managers (Chief of Schools and Senior Chiefs) to be underperforming are placed on the 'hot seat', figuratively of course, and given a specific period of time to address specific areas and then present this evidence in front of a senior MoE leadership team. The MoE addresses the 'health' of leaders through bi-weekly quality cards (dashboard reports), and more importantly frequent visits from the Chief of School. In addition, any principal whose leadership is assessed as below average or seems to be stagnating will be closely monitored and supported through a Principal Improvement Plan (PIP). This PIP is designed to focus on a small number of high-leverage leadership areas and sets clear targets and supports available. The PIP is deeply embedded within the system-wide *Managing the Performance of Principals (empowering) policy*.

Phase Three: Enriching And Embedding: Sustainability

The MoE developed a five-year Educational Leadership Strategy to positive spiralling of growth and achievement: an educational leadership roadmap. There are seven levers to the Bahrain MoE Education Leadership Strategy (ELS, see Exhibit 1). Taken together they support and represent a holistic view. The aim is to understand each as unique and inter-connected. Within the MoE a number of initiatives are well advanced to strengthen these levers. Phase three is aimed at enriching leaders' perspectives by, assisting them to see the overall view, the big picture as it were, from a general-system vantage and at the same time to set and achieve higher levels of performance.

Figure 2: Bahrain MoE Education Leadership Strategy (7 Levers)

The MoE ELS is designed using the latest international trends in successful system and school leadership that are anchored in the Bahrain context. The focus is on the 'practical' informing the 'theoretical' as we are able to apply the 'lessons learned' from the previous four years into the next phase of development. Whilst there are seven (7) core Levers underpinning the MoE ELS, some of our broad goals underpinning the success of this strategy are:

- Every school will have a high-performing principal who will focus the majority of his/her efforts towards instructional leadership practices that focus on improving student outcomes;
- There will be a gradual shift from centralized to decentralized school-based decision making when those schools and leaders have demonstrated effective leadership and responsibility;
- The best principals will be called upon to share their experience with some principals of the weakest schools to help them raise the performance in those schools;
- Every school's leadership team (Principal, Assistant Principal, Senior Teachers and outstanding teachers) will focus their time towards instructional leadership;
- There will be effective professional learning communities and practices that help leaders learn from each other both within their own school, within their cluster and across clusters;
- Leaders in schools will be active in leading and conducting action research in

- The Ministry of Education will work closely with the Bahrain Teachers College (BTC) to provide a range of learning programs for leaders;
- A clearly defined framework for identifying, developing and selecting the best teachers and leaders for new leadership positions will be embedded throughout the system; and
- Underperforming leaders will have the opportunity to grow and develop and will receive the support from other talented leaders when their performance is not at the expected standards;

Lever 1 – School, Student Improvement

Perhaps the most significant aspect of Bahrain's educational leadership strategy is its impact upon student outcomes. Leaders are held accountable through 'performance dialogues', where, apart from leadership and management, 'student achievement' is one of the key foci. Each school is required to have annual action plans, which are linked to their strategic plans and goals of the MoE's strategic plan. Within these annual action plans (must be linked to school priorities), all schools are required to show progress and achievement as a school – of which 'student outcomes' is one of the agreed priorities. A significant amount of focus has been placed on shifting leader time and behaviour away from administration and directing more towards instructional leadership. Formal professional development programs, shadowing and coaching help leaders reflect on how instruction supports learning and their role in the process.

Within the next phase, the *educational leadership strategy* requires leaders to become increasingly more concerned with instructional leadership – actively making sure all leaders in schools, as well as those from the MoE supporting schools, are fully engaged with improving student and school achievement. Principals will lead learning after receiving targeted professional learning that is accredited and aligned to system needs and learning targets. Professional learning for principals, assistant principals and senior teachers in specific programs will become a mandatory requirement for promotion. Our engagement with our partner, Bahrain Teachers College, will support efforts to build instructional leadership capacity within the education system. Hargreaves and Fullan (2012) reinforce the importance of positive partnerships between governments and teachers, ministries of education and school districts when creating high-performing education systems.

Lever 2 – Creating And Maintaining A Culture Of Professionalism

Reforming an entire education system is a complex and challenging process. Managing change ultimately requires using strategies and processes to manage mindsets and to support leaders making the necessary changes. Today educational leaders are generally not accepting full responsibility for their own leadership roles. Too often leaders look to blame others and are worried about the consequences for themselves if they make mistakes. The extended school day has been a positive

initiative within secondary schools because not only has it increased the amount of instructional time for students, but it has allowed schools to dedicate time each week to focus on planning quality instruction for students. Despite these efforts and initiatives, there are still some, senior teachers who need additional empowerment and training to be confident to lead learning as instructional leaders. Leaders need to be encouraged to think more about how they grow together, work and support one another. Leaders are often focused on competing with each other, rather than focusing on collaboration. In other words, become more like colleagues than isolated competitors.

There have been a number of incumbent leaders who have made huge shifts within their schools. The independent Quality Assurance Authority has reviewed all schools and there are a number of schools, which now have 'outstanding' leadership and overall performance. We are capturing their success stories, filming and sharing these with others to illustrate this journey is viable. This sharing of best practice from within Bahrain is important as part of the buy-in and showcasing local successes. As we continue to raise the standard of required leadership, we will co-create a culture of professionalism by establishing performance standards and expectations of all leaders. These standards will be placed within a comprehensive leadership framework guaranteeing all leaders are aware of what is now required for meeting promotion criteria. A key requirement for leaders is to build and maintain effective professional learning communities in their schools, where learning experiences are shared and mentoring assists the growth of new and existing leaders.

Lever 3 – Leadership Development And Capacity Building

Bahrain's MoE has a very rigorous Performance Management System (PMS) that has been developed in consultation with Singapore's National Institute of Education. The PMS has been introduced for a few years within schools and its key objective is to accurately appraise teachers and leaders at mid- and end-year based on a number of competencies. At a National level, the Civil Service Bureau is currently implementing a new whole-of-government performance management system, of which the MoE's system is very closely aligned and will merge into smoothly. The PMS is not just an evaluative tool – it is an instrument to accurately identify the training needs of leaders in various positions. This analysis helps us to develop and identify suitable professional learning opportunities and programmes.

Capacity building at the system level requires a deliberate focus on ensuring pathways are clearly developed and communicated, where every employee who seeks promotion as a leader knows the professional learning opportunities available, selection criteria and performance indicators necessary to advance their careers. In order to guarantee successful implementation, the MoE is establishing a *Virtual Centre of Educational Leadership (VCoEL)* within the Ministry of Education. Rather than adopt a traditional (Western) approach where a new initiative requires a new section, recruiting a team of people and financing – we have decided to create a VCoEL, one which has clear structure and performance objectives, but which draws

on expertise from people in their current positions for a specific purpose in a short period of time to support. The VCoEL has responsibilities for quality assuring that all professional learning for leaders is continually updated to reflect the ever-changing trends and priorities within the schools and the MoE, where the improvement of student outcomes will remain our highest priority. It will play a coordination and quality assurance role within the MoE. Working closely with the Bahrain Teachers College, leaders will have access to some University-level programs that they can use towards higher awards if they decide upon such a path. The immediate focus of the VCoEL in the next few years is to ensure all leadership development programs are centered on instructional and transformational leadership.

Establishing new leadership roles (such as Senior Chiefs, Chief of Schools), has provided a high-level approach to supporting school-based leaders. Often, the Senior Chiefs and Chief of Schools are the leaders of professional learning for principals, who have responsibility to apply their learning within their school. In the early years of the education reform in Bahrain, a small number of expatriate education consultants provided all the training for principals and chief of schools. Fortunately, since 2012 there has been transitioning of expertise from MoE since Senior Chiefs and Chief of Schools are now heading up most of the school improvement efforts occurring in clusters and schools. Their role is providing a balance between support and accountability and is a healthy example of how a system has developed sufficient capacity so it has momentum and is now well positioned to sustain and maintain continuity of education reform.

In the school year 2013/14, a number of new leadership programs will further enhance the quality of leadership within the MoE. Using a 'flipped instruction' approach, a new leadership program that targets the principals of boys' schools[*] will be implemented. This program will require all participants (principals) to watch a number of short video clips that present critical aspects of leadership and use this as a platform for the first few days of the program. The focus of this leadership will be an innovative action-learning school project where each principal must design and implement a specific program in which they will reflect on international vignettes as inspiration thought-starters for behavioral implementation.

Lever 4 – Re-Designing Organizational Structures

There are times in any education improvement or reform program where the organizational structure needs to be reviewed and adapted. Sometimes budgets will dictate the need for alternative structures, whilst in other situations reviewing the organizational structure may be sufficient to improve efficiency. In Bahrain, a few critical changes were introduced subsequent to the initial design, aimed at further improving efficiency and positively impacting upon educational leadership. An example is the introduction and availability of a 'help desk'. Our diagnostic reports

[*] In Bahrain all public schools are single gender and not co-educational. However it is not uncommon for some primary boys schools to have a majority of female staff.

clearly illustrated that school leaders (and teams) were spending too much time on administrative issues and less on instructional priorities; they had reverted to customary practises. Multiple directorates and departments within the central MoE office were sending duplicate requests to schools and quite often these requests required the same information! As a result, school leaders were too busy collecting the necessary information, completing the paperwork and faxing/emailing the required report and were simply overwhelmed by the sheer volume of repeated requests for irrelevant details derailing the process. There was a clear need to change this trend and support schools. The MoE could not ask leaders to change their behaviour and leadership until there were some structural changes to divert these unnecessary demands. A practical solution was to create a 'help desk'.

The 'help desk' was established with a central dispatch and three main units: (1) teacher issues, (2) student and issues and (3) school issues. If the issue did not fall within any of these three categories, it would be referred to the 'administration section'. To clarify, within the central MoE many directorates would ask the same information from schools, such as student numbers. To help streamline, the MoE introduced a key policy stating at all directorates that wish to communicate information with schools must first communicate with the central dispatch section of the help desk. After the issue was classified by the central dispatch it was referred to one of the three units or the administration section where a decision would be made on whether the request is to be sent to the school or if another directorate had already asked for the same information.

The results from this simple and practical innovation have been very positive. From focus group forums, principals and assistant principals are describing increased available time at the school level and have been reaffirmed towards school and student improvement rather than time-consuming but less relevant administration issues. The MoE further strengthened the support for schools by establishing a new position called 'School Business Manager'. This position, although in the early stages, has been created to handle the majority of administrative matters that a principal has traditionally had to manage such as building maintenance, finance, preparation of letters and liaising with the central MoE's help desk.

In addition to the help desk, the MoE has established 'clusters of schools'. Each cluster consists of approximately 8 to 10 schools and is under the leadership of a 'Chief of School' (CoS). Five 'Senior Chiefs' positions were also created to support the CoS' and to provide higher-level leadership across the education system. The 'clusters of schools' is not a new concept in education –the United States has districts, United Kingdom has local authorities and Singapore has zones as three international examples. The implementation of clusters and the two new positions (Senior Chiefs and Chief of Schools), have been wonderful examples of increasing efficiency and performance through ensuring the support and accountability mechanism is in place.

In the future as we shift more responsibility and autonomy to schools that have demonstrated 'good' or 'outstanding' achievement, we will further enrich the

performance dialogues and ensure peer principal visits will place school leaders and their leadership teams in the 'hot seat'. Depending on a school's overall performance and assessment of leadership, schools (and leaders) may have greater autonomy in the near future. In Finland, one of the highest performing education systems, Sahlberg (2010) asserts that some schools experience relatively higher autonomy than other schools over their operations and budgets (p. 87). Principals will be required to take full responsibility of the learning outcomes of both students and staff within their schools and be actively engaged in this process. New professional learning opportunities, such as shadowing, intra-cluster and inter-cluster learning communities for principals will support their understanding and ability to lead their teams.

Lever 5 – Parent And Community Learning, Support And Engagement

In Bahrain, public schools are generally not seen as places where parents and the community are actively involved or engaged. It is as if there is a moat around schools and what goes on there has nothing to do with students' families or the community. Although many schools have parent councils, few provide parents with a genuine opportunity to share in the decisions or policies within the school. Parents generally see the school as the sole provider of education for their children and therefore have little engagement. Sadly, attending an 'open day' or dropping off and collecting their children are the extent of parental involvement. Embedded within the MoE ELS is a required commitment by all school leaders to seek active partnerships with parents and members of the community to make sure they play a complementary role in helping their children learn. Reason (2012) reinforces the need for transformational leaders to work hard to build a connected culture where leaders create safe, focused and collaborative working environments.

The MoE will work closely with school leaders to help them identify ways to support parents so they can engage with and support their children's education. School leaders will create effective parent councils, which are engaged with the school and share in the collective responsibilities for school and student improvement. As leaders develop these partnerships with parents, they will design and implement parental engagement plans. In the early stages of implementation, school leaders (initially through principal workshops), will receive ideas from best-practices within the GCC and beyond, of which they will be required to contextualize within their own school community and implement. Chief of Schools will make this parental and community learning a priority within their cluster of schools and capture innovative and positive examples to share with all schools.

Lever 6 – Succession Planning, Including Recruitment

Although this paper has introduced recent and imminent structural changes, the MoE is focused on the next generation of leaders. In the absence of alternatives, the MoE has characteristically placed emphasis on tenure and testing as primary criteria for advancing. This has led to many problems where narrow band 'rote learning' to perform well in a leadership test has little transferability or generalisability within the

school for improving student outcomes. Like many education systems, Bahrain has some extremely talented teachers and leaders who are in need of opportunities and encouragement to be long-term and high-impact educational leaders able to hold their own on the international stage.

Often referred to as 'leadership pipeline', our priority is to create pools of talent available at every level of leadership where a rigorous selection process results in only the top performers being promoted to the next leadership level. The MoE's Directorate of Planning and Human Resources develop staffing modeling projections where we can forecast the number of employees who will retire over the five to ten years, as well as potential vacancies as a result of new schools to cater for the increased population. Succession planning and recruitment for leadership positions has already commenced. For instance the Chief of Schools is currently working closely with principals to get a better estimation of potential leaders in schools. Additionally, individuals may self-select into professional development programs aligned to their needs and goals.

This concept of pipelining talent through accurate identification is part of the MoE's focus on building executive leaders. Collins (2001) in his pioneering research around finding out the characteristics of high-performing companies suggests that there are five levels of leaders (see Exhibit 2). Level 1 leaders are described as highly capable individuals, through to Level 5 leaders as executive leaders who embody a paradoxical mix of personal humility and professional will. Collins suggests that Level 5 leaders set up successes for even great success in the next generation as opposed to egocentric leaders who set up their successes for failure. In Bahrain, the design of leadership pathways and the importance now placed on talent identification, development and support is aligned with Collins' (2001) thinking and scholarly research. Through empowerment, coaching and access to high-performing leaders in the MoE, talented teachers will be fast-tracked into leadership programs which don't necessarily take them out of the classroom as a teacher, but provide them with new learning, skills and experiences to allow them to grow as an individual, teacher and leader for the future.

Figure 2: Collins Five levels of leadership (2001)

Lever 7 – Formal Pathways And Cadre

Although succession planning and talent pools are both important, the MoE has commenced the process of reviewing and amending formal pathways for teachers and leaders to be promoted, aligned with the contemporary approach. Part of this review is a clear mandate on improved access for motivated employees who achieve positive results within their current position to become eligible for promotion. A formal selection pathway which clearly defines the necessary minimum experience needed, required professional learning programmes to successfully complete at each level, as well as a heavy concentration on impact and achievement will form the basis of selection is to be implemented. Those experienced leaders who currently hold key leadership positions will be required to undertake professional learning to guarantee they are equipped with the required contemporary skills and experiences to lead schools for the future. This support will come from both the Virtual Centre of Educational Leadership within the MoE, as well as through the Bahrain Teachers College.

Whilst all leaders will be provided with opportunities to participate in and complete satisfactorily the required professional development, there will be astrong emphasis placed on their direct impact on their current leadership role. Talent identification of existing teachers will support the promotion of these individualsinto

leadership positions without having to leave the classroom. In order to achieve these new aspirations, the MoE will work closely with the Civil Service Bureau to change the existing Cadre and increase the flexibility for promotion, whilst complying with minimum professional learning requirements and rigorous selection processes are in place to select the best and to create talent pools.

Changing approaches to educational leadership at the system level requires an understanding of how adults learn. So far our experience suggests there are some current leaders who will resist change and others who will embrace new opportunities and strive to make the necessary mindshifts. The development of policies to support required changes, such as challenging underperforming leaders, has already been supported by system-level change. Hargreaves and Shirley (2009) provide valuable warnings suggesting that the hardest part of educational change is not how to start it, but to ensure it lasts and spreads. Whilst there is always a temptation to focus energy of those who resist, our experiences suggest capturing and sharing success stories of best practices impact upon an entire cohort since a felt sense of collaboration arises. Challenging long-held beliefs and practices such as asking leaders to reduce their administrative time by up to 80 per cent is not easy to achieve in the first instance. Butut when the system's leaders require a greater focus on instructional leadership in order to improve student achievement and engagement, there really is no other option.

IN SUMMARY AND REVIEW

Apart from relating this story of education reform in Bahrain and progress within educational leadership, there is a deliberate attempt to build professional learning networks and to enhance innovation across the entire system. In this regard the MoE is part of a much larger design and plan for Bahrain. The MoE has established clusters of schools where learning is socially created and shared. In the next academic year, clusters will implement formal reading circles to encourage professional readingby leaders and more importantly for them to discuss what these new insights can mean for their school and all schools. Principals will model reading circles as networks of principals within clusters and have responsibility for cascading and sharing within their own leadership teams. Professional networks will exist both face-to-face and asynchronously. Louis & Leithwood et al. (2010) highlight both the important roles principals have as central figures in leadership, whilst reinforcing the importance of collective leadership in delegating decisions and sharing responsibility.

Latest approaches to learning and leading have focused onto 'flipped instruction' - a practice where key resources (or homework) are distributed before the workshop or lesson and therefore allowing greater discussion time and activities during the session. Originally developed in 2000 in the United States by Wes Baker at Cedarville College, the flipped classroom model has gained widespread traction across the world in recent years as a means to integrate computer and online resources with day-to-day coursework. In 2013/14, the MoE will for the first time design and deliver a 'Leading Boys' Schools Leadership Program' which will use flipped instruction techniques to engage principals of boys schools and to ensure they arrive

at day one of the program with similar concepts. Our leaders will continue to be supported to innovate, through grants for their school and a sense of pride in their local community. At all times we will support, challenge and capture both successes and failures as opportunities to learn and grow. The modeling of required leadership behavior will be supported through policy development, professional development programs and learning networks.

REFERENCES

Bahrain Teachers College.(2013). Goals and objectives.Retrieved August 22, 2013, from http://www.btc.uob.edu.bh/contents.aspx?id=17feb7c2-bd4d-e211-a2f6-0022191ecece&gid=1.

Barber, M., Whelan, F. & Clark, M. (2010), *Capturing the leadership premium*, McKinsey & Company, http://mckinseyonsociety.com/capturing-the-leadership-premium/

Collins, J. (2001). *Good to great.* New York, United States: Harper Collins.

Craig, J., & Bentley, T. (2005).*System leadership.*Nottingham, United Kingdom*:* Demos/NCSL.

Hargreaves, A., & Fullan, M. (2012).*Professional capital: Transforming teaching in every school.* Toronto, Canada: Ontario Principals' Council.

Hargreaves, A., & Shirley, D. (2009).*The fourth way: The inspiring future for educational change.* California, United States: Corwin.

Hattie, J. (2003), *Teachers make a difference: What is the research evidence?* Australian Council for Educational Research.

Heifetz, R. A., &Linsky, M. (2002), *Leadership on the line.* Boston, MA: Harvard University Press.

Leithwood, K., Day, C., Sammons, P., Harris, A. & Hopkins, D. (2006).*Successful school leadership: What it is and how it influences pupil learning*. Nottingham, UK: National College for School Leadership and Department for Education and Skills.

Level 5 Leadership [Image]. (2013). Retrieved August 19, 2013, from: http://www.managementstudyguide.com/level-5-leadership.htm

Louis, K. S., Leithwood, K., Wahlstrom, K.L, Anderson, S. E. et al, (2010).*Learning from leadership: Investigating the links to improved student learning. Final report of research to the Wallace Foundation,* Minnesota, US: University of Minnesota.

Mehta, J., Schwartz, R. B., & Hess, F. M. (2012).*The futures of school reform.* Massachusetts, United States: Harvard Education Press.

Reason, C. (2012).*100 days to leadership impact*. Victoria, Australia: Hawker Brownlow Education.

Reissig, S. (2007). Developing empathic leadership through self-transformation. *New Zealand Journal of Educational Leadership*, 22 (2), 49-54.

Sahlberg, P. (2010). *Finnish lessons: What can the world learn from educational change in Finland,* New York, United States: Teachers College Press.

World Factbook CIA United States, https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/ba.html, accessed August 13, 2013 at 11:15 am.

CULTURE OF TEACHING AND LEARNING (COTL): THE ROLE OF THE CHARACTER TRAITS OF ROLE PLAYERS IN SCHOOLS

Masoumeh Pourrajab
Ramli Basri
Shaffe Mohd Daud
Soaib Asimiran

Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM)

ABSTRACT

The present study was designed to identify the level of Culture of Teaching and Learning (COTL) in Lorestan province, Iran, and to investigate the relationship between the character traits of role players and COTL based on students' view. The researchers employed multivariate regression analysis to explore the relationship between the characters of role player and COTL. The participants in this study included 400 secondary school students in Lorestan province, Iran. The findings of this study showed that students' view of the practice of COTL at their schools is at medium level. The researchers also found that there is a moderately strong relationship between character traits of role players and COTL. In spite of various researches on COTL in education, no research has been found to demonstrate the relationship between character traits of role players and COTL. Therefore, this research is a unique study of the educational system to explain a new path of future research in relation to character traits of role players and COTL.

Keywords: *Culture of Teaching and Learning (COTL), Teaching and Learning (T&L) process, students, role player, Iran*

INTRODUCTION

The excellent culture of teaching and learning (COTL) is considered as positive COTL (Smith & Schalekamp, 1997). Van Deventer and Kruger (2003) referred to positive COTL as the attitudes of all role players (principals, teachers, students, and parents) towards teaching and learning (T&L) and the current quality of management in T&L process in school. They also stated that schools with positive COTL present some characteristics such as an attractive classroom climate, teachers who are committed to teaching, students are involved in T&L activities, order and discipline prevail, existence of good relationship between school staff and students, effective management, and teamwork in school and classroom. Subsequently, the necessary infrastructure and facilities are in place and are neat and safe for T&L. Lastly, principals and teachers maintained high professional standards (Rampa, 2004).

One of the principal's tasks is to build and create a quality culture in schools (Oakland, 2003). Bond (2001) argues that it is the responsibility of principals to

inspire, support, sustain, promote, and improve a culture of performance excellence. Rampa (2004) pointed out that, excellence performance in the school context would mean principals ensuring teachers and students doing their best in managing T&L respectively; representing commitment to a culture of performance; providing support and appropriating resources and assistance; and creating cooperation with teachers, students and parents.

The primary task of a teacher is to teach but for teaching tasks to be didactically and pedagogically effective, teaching has to be properly managed. Teachers must know their students and also students' needs. They must try to focus on establishing a relationship with their students. Consequently, they build a relationship of trust in which students are respected, understood, and recognized for what they are. Teachers prepare themselves to identify students' expectations. The creation of an environment conducive to T&L strategies such as learning tools and methodology to provide the chance for students to practice their skills and to establish a cooperative learning climate in which they understand the activities of team work and are able to give and take in a team situation (Rampa, 2004). Teachers who create such classrooms contribute to the creation and maintenance of an environment, atmosphere or spirit, conductive into COTL. Through the teachers' dedication and commitment, students' negative attitudes can be changed and they can be motivated to take charge of their learning through diverse cultures that need to be connected by common values (Miller, 2011).

In positive COTL, students are regarded as the primary customers (Silins & Murray-Harvey, 2000). Consequently, self-concept student is valued as an element that facilitates the attainment of outcomes related to academic achievement since it determines academic self-concept. The latter, if good, may lead to ownership of learning by learners. Even the quality of school life as experienced by learners is influenced by their perceived academic success and the extent to which they feel good about themselves as students. Silins and Murray-Harvey (2000) found that there is evidence to suggest learners' feelings about their experience of school environment that shapes their future plans and influences their learning. Therefore, a sense of achievement and a positive attitude towards the quality of school life are crucial to improved school performance. Belonging to a school community and learning how to learn are also regarded as important indicators of quality schooling, with students' approaches to learning and studying being linked to the quality of their learning and to their academic achievement. If students want to be successful in learning, they must be punctual at school, listen to and be tolerant of others' opinions, accept responsibility for securing their own safety, possessions and respect the personal property of others, and not damage school properties.

Parents play a major role in positive COTL (Cronje, Jacobs, & Murdoch, 2002). However, parents' contribution to the quality of T&L is hard to detect and often goes unrecognized. Parents could help to sustain positive COTL by keeping students busy during teachers' absence, assisting in practicing skills such as reading and writing, checking work and revising homework. Parents may eventually assist with

administrative tasks such as completing stock lists and drawing up budgets, filing forms such as applications for excursions and fundraising. Involvement of parents in the education of their children in the new education dispensation is necessary for full partnerships in education (Rampa, 2004). Brannon (2008) believed that parents are primary teachers of their children; they are responsible for the care, development and education of their children. However, they may not have time, knowledge or training to provide all that to their children. Schools are therefore established for planned and specialized T&L.

In the Iranian education system, COTL refers to factors such as school climate (ensuring secure and healthy environments), attitude of principals, teachers, students and parents about the T&L process. It also involves using new teaching techniques, responsibility and commitment of principals and teachers, involvement of teachers, students, and parents in school decision making, ensuring the availability of stationery, books, laboratories, and library, and establishing a culture of punctuality at school. In this study, COTL refers to attitude of principals and teachers about T&L process, school environment and school process.

How the character traits of principals, teachers, students, and parents affect the level of COTL in Iranian schools, especially in the province of Lorestan is not clear. Therefore, this area is still open for more research. Thus this study tries to identify the level of implementation of COTL in school and also find the relationship between the character traits of role players in school and level of COTL based on students' view.

METHODOLOGY

This quantitative descriptive research employed a survey instrument to answer the following research questions:

- What is the level of COTL among students in schools?
- Is there any statistically significant between the character traits of role players and level of COTL based on students' opinion?

The research respondents for this study were secondary school students in the Lorestan province, Iran. A total of 42870 students from 10 cities of this province formed the target population. For the aims of this study, the sample size was consists of 400 second and third grade secondary school students from 4 different cities (namely Khoramabad, Borojerd, Kohdasht and Azna) in Lorestan province, Iran.

Instrument used in the study was the 4 point Likert's scale questionnaire prepared by Rampa (2004). This questionnaire consists of 72 items, of which 7 are for measuring the level of COTL (part B_5), 9 are items related to character traits of principals (part B_1), 23 items for character traits of teachers (part B_2), 16 items for character traits of students (part B_3), and 17 items for character traits of parents (part B_4).

The questionnaire were first written in English, but since all the participants were Iranian and Farsi is the formal language used in Iran, the instrument was translated into the Farsi language by two experts from the field of education and English language. The Farsi version of the questionnaire was then back-translated into English and compared with the original version to ensure that translation and the Farsi version of the questionnaire were as clear as the English version. The Cronbach's alpha value was 0.907, which showed that the questionnaire has an excellent reliability (George & Mallery, 2001).

FINDINGS

Of the 400 students who participated in this study, 172 respondents (43%) were in the second grade and 228 respondents (57%) were in the third grade. The majority of participants, i.e. 210 (52.5%) were female students and 190 (47.5%) were male students. The mean age of students in this study was 13.42 years old.

The level of COTL among students in different schools' cities

Table 1 presents the overall score of efforts undertaken by the students. Overall level of effort to improve COTL in Lorestan province is medium (Mean=2.80; SD=1.05). This indicates that the effort in improving COTL in schools is at medium level.

Table 2*: Mean Distribution of students' opinion regarding the level of COTL*

City	Mean	SD	Level	Rank
Khoramabad	3.00	.98	Medium	1
Kohdasht	2.97	.96	Medium	2
Borojerd	2.74	1.11	Medium	3
Azna	2.48	1.14	Medium	4
Overall	2.80	1.05	Medium	

Note: Low (1.00< M ≤2.00), Medium (2.01 <M ≤3.00), High (3.01 <M ≤4.00)

Table 1 also illustrates the mean score of efforts to improve COTL in different cities. As perceived by students, the highest level of COTL is in Khoramabad (mean=3.00; SD=.99), followed by Kohdasht (Mean=2.97; SD=.96), Borojerd (Mean=2.74; SD=1.11), and Azna (Mean=2.48; SD=1.14). This data means that in Khoramabad the efforts made to improve COTL is the highest compared to other cities.

The relationship between the character traits of role players and COTL based on students' view

The second research question of this study is: 'Is there any significant relationship between the character traits of role player and COTL based on students perception?' Multivariate regression analysis was used to investigate the correlation between the characters of role player as the explanatory variable and COTL as dependent variable. To check the multicollinearity among the independent variables, VIF (variance

inflation factor) was used. VIF values in this study are below 10.00 (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2010) (See Table 4). Thus, there was no multicollinearity problem between predictor variables in this study. As discussed earlier, role players are principals, teachers, students, and parents. In this study, B_1, B_2, B_3, and B_4 are serially used for character of principals, teachers, students and parents.

The regression analysis yielded a multiple correlation coefficient (R) of .463, which means that there is a positive and moderate relationship (Lodico, Spaulding, & Voegtle, 2006) between the character traits of role player and COTL (see Table 2).

Table 3*: The relationship between the dependent variable and the set of predictors*

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.463	.214	.206	.753

The derived multiple coefficient of determination (R^2) is .214, which means that 21.4% of variations in the dependent variable are explained by the set of predictors. This also means that the accuracy of the variables of characters of principals, teachers, students and parents in predicting the level of COTL is 21.4%. The overall regression model is significant even at the 0.01 level (p=0.000) with F-ratio of 26.896 (see Table 3).

Table 4*: ANOVA result based on students' opinion*

	Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	61.007	4	15.252	26.896	.000[a]
	Residual	223.987	395	.567		
	Total	284.994	399			

Table 5*: Estimates of Coefficients for COTL based on students' view*

Coefficients[a]							
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	.213	.286		.747	.455		
B1	.282	.093	.166	3.039	.003	.670	1.494
B2	.249	.100	.145	2.491	.013	.588	1.700
B3	.063	.083	.042	.766	.444	.679	1.474
B4	.410	.082	.257	4.992	.000	.751	1.332
a. Dependent Variable: B5							

Table 4 shows the parameter estimates of the regression, which represent the regression coefficients or slope of each predictor variable. The t statistics indicate the significance of the constant and each of the parameter estimates. The regression model has a constant of .213 and is not significant at the 0.05 level (p=0.455). Parameter estimates for characters of principals, teachers, students and parents are .282, .249, .063 and .410 respectively. The t statistics provide the significance of each parameter estimate characters of parents is the most significant explanatory variable in predicting COTL in students' opinion. The significant level of 0.000 for this variable indicates 0% error. Principal characters are a significant predictor at the 0.05 level (p=0.003). Teachers characters are a significant predictor at the 0.05 level (p=0.013) while student characters are not significant at all (p=0.444). The derived model is:

Improving COTL= .213+ .282*B_1+ .249*B_2+.063*B_3+ 0.410*B_4

Therefore, COTL has a positive correlation with characters of principals (B_1), characters of teachers (B_2), characters of students (B_3) and characters of parents (B_4).

The prediction equation of perceive COTL is as follows:

$Y=b_0+ B_4(X_4) + B_1(X_1) + B_2(X_2) + e$
COTL= .213 + .410 (characters of parents) + .282 (characters of principals) + .249 (characters of teachers) + e

The prediction equation depicts overall contribution of three out of four character traits of role players including principals, teachers, and parents in predicting COTL in Iranian secondary schools based on students' view.

The perceive COTL model is presented in Figure 1. The model indicates that the remaining dimension (character traits of students) is not a significant predictor of perceived COTL based on students' opinion.

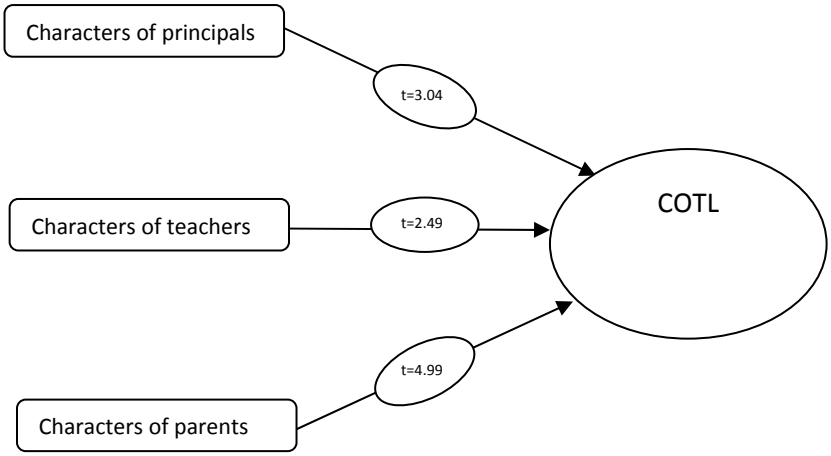


Figure 2: Perceived COTL model based on students' view

It can be concluded that, from students view, there is a moderately strong relationship (R=.46) between character traits of principals, teachers, students, and parents and COTL. It means students believed that character of role player can improve COTL and the characters of parents and principals have a more important role; the next variable comprises the characters of teachers and students respectively. All characteristics of role player have a positive relationship with COTL.

DISCUSSION

This study asked students to express their view on the level of COTL in their school. The results of this study illustrate that the level of COTL as viewed by students is medium (Mean= 2.80). Increasing the level of COTL is one of the factors to improve the quality of education (Kruger, 2003). All of the role players in school can be effective in improving the level of COTL. To increase the level of COTL, there are some responsibilities for teachers and principals that must be met. Teachers can try using correct evaluation methods. They can measure student learning in many ways, including but not limited to gains made on standardized tests, improvement on periodic classroom assessments, and performance in end-of-course exams (Alobiedat, 2011). This indicates that, school principals and teachers must understand the needs and expectations of students (Alobiedat, 2011) to achieve student-oriented system. Another reason for the perception of medium level of COTL among students is the overcrowded classrooms (Kruger, 2003; Owoeye & Yara, 2011). The average number of students in each classroom is 30 persons in secondary schools in Iran, instead of 1-20 students in each class (Owoeye & Yara, 2011).

Glasser (1992) pointed out that the majority of students in his study believed that the current academic curriculum is not worth the effort it takes to learn it. No matter how well the teachers manage them, if students do not find quality in what they are

asked to do in the classroom, they will not work hard enough to learn the materials. The answer is not to try to make them work harder, the answer is to increase the quality of what we ask them to learn. The level of COTL in Iran based on students' attitude, studied by Salimi and Godarzi (2002), found that the level of COTL was medium in Tehran.

The characters of parents are the most significant explanatory variable in predicting COTL in students' opinion. Parents are their children's first and most important teachers. This role does not change when their children enter school. As children enter school, teachers join in the process of shaping children's minds, attitudes, and behaviors by forming a partnership with parents and principals. Parent involvement results in students attaining higher academic achievement (Fan & Chen, 2001), more positive attitudes about homework, and improved perceptions of their own competence (Brannon, 2008). Bryant, Peisner-Feinberg, and Miller-Johnson (2000) found that parents involvement is necessary for students' success in school. Children develop much of their identity and their beliefs about right and wrong before ever formally entering school. However, schools and parents need to work together to continue developing students' character throughout their educational career (Brannon, 2008).

Epstein (1994, 1992) expanded the typology and defined six levels (types) of school-related opportunities for parental involvement: (1) assisting parents in child rearing skills, (2) school-parent communication, (3) involving parents in school volunteer opportunities, (4) involving parents in home-based learning, (5) involving parents in school decision-making, and (6) involving parents in school-community collaborations (Fan & Chen, 2001).

The characters of teachers and principals are significant explanatory variable in predicting COTL. But parents and teachers have the most time with kids, so they have more opportunities for impact (Brannon, 2008). The findings suggest that parents involve themselves in student homework because they believe that they should be involved, suppose that their involvement will make a positive difference, and perceive that their children or children's teachers want their involvement (Hoover-Dempsey *et al.*, 2001). Parents' involvement in activities takes many forms, from establishing structures for homework performance to teaching for understanding and developing student learning strategies. Operating largely through modeling, reinforcement, and instruction, parents' homework involvement appears to influence student success insofar as it supports student attributes related to achievement (e.g., attitudes about homework, perceptions of personal competence, self-regulatory skills). The perception that parental involvement has positive effect on students' academic achievement/success is so intuitively appealing that policy makers, school board principals, teachers, parents, and even students themselves, have agreed that parental involvement is critical for children's academic success (Fan & Chen, 2001).

In fact, students expect effective lessons and practices in value added environment. Such added value primarily consists of support to ensure well-equipped

library and laboratory, providing materials like as books, videos, maps (principals duty), adequate preparation for the final exam which needs good and knowledge teachers, to enable them to achieve the hoped-for grades (Barone & Franco, 2009). Therefore, a student who is satisfied with a course is pleased by the lessons and practices and is interested to study the related content. This satisfaction constitutes one of the outputs of the teaching process, a direct benefit to the students. In the case of teaching, in order that the process is effective, 'students are not passive consumers of services, but must be actively engaged in the learning process' (Barone & Franco, 2009). Here, students are perceived as customers of the modern educational system (Thakkar, Deshmukh, & Shastree, 2006). It is worth to pay attention to students' needs.

CONCLUSION

The purposes of the current study were to determine the level of COTL, as well as, investigate the relationship between character traits of role players and COTL. It was found that the level of COTL is medium for students. This shows that students are less satisfied with the current situation. There are so many way to increase the level of COTL. Principal and teachers must understand the needs and expectations of students to switch to a student-oriented system. Overcrowded classrooms could be another reason for this medium level. Teachers should be able to measure student learning using different method such as periodic classroom assessments and apply correct evaluation method accordingly.

The important finding in this study was a moderately strong relationship between character traits of role players and COTL based on students' view. This proved that there is a positive effect of role players on COTL. Student learning is everyone's responsibility: principal, teachers, students, parents, school staff, society, and media. Based on students' opinion the characters of parents play a more important role for COTL.

The principals and teachers are people who are available in the daily school life, and also they are academics who can guide students correctly, so the principals and teachers must try to have more effect on COTL for the sake of the students. There is therefore a need to give students what they need and what they expect. They expect useful lessons and practices, opportunities to add value to their education. Such added value primarily consists of support to ensure a well-equipped library and laboratory, materials like books, videos, maps (principals' duty), adequate preparation for the final exam, which needs good and knowledgeable teachers (teachers' duty). Principals must involve parents in school decision-making more than before; they must be a part of decision making in schools.

REFERENCES

Alobiedat, A. (2011). The Effectiveness of the School Performance, by Using the Total Quality Standards within the Education District of Al-Petra Province, from the Perspective of the Public Schools Principals and Teachers. *International Education Studies, 4*(2), 31-40.

Barone, S., & Franco, E. L. (2009). Design of a university course quality by teaching experiments and etudent feedback (TESF). *Total Quality Management, 20*(7), 687-703.

Bond, W. (2001). *Ideas Management*. Pretoria: South African Excellence Model.

Brannon, D. (2008). Character Education: A Joint Responsibility. *Education Digest: Essential Readings Condensed for Quick Review, 73*(8), 56-60.

Brannon, D. (2008). Character Education: It's a Joint Responsibility. *Kappa Delta Pi Record, 44*(2), 62-65.

Bryant, D., Peisner-Feinberg, E., & Miller-Johnson, S. (2000). *Head Start Parents' Roles in the Educational Lives of Their Children*. Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans.

Cronje, W. W., Jacobs, B. M., & Murdoch. (2002). The Development of Excellence Model. *Total Quality Management, 10*(10).

Epstein, J. L. (1994).Theory to practice: School and family partnerships lead to school improvement and student success. *School, family, and community interaction: A view from the firing lines*, 39-52.

Epstein, J. L., & Connors, L. J. (1992). School and family partnerships. *Practitioner, 18*(4), n4.

Fan, X., & Chen, M. (2001). Parental involvement and students' academic achievement: A meta-analysis. *Educational psychology review, 13*(1), 1-22.

George, D., & Mallery, P. (2001). *SPSS for Windows Step by step: A simple guide and Refrence* (3rd ed.). United States of America Allyn & Bacon.

Glasser, W. (1992). The quality school curriculum. *The Phi Delta Kappan, 73*(9), 690-694.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E., & Tatham, R. L. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis* (7th ed.): Prentice Hall Upper Saddle River, NJ.

Hoover-Dempsey, K. V., Battiato, A. C., Walker, J. M. T., Reed, R. P., DeJong, J. M., & Jones, K. P. (2001). Parental involvement in homework. *Educational Psychologist, 36*(3), 195-209.

Kruger, A. (2003). Instructional leadership: the impact on the culture of teaching and learning in two effective secondary schools. *South African Journal of Education, 23*(3), 206-211.

Lodico, M. G., Spaulding, D. T., & Voegtle, K. H. (2006). *Methods in Educational Research: from Theory to Practice*. San Francisco: Wiley.

Miller, O. P. (2011). *A Phenomenological Case Study of a Principal Leadership: The Influence of Mr. Clark's Leadership on Students, Teachers and Administrators at Eastside High School.* Georgia State University.

Oakland, J. (2003). *Total Quality Management: Text with Cases*. London: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Owoeye, J. S., & Yara, P. O. (2011). Class Size and Academic Achievement of Secondary School in Ekiti State, Nigeria. *Asian Social Science 7*(6).

Rampa, S. H. (2004). *The Relationship between Total Quality Management and School Improvement.* Doctoral thesis, University of Pretoria, South Africa.

Salimi, G., & Godarzi, A. (2002). *Education with Quality "the Phenomenon of the 21st Century"*. Paper presented at the National Congress in Educational Reform. Tehran, Iran, Tehran, Iran.

Silins, H. C., & Murray-Harvey, R. (2000). Students as a central concern: School, students and outcome measures. *Journal of Educational Administration, 38*(3), 230-246.

Smith, D., & Schalekamp, S. (1997). *Restoring a culture of teaching and learning. results of phase one of a project in the West Rand. Department of education.* Paper presented at the EASA Conference, January, RAU, Johannesburg.

Thakkar, J., Deshmukh, S., & Shastree, A. (2006). Total quality management (TQM) in self-financed technical institutions: A quality function deployment (QFD) and force field analysis approach. *Quality Assurance in Education, 14*(1), 54-74.

Van Deventer, I., & Kruger, A. (2003). *An educator's guide to school management skills*: Van Schaik Publishers.

A REVIEW OF TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT MODELS

Roya Roustaee
Shuhaida Abdul Kadir
Soaib Asimiran

Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM)

ABSTRACT

Attention to teacher professional development has increased rapidly in recent years. Teachers' professional development has an essential effect on school effectiveness and student achievement. The teacher is the key figure when it comes to influencing student performance and therefore teacher professional development programmes are in the centre of attention. This article precedes professional development, the underlying theories and models that may be appropriate to use in this process.

Keywords: *teachers' professional development, Situated Learning Theory, observation, action-research*

INTRODUCTION

Since current educational systems are under pressure to attain more efficacies and fulfil changes (Buchen, 2003; Desimone, 2009; Fullan,1999; O'Brien & Christie, 2008), teachers carry heavier burden because the main responsibility in this regard has shifted from the administration to the teachers. Many researches showed that one of the most important school-related factors influencing students' achievement is an informed and inspiring teacher, so it is essential to pay greater attention to teachers' learning. According to Bransford, Derry, Berliner, Hammerness, & Beckett, (2005), in order to face the complex and new situation properly, teachers should launch effective life-long learning. Nicholls (2000) noted that one aspect of lifelong learning is professional development, so practitioners must be aware of the need for constant learning.

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

According to Jackson & Davis (2000), teachers' professional development is a range of informal and formal activities that involve teachers in both inside and outside of the school for developing their teaching skills and knowledge. Glatthom (1995) traditionally defined professional development as the progress in teaching skills which are attained through a systematic learning process throughout the whole career cycle. Hoyle (1982) believed that professional development is a process in which

teacher continues to develop the skills and knowledge which are required for efficient professional practice as new responsibilities are accepted and as situations change.

According to Elmore and Burney (1997), professional development is not a specialized function which is done by specific people. It is what administrative leaders do when they are doing their jobs. Daresh and Playko (1995) defined it as a continuing process for improving development rather than reconstruction. Speck and Knip (2005) believed that professional development is a sustained collaborative learning process that systematically nurtures the individual and collaborative development of teachers through job- embedded, adult learner-centered processes. Merkle and Artman (1983) noted that professional development is a planned experience designed to extract the behaviours that result in personal or professional growth and improved organizational success.

MODELS AND THEORIES IN PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Different models have been proposed for teachers' professional development, namely training/ traditional model, innovation- focused model, action- research model, inquiry, observation, involvement in development/ improvement process, training, individually guided professional development, the promoting change in teaching practice model, teacher study group, cognitively guided training model, training for conceptual change and situated learning theory.

Traditionally, most of the professional development models are based on stage model in which teachers move through stages of cognitive improvement which ranges from novice to expert (Rice & Dawley, 2007). In Dunlop's (1990) model, "innovation-focused" models have been separated from "action-research" models. "Innovation- focused" models contain microteaching, school-based professional development, one-shot seminars, participation in formal award courses, basing a curriculum consultant at a school, and workshops. Action- research model focuses on reflect-in-action through a planned process which is facilitated by a peer or consultant in order to adjust the theory-practice disparity through on-going and personal reflection.

Sparks and Louck-horsley (1989) recognized five different effective development models which are inquiry, observation, involvement in development/ improvement process, training and individually guided professional development.

1. Inquiry/action research that is the ability of teachers in asking questions and problem solving. Sparks and Loucks-Horsley (1989) asserted that by studying on what they do, teachers can ideate on their practices. One important element in action research is teachers' link with knowledge sources and being stimulated by outside experts or perceptions which are assisting in the act of action research. One more factor in action research is a collaborative event with shared and documented results. Nonetheless, this model has some advantages and disadvantages. According to Sparks & Simmons (1989) by using this model, teachers would be more systematic problem- solvers, become more reflective and

more thoughtful decision- makers. Another benefit of this model is that this process would increase the individuals' awareness of their classroom issues, extend the vision toward learning and teaching, help to increase the feeling of confidence, be more thoughtful, and alter educational beliefs and put the theories into practice (Sparks and Loucks-Horsley,1998).They suggested that action research can change the school culture toward a positive path, unite the teachers and increase the collegial interaction.

2. Coaching/mentoring/evaluative/observation which is a compilation of the work of Guskey (2000), and Little (1993) is based on the idea that precise teaching while open debates and managing behaviours of the outcomes, would result in increased effectiveness, awareness and learning (Little, 1993). An individual can increase his/ her own practice by others observations and perceptions (Loucks-Horsley,1998). Loucks-Horsley (1998) noted that perceptions and observations of someone else can increase individuals' reflection on his/ her own practice and teachers are knowledgeable professionals whose experience, observations and experience are precious source of inspiration for other teachers, skill development and knowledge. Guskey (2000) uttered that by using this strategy, a teacher can identify strength and shortcomings which is necessary for him/ her to progress as an individual. He suggested that an effective observation should be well planned, provide follow- up to documented improvements and concentrate on specific issues. Sparks and Loucks-Horsley (1998) believed that the success of this strategy lies in collegiality, skill building through coaching; acclimate of trust, administrative support, on-going growth, mentoring, and a long-term commitment to interaction.
3. Although there is a great shift in professional development, the influence of training strategy is still regarded. Although many of the educators highlighted the importance of this strategy, some researchers asserted that overemphasis on it would make it ineffective (Killion, 2002). Killion (2002) believes that an effective training strategy contains demonstration or modelling, coaching, low-risk practice and other types of continuous support.
4. Individually guided activities concern that teachers are able to evaluate what they learn and plan some strategies to respond the emerging needs, i.e., review research, attend workshops or conferences, take courses, etc. It is based on the assumption that all the individuals have the best professional aims in their mind and when they initiate their own learning activities, they become more motivate (Guskey, 1999). Although the flexibility of this strategy and the offered opportunities for individualization and choice are among advantages of this strategy (Guskey, 1999) and is beneficial for teachers, it's noxious for the organization since it segments staff and restricts their effectiveness in working together in order to attain the organizational goals (Killion, 2002).
5. Development/ improvement process involves gather the educators together in order to dispel a problem or apply a new program containing resolving specific problems, designing strategies to improve instruction, planning novel programs, and reviewing curriculum. Guskey (2000) believed that in this program, participants must obtain new skills or knowledge via observation, discussion, research and reading. According to his point of view, by involvement in this

program, the participants can increase their specific content skills or knowledge, improve the ability of working collaboratively and involve in decision-making. However, a significant disadvantage of this strategy is the limitation in the number of participants. Personal differences may also hinder the process of reform (Guskey, 1999).

Guskey's (1999) model of professional development propose that professional development should precede the application of novel ideas in order to enable teachers to witness positive outcomes of students and try out new ideas before they fully accept a definite model of professional development. He also added study group to the work of Sparks and Louck-horsley (1990). This strategy enables teachers to address the issues which are related to learning and teaching (Loucks-Horsley, 1998). Studies show that within study groups, teachers are provided with a framework in which there are the opportunity to ask questions and study about those questions in a long time (Loucks-Horsley, 2002). Pursuant to Guskey's view (1999) the most important benefit of this strategy is that it brings coherence and focus to development efforts, especially when the groups are well-structured, carefully supervised and well trained. It also fractures intrinsic isolation in schools. However, Sparks and Loucks-Horsley,1989) believe that it is difficult to sustain the study group and it requires spending too much time and endeavour of participants. Tillema and Imants (as cited Guskey & Huberman,1995) reviewed four models of professional development namely, the promoting change in teaching practice model, teacher study group, cognitively guided training model and training for conceptual change.

The promoting change in teaching practice is a model in which the teachers assay their opinion and probably modify inoperative conceptions about expected change (Tillema and Imants as cited in Guskey & Huberman, 1995).

1. Teacher study group that endeavours to reconstruct the work environment via encouraging teachers to attend study groups. The function of study group according to Murphy (1997) is to simplify the application of efforts, and study research on learning and teaching.
2. Cognitively guided training model is an instruction-oriented model that enables teachers to integrate research literature into the process of their problem solving.
3. Training for conceptual change looks for changing the base knowledge of teachers and the instructional strategies.

Elmore (2002), Hyde and Pink (1992), and Lortie (2002) believe that learning in groups is more precious because teachers attain experiences that they can't gain them on their own. According to Waller (1965), teachers acquire empirical insight into the processes of professional interaction by working in groups.

Teacher practice is a model that sometimes is overlooked. This model focuses on what teachers actually do. According to Brown and Duguide (2000), "practice is an effective teacher and the community of practice is ideal learning environment" (p. 127). They asserted that a teacher can be competent only by talking about the work from inside and engaging in the work.

Some researchers believe that situated learning theory is appropriate for increasing professional development both individually and collaboratively (Kwakman, 2003; Mawhinney, 2010; Sato & Kleinsasser, 2004). Situated learning theory is the task that learners do in an environment that shows the various expected uses of the knowledge (Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989).The following table has illustrated the models and their functions briefly.

Table 1: *Situated learning theories and models*

Name of Model/ Theory	**Function**
Innovation- focused (Dunlop,1990)	microteaching, school-based professional development, one-shot seminars, participation in formal award courses, basing a curriculum consultant at a school, and workshops
Action- research (Dunlop, 1990; Sparks & Louck- horsley, 1998)	Reflect-in-action through a planned process which is facilitated by a peer or consultant in order to adjust the theory- practice disparity through on-going and personal reflection
Inquiry (Sparks & Louck-horsley, 1998)	The ability of teachers in asking questions and problem solving.
Observation (Sparks & Louck- horsley, 1998; Guskey,2000; Little,1994)	Increase one's reflection on his/ her own practice
Involvement in development/ improvement process (Sparks & Louck- horsley, 1998)	Gather the educators together in order to dispel a problem or apply a new program containing resolving specific problems, designing strategies to improve instruction, planning novel programs, and reviewing curriculum.
Training (Sparks & Louck- horsley, 1998)	Courses containing coaching, practical feedback, stimulated practice, modelling of skills, and background theories would present as effective training strategy
Individually guided activities in professional development (Sparks & Louck- horsley, 1998)	Teachers evaluate what they learn and plan some strategies to respond the emerged needs, i.e., review research, attend workshops or conferences, take courses, etc
Promoting change in teaching practice Tillema and Imants (1995)	Teachers assay their opinion and probably modify inoperative conceptions about expected change
Teacher study group Tillema and Imants (1995)	Simplify the application of efforts, and study research on learning and teaching
Cognitively guided training Tillema and Imants (1995)	Enables teachers to integrate research literature into the process of their problem solving
Training for conceptual change (Tillema and Imants,1995)	Change the base knowledge of teachers and the instructional strategies
Training/ traditional	Stage model in which teachers move through stages of cognitive improvement which ranges from novice to expert
Teacher practices	What teachers actually do. According to Brown and Duguide (2000) "practice is an effective teacher and the community of practice in ideal learning environment" (p. 127).

Situated learning (a model of learning in a community of practice) (Lave and Wenger, 1991)	The task that learners do in an environment that shows the various expected uses of the knowledge
Teacher Change (Guskey, 2000)	teachers try new ideas and encounter the positive outcomes of students before they entirely enter any model of professional development

CONCLUSION

The most important goal of any school is students' achievement and teachers are the heaviest lever in attaining this goal. So, models should be established and implemented to help teacher find out the best way of teaching content. They also should be equipped with skills and knowledge that enable them to be successful in this way. In order to reach this end, some ways should be implemented to support professional development programs to empower teachers within an on-going process.

REFERENCES

Bransford, J., Derry, S., Berliner, D., Hammerness, K., & Beckett, K. L. (2005). Theories of learning and their roles in teaching. *Preparing teachers for a changing world: What teachers should learn and be able to do*, 40-87.

Brown, J. S., & Duguid, P. (2002). *Social life of information*: Harvard Business Press.

Brown, J. S., Collins, A., & Duguid, P. (1989). Situated cognition and the culture of learning. *Educational researcher, 18*(1), 32-42.

Buchen, I. H. (2003). Education in America: The next 25 years. *Futurist, 37*(1), 44-50.

Daresh, J. C., & Playko, M. A. (1995). *Supervision as a proactive process: Concepts and cases*: ERIC.

Desimone, L. M. (2009). Improving impact studies of teachers' professional development: Toward better conceptualizations and measures. *Educational researcher, 38*(3), 181-199.

Dunlop, R., & Cassin, T. (1990). *Professional development: A review of contemporary literature*: Research Services, Division of Curriculum Studies, Department of Education, Queensland.

Elmore, R. F. (2002). Bridging the gap between standards and achievement: The imperative for professional development in education: Washington, DC.

Elmore, R. F., & Burney, D. (1997). *Investing in teacher learning: Staff development and instructional improvement in Community School District# 2, New York City*: Citeseer.

Fullan, M. (1999). *Change forces: The sequel*: Routledge.

Glatthom, A. (1995). Teacher Development [G]. *Anderson LW. International Encyclopedia of Teaching and Teacher Education. Oxford: Elsevier Science Ltd*.

Guskey, T. R. (1999). *Evaluating professional development*: Corwin.
Guskey, T. R., & Huberman, M. (1995). *Professional Development in Education: New Paradigms and Practices*: ERIC.
Hoyle, E. (1982). The professionalization of teachers: A paradox. *British Journal of Educational Studies, 30*(2), 161-171.
Jackson, A. W., & Davis, G. A. (2000). *Turning Points 2000: Educating adolescents in the 21st century*: ERIC.
Killion, J., & Ottem, N. (2002). *What works in the elementary school: Results-based staff development*: National Staff Development Council.
Kwakman, K. (2003). Factors affecting teachers' participation in professional learning activities. *Teaching and teacher education, 19*(2), 149-170.
Little, J. W. (1993). Teachers' professional development in a climate of educational reform. *Educational evaluation and policy analysis, 15*(2), 129-151.
Lortie, D. C. (2002). *Schoolteacher: A sociological study*: University of Chicago Press Chicago.
Loucks-Horsley, S. Choose effective approaches to staff development. An excerpt of Chapter 12 in Elementary School Science for the 90s. Retrieved December 14, 2002.
Mawhinney, L. (2010). Let's lunch and learn: Professional knowledge sharing in teachers' lounges and other congregational spaces. *Teaching and teacher education, 26*(4), 972-978.
Merkle, H. B., & Artman, R. B. (1983). Staff Development: A Systematic Process for Student Affairs Leaders. *NASPA Journal, 21*(1), 55-63.
Nicholls, G. (2000). Professional development, teaching, and lifelong learning: the implications for higher education. *International journal of lifelong education, 19*(4), 370-377.
O'Brien, J., & Christie, F. (2008). A role for universities in the induction of teachers? A Scottish case study. *Journal of In-service Education, 34*(2), 147-163.
Pink, W. T., & Hyde, A. A. (1992). *Effective staff development for school change*: Ablex Publishing Corporation.
Rice, K., & Dawley, L. (2007). Going virtual! The status of professional development for K-12 online teachers. *Retrieved August, 13*, 2008.
Sato, K., & Kleinsasser, R. C. (2004). Beliefs, practices, and interactions of teachers in a Japanese high school English department. *Teaching and teacher education, 20*(8), 797-816.
Sparks, D., & Loucks-Horsley, S. (1989). Five models of staff development for teachers. *Journal of staff development, 10*(4), 40-57.
Sparks, G. M., & Simmons, J. (1989). Inquiry-oriented staff development: Using research as a source of tools, not rules. *Staff development: A handbook of effective practices*, 126-139.
Speck, M., & Knipe, C. (2005). *Why can't we get it right?: Designing high-quality professional development for standards-based schools*: Corwin.
Stiles, K. E., Loucks-Horsley, S., Mundry, S., Hewson, P. W., & Love, N. (2009). *Designing professional development for teachers of science and mathematics*: Corwin.
Waller, W., & Waller, W. W. (1965). *The sociology of teaching*: J. Wiley

PUPILS' PERCEPTIONS AND PRACTICES IN PERFORMING HOMEWORK IN SCHOOLS OF MALDIVES

Visal Moosa
Noonu Atoll Education Centre, Maldives

Muhammad Sani Ibrahim
University of Malaya, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

Development of schools', teachers' and parents' understanding of pupils' perceptions and practices in performing homework is crucial for helping pupils improve homework management, thereby improving school achievement. This study adapts the Model of Achievement-related Choices by Eccles, Barber, Updegraff, and O'Brien, as a conceptual framework to investigate the difference in pupils' perceptions and practices – by gender, grade level and academic level of the parents – and its relationship to academic achievement. The quantitative study uses a survey questionnaire to collect data from a sample of 137 Grade Four and 188 Grade Eight students in one particular atoll in Maldives. The findings reveal that significant differences in perceptions and practices do exist by gender and grade level of students. The relationship between pupils' homework practices and achievement is significant. While the relationship between pupils' perceptions and achievement is significant for the fourth grade students, it is not significant for the eighth graders. It is proposed that future researches in this domain should engage qualitative approaches as well, in order to understand the phenomena better. Based on the findings of this study, it is suggested that schools should formulate their homework policies accomodating for the differences that are evident between various age groups and gender.

Keywords: *homework, pupils' perception, homework practice, academic achievement*

INTRODUCTION

The discourse on homework, in the United States, can be dated back to as early as 1850 (Gill & Schlossman, 2004). However, homework was initially not given much importance as a topic of research potential (Cooper, 1981; Vail, 2001). Researchers of the past and present have held opposing views on the impact of homework on students (Cooper, Robinson, & Patall, 2006; Corno, 2000; Eren & Henderson, 2006; Neilson, 2005; Rayburn & Rayburn, 1999; Wildman, 1968; Solomon, Warin, & Lewis, 2002).

Majority of the existing researches focus on the effect of homework on students' achievement (Chiew-Kieok, 1993; Cooper et al., 2006; Eren & Henderson, 2006;

Neilson, 2005; Rayburn & Rayburn, 1999). There are few more studies which have also reported that students' perception and practices of learning activities such as homework could have an impact on their academic performance (Kuhn & Rundle-Thiele, 2009; Link & Ratledge, 1979; Lan & Li, 2006 ; Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 2005). There is a need for more empirical studies to support the various findings by the growing research on the topic. Thus, homework remains a potential area of research.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The purpose of this research is to study pupils' perceptions and practices in doing their homework and also relating it to their academic achievement. The following objectives are set out in order to fulfill the purpose of the study.

1. To study pupils' perceptions and practices in performing homework with respect to their gender and grade level.
2. To examine if there exists any relationship between the amount of homework and academic achievement.
3. To investigate the relationship between pupils' perceptions and practices and their academic achievement.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following five research questions have been developed in order to achieve the objectives of the study:

1. Do pupils' perceptions towards homework differ by (a) gender, and (b) grade level?
2. Is there any relationship between pupils' homework practices and (a) gender, and (b) grade level?
3. Is there any relationship between the amount of homework and students' achievement?
4. Is there any relationship between pupils' perceptions towards homework and their academic achievement?
5. Is there any difference in pupils' academic achievement by their homework practices?

Conceptual framework

The conceptual framework (Figure 1) for this research is based on the 'model of achievement related choices' by Eccles et al. (1998) and the framework of 'selected variables that impact on pupils' homework behaviour' by Warton (2001).

Pupil's background characteristics are studied on the basis of gender, grade level, and level of education attained by parents. Similarly, pupils' perceptions are examined using five the variables (1) purpose, (2) type of homework, (3) amount of

homework, (4) support for doing homework, and (5) monitoring and feedback. Besides these, students' practices are explored using four aspects (1) the place where homework is done, (2) the time of homework completion, (3) the difficulties encountered while doing homework, and (4) their preferences in completing homework. Finally, pupils' academic achievement is measured by test scores. It is worth noting that all the variables in the model are not reported in this paper

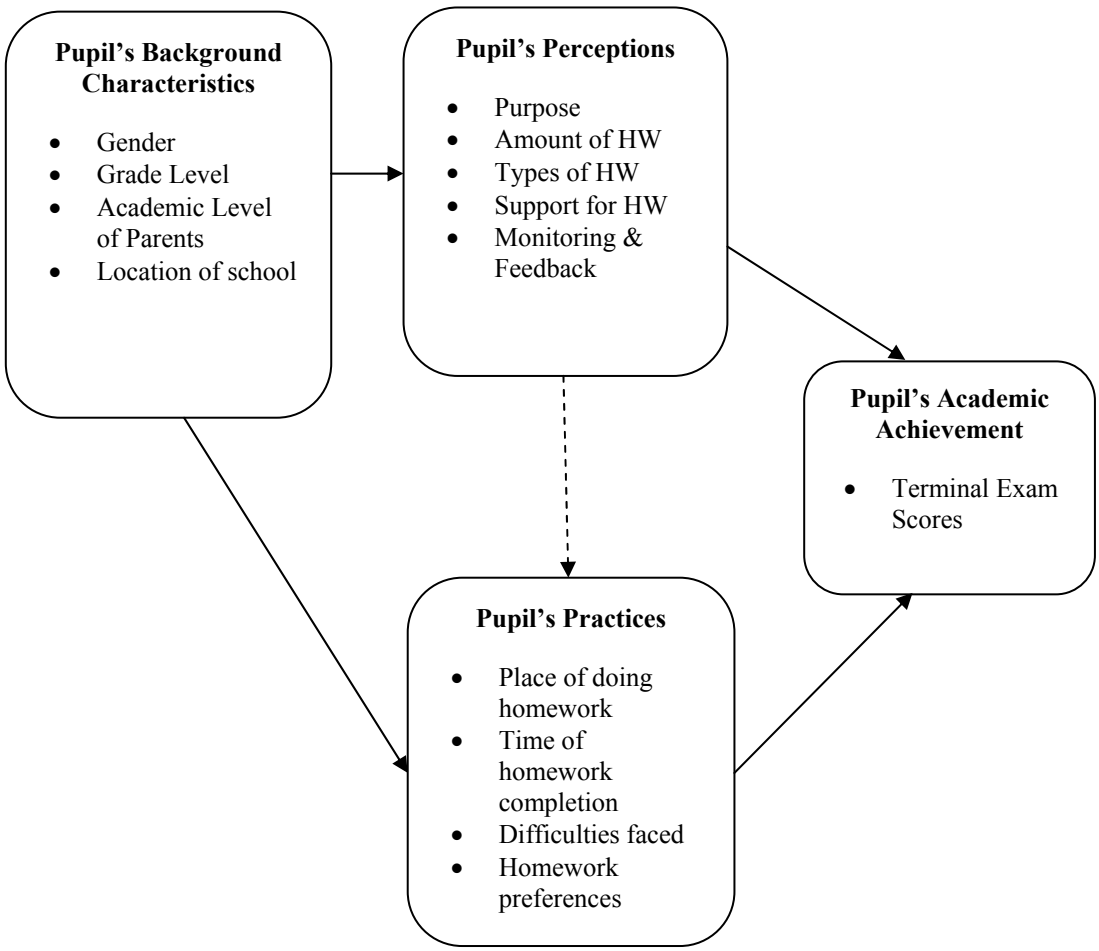


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework of the study

LITERATURE REVIEW

In education literature, several terms are used interchangeably, to refer to homework. These include "self-directed learning", "independent learning", and "unsupervised study" (Mohammed Sani Ibrahim, 2001). Cooper (1989a) defines homework as work assignments to students by their teachers that are supposed to be done outside the normal curriculum (timetabled) hours. This definition, however, excludes in-school guided study, independent learning, and extra-curricular activities like sports (Cooper, 1994).

Pupil's Perceptions

Existing research shows that there are differences between adults and children (pupils) in their perceptions of homework. For instance, while adults view that the purpose of doing homework is to enhance understanding of the lessons and to develop self-directed behaviour in managing learning, students feel that the purpose is to win approval from teachers and parents (Xu & Corno, 1998; Xu & Yuan, 2003). On the other hand, studies that are exclusively focused on secondary and high schools show that as students grow older they tend to change their perception of the purpose of homework to something similar to what is being expressed by adults (Xu & Corno, 1998; Xu & Yuan, 2003; Xu, 2005; Xu, 2010).

Homework and Pupils' Academic Achievement

The amount of homework and its impact on student achievement is a topic in debate. While many researchers conclude that homework has a positive impact on pupils' achievement, still some say that there are various negative outcomes resulting from it. Although in the primary grades, there seem to be no relationship between the amount of homework and pupils' achievement, the impact on the secondary students is prominently positive. The study concluded that the correlation between the amount of homework and academic achievement becomes stronger for students in higher grades as compared to those in the lower grades (Cooper et al., 2006).

Despite the generally positive relationship between the time spent on homework and student achievement reported by most of the studies, some studies report that the time spent on homework does not significantly correlate with student achievement (Yeo Kee & Arbayah, 2010). There is an optimum amount of homework or optimum time spent on homework (a break-even point) by which student achievement becomes best. Homework amounting to figures higher or lower than this break-even point, both in time and/or amount, does not necessarily produce significant improvement in pupils' academic achievement (Cooper, 1994, 2001; Sharp, Keys, & Benefield, 2001).

Monitoring and feedback

One of the vital aspects of homework management is interacting with students and providing supportive feedback (Carlsson, 2009; Turnali, 2009; Young, 2005). Studies reveal that when positive and supportive feedback is given, students show increased interest and improved learning outcomes (Kuhn & Rundle-Thiele, 2009). Irrespective of this, it has been reported that teachers cannot meet the expectations related to monitoring homework assignments and provision of correctives and feedback (Turnali, 2009; Snead & Burriss, 2011). Some studies, however, conclude that the majority of teachers do give appropriate feedback (Murphy & Decker, 1989; Hudson, 2009; Popham, 2010).

Homework practices

Only a few researchers have focused solely on investigating pupils' practices in doing their homework. Warton (1997) found that although there are few differences in homework practices among students of various groups, there is a swing in ideas depending on age. Gajria & Salend (1995) found some interesting patterns of pupils' homework practices which include (a) no planning of the homework, (b) put it to the last minute, (c) complain about homework, (d) not able to follow the homework schedule, (e) find it difficult to get started with the work, and (f) easily get distracted while doing their homework. However, pupils' homework practices may vary from place to place. For instance, Hong and Milgram (1999) reported the following differences in homework preferences between US and Korean students (Table 1):

Table 1*: Differences in homework environment learning style preferences*

US students	Korean students
Work with music or background sound Eat, drink or move around while they work Frequently learn in auditory manner	Work in brightly illuminated home environment Sit at chair and a desk Learn better with written materials

Studies also reveal that there exists difference in pupils' homework practices based on their gender (Weston, 1999; Worrell, Gabelko, Roth, & Samuels, 1999; Kortemeyer, 2009; Kackar, Shumow, Schmidt, & Grzetich, 2011). Few other studies reveal that there also exist such differences based on grade level of pupils (Worrell et al., 1999; Weston, 1999; Kackar et al., 2011).

METHODOLOGY

The study deployed quantitative approach to collect both qualitative and quantitative data by using a survey questionnaire. A survey design allows trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population to be described in a quantitative form (Creswell, 2003, 2009). Respondents answer by choosing from a rating of 1-5 for some sections and 1-

3 for the others. The ratings given by students for the questionnaire items are in effect a descriptor of the qualitative feelings they have (Coles & McGrath, 2010).

A total of 350 questionnaires (150 for grade 4 and 200 for grade 8) were sent to the participating schools. The overall return rate was 92.86% (91.33% from grade 4 and 94% from grade 8).

Validity and Reliability

The study used a modified questionnaire. Most of the items in the questionnaire are taken from a similar questionnaire which is originally in Malay Language (Putehyan Md Dom, 1992). The rest of the items are taken from the homework report of OFSTED† (Weston, 1999). Prior to the actual survey, two pilot tests were carried out in which two different groups of students took part. In order to ensure the validity of the instrument, three measures are taken; (1) an extensive review of literature of the concepts to be measured is carried out, (2) opinion of experts in field are obtained, and (3) face validity is checked by asking the respondents whether the items looks valid to them. Moreover, all the subscales generated good reliability scores of at least 0.7 on Cronbach's alpha, which indicates that all the items can be considered reliable (Nunnaly, 1978)

FINDINGS

Respondents' Profile

Table 2*: Demographic profile of respondents*

Demographic Factor	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Boys	169	52.00
Girls	156	48.00
Total	325	100.00
Grade Level		
Grade 4	137	42.20
Grade 8	188	57.80
Total	325	100.00

Table 2 shows the respondents' profile. As seen from the table, 52% of the participants are boys while the remaining 48% are girls. Similarly, 42.20% and 57.80% are from grades four and eight respectively.

Pupils' Perceptions

Pupils' perceptions are measured by the two subscales of 'purpose' and 'feedback', the results of which are shown in Table 3. Based on ~~According to~~ Table 3, boys have a more positive perceptions towards homework (mean = 4.10, SD = 0.32) than girls do (mean = 3.95, SD = 0.38). Moreover, the t-test results indicate that there is a significant difference between boys and girls in their perceptions towards homework, $t(323) = 3.78$, $p < .05$.

Table 3*: Independent sample t-test for gender differences in perceptions*

Gender	N	Mean	SD	t-value	df	Sig
Female	169	4.10	0.32	3.78	323	.00*
Male	155	3.95	0.38			

** $p < .01$*

Table 4 shows the results for the difference in perception based on grade level. From the table, it can be inferred that students of grade four have a better perception of homework (mean = 4.19, SD = 0.34) as compared to students of grade eight (mean = 3.92, SD = 0.33). Results of *t*-test shows that this difference is statistically significant, $t(323) = 7.10$, $p < .05$. Hence, there is a significant difference between students of grade four and eight in their perceptions of homework.

Table 4*: Independent sample t-test*

Grade	N	Mean	SD	t-value	df	Sig
Grade 4	137	4.19	0.34	7.10	323	.00*
Grade 8	187	3.92	0.33			

** $p < .01$*

Pupils' Homework Practices

Four subscales place, time, difficulties and preferences are employed to study this domain. Chi-sqaure test is performed to see if any of the independent variables can be associated with a particular homework habit (or practice). The results indicate that there is no relation between the place of doing homework and gender as well as their home work preferences and gender. Nevertheless, some items from the other two sub-scales show significant associations. Table 5 shows the corresponding descriptive statistics for those items that have significant associations in relation to gender.

Table 5: *Descriptive statistics that corresponds to the Chi-square results (based on gender)*

Item	Gender	Rarely	Sometimes	Often
C3: I do my homework just before going to bed	Female	115 59.3%	30 36.1%	24 50.0%
	Male	79 40.7%	53 63.9%	24 50.0%
C6: After going home I first finish all my homework	Female	78 49.1%	21 38.2%	70 63.1%
	Male	81 50.9%	34 61.8%	41 36.9%
C14: I cannot concentrate well on my homework	Female	154 56.8%	10 29.4%	5 25.0%
	Male	117 43.2%	24 70.6%	15 75.0%
C18: I find it difficult to do my homework since there is not enough space at my home	Female	136 56.0%	11 31.4%	22 46.8%
	Male	107 44.0%	24 68.6%	25 53.2%
C22: I forget to complete my homework	Female	145 59.7%	17 34.0%	7 21.9%
	Male	98 40.3%	33 66.0%	25 78.1%

Results of item C3 and C6 (on the time sub-scale) indicate that girls complete their home work in time unlike the boys who tend to keep it till the last moment. Similarly, results of items C14, C18 and C22 (on the difficulties sub-scale) reveal that boys pose more careless behaviour in doing their homework.

Results of the grade level differences are obtained using similar procedures which yielded significant associations for items C1, C2 and C7 (on the place sub-scale); C3, C8 and C9 (on the time sub-scale); C13 and C21 (on the difficulties sub-scale); and C20 (on the preferences sub-scale). Table 6 shows the descriptive statistics for the items which showed significant associations with grade level.

As seen from Table 6, majority of students in grade eight do their homework on their own (63.3% of those who said they 'often' do it on their own) while majority of grade fours do it with help from others. Among those who said that they often do their home work at tuition centre, 81.2% of them are of grade four. Moreover, 75% of those who reported doing their homework with their classmates are also grade four students. Similarly, 68.8% of those who mention doing the homework at the school (after the session) are also grade four students.

Table 6*: Descriptive statistics that corresponds to the Chi-square results (based on grade level)*

Item	Grade	Rarely	Sometimes	Often
C1: I do my homework at home, on my own	4	10 76.9%	30 62.5%	97 36.7%
	8	3 23.1%	18 37.5%	167 63.3%
C2: I do my homework at tuition class	4	83 35.3%	28 48.3%	26 81.2%
	8	152 64.7%	30 51.7%	6 18.8%
C3: I do my homework just before going to bed	4	94 48.5%	26 31.3%	17 35.4%
	8	100 51.5%	57 68.7%	31 64.6%
C7: I do my homework at my classmates' house	4	123 42.4%	5 21.7%	9 75.0%
	8	167 57.6%	18 78.3%	3 25.0%
C8:I do my homework at school after the session	4	123 42.7%	3 14.3%	11 68.8%
	8	165 57.3%	18 85.7%	5 31.2%
C9: I copy the homework from friends' book on the submission date	4	131 44.3%	4 18.2%	2 28.6%
	8	165 55.7%	18 81.8%	5 71.4%
C13: I do not understand the assigned homework	4	101 49.0%	23 28.0%	13 35.1%
	8	105 51.0%	59 72.0%	24 64.9%
C20: I first finish the homework given by the most strict teacher	4	94 47.5%	21 36.8%	22 31.4%
	8	104 52.5%	36 63.2%	48 68.6%
C21: I cannot get help in doing my homework	4	101 47.2%	16 31.4%	20 33.3%
	8	113 52.8%	35 68.6%	40 66.7%

The results also suggest that grade eight students face more difficulties in completing the homework. Of those who said that they 'often' do not understand the assigned work, 64.9% are from grade eight. Similarly, 66.7% of those who complained that they 'often' cannot get help in doing their homework are also from grade eight. The result also shows that grade eight students do it in order to avoid some negative consequences. Of those who told that they 'often' complete the homework given by the strictest teacher first, 68.6% are of grade eight. Moreover,

71.4% of those who reported 'often' copying homework from a friend's book are grade eight students too.

Amount of Homework and Academic Achievement

Table 7 shows the results of the correlation test for pupils in various subjects.

Table 7*: Pearson's Product Moment Correlation*

Subject	Grade 4			Grade 8		
	N	r	sig (2-tailed)	N	r	sig (2-tailed)
Dhivehi	137	0.02	.82	188	0.04	.60
Islam	137	0.13	.13	188	0.06	.06
English	137	0.02	.84	188	0.27	.00*
Maths	137	0.09	.29	188	0.14	.65

** $p < .01$*

As depicted in Table 7, there is no significant relationship between the amount of homework assigned by the teachers and pupils' academic achievement in grade four. Nevertheless, in the case of grade eight, there is a significant correlation for English, $r(188) = .27$, $p < .05$. The value of R^2 obtained is .072, which means that although there is a significant correlation between the amount of homework and student achievement in English at grade eight level, this accounts only for 7.2% of the variability in student performance.

Pupils' Perceptions and Academic Achievement

The average score of the subscales measured at scale level (purpose and feedback) is tested for correlation, one by one, and then by the combined average, with the average academic score obtained by the students. The average of the student performance is calculated using the results they obtained in the four subjects that are investigated. The results of the test are shown in Table 8.

Table 8*: Pearson's Correlation between results and perception*

Scale	Grade 4			Grade 8		
	N	r	sig (2-tailed)	N	r	sig (2-tailed)
Purpose	137	0.19	0.02*	188	0.09	0.19
Feedback	137	0.21	0.01**	188	0.02	0.69
Total Scale	137	0.25	0.00**	188	0.10	0.19

** $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$*

Table 8 indicates that there is a significant relationship between pupils' perceived purpose of doing homework and their academic achievement in the case of grade four students, $r(137) = .19$, $p < .05$. Additionally, pupils' perceptions regarding the feedback given by teachers are also significantly correlated with their academic

achievement, $r(137) = .21$, $p < .05$. Finally, there is a significant relationship between overall pupil perception towards homework and their academic achievement in the case of fourth graders, $r(137) = .25$, $p < .05$. On the other hand, the table also indicates that, in the case of grade eight, there is no significant relationship between pupils' perceptions of homework and their academic achievement.

Pupils' Practices and Academic Achievement

As mentioned before, pupils' practices are examined based on four subscales; place, time, difficulties and preferences. One-way analysis of variance is used to study the differences in pupils' academic achievement based on their homework practices. Detailed study of post hoc tests and descriptive statistics reveal that pupils' achievement is affected by their homework practices.

As far as the 'place' of doing homework is concerned, the highest score is shown by the group of students who 'rarely' do their homework in tuition class and/or in classmates' house. For the 'time' of completing the homework, it is found that the highest score is shown by the group who 'rarely' adopt such practices as completing the work in a hurry (after the session), copying the work from others' and finishing the work in the class (just before submission).

Similarly, the results also indicate that students who reported having fewer 'difficulties' consistently achieve better academic scores. All the items, except one, on this sub-scale, showed significant differences in academic achievement. Finally, for the 'preferences' sub-scale, significant differences in academic scores are obtained for all the items except one. Descriptive statistics for the data reveal that the highest score is attained by students who 'rarely' adopt preferences like doing the favourite subject, the work assigned by the favourite teacher or the work given by the strictest teacher first.

DISCUSSION

Pupils' Perceptions

This paper reports findings of two of the domains under pupils' perceptions namely the purpose of doing homework and the feedback on homework. They are studied on the basis of gender and grade level differences. Firstly, with regard to the differences by with regard to gender, it is reported that statistically significant differences do exist between boys and girls in their perceptions towards homework – boys are known to have better perceptions as compared to girls. This is partly in agreement with the previous studies which tell that there exist gender differences in the perception towards homework. Those studies however, ended up with entirely opposite results in which it was found that girls generally hold more positive views than boys whereas in this study it is the boys who are known to have more positive perceptions (Bembenutty, 2011; Cooper et al., 2006). Such differences are not surprising,

however, when the cultural and contextual differences are considered (Hong & Milgram, 1999).

Secondly, with regard to the differences based on grade level, the present study shows that there is a significant difference between students of grade four and eight in their perceptions towards homework. Students of grade four appear to have better perceptions towards homework. Again, this is in partial agreement with the findings of previous researches. Many studies support the notion that grade level has an impact on pupils' perceptions towards homework (Cooper, 1989b; Cooper et al., 2006; Weston, 1999; Worrell, et al., 1999; Xu, 2010). These studies, however, do not state whether it is older or younger pupils who have more positive perceptions – but only report the existence of some differences. For instance, Weston (1999) argues that there is a shift in ideas between younger and older pupils with respect to homework. It is also stated that older students are more likely to demonstrate better self-regulatory behaviour and do homework for learning-oriented and peer-oriented reasons rather than adult-oriented reasons (Xu, 2010).

Pupils' Practices

It has been emphasized before, this study uses four domains to study pupils' homework practices; place, time, difficulties, and preferences. First of all, with regard to the place where homework is done, only a few items are found to be related to gender. Of the four items used to test this domain, only "doing homework at classmates' house" is related to gender. With 58.3% stating that they often do homework at the friends' house, boys stay well ahead of girls, which is different from the findings of other studies. Previous studies indicate that girls are more likely to look for help from friends as compared to boys at both primary and secondary stages (Weston, 1999). In addition to this, girls reported more relieved than boys when doing homework with peers than alone (Kackar et al., 2011). The difference may be owing to the customs that in some cultures boys are more outgoing and social as compared to girls. The contradictions also imply that better understanding of gender differences in preferred places of doing homework is required in order to suit homework packages to the needs of both genders.

Grade-wise comparisons confirm relationship with more items in this domain. Out of the total respondents, 70.8% of them are of grade four, who are found to be often doing homework at home on their own. It is also found that 81.2% of those who report often doing homework in tuition class are from grade four. Moreover, 75.0% of those who report often doing homework at classmate's house are also fourth graders. Comparison of these percentages reveals that at lower grades, particularly grade fours favour to do homework at places other than home and with other people rather doing it alone. In support of this, previous studies indicate that middle school students reported better experiences when homework was done with friends, outside their home, while older students are more satisfied to do homework alone, at home (Kackar et al., 2011). Additionally, it is also found that while 51% of KS2 and 72% of

KS3 students reported that they usually do the homework at home, which indicates that older students like doing homework at home, on their own (Weston, 1999).

Secondly, with regard to the time of completing the homework, the study shows that boys keep their homework until the last moment. Besides this more girls than boys report that they rarely do homework just before going to bed. Moreover, 63.1% of those who report often doing homework immediately after going home are girls. In addition to this boys were found to be more careless in the sense that many of them (85.7%) copy the work from their friends' just on the day of submission. Previous studies have not investigated gender differences on such practices. However, it is reported that pupils generally demonstrate the habit of keeping their homework for the last moment (Gajria & Salend, 1995). Other studies are more supportive to the findings about girls' practices in the sense that girls exert greater efforts and display more learning-oriented behaviour in performing homework (Bembenutty, 2011; Cooper et al., 2006; Xu, 2010).

Grade level analysis shows that older students attend to their homework immediately after going home – Of those who report often doing their homework as soon as they reach home, 64.6% are from grade eight. On the other hand, 68.8% of those who report often doing homework at school after the session are fourth graders. In addition, older students who often copy homework from friends are grade eight students (71.4%). Hence, the present study indicates that there are significant differences between younger and older pupils in the time at which they complete their homework. Although there are no previous studies to compare the results with, the findings support the notion that pupils keep the homework to be completed at the last moment, especially as they grow older (Gajria & Salend, 1995).

Thirdly, with respect to the difficulties expressed by students, it is found that 75.0% of those who report often not being able to concentrate on homework are boys. Moreover, 53.2% of those who report often facing difficulties due to lack of space at home are also boys. Additionally, 78.1% of those who report often forgetting to do the homework are boys too. Thus, on average, it is understood that for all the items, boys express significantly greater concerns in terms of difficulties faced. Previous study by Gajria & Salend (1995) support this by listing a number of similar difficulties reported by pupils which include finding it difficult to get started, getting easily distracted, and not being able to follow homework schedules. In addition to this, Weston (1999) reports that some of the common difficulties related by students include not being able to concentrate, and not getting enough time to do the work. These studies, however, do not make any gender-wise comparison. Nevertheless, the findings remind teachers to design homework activities in such a way ~~as to~~ that it pays more attention to boys.

On grade level differences in difficulties expressed by students, the findings of this study reveal that compared to grade four students, those in grade eight express facing more difficulties. It is reported that 64.9% of those who complain often not understanding the work assigned and 66.7% of those who report often not getting

help in doing homework are grade eight students. Previous studies found contrasting results, however. It has been reported by parents that students at lower grades have more problems in completing their homework (Worrell, et al., 1999). Nevertheless, such reports are probably based on difficulties in managing homework rather than with the task itself and are mere perceptions of parents. In contrast, the present study investigates the perception of pupils rather their parents. Thus, it is argued that proper arrangements must be set up in order to help students overcome the difficulties, especially as they move to higher grades.

Finally, as far as pupils' homework preference (how they prioritise homework) is concerned, it is revealed that there is no significant relationship between gender and homework preferences. Conversely, grade-wise analysis reveals a significant relationship between homework preference and pupils' grade level. It is reported that 68.6% of those who admit often finishing the homework given by the strictest teacher first are eighth graders. This is a reflection of how teachers at higher levels react when pupils are unable to comply with the due dates.

The Amount of Homework and Academic Achievement

There is divided opinion with regard to amount of homework and student achievement. The effect of it on primary (younger) and the secondary (older) students vary. In order to bridge the gap, this study investigates the relationship in both the categories. First of all, it is found that there is no significant relationship between the amount of homework and pupils' achievement in tests that concerns grade four students. Among the four subjects in which the investigation is done, the strongest correlation was found for Islam with $r\ (137) = .13$, $p > .05$. Many of the previous studies consistently find that, in general, there is no relationship between achievement and amount of homework assigned to students (De Jong, Westerhof, & Creemers, 2000). Similarly, Yeo Kee & Arbayah (2010) conclude that, in primary, there is no significant relationship between engaged time on homework and pupils' academic achievement. Moreover, Cooper (1989b) argues that homework does not bring in any better results as compared to class work in the case of elementary students. This calls for reviews of homework management in schools at primary level. Since the results are in line with studies done in other countries, it may be beneficial to review how homework is managed in those countries when formulating new policies at national level.

In the case of secondary students, specifically Grade Eight, it is found that most of the subjects do not show any significant relationship between the amount of homework and student achievement. However, the study reveals that there is a significant relationship between the amount of homework and student achievement in English, $r\ (188) = .27$, $p < .05$. Other studies concludes that, for secondary, the relationship between amount of homework and student achievement is positive and grows stronger as pupils move to higher grades (Cooper et al., 2006). Nevertheless, studies that investigated the relationship on specific subjects report that extra homework in Science, English and History show little or no impact on their

corresponding test scores (Eren & Henderson, 2009, 2010). In contrary, some studies report that there is a weak relationship between mathematics and science scores and the amount of time students spend on homework (Zammit, Routitsky, & Greenwood, 2002).

Pupils' Perceptions, Practices and Achievement

One of the gaps which the present study intends to fill is the study of the relationship between pupils' perceptions towards homework and their academic achievement. In this regard, the findings of the study indicate that there is a significant relationship between pupils' perceived purpose of doing homework and their academic achievement in the case of grade four students, $r(137) = .19$, $p < .05$. Additionally, pupils' perceptions regarding the feedback given by teachers are also significantly correlated with their academic achievement, $r(137) = .21$, $p < .05$. Finally, there is a significant relationship between the overall pupils' perception of homework and their academic achievement in case of fourth graders, $r(137) = .25$, $p < .05$. There is no relationship in the case of grade eight students, however.

Since there are no empirical studies done in this line of research, it is not possible to compare the present findings. Therefore, it is sensible to reflect back at the conceptual frame of the study. According to the framework, there are a number of theories that suggest a positive relationship between pupils' perceptions and their achievement (Baek & Choi, 2002; Cano, 2007; Cooper et al., 2006; Lan & Li, 2006; Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 2005). The findings of this study indicate some amount of empirical support for these theories and also the conceptual framework that is formulated. However, more empirical studies are required to validate the findings and to apply it to other contexts. Therefore, more studies should be carried out in order to confirm the missing link.

It is conceptualised that homework practices have some impact on academic achievement. The findings of this study present a number of empirical evidences to support the model. Indeed, a number of items on pupils' practices cause differences in achievement. On the domain of place, the findings reveal that those who report doing homework in tuition class do not score well in exams. The same is with the case "doing homework in classmates" house. This holds true for both ~~the~~ groups of students. Thus, parents and teachers must be vigilant about where students do their homework in order to ensure the best results from doing homework.

The findings also reveal that significant differences in exam scores are evident by the time at which pupils finish their homework. Students who achieve the best scores are known to be rarely waiting after the school session to do homework. They are also known to rarely copying it from friends'. Analysis of data from grade eight indicates supportive evidence to this. Since the findings consistently reveal that the time at which pupils complete their homework has a considerable impact on their academic performance, teachers as well as parents need to consider this and take necessary

measures in managing pupils' homework. Perhaps, helping pupils to manage and organise their homework tasks could prove beneficial.

When the data is analysed for the subscale of difficulties in performing homework, some items indicate significant differences in achievements. Descriptive statistics of the data reveal that the highest score is shown by the group who report that they rarely "do not understand the work assigned". On the basis of the responses given by students, it is also understood that pupils who complain about time constraints to do homework, perform poorly in exams. This implies that teachers and parents must make sure that they appropriately cater to the difficulties students face in performing homework.

The findings of the study also indicate that there exist significant differences in pupils' achievement and their homework preferences. The findings draw attention to many aspects which is ignored by teachers as well as students. It is found that pupils tend to give preference to their favourite subject in performing homework. However, the findings reveal that pupils, who often practice this, got the lowest marks as compared to those who practice this rarely. The same is found in students who prioritise homework based on the tasks assigned by their favourite teacher. Therefore, it requires awareness on the side of teachers as well as students that such kind of practices may in fact deteriorate pupils' achievement rather than helping them to do well.

IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Knowledge of pupils' perceptions and practices would be indisputably useful for formulating and managing homework policies and programmes. The following practical implications are derived from what is learned about pupils' perceptions and practices and its relation to their academic achievement. It would definitely be beneficial for school administrators, teachers, parents and students in managing their homework programmes.

With regards to the demographic variables that are investigated, it is indicated that there are significant differences in pupils' perceptions and practices in performing homework. There is a mismatch in the types of homework that teachers usually assign and what students prefer to do as homework in different subjects. If schools can find a better match to suit the needs and interests of the pupils or create motivation in doing the types of homework that are proved the most profitable, the outcome would be much better than it is now. There is also some indication, especially in the case of older students, that they do not prefer homework to be assigned other than to continue doing the tasks that they are unable to finish in the class. This implies schools to reflect on how much work is assigned to be done at home and to adjust their policies accordingly.

The fact that many practices of students are found to be influencing their academic achievement is of particular interest. The finding that older students have

negative perceptions towards homework is practically demonstrated by their behaviour like keeping the work until the last moment. Teachers can play a vital role in motivating pupils to change their perceptions towards homework, which would ultimately result in increased rate of homework completion.

Although the results suggest that there is no strong relationship between homework and students achievement, this should not be interpreted as homework being useless or creating nothing more than tension in students. Rather, it is argued that there are many other factors which are equally important in influencing student achievement, particularly as measured by test scores. Perhaps, there are many changes that could be brought to homework policies in schools in order to put in place the best practices so as to bring the best results. Many of the findings of this study could provide guiding principles in this regard. Hence, schools are required to formulate their homework policies accomodating the differences that are evident between various age groups and gender.

Since this study does not intend to generalise the findings to the whole country, it is argued that, in order to enable pupils to enjoy the maximum benefits of doing homework, teachers and educators need to explore pupils' preferences and perceptions in their given contexts. Findings of homework research in other places, especially from different contexts, should never be taken for granted since there is mounting evidence from existing literature that such differences do matter in the way in which pupils deal with their homework.

This study is based on a quantitative survey method in order to collect data regarding pupils' perceptions and practices in performing homework. While many of the findings proved useful, it is more meaningful if there are some means for triangulating the data by using some qualitative methods such as direct observations, document review or open ended interviews with pupils. This could help in broadening the understanding of the various phenomena. Moreover, qualitative data based on multiple perspectives from students, parents, and teachers over and over, would be informative in deepening researchers' understanding in this area.

FUTURE RESEARCH

Future researches on this area could adopt mixed mode designs, if possible, more of qualitative approaches such as direct observations, interviews, document review and even experimental designs. Participants for this study are only from one atoll of Maldives, hence limited in number and location. Future studies can be conducted in more locations, and in different contexts, in order to validate and apply the findings to those places. The location of the school, as described by rural and urban, and other grade levels are obvious varieties of contexts in this regard.

There is also scope and need to examine how students with different ability levels (e.g., gifted students, low achieving or students with learning disabilities) perceive and practice homework and what is its impact on their learning and results.

Longitudinal studies that follow cohorts of students to examine how they perceive and practice homework over the time and its impact on their academic achievement could also prove beneficial. Since most of the researches are consistently focused on the academic benefits of homework, future studies can also be focused on investigating the non academic benefits of homework.

CONCLUSIONS

Homework is an integral part of teaching and learning. It is an everyday task of a child. Understanding pupils' perceptions and practices in performing homework and how it influences student achievement is very necessary for parents, teachers and educators. From the findings of this study, it is revealed that pupils' perceptions and practices differ by their gender and grade level. In spite of the contrary findings with regard to the amount of homework and pupils' achievement, this study takes a step further to investigate the relationship between pupils' perceptions, practice and student achievement. It has been established that pupils' academic achievement is influenced by both perceptions and practices.

REFERENCES

Baek, S.-G., & Choi, H.-J. (2002). The relationship between students' perceptions of classroom environment and their academic achievement in Korea. *Asia Pacific Education Review, 3*(1), 125-135.

Bembenutty, H. (2011). The last word: An interview with harris cooper - research, policies, tips, and current perspectives on homework. *Journal of Advanced Academics, 22*(2), 340-349.

Cano, F. (2007). Approaches to learning and study orchestration in high school students. *European Journal of Psychology of Education, 22*, 131-151.

Carlsson, T. (2009). *Homework for english from the students' perspective.* Malmö University, Malmö, Sweden.

Chiew-Kieok, C. (1993). *Difference in family background, IQ, self-concept and homework hours between achieving and non-achieving Chinese school students (Dissertation)*. University of Malaya, Kuala Lampur.

Coles, A., & McGrath, J. (2010). *Your education research project handbook*. England: Pearson Education Limited.

Cooper, H. (1981). Synthesis of research on homework. *Educational Leadership, 47*(3), 85-91.

Cooper, H. (1989a). *Homework*. New York: Longman.

Cooper, H. (1989b). Synthesis of research on homework. *Educational Leadership, 47*(3), 85-91.

Cooper, H. (1994). Homework research and policy: A review of literature. Retrieved from http://www.cehd.umn.edu/carei/reports/Rpractice/Summer94/homework.html

Cooper, H. (2001). Homework for all – In Moderation. *Educational Leadership,*

Cooper, H., Robinson, J. C., & Patall, E. A. (2006). Does homework improve academic achievement? A synthesis of research, 1987-2003. *Review of Educational Research, 76*(1), 1-62.

Corno, L. (2000). Looking at homework differently. *The Elementary School Journal, 100*(5), 529-548.

Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches* (Second Edition). California: Sage Publications.

Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches* (Third Edition). California: Sage Publications.

De Jong, R., Westerhof, K., & Creemers, B. (2000). Homework and student math achievement in junior high schools. *Educational Research and Evaluation, 6*(2), 130-157.

Eccles, J. S., Barber, B. L., Updegraff, K., & O'Brien, K. M. (1998). *An Expectancy-Value Model of Achievement Choices: The Role of Ability Self-Concepts, Percieved Task Utility and Interest in Predicting Activity Choice and Course Enrollment.* Paper presented at the Seeon Conference on Interest and Gender, Kiel, Germany.

Eren, O., & Henderson, D. J. (2006). The impact of homework on student achievement. Retrieved from http://ssrn.com/abstract=917447

Eren, O., & Henderson, D. J. (2009). Are we wasting our children's time by giving them more homework? Retrieved from http://www.unlv.edu/projects/RePEc/pdf/0907.pdf

Eren, O., & Henderson, D. J. (2010). *Are we wasting our children's time by giving them more homework?*. Institute for the Study of Labour.

Field, A. (2005). *Discovering statistics using SPSS* (Second Edition ed.). London: Sage Publication.

Gajria, M., & Salend, S. J. (1995). Homework practices of students with and without learning disabilities: A comparison. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 28*(5), 291-296.

Gill, B., & Schlossman, S. (2004). Villain or savior? The American discourse on homework, 1850-2003. *Theory Into Practice, 43*(3), 174-181.

Hong, E., & Milgram, R. M. (1999). Preferred and actual homework style: A cross-cultural examination. *Educational Research, 41*(3), 251-265.

Hudson, D. H. (2009). *Homework: Elementary Teachers Practices and Perceptions in one Delaware school district.* Wilmington University, Wilmington.

Kackar, H. Z., Shumow, L., Schmidt, J. A., & Grzetich, J. (2011). Age and gender differences in adolescents' homework experiences. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 32*, 70-77.

Kortemeyer, G. (2009). Gender differences in the use of an online homework system in an introductory physics course. *Physical Review Special Topics - Physics Education Research 5*, 1-8.

Kuhn, K.-A. L., & Rundle-Thiele, S. R. (2009). Curriculum alignment: Exploring student perception of learning achievement measures. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education, 21*(3), 351-361.

Lan, M.-C., & Li, M. (2006). *The relationship between classroom practices on homework and student performance in Mathematics on TIMSS 2003.* Paper

presented at the The Second IEA International Research Conference: Proceedings of the IRC-2006.
Link, C. R., & Ratledge, E. C. (1979). Student perceptions, IQ and achievement. *The Journal of Human Resources, 14*(1), 98-111.
Mohammed Sani Ibrahim. (2001). *Reinventing the management of homework in schools towards improving pupils' academic achievement.* Paper presented at the The Eight International Literacy & Education Research, Spetses, Greece.
Murphy, J., & Decker, K. (1989). Teachers' use of homework in high schools. *Journal of Educational Research, 82*(5), 261-269.
Neilson, W. (2005). Homework and performance for time−constrained students. *Economics Bulletin, 9*(1), 1-6.
Nunnaly, J. (1978*). Psychometric theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
Popham, K. M. (2010). *Student perceptions regarding the importance of homework.* California State University, Sacramento.
Putehyan Md Dom. (1992). *Amalan dan persepsi pelajar sekolah menengah terhadap kerja rumah.* University of Malaya, Kuala Lampur.
Rayburn, L. G., & Rayburn, J. M. (1999). Impact of course length and homework assignments on student performance. *Journal of Education for Business, 74*(6), 325-331.
Sharp, C., Keys, W., & Benefield, P. (2001). *Homework: A review of recent research*. Slough: National Foundation for Educational Research.
Snead, D., & Burriss, K. G. (2011). Teachers' perceptions regarding the motivation and implementation of homework. *Focus on Elementary, 23*(4), 1-10.
Solomon, Y., Warin, J., & Lewis, C. (2002). Helping with homework? Homework as a site of tension for parents and teenagers. *British Educational Research Journal, 28*(4), 603-622.
Turnali, A. S. (2009). Students' and parents' perceptions about homework. *Education and Science, 34*(153), 61-73.
Vail, K. (2001). Homework problems: How much is too much? *American School Board Journal, 188*(4), 24-29.
Warton, P. M. (1997). Learning about responsibility: Lessons from homework. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*(67), 213-221.
Warton, P. M. (2001). The forgotten voices in homework: Views of students. *Educational Psychologist, 36*(3), 155–165.
Weston, P. (1999). *Homework: Learning from practice*. London: Office for Standards In Education.
Wildman, P. R. (1968). Homework pressures. *Peabody Journal of Education, 45*(4), 202-204.
Worrell, F. C., Gabelko, N. H., Roth, D. A., & Samuels, L. K. (1999). Parents' reports on homework amount and problems in academically talented elementary students. *Gifted Child Quarterly, 43*(2), 86-94.
Xu, J. (2005). Purposes for doing homework reported by middle and high school students. *The Journal of Educational Research, 99*(1), 46-55.
Xu, J. (2010). Homework purposes reported by secondary school students: A multilevel analysis. *The Journal of Educational Research, 103*, 171-182.

Xu, J., & Corno, L. (1998). Case studies of families doing third-grade homework. *Teachers College Record, 100*(2), 402-436.

Xu, J., & Yuan, R. (2003). Doing homework: Listening to students', parents', and teachers' voices in one urban middle school community. *School Community Journal, 13*(2), 25–44.

Yeo Kee, J., & Arbayah Binti Yahya. (2010). Hubungan Antara Kerja Rumah Dengan Pencapaian Akademik Dalam Kalangan Pelajar Sekolah Kebangsaan. Retrieved from http://eprints.utm.my/10776/1/hubungan_antara_kerja_rumah_dengan_pencapaian_akademik.pdf

Young, M. R. (2005). The motivational effects of the classroom environment in facilitating self-regulated learning. *Journal of Marketing Education, 27*(25), 25-40.

Zimmerman, B. J., & Kitsantas, A. (2005). Homework practices and academic achievement: The mediating role of self-efficacy and perceived responsibility beliefs. *Contemporary Educational Psychology 30 (2005)* (30), 397-417.

DE-SHIFTING TO SINGLE SESSION SCHOOLS: PROSPECTS AND PROBLEMS IN SCHOOLS OF MALDIVES

Ahmed Mohamed

Dhaal Atoll Education Centre, Maldives

ABSTRACT

Schools offer a variety of programs to help out students grow holistically. Double session schools transformed to single session claim to provide holistic education and a conducive environment for the students. This study explores how holistic educational programs are facilitated in context of single session schools. It also attempts to examine the programs offered, conditions enable or hinder in facilitating these programs, and the role of school principals in the implementation of holistic education. Semi-structured interview was employed on six principals from small, medium, and large single session schools in terms of students' enrolment. The data obtained from the interviews were coded and organized according to the research questions. The research revealed that reforms were not incorporated into the curriculum and educational programs in the schools, except few schools brought restructuring to co-curricular activities. The findings revealed that principal's leadership, namely transformational leadership played a vital role in facilitating holistic educational programs in single session schools. The findings provide insight into lack of space, limited human resource capacity, inadequate need-based resourcing, and rapid change in government policies which hinder implementation of holistic education. The study concluded that transforming all schools as single session schools alone, do not provide holistic education unless educational programs balance knowledge with skills and values. Implications of the findings were discussed in the context of educational leadership and holistic education. Consequently, suggestions for future research were also explored.

Keywords: *holistic education, co-curricular activities, transformational leadership*

INTRODUCTION

School education plays a key role in every nation to build responsible and productive citizens. Schooling must provide holistic educational programs based on body-physical, mind-cognitive, and character-social and spiritual development. Similarly, types of schools have their own definite need along with various dynamics. The types of schools such as single shift schools and double shift schools has its own specific necessitate (Dash & Dash, 2008). Double session is an arrangement used where the supply of schools is inadequate to provide single shift schools for all students (Linden, 2001). It is difficult to organize educational programs after school hours and co-curricular activities are stifled for lack of time in double session schools (Yadav, 2005). On the other hand, schools run in single session enables to cater quality

education. Thus, de-shifting to single session is to provide holistic education for a child's growth and a conducive environment for teaching and learning.

In past time, some schools had been operating on triple or multi sessions, mainly to educate all. Most schools in the Maldives have been operating as two-session (double shift) schools, since formal schooling began in the Maldives (Project Profile, 2009). For economic and political feasibility, the existence of shifts in schools has been implemented in Maldives. A recent reform agenda on education system gives priority to shift double session schools to single session schools as a measure to ensure students expend most of their day in the school participating in extracurricular activities (First 100 days of democratic government, 2009).

From past decades, the focus on education sector of Maldives has been to increase access to education, and now there is an urgent need to improve the quality of primary and secondary education (PO, 2009). The goal of universal primary education was achieved in the Maldives by 2002 (MPND, 2007b). Governing policy document on 'Holistic Education' states that in order to provide holistic education, all the schools in Maldives will be transformed to single-session schools by accommodating extra space to instil capacity, characteristics, and skills mentioned in the curriculum, as well as conducting extracurricular activities and training programs (MoE, 2011). The goal is comprehensible enough to change all the schools to single shift. Moreover, in the current policy environment of education, goals are reflected in judging the quality and quantity of school outcome (Hoy & Miskel, 2008). Thus, implementation of the policy requires providing well-rounded education with diverse activities in the schools rather operating schools in simply one shift.

The quality of school outcome considers producing religious (spiritual), intellectually capable, physically skilled, emotionally competent, socially active and responsible citizens. Therefore, school management plays essential role in planning and conducting instructional activities and other programs in school to meet the objectives of holistic education. School principal ensures the efficiency of school programs. The principal's key role as manager is in organizing, functioning, and execution of numerous processes and tasks that permit a school to accomplish its goals (Konok, 2006). Though, intend of the transformation from double session to single session is providing holistic education, several factors would lead to enable or hinder facilitation of such programs.

PROBLEM STATEMENT AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The government education policy for transforming all the schools into single session schools is to provide holistic education and conducive learning environment by 2013 (PO, 2009). The government believes that more than 200 schools will be transformed to single session schools within 5 years to provide best environment for students' development in schools. Providing a conducive learning environment and holistic education focuses on excellence in education through various activities. Under the

policy on providing holistic education to students, changes mandatory to single session school include;

> "…school operating in one shift, extended session hours for both teachers and students, conduct extra and co curricular activities required for holistic education, organize school session in a way to provide both curricular and extracurricular activities, teachers act as facilitators to conduct extracurricular activities apart from their teaching subjects, and also exertion in providing holistic education in its broadest means." (MoE, 2011)

So far, it is questionable whether; single session schools are providing an environment for holistic education, students are given opportunities to interact in a more relaxed social environment, and teachers' capacity and physical resources are aligned with the school needs to manage various activities mentioned in the policy. The general population concur that schools should attend to the personal, social, vocational and academic development of young people (Bellamy & Goodlad, 2008). School principal is the manager who shoulders responsibilities in administering the activities. Thus, principals are to lead the changes in schools, coordinate the services offered to their students, and to ensure that these services reach those with the greatest needs (Victor, 2009). Student achievement in single session schools is not aimed to measure academic performance only, rather with respect to all the domains. Probably, educational programs in schools, administration of these programs, principal's leadership and management practices, and resources in broad terms might impact the provision of holistic education.

RESEARCH AIM AND QUESTIONS

Perceptions of school leaders are important to understand the nature of de-shifting to single session school. Hence, this study is broadly aimed to explore how holistic educational programs are facilitated in context of single session schools in Maldives, by examining the programs offered, conditions enable or hinder in facilitating these programs, and the role of school principals in the implementation of holistic education. To achieve this aim, the researcher has used the following research questions:

1. What programs are offered in single session schools to provide holistic education?
2. What conditions enable/hinder in facilitating holistic educational programs in single session schools?
3. How do principals perceive their role in providing holistic education in single session schools?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Schools for Holistic Education

The word holistic which is sometimes spelled as 'wholistic', comes from the Greek word 'holon', is referring to a universe made up of integrated wholes that cannot simply be reduced to the sum of its parts (Miller J. P., 2007). The word meaning of holistic, itself makes clear that education should not cater for only one dimension. According to the New Zealand's Ministry of Education, holistic education is defined as an approach of teaching which includes the physical, social, emotional, cultural, and cognitive dimensions of a person's growth (Chiu, 2009). This definition encompasses major areas required for child development, indicating that education is about nurturing the whole person, his moral, cognitive, physical, social, aesthetic and spiritual development. Regarding the notion of spirituality as one aspect in holistic education, Ismail and Hassan (2009) asserts that spirituality in the Malaysian holistic educational context first and foremost rests upon the belief of God the Almighty (Allah) and the revelation as the greatest source of truth.

School is the place for harnessing and training students for the personnel as well as social needs. Hence, it is the roles of the educational institution to inculcate the morals, values, skills, physical development and providing knowledge for the students to face life's challenges. The schooling usually involves people working with and through other people to influence students, parents, teachers, principals and authorities (Moos, 2010). These influences need to be based on a philosophical foundation to develop citizens in all domains. According to some individuals, the purpose of schooling differs as it attempts to focus on citizenship in democratic societies, coping with economic and technological advances and also contributing to common benefits. Parents recognized that schooling must reflect the real world and provide life-work skills (Warner, 2006). Therefore, school has always been and today is more obviously than ever, a multifaceted and complex organization (Mitakidou, Tressou, & Daniilidou, 2009).

More or less, schools are not positioned to feed information, but rather let students learn several lessons and also form several moral characters. This requires a well-developed curriculum, competent teachers and capable school managers and leaders to implement and monitor the internal structure of the school. The curriculum, pedagogical activities and co-curricular activities need to be planned and implemented in such a way to socialization, inculcation, spiritual and physical well being along with academic results. The instructional activities need to develop basic competencies and promote holistic development. A "co-curricular activity is defined as a program or out-of-class activity, supervised and/or financed by the school, which provides curriculum-related learning and character building experiences" (Deering High School Student Handbook, 2005 – 2006; p.29). Therefore, 21st century school recognizes the multiplicity of talents that young individuals bring to schooling and, its commitment to release and enhance these talents resulted in the school to create opportunities for all the young people (Warner, 2006).

Multiple Shifts as an Alternative Way

Demanding population and lack of physical and intellectual resources initiated the double session schools (DSS). First and most, shift system was adopted as a means to meet the increased demand for the enrolment (Aggarwal, 2007). Overcrowding of classrooms has led the operation of double-shift school system in in many countries (Bray, 2008; UNESCO, 2010). Thus, beginning of DSS schools actually came in the last century, but varies according to the countries. In 1982, Education Ministry of Senegal launched a pilot double-shift system at the primary level and expanded later (Bray, 2008). Much later, double–shift schooling was introduced in Gambia in 1990 (Orkodashvili M. , 2009).

In Sierra Leone, the government introduced a double-shift system in urban areas as a temporary measure to address the rural-to-urban migration of school-aged children (Wang, 2007). In Chile, many schools have long traditions of double session and have had triple sessions (Bray, 2008). In Malawi, by 2004, 713 schools (around 14%) operated as double session schools while 4390 schools operated as single session schools, and two shifts were taught as a measure to tackle a shortage of classrooms rather than a shortage of teachers (Mulkeen & Chen, 2008). In Ethiopia, 44 percent of government schools operate in two shifts (World Bank 2004, as cited in Theunynck, 2009). In Brazil, schools operated three shifts and had one shift in the evening (Bray, 2008). In Zambia, during 1980s a specially-appointed team considered the use of multiple shifts as an alternative to reach the goal of universal primary education, because it was obvious that the nation could not afford single session schools throughout the country (Aggarwal, 2007).

Double session schools have not been only confined to under-developed or least developed countries. Although double session schooling is most common in poor countries (Orkodashvili, 2009), such a school is also found in the urban areas of developing and developed countries. Many urban with over populated areas must operate schools in double session to provide education to every individual. In urban areas, many schools have been required to run double shift, on account of accurate shortage of accommodation (Sidhu, 1996; Bray, 2008). Thus, one of the reasons for moving to a double-shift model is the potential savings resulted from not having to build more schools to accommodate increased numbers of pupils (Linden, 2001).

Double-session schools are restricted with time and space to provide curricular and co-curricular activities to the students. In double-session arrangement, the duration of each teaching period will have to be kept shorter as compared to single shift schools (Sidhu, 1996). Hours of work are shorter in double shift schools than in single shift schools though the curriculum and the syllabi to be covered are the same for both (Yadav, 2005). In Ethiopia, schools operate in one or more shifts, where one session schools are expected to provide 1,100 instructional hours a year, while those on double shift typically fit in 840 hours for each shift of students (World Bank, 2005).

The double session model is mainly due to lack of infrastructure and finance. To address the problem of overcrowding when resources are limited, economists and planners often advise the use of many shifts, so as to more fully use the existing infrastructure, rather than investing in new schools or expending existing ones (Theunynck, 2009). This was the case in Maldives, where half of the schools in the country has been running in double-session. Thus, meetings such as coordination and subject meetings and extracurricular activities such as remedial classes and sports have to take place in the evenings and even during weekends (Wheatcroft, 2005). Other limitations include; getting classrooms cleaned before the second shift commences, seating arrangements require adjustments every day before each shift begins due to the different number of children in various classes, and giving rooms for teachers pose quite a big problem in school buildings which was not constructed for two shifts system in mind (Yadav, 2005).

Transition to Single Session Schools

Single session schools were the traditional norms of schooling. Today, the education systems in countries focus on providing broad-based education to make children ready for global life challenges. Accordingly, developing and developed countries with loads of double session school started to transform all double session schools to single session schools. For example, Ministry of Education, Singapore, "is currently exploring measures to enhance holistic learning, in particular, seek to strike a better balance between equipping our pupils with foundational knowledge and developing in them the skills and values that will prepare them for life" (MoE-Singapore, 2008c). Moreover, moving all the primary schools in Singapore to single session model will be an important structural change to increase the capacity of the system to serve pupils better, and provide a more favourable school environment that is well-balanced and holistic (MoE-Singapore, 2009d). Hence, this transition from double to single session model is one of the spines of the backbone of holistic education. This model would provide teachers with supplementary time and space to deliver a more holistic education as well as to let pupils benefit from range of both academic and non-academic activities.

Among Asian countries, Singapore and Malaysia have been transforming schools to be single session, which is also recently followed by Maldives. In Singapore, both primary and high schools operated on double sessions and in the 1990's secondary schools were converted to single session schools (Singapore-Detailed Paper, 2006; Bray, 2008), requiring the construction of fifty new high schools (Singapore-DetailedPaper, 2006). Primary schools possess a key feature of students attending either morning or afternoon session (MoE-Singapore, 2008). The MoE of Singapore has been transforming double session model to a partial single-session model since 2004, and is targeting to facilitate the transition of all government primary schools to a single-session model by 2016 (MoE-Singapore, 2009d). The government of Malaysia is also pushing for a single session nationwide for all primary and secondary schools, though no deadline is set for its total implementation due to huge costs and extra teaching staffs involved (Jamaludin, Abdullah, & Alagesh, , 2011).

Schooling for Maldivian generations started traditionally as the home-based learning in the 'edhurge' or 'kiyavaage'. Later on, 'Makthab' and 'Madhrasa' were operated by a pious person or by a group of learnt people of the community. The establishment of the first government school in Male' in 1927 initiated several challenges to the traditional system. Initially the school was limited to the education of boys, but later in 1944 a section was opened for girls and young women (Azza, 2008). This was the time schools ran in single session. However, double-shift model is the norm in all schools which limits the providing of the full curriculum for the primary and secondary cohorts (MoPND, 2007). The seventh policy in the National Framework for Development 2009-2013 is to transform all the schools to single session schools for the purpose of providing holistic education and conducive learning environment (PO, 2009). Hence, Ministry of Education started to implement the policy in 2009 where 48 schools were converted to single sessions. In 2010 the number has been increased to 101 single-session schools. Most of the schools in less populated islands were changed to single session in the first year of the policy implementation.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

School is the place where much interaction occurs and children involved in activities formulated to provide academic, physical, moral, and social development. In order to enhance the quality of teaching and learning for a well-balanced primary education, a balance between the acquisition of knowledge with the development of skills and values is proposed through the increased use of engaging and effective teaching methods, more holistic assessment, and a stronger emphasis on non-academic aspects within the curriculum (MoE-Singapore, 2009d). "Holistic education is a popular trend in the midst of various educational reforms" (Chiu, 2009 p.261). The transition to single session schools is to provide a conducive learning environment in the schools. Several countries have been implementing a nationwide reform in education by transforming all double-session schools to single-session, like in Singapore (MoE-Singapore, 2010b), Malaysia (Jamaludin, Abdullah, & Alagesh, 2011), and now in Maldives (PO, 2009).

However, additional infrastructural is required in line with the move towards a more holistic education. Facilities that would support the new emphases in curriculum, exposing students to a broad range of non-academic activities, more time and space to interact meaningfully, and a favourable school environment are aspects of single session schools (MoE-Singapore(d), 2009). Additionally, introducing a more holistic curriculum, CCA (Co-Curricular Activities) and making use of outdoor learning are an important platform for engaging students in holistic development (MoE-Singapore(e), 2010). The responsibility for managing teaching and learning is shared amongst principals, school management teams (SMTs), heads of departments, and classroom educators (Bush, Joubert, Kiggundu, & Rooyen, 2010). Nevertheless, in the single-session model, school principals play an important role in school operation and developing the conditions in the school organization. Single session

schools necessitate more resources in the areas of manpower, funding and infrastructure be provided to support the proposed changes (MoE-Singapore, 2009d).

METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH

Research Design

The research design was developed to address the research questions of the study with both qualitative methods. The principals/school heads represented a purposive sample of the principals in the single-session schools. Maldives has 208 schools of which 198 are public schools. Among these 198 public schools, 92 schools are operating in single session/shift during the academic year 2011. Therefore, the original population is 92 principals of public single session schools. Six single session schools were purposefully selected on the basis of students' population (large, medium, and small). The large population refers to the student population more than 700 (seven hundred), medium refers to more than 350 (three hundred and fifty), and small refers to student population between 51 (fifty one) to 349 (three hundred and forty nine). The interviewees were the sample respondents in the qualitative sample, as an identical sampling (Mertens, 2010).

An interview guide was developed by the researcher, and six principals of SSS were interviewed on the qualitative portion of the study. The profile of the principals participated and their schools are described in the Table 1. The selected participants were contacted through telephone to request for an interview and explained the study objectives. Semi-structured questions were mainly used, since most interviews employ a combination of structured and semi-structured questions (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006). Semi-structured questions enabled the interviewee to express how they regarded situations from their own point of view. Interview also sees as an encounter necessarily sharing many aspects of everyday life (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). The interviews were recorded by using a digital audio recorder, irrespective of face-to-face or phone interviews. Finally, all the interviews were later transcribed by the researcher for data analysis.

Data Analysis

After completion of the transcribing interviews, each interview was read and corrected against the audio recording. Then, researcher started with limited coding by categorizing the responses into the general discussion topics. Interview transcripts were renamed with the anonymous names. Then the researcher read and familiarized with the data and made notes by referring to the research questions. After reviewing the data, they were sorted to find connection with the themes and categories. Then, coding was done to bring meaning and categorize the interviewee's comments into six discussion areas. In the findings and discussion of this paper, the six respondents will be referred to as A, B, C, D, E and F.

Table 1: *Profiles of the participating principals and their schools*

Respondents	Years of Experience (principal)	School enrolment	School Category	No. Of Years after de-shifting	Location
Principal A	12 years	700 students	Large	1st year	urban
Principal B	3 years	1000 students	Large	3rd year	urban
Principal C	4 years	200 students	Small	2nd year	rural
Principal D	7 years	450 students	medium	2nd year	rural
Principal E	2 years	500 students	medium	2nd year	rural
Principal F	3 years	150 students	small	2nd year	rural

FINDINGS

Educational Programs Offered

Co-curricular activities are apparent when these schools were in double session. However, co-curricular activities are given much emphasis in single session schools, together with classroom teaching. The principal Mrs B described in detail,

> "Before, we didn't give much emphasize on outside the classroom activities. But when it comes for holistic education, we decided to give certain number of sport activities to all the students. Every child in the school is involved in some kind of club activity. Now we are 100% sure that all the children will be involved in some kind of sport (all the students unless otherwise they have any disabilities or such)."

Mr E further elaborated,

> "We have one day for extra classes for all focal students, two days for activities during the session, and in addition to these sports activities will conducted later in the day".

Principal A viewed those co-curricular activities like clubs and sports activities are more organised in SSS.

> "we use to have these activities as well but this year we were more organized in getting the teachers involved because of the availability of more classrooms in the afternoon and this has become easier so they have done various other clubs like English, Dhivehi, Islam club, and also some sport activities".

Similarly, another principal Mr E, also ensured students are getting holistic education:

> "Now every student in the school would be engaged in at least one sport activity and one academic activity, like clubs".

Mr F affirmed that uniformed body activities such as scout and guide will provide opportunity to learn new skills and values,

> "As far as I have experienced, the children are taking enough time not only for studies; but also to exhibit their talent, to show their skills that they are capable of doing other things like guide or scout or even all sorts of programs".

Mrs B detailed how she ensured these programs balance knowledge with skills,

> "We check the students taking part in sports, life skill clubs. Clubs are run in a manner that they learn some kind of skills. We don't just teach them".

One principal, Mr D indicated how he organized school session time with regard to spiritual development of children;

> "At the moment we are starting first period at 6:15, students are reporting at 6 o'clock. When we follow this system they will get up early in the morning and go for prayer after that they will get ready for the school and come to school".

On the other hand, de-shifting all schools as single session schools alone, do not provide holistic education unless educational programs are focused. Some schools are behind the lag:

> "We haven't started any new programs yet. But we conduct small programs like literary activities, sports, home side life skills".

Lack of Infrastructure and Space

Most of the schools got couples of classrooms during the process of transition to Single Session. This finding showed that ministry wanted to change as many schools by providing just classrooms or changing some rooms into classrooms. Mr E confirmed this,

> "School got few classrooms in the process of changing from double to SSS. So now we have enough classrooms. However, I would really like to have a sports complex and vocational lab, at the moment we do not have vocational facilities".

Some schools changed important rooms and halls to classrooms by partitioning and modifying. SSS demanded infrastructure to provide all necessary activities. One of the principal Mrs B stated on this regard,

> "we are still running out of space, we have no proper music rooms, we have not enough labs that we require but instead of all these things we are occupying rooms as classrooms".

Others have used buildings outside the school. Mr F described how he managed infrastructure in de-shifting process,

> "Actually there is lack of facilities. That's why I have taken two classrooms from the pre-school. For extracurricular activities, I use not only the school premises; but also make use of other places".

Principal Mr C also revealed similar narrative to explain lack of infrastructure,

> "..though we have science stream we do not have laboratories and we are lacking classrooms".

The environment is not conducive to students as well as teachers in many schools due to lack of space and resources. Mrs B assured,

> "It's really difficult not having kind of space that we require. We don't have extra rooms for carrying or conducting remedial classes during our session time which actually we need to teach very week ones during session time".

The findings revealed that SSS demand more space and infrastructure to provide academic classroom activities, sports, and other co curricular activities. Mr E stated that, "if we have a sports complex within the school. Then it would be possible for us to conduct more activities". Mr C also affirmed this:

> "We don't have proper play areas and at the same time when a group of students are playing in the school compound that we have, I think the other classes are distracted very badly".

Principal, Mr A further mentioned the difficulties arise due to lack of sufficient infrastructure:

> "We have an AV room which all the teachers use if all of them are there to use it, all at the same time that makes it longer and demanding".

Moreover, it is found that school library, labs, room for vocational activities, staff room, prayer room, AV room, and indoor sports hall or at least a normal room are lacking in schools apart from classrooms.

Financial Limitations

Financial constraints affect the availability of resources to provide activities for holistic development of students. Difficulty in managing school activities especially for holistic development of children were elaborated by Mr A,

> "We are unable to conduct many of these activities because of the difficulties in the budget so just by bringing all of the students in one session does not mean we are able to do everything we want".

Mrs B confirmed the same narrative with her perception:

> "Actually the budget is not allocated for holistic education. The policy has changed this way but nothing has changed in the budget".

Some activities need to be extended after official working hours which require overtime pay. However, the limitations on overtime pay restrict holistic educational programs. Mr D confirmed this;

> "There isn't enough money in the budget to pay overtime work for teacher in the education sector, compared to others".

Even though, the budget is not allocated as intended to provide in schools, more critically there are several factors which make more difficult to manage the school budget. Principal C also affirmed the view that, "We don't know the allocated budget for this school. Since, we have to spend we are spending without knowing how much is allocated for such and such activities".

Principal Mr E from a large school also commented that,

> "Budget is a whole different thing altogether what we get and what we prepare is different".

Lack of Human Resource Capacity

Lack of human resource hinders holistic educational programs in Single Session Schools. Principal Mr C is also facing lack of expertise; where he mentioned:

> "I have only two leading teachers, but the number is not enough for such a school. However, I selected some senior staffs and delegated responsibilities to them to head the departments. Some large schools have sports supervisors, but we don't get. Number figures are there, but still we don't get that specific staff".

Teachers are also lacking knowledge and skills in facilitating extracurricular activities as well as vocational activities. All the interviewees mentioned about lack of human

capacity in providing vocational activities in the schools as well as in the islands. Mr. A stated that, "teacher should have the training to teach the subject and they are not equipped in other skills required for these kinds of activities". There are several reasons for lack of vocational activities in school. Principal Mr A, claimed that,

> "The school does not have resources to do these vocational activities and we do not have trained people here".

Mrs B confirmed the same portrayal with her perception.

> "This is one complain I always keep on making. We don't have enough technical people as I say, we have to hire them".

All other respondents, Mrs B, Mr C, Mr D, Mr E, and Mr F also confirmed this claim. However, the findings revealed that sometimes they use physics teachers or power house people to teach electrical wiring classes, to enable TVET programs to be conducted. However, they believed that they cannot rely on volunteers and need trained teachers in these areas to fully implement the aim of SSS.

Lack of Holistic Assessment

The findings indicate that still students are assessed in terms of academic achievement only, rather inculcating all the domains in holistic education. The school awards from the ministry of education is solely from academic achievements in O' level and A' level exams. Mr A mentioned this:

> "Policy makers are talking about holistic education and we have policies for holistic education, but the way they judge the school is not adequate. The way they are judging the school is how well the school is doing in O' level examination is not enough. And this is the only aspect used by the ministry to say which school is the best or which school is a good school. And there is no other criterion for this. So talking about holistic education and checking the schools by totally different criteria, it's really a challenge".

More time for the activities

School principals reflected the availability of more time in assisting students' holistic development by organising activities in a meaningful ways. Mr F also mentioned that, "SSS is much easier to manage and organize things".
Allocation of time helps in organising various activities without any clash. The principal F also stated that,

> "the amount of time allotted for studies and extra activities and uniform bodies, clubs and associations are very much".

Teachers get more time with extended instructional time to help children academically. Mr F detailed:

> "People only focus about the result of the children. Here (in single session) we have a little more time. Time is there, so the teachers can clearly analyze the progress of the children".

In support of this, Principal Mrs B said that "in a way it's easier, we all work together at the same time. We all will be available for a meeting". This would provide room for collegiality, where teachers get professional assistance from others as staffs working in the same session. Principal Mr E supported this SSS model by stating that,

> "With the SSS we get to being in the school during the entire school session, which is an advantage for coordination and most of the management functions. Also we get to one sit for professional assistance from other senior teachers".

The territory of using own initiatives of staffs are also evident. Mr F mentioned the space for instructional supervision and professional development:

> "When it comes to single session, we can observe each and every class and we can see them, the HODs and leading teachers will focus on these areas and in the coordination meeting, the delegation of work becomes very easy in single session because all the leading teachers and HODs come together".

Single session schools facilitate to conduct staff meetings and common meetings during day time or session time. Mr D elaborated this;

> "All are coming together, and all are leaving the school almost same time. So administration wise single session schools are better, convenient, than double session schools".

Planning as a Tool

Principals agreed that planning is easy in SSS. One of the principal, Mr F assured that,

> "Planning also becomes quite easy because we have enough time to sit together and plan the academic calendar. Everybody has a chance to sit together".

According to the principal Mr C stated that, "I do involve all stakeholders of the school in the planning". Additionally, the following response by Mr A supported this:

> "Planning of course has to be done in consultation with the stake holders of the school that is specially the teachers and parents. I consulted with the teachers to set up clubs especially in various areas".

Almost all the respondents in the interview made emphasis on importance of planning. Similarly, Mrs B indicated that, "of course when we start with a new project or new theme or something new, planning is the first thing. We need to do a lot of planning. In that case, we did a lot of planning". Initially she was not discussing the matter with teachers due to time constraints, but she discussed with school board and PTA. Mr A viewed that role of principal does not change at all with this change. However, He mentioned that, "it's the vision and setting goals to meet this and planning is the key role in SSS".

Leadership role of the principal

Not all but some principals claimed that they have put the objectives of the school known to every member of the staff. The following response by Mrs B detailed about her school mission and vision:

> "I began with the new vision in the school, I joined here in 2009 and they didn't have a vision as such but they had a mission what they are doing actually. I clearly always talk about my vision. I always tell my management that this is what I want. I want this school to be the best because this school is out of people's mind".

Moreover, principals mentioned that they direct and ensure staff are working towards the school's educational goals. One of the principal, Mr E stated that, "It is easier to pass common direction and guidance". In further, Mr A mentioned as,

> "….to set a goal we consult the staff specially the teachers and the leading teachers so they are involved in setting the task and it is in consultation with the teachers. And I need to come up to make a whole school achieve the target in certain area".

Apart from directing, principals claimed that they frequently motivate teachers by accomplishing their effort and reward special efforts by teachers. Principal Mrs B detailed briefly the leadership role in achieving the targets. She assured that,

> "So principal become the guider, become the director, become the motivator and principal is the counsellor as well. So we should have a vision of ourselves. Then we become the director, become the motivator, become the leader, just stay in front and ask them to follow us. Actually it's the inspiration part that would be and not giving up".

However, only three principals mentioned about their leadership in operating the school.

Principal as an Income Generator

From this point, it is amazing how principals manage school finance in conducting school activities. Mr E mentioned that,

> "we have to change money from one budget code to another and manage the activities as we plan. It is never provided to according to what we propose".

Furthermore, all the principals stated that they get financial assistance from the Parent Teacher Association (PTA) and from the community. Principals play an important role in generating these financial inputs. Mr C stated:

> "We use PTA and conduct fund rising programs with the involvement of students and also parents. And get some donations from others".

Mr D also mentioned:

> "PTA is very active in this school, Parents brought some materials from PTA fund and they made shelves of the Science Lab".

Mr F also confirmed the financial input from PTA as:

> "Budget is very low but still we are managing and here I really get the help of the community. The community really contributes for this holistic education".

Principals use different modes to manage school finance inorder to provide holistic education along with the constraints of the budget. Mrs B, detailed that,

> "courses like cake decoration; some are freely and some are paid. For some courses children have to pay like dress making. Parents are very helpful. They know that all these efforts we take or we put in for their children. So they are willing to pay. Some of the parents are paying for the coaches now".

DISCUSSION

Implementing the holistic education policy via de-shifting double session schools to single sessions unmasks imperative areas; importance of educational programs focused on overall development of children, and the role of principals in managing the SSS mode. These side street areas enable to provide holistic education, with providing more time for curricular and co-curricular activities, and professional development of staff. Principals' transformational leadership, appropriate planning for change and principal become an income generator contributes in booming schools events in the context of Maldives. However, lack of infrastructure and space, lack of

human resource capacity, financial limitations, lack of holistic assessment is viewed as challenges to provide holistic education, whereby it requires sizeable or need-based resources, developing human resource capacity, and change in assessment for successful policy implementation. Principals in SSS are grappled with difficult issues arising from unpromising school contexts, weak/lack of inherited infrastructure and under-qualified educators (Bush, Joubert, Kiggundu, & Rooyen, 2010). Moreover, low remuneration for teachers dissatisfies them and shortening of official working hours has become an emerging challenge.

SSS Model Requires Well-designed and Adequate Infrastructure

Single session schools require more infrastructures to provide an environment for holistic education. From the literature, it was found that DSS model was emerged due to lack of infrastructure to accommodate increase in school age population (Aggarwal, 2007; Wang, 2007; Bray, 2008; Sidhu, 2008; UNESCO, 2010). Thus, transition from DSS to SSS with lack of infrastructure is incompatible to provide a conducive environment. The study found that lack of infrastructure makes difficulty in managing and organizing school activities in an effective way. Additionally, principals perceive to have adequate infrastructure in SSS to operate efficiently. Daily interactions in schools are affected by conditions of the school, as a result role of the quality physical environment is decisive to children's development (Duran-Narucki, 2008). Although, infrastructure and facilities do not constitute to students achievement, infrastructure provides a conducive learning environment in the schools.

It was also found that principals were unable to provide some co-curricular activities and sports during the session. However, some principals did not find it impossible to conduct those activities. These principals tried to utilize every available infrastructure. However, principals urged to have infrastructure for PAL, sports and vocational activities. In the literature, it was found that MoE has carefully invested in infrastructure, providing indoor and outdoor sports facilities, such as Multi-purpose Hall, school field, games courts and the new Indoor Sports Hall (ISH) (MoE-Singapore(d), 2009). Moreover, other facilities like staff room, prayer hall, science lab, school library, and other infrastructures need to meet the demand of the school.

Need-based Budget and Financial Resources

All the government schools are free of charge and annual budgets are allocated by the MoE. The study found that financial limitations affect planning of vocational activities and other activities for well-rounded education in SSS. The findings match the findings of Kartal (2009) who reported difficulty caused by insufficient finances as a problem that principals complain related to planning. Vocational activities, life skill programs, sports, PAL, outdoor programs and many other activities come to the umbrella of holistic education. These programs require facilities and human resources to fulfill the purpose of transition to SSS. However, this study found that school

budget is very limited and nothing has changed to financial resources due to the policy.

Building Professional Capacity Becomes Obligatory

Professional capacity of teachers and middle managers are really crucial for SSS model. This study found that teachers are not equipped with knowledge and skills required for several extra-curricular and life skill programs and principals from different schools manage the available teachers' capacity differently. Study of Khan (2011) found that human resources were adequate in the two schools they studied, but were difference in how they were utilized. Some, principals hired trainers, but which is only possible in urban areas. As indicated in researches, teacher growth must be integrated with school development (Dag & Gümüseli, 2011). This reflects pre-service as well as in-service programs to be effective including cross-subject and activities related to holistic development of students.

Call for Transformative Leadership Towards the Goal Attainment

In a general perspective, SSS principals' leadership role is considerably high, especially participatory leadership. Bearing a few, transformative leadership is low among the principals. The study found that principals direct teachers and staff towards desired goal. Effective leaders would motivate the staffs at highest level in order to achieve the desired objectives. The study found that principals have responsibility of providing an environment for holistic education in schools. This finding is supported by Jamelaa and Jainabee (2011) as school principals are responsible to provide a healthy environment, in accordance with the National Philosophy of Education. A recent study indicated that principal's transformative leadership significantly related to the effectiveness of a successful school practices (MuhammadFaizal, Saedah, Norfariza, & Faisol, 2011). A transformative leader is beyond daily businesses and motivating staffs, but provides individual support, and is an energetic visionary (Zembat, Koçyigit, Tugluk, & Dogan, 2010). Thus, SSS need to have an effective leader to administer changes at the school level properly (Jamelaa & Jainabee, 2011). Because, a manager who aspires to develop the school in accordance with its goals has to be a leader so as to ensure effective management (Zembat et al.,2010). School managers as transformative leaders would deploy efficient changes in management and productive use of resources.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

A number of implications for practice emerged from this research. Many of these suggestions came from the participants themselves as well as from the best practice for the implementation of such a policy.

1. Ministry of Education needs to have a meaningful time frame for the implementation of the SSS policy. It is needed to revise the time framework of five year plan from 2009-2013 and transform DSS to SSS systematically with minimum number of schools every year but providing full capacity. The time will be required to

make infrastructural enhancements to schools in implementing the single-session model.
2. Minimum number of classrooms alone would not assist to provide a conducive environment for holistic education and to facilitate the change. Thus, sufficient number of classrooms, indoor sports hall, vocational lab, more than one audio visual room, science labs, conducive staffroom with space for each teacher, and prayer hall need to be provided.
3. Schools must have flexibility to adjust their start and end times with careful consideration of their local conditions as well as the Islamic and cultural norms, and autonomy with guidelines and examples of good practices. The holistic education policy needs to be revised by ministry of education.
4. Teacher training institutions should equip teachers to assess and provide pupils with richer and more holistic teaching on their development and skills acquisition in academic and non-academic areas. Additionally, principals should be trained and exposed to gain knowledge on how to operate schools in line with providing holistic education through SSS model.
5. Ministry of education should assist schools to enhance the quality of co-curricular activities and vocational activities, optimal deployment of qualified teachers and funds for purchasing mandatory equipments and facilitating holistic programs. Moreover, irrespective of small schools (non-autonomous), they must know the budget allocated for different items and their school budget.
6. Principals should develop a system to assess the development of their pupils in academic and non-academic areas and to provide a more holistic education. They must also enhance student learning by increasing student participation in sports, enhancing opportunities for student development by introducing optional CCA units, and incorporating service learning and community involvement programme into CCA.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

A similar study may be done with a larger sample which would enhance the validity and reliability of the conclusions reached. Also, additional investigations can be conducted through a purposeful field observations and document review along with interviews. Further studies can be made by including perception of teachers, parents, students and superintendents. This study can be replicated by a larger sample from SSS abroad in order to be able to conduct a cross-country comparison, like with Singapore and Maldives.

CONCLUSION

Investigation on determining principals' perception on condition facilitating holistic education represents a rich stratum of exploration. Based on the findings of the study conducted in Maldives, the researcher arrived at several conclusions. Firstly, reforms were not incorporated into the curriculum and educational programs in the schools, except few schools brought restructuring to co-curricular activities. Secondly, SSS setup in Maldives urgently requires more space and infrastructure to conduct

extracurricular and vocational activities to facilitate holistic educational programs. Additionally, teachers lack skills and knowledge needed to facilitate activities for holistic development of students, such as some sports, life skill programs, and vocational programs. Professional capacity of teachers and management staffs must be upgraded for implementing the SSS model for holistic education. Financial resources play a huge role in purchasing equipments and materials, and finding instructors for holistic development activities. The educational policies need to be revised to link holistic education policy where as students' assessment should not be solely on academic domain.

Finally, the roles and responsibilities of school principals should always be revisited to ensure that they are executing their responsibilities as expected. Effectiveness of reforms depends on principals' transformational leadership and planning in facilitating holistic educational programs in single session schools. Successful implementation of SSS model aimed for holistic education would never be achieved unless educational programs balance knowledge with skills and values; have adequate infrastructure; consistent financial resources; skilled professionals and rewiring of policies towards a specific objective.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Aggarwal, D. D. (2007). *Educational administration in India.* New Delhi: SARUP & SONS Publishers.

Azza, F. (2008). *EFA Mid Decade Assessment 2007 - National Report (Maldives).* Male': Ministry of Education.

Bellamy, G. T., & Goodlad, J. I. (2008). Continuity and change: In pursuit of a democratic public mission for our schools. *Phi Delta Kappan , 89* (8), 565-571.

Bray, M. (2008). *Double-shift schooling: design and operation for cost-effectiveness* (3rd ed.). Paris: UNESCO: International Institute for Educational Planning.

Bush, T., Joubert, R., Kiggundu, E., & Rooyen, J. v. (2010). Managing teaching and learning in South African schools. *International Journal of Educational Development* (30), 162–168.

Chiu, Y. J. (2009). Exploring pedagogical strategies to integrate a holistic approach to education into ESL classes. *Asia Pacific Education Review , 10* (2), 261-270.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education* (6th ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.

Dag, S., & Gümüseli, A. I. (2011). School improvement needs analysis of the public primary schools in Istanbul. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences* (15), 2716–2721.

Dash, M., & Dash, N. (2008). *School management.* New Delhi: Atlantic Publishers and Distributors (P) Ltd.

Deering High School Student Handbook. (2005 - 2006). Retrieved June 20, 2011, from Deering High School: http://deering.portlandschools.org/handbook/dhscocurricular.pdf

Duran-Narucki, V. (2008). School building condition, school attendance, and academic achievement in New York city public schools: A mediation model. *Journal of Environmental Psychology* (28), 278–286.

First 100 days of democratic government. (2009). Retrieved October 24, 2010, from The President Office: http://www.presidencymaldives.gov.mv/downloads/100-days-en.pdf

Hoy, W. K., & Miskel, C. G. (2008). *Educational administration: Theory, research, and practice.* New York: The McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc.

Ismail, H., & Hassan, A. (2009). Holistic education in Malaysia. *European Journal of Social Sciences , 9* (2), 231-236.

Jamaludin, M. H., Abdullah, N. I., & Alagesh, T. N. (2011, March 1). *Push for single-session schools*. Retrieved June 30, 2011, from New straits times Online: http://www.nst.com.my/articles/Malaysiawillpushforsingle-sessionschools/Article/

Jameela, B. A., & Jainabee, M. K. (2011). Instructional leadership and attitude towards organizational change among secondary schools principal in Pahang, Malaysia. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences* (15), 3304-3309.

Kartal, S. (2009). The difficulties that primary school principles encounter in the application of administration processes in Turkey. *International Journal of Human and Social Sciences , 4* (10), 708-715.

Khan, A. (2011). Instructional management of a private and a government secondary school principal in Northern Pakistan. *International Journal of Educational Development* , Article in Press.

Konok, M. I. (2006). *Principals' perceptions concerning the process and dynamics of the implementation of professional learning communities.* Saskatoon: Unpublished Master's thesis. University of Saskatchewan.

Linden, T. (2001). *Double-shift secondary schools: Possibilities and issues.* Washington: The World Bank.

McMillan, J. H., & Schumacher, S. (2006). *Research in education: Evidence-based inquiry* (6th ed.). Boston: Pearson Education, Inc.

Mertens, D. M. (2010). *Research and evaluation in education and psychology* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Miller, J. P. (2007). *The holistic curriculum.* Toronto: University of Toronto Press.

Mitakidou, S., Tressou, E., & Daniilidou, E. (2009). Cross-cultural education: A challenge or a problem? *International Critical Childhood Policy Studies , 2* (1), 61-74.

MoE. (2011). *Policy on providing holistic education to students.* Male': Ministy of Education.

MoE-Singapore. (2008a). *Education in Singapore.* Singapore: Ministry of Education.

MoE-Singapore. (2008c). Recent developments in Singapore's education system: Gearing up for 2015. *International Education Leaders' Dialogue: Third Conference.* Melbourne: Department of Education and Early Childhood Development.

MoE-Singapore. (2009d). *Report of the Primary Education Review and Implementation Committee.* Singapore: The Ministry of Education.

MoE-Singapore. (2010b, July). *Building a national education system for the 21st century: The Singapore experience.* Retrieved June 28, 2011, from Ministry of Education - Ontario: http://www.edu.gov.on.ca/bb4e/Singapore_CaseStudy2010.pdf

MoE-Singapore. (2010e). *Report of Secondary Education Review and implementation.* Male': Ministray of Eudcation.

Moos, L. (2010). From successful school leadership towards distributed leadership. In S. G. Huber, *School leadership - international perspective.* London: Springer Dordrecht Heidelberg.

MPND. (2007a). *Seventh National Development Plan 2006-2010.* Male': Ministry of Planning and National Development.

MPND. (2007b). *Millennium Development Goals: Maldives Country Report 2007.* Male': Ministry of Planning and National Development.

MuhammadFaizal, A. G., Saedah, S., Norfariza, M. R., & Faisol, E. (2011). School effectiveness and improvement practices in excellent schools in Malaysia and Brunei. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences* (15), 1705–1712.

Mulkeen, A., & Chen, D. (2008). *Teachers for rural schools: experiences in Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Tanzania, and Uganda.* Washington: The World Bank.

Orkodashvili, M. (2009). *Double- shift schooling and EFA goals: assessing economic, educational and social impacts.* Retrieved June 25, 2011, from Munich Personal RePEc Archive: http://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/23519/1/MPRA_paper_23519.pdf

PO. (2009). *The Strategic Action Plan - National Framework for Development 2009 - 2013.* Male': The President Office.

Project Profile. (2009). Retrieved June 27, 2011, from Maldives Partnership Forum: http://www.maldivespartnershipforum.gov.mv/pdf/Education.pdf

Sidhu, K. S. (1996). *School organisation & administration.* New Delhi: Sterling Publishers Pvt. Ltd.

Singapore-DetailedPaper. (2006, September). S*ingapore – education system and school accountability.* Retrieved June 28, 2011, from Department of Education: http://www.det.wa.edu.au/education/accountability/docs/singapore.pdf

Theunynck, S. (2009). *School construction strategies for universal primary education in Africa.* Washington: The World Bank.

UNESCO. (2010). *Reaching the marginalized.* Paris: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation.

Victor, Y. S. (2009). Principal leadership for private schools improvement: The Singapore perspective. *European Journal of Social Science , 8* (1), 171-200.

Wang, L. (2007). *Education in Sierra Leone.* Washington: The World Bank.

Warner, D. (2006). *Schooling for the knowledge era.* Camberwell, Victoria: ACER Press.

Wheatcroft, L. (2005). *A policy report on Maldivian teachers attitudes to their own profession.* London: VSO.

WorldBank. (2005). *Education in Ethiopia: strengthening the foundation for sustainable progress.* Washington: The World Bank.

Yadav, S. (2005). *School management and pedagogies of education.* New Delhi: Anmol Publications Pvt Ltd.
Zembat, R., Koçyigit, S., Tugluk, M. N., & Dogan, H. (2010). The relationship between the effectiveness of preschools and leadership styles of school managers. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences* (2), 2269–2276.

THE INFLUENCE OF USING TASK-BASED LEARNING (TBL) TOWARDS TEACHING PROFESSIONAL MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP

Dr. Noer Doddy Irmawati

Ahmad Dahlan University, Yogyakarta, Indonesia

ABSTRACT

TBL (Task-Based Learning) which was applied in an English class to improve students' academic reading achievement which gives influence to teaching professional management and leadership. It was a result of classroom action research which was conducted by three cycles of teaching learning process to 42 students in Faculty of Letters Ahmad Dahlan University Yogyakarta Indonesia academic year 2010/2011. The objectives of the research were: (1) Can TBL improve the students' academic reading achievement; (2) Are there some influences of using TBL toward teaching professional management and leadership; (3) some benefits of using TBL in the teaching learning process. TBL is used because learning using task-based learning method consists of the process of working class, which makes learners can master, harness, using the target language with the main purpose to control the meaning or significance of the mastery of the form. Task focused on learning languages and performed in a single process in the classroom to produce a product or output that increased academic English reading achievement. Learning actions implemented through three cycles of action, each cycle of cycle 1, cycle 2, and cycle 3 using evaluation and reflection to look for the strengths and weaknesses as a basis for consideration in the next cycle. The activities were analysis, fact-finding, conceptualization, planning, implementation, additional fact-finding, evaluation, and reflection. Naturalistic approach by using the technique of "participant-observation" of the development of ethnographic which was done collaboratively, as well as incorporate the characteristics of the case study methodology of Belanger. So there was a rolling process from cycle to cycle, until the end, and there were some side effects. Its essence was to solve problems encountered in the learning process and improve the system, so there were changes such as increasing the low reading achievement of the students in English Letters Department Faculty of Letters, University of Ahmad Dahlan Yogyakarta. The results (Noer Doddy Irmawati, 2012) showed some significant discoveries, as follows: (1) increasing the English students' academic reading achievement, (2) increasing the intensity and awareness of significant learning, (3) changing and improving significantly the students' attitudes, (4) increasing significantly the professionalism of lecturers, (5) increasing motivation and student interest in learning, (6) increasing effectively of communications among students, (7) increasing ability to cooperate, collaborate, and socialize, (8) increasing the ability to understand the vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation, (9) increasing the ability to analyze the reading aspect of reading academic purposes, (10) increasing the ability to express opinions, ideas, and

suggestions, (11) increasing the discipline and ability to appreciate time, (12) the learning process becoming a means of emotional therapy. All of them can be classified into 5 main themes, namely: (1) The application of TBL improves the English reading academic achievement, (2) It increased the intensity of student learning, (3) It increased personal awareness of attitude and professionalism, (4) It increased in social skills and (5) It increased in leadership, exemplary and moral values. There were also the strengths and weaknesses of using TBL in the teaching-learning process of academic reading. So there were some influences of using TBL toward teaching professional management and leadership.

Keywords: *Task-Based Learning, Teaching Professional, Management and Leadership*

INTRODUCTION

In connection with the development of science, times, era and the rapid technological developments nowadays, the author was intrigued and felt the need to present the results of research some time ago which are still relevant to be shown, used and subsequently applied in everyday life in the form of teaching professional management and leadership.

Therefore the current paper presentation in a seminar organized by the Institute Aminuddin Baki on 19-21 November 2013 in Genting Island, entitled: "The Influence of Using Task Based Learning (TBL) Toward Teaching Professional Management and Leadership" is presented as a suitable and a good topic.

The problems which will be discussed in this paper are: (1) Can TBL improve the students' academic reading achievement, (2) Are there some Influences of using TBL toward teaching professional management and leadership, (3) some benefits of using TBL in the teaching learning process.

Task-Based Learning (TBL) and its application in Learning Language

In answering the above problems, it is needed to discuss what TBL is. TBL is a learning activity that uses a task-based learning approach. Task focuses on learning languages and performed in a single process in the classroom to produce a product or output which increased achievement is. Task as a process refers to what is supposed to be made or done in the classroom. Task as work plans refers to the learning activities in which a task will be reserved. Task as an outcome refers to activities or learning that has actually done as a result of the execution of the task.

A task is an activity that suggest and ask learners to use the language with an emphasis on the meaning to achieve the goals/objectives (Bygate, Skehan, and Swain, 2001: 11). From the point of view of learning and teaching, a task is an activity, susceptible to brief or extended pedagogic intervention, which ask and encourages learners to use the language with an emphasis on the meaning/significance to achieve

the goal. Task formulation is used to analyze the tasks itself. Nunan (1989a: 10) gave the definition who said that task was a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right.

TBL is expected to increase academic achievement in English reading ability of students because students will actively seek to understand the meaning contained in the text of English-language literature, and in the end, they want and try to communicate in English. Applying task-based learning means that there is one class of work processes that make the student can master, harness, using the target language with the main purpose to control the meaning or significance of the mastery of the form.

Increasing achievement means feat and also increase the ability of English language skills. The performance improvement will have a positive effect such as increasing the quality of HR (Human Resources) that can cope Crisis Multi Dimensional, able to compete facing the development of science, technology and communication, superior, reliable, qualified, able to greet the changing times which is always rolling, capable face the challenges of the future and able to perform professionally. In the teaching-learning process activity there will be increasing impact of professional teaching management and leadership. In addition, some benefits of using TBL in the learning process can be obtained. Shortcomings of using TBL will also find that how to solve it also will be available to the next which can be used in the learning process. Not only that; increased leadership can also be achieved, due to the application of TBL to give effect to an increase in leadership for both learners and teachers.

Learning a language is a process that is a series of processes to develop the four language skills: (a) reading; (b) listening or hearing; (c) speaking; and (d) writing. In language learning, language is a tool for expressing meaning (ideas, thoughts, opinions, and feelings). Widdowson (1987: 27) stated that learning a language means learning to ask, inform, praise, rule, say hello and others in the target language. In the context of PBM, a student attempts to learn a language can take the form of four activities, namely: reproduction, simulation, construction, and appreciation.

According to Richards (1993: 11-13) there are some factors that can influence the success of language program such as socio-cultural factors, learning styles and teaching, and learning factors. Further it is said that the process of language learning and teaching is not an activity that takes place in a short time, but something that requires quite a long time in which learners and teachers together to achieve a particular goal. Clearly here there is a process that takes place.

According to Brown (2001: 1), the most important factor in learning is the learners themselves. Learners' factors include things that relate to age, motivation,

opportunity, talent, perseverance, attitude, strategy, courage to practice, and so on. Besides the factor of learning and teaching styles, strategy plays a very important. Four points are interconnected, namely: strategy, understanding of language, English language curriculum, and alternative methods, which need to be thoroughly understood in order to give a good insight to the students and to the faculty in order to develop strategies to the better learning result.

Mark McKinnon and Nicky Rigby (2005) said that: Task-based learning offers the students an opportunity to do exactly this. The primary focus of classroom activity is the task and language is the instrument which the students use to complete it. The task is an activity in which students use language to achieve a specific outcome. The activity reflects the real life and learner's focus on meaning; they are free to use any language they want.

Task roles can be viewed from two perspectives: pedagogical and language achievement. From the perspective of pedagogy, the task is used as a method to animate interactions in the classroom so that learners can use language and express the meaning / significance through the task appropriately, while when seen from the perspective of language achievement, the task used in response to interactions, produce output, or the negotiation of meaning / the meaning of the learners where they are in the process of success, accomplishment, achievement or mastery of what to target (Bygate, Skehan, Swain, 2001: 3).

Scrivener (2005) classified that task-based learning is a learning which is being authentic (original) and followed by the structure of the task/assignment. Each task will be arranged into the following manner: (1) Pre-task activity an introduction to the topic and task, given the initial task meant as an introduction to the topic and task, (2) Task cycle: Task> Planning> Report, and (3) Language Focus and Feedback.

Some types of task which are applied in the research are appropriate which suitable with the appropriate level of achievement that is also suitable for learners in intermediate level/advanced. For example: a task which is designed to a) encourage learners to send information to other learners, b) encourage learners to be able to exchange/share information with each other, c) have the goal of convergence and divergence; d) prepare a correct answer or more.

According to McKinnon and Nicky Rigby (2005), Scrivener (2005), and Willis (1996), TBL phase that can be used as references in preparing the task is a task which is prepared based on the identification of the needs of students based on need analysis. Its primary focus is the provision of task and language as an instrument to be used by students and the task can be viewed as an activity or activities that must be performed. Finally, the feedback is also needed.

THEORETICAL STUDY

Achievement and Evaluation

Bower (1994: 97) said that the achievement is a result that has been achieved than has been done, done, and so on. Academic achievement is the results of lessons learned from schooling activities that are affective, cognitive and psychomotor are usually determined through measurement and assessment. Learning achievement is the acquisition of knowledge or skills developed by the subjects, usually indicated by test scores or numerical value is assigned by the lecturer.

Further, Bower in his book Theories of Learning (1994: 127), said that the achievement can be measured with respect to time and the following terminologies:

a. Appropriate (meaning right, proper, suitable, feasible) for example to provide or define the best ways to achieve the goals to be achieved.
b. Efficient (efficient) that can utilize properly and carefully uses time and other resources to achieve goals.
c. Effective (ineffective) the degree to which the target actually achieved or accomplished (actually achieved).

Roger Kaufman and Thomas Susan (1980: 127) said that achievement is: A global view of achievement of the teaching and learning process over a period of time, e.g. analysis of the success or failure of a teaching approach, course book, pupil response, motivation, etc.

Evaluation is an overview of the results of an increase in PBM (teaching and learning process) within a certain time. Evaluation of student learning is a systematic process that has a significant role in effective teaching. Evaluation, as they relate to teaching, starting with the identification of the expected learning outcomes and ends with a justification of the extent to which learning outcomes which has been achieved. H. Douglas Brown (2001: 343) said that, a key to successful evaluation is to get your students to understand that your grades, scores, and other comments are varied forms of feedback from roommates they can all benefit.

According to Roger Kaufman and Thomas Susan (1980: 4), the evaluation is to assess the quality of the process that occurs, if the evaluation is done to determine the right to control the gap between what is happening and should happen. Evaluation was also conducted to gather information on a periodic basis in order to get feedback on student learning. Periodic evaluation to determine the student's progress is called formative evaluation or diagnostic evaluation in process.

R.M. Thomas (1974: 10f) said about the evaluation of student learning outcomes mean determining how adequately pupils have achieved the stated learning objectives, meaning that in order to measure the success or failure of students to

master the teaching materials, evaluations conducted to determine whether students can achieve the objectives that have been formulated the learning objectives. Learning objectives formulated in the form of behavior that can be observed, because it can also be measured using test. There are three series of tests that can be used, namely: 1) A series of tests for pretest, 2) A series of tests for formative or diagnostic tests in process evaluation, and 3) A series of test to post-test or final or summative evaluation.

Evaluation and achievement are two important factors that affect the quality of Teaching-Learning Process. Evaluation is not only to determine the extent students have mastered the subject matter, but also can be used as feedback to improve the quality of Teaching-Learning Process, and supports other aspects of the learning process. Evaluation can help both students and lecturers in assessing readiness to learn, monitor learning progress, diagnose learning difficulties, and evaluating the success of Teaching-Learning Process.

Professional and Leadership

A professional is someone who has completed formal education and training in one or more profession. The term also describes the standards of education and training that prepare members of the profession with the particular knowledge and skills necessary to perform the role of that profession. In addition, most professionals are subject to strict codes of conduct enshrining rigorous ethical and moral obligations. Professional standards of practice and ethics for a particular field are typically agreed upon and maintained through widely recognized professional associations. Some definitions of professional limit this term to those professions that serves some important aspect of public interest and the general good of society (Sullivan & William M, 2005: 17).

The main criterion for professionalism includes the following:

1) Expert and specialized knowledge in field which one is practising professionally (Sullivan & William M., 2005: 24).
2) Excellent manual/practical and literary skills in relation to profession (Gardner, 2005: 13).
3) High quality work in, for example: creations, products, services, presentations, consultancy, primary/other research, administrative, marketing, photography or other work endeavours.
4) A high standard of professional ethics, behaviour and work activities while carrying out one's profession (as an employee, self-employed person, career, enterprise, business, company, or partnership/associate/colleague, etc.). The professional owes a higher duty to a client, often a privilege of confidentiality, as well as a duty not to abandon a genuine client just because he or she may not be able to pay or remunerate the professional. Often the professional is required to put the interest of the client ahead of his own interests.
5) Reasonable work morale and motivation. Having interest and desire to do a job well as holding positive attitude towards the profession are important elements in attaining a high level of professionalism.

6) Appropriate treatment of relationships with colleagues. Consideration should be shown to elderly, junior or inexperienced colleagues, as well as those with special needs. An example must be set to perpetuate the attitude of one's business without doing it harms.
7) A professional is an expert who is a master in a specific type of profession.

Leadership has been described as "a process of social influence in which one person can enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task" (George J.M., 2000: 1030), although there are alternative definitions of leadership. For example, some understand a leader simply as somebody whom people follow or as somebody who guides or directs others, while others define leadership as "organizing a group of people to achieve a common goal".

Leadership can be perceived as a particularly emotion-laden process, with emotions entwined with the social influence process (S. Cote & R. Saavedra, 2005: 297). In an organization, the leader's mood has some effects on his/her group. These effects can be described in three levels (J.E Bono & R. Ilies, 2006: 323).

1) The mood of individual group members. Group members with leaders in a positive mood experience more positive mood than do group members with leaders in a negative mood. The leaders transmit their moods to other group members through the mechanism of emotional contagion. Mood contagion may be one of the psychological mechanisms by which charismatic leaders influence followers.
2) The affective tone of the group. Group affective tone represents the consistent or homogeneous affective reactions within a group. Group affective tone is an aggregate of the moods of the individual members of the group and refers to mood at the group level of analysis. Groups with leaders in a positive mood have a more positive affective tone than do groups with leaders in a negative mood.
3) Group processes like coordination, effort expenditure, and task strategy. Public expressions of mood impact how group members think and act. When people experience and express mood, they send signals to others. Leaders signal their goals, intentions, and attitudes through their expressions of moods. For example, expressions of positive moods by leaders signal that leaders deem progress toward goals to be good. The group members respond to those signals cognitively and behaviourally in ways that are reflected in the group processes.

G.L. Stewart & C.C. Manz (1995: 757) have brought critical thinking to the very concept of leadership and have provided an analysis that asserts that people abrogate their responsibility to think and will actions for themselves. While the conventional view of leadership is rather satisfying to people who "want to be told what to do", these critics say that one should question why they are being subjected to a will or intellect other than their own if the leader is not a Subject Matter Expert (SME).

According to P.J. Montana & B.H. Charnov (2008: 253), Leadership is innate which is determined by distinctive dispositional characteristics present at birth (e.g., extraversion; intelligence; ingenuity). However, according to Forsyth (2009) there is

evidence to show that leadership also develops through hard work and careful observation. Thus, effective leadership can result from nature (i.e., innate talents) as well as nurture (i.e., acquired skills).
Leadership is possessing power over others. Although leadership is certainly a form of power, it is not demarcated by power *over* people – rather, it is a power *with* people that exists as a reciprocal relationship between a leader and his/her followers (Forsyth, 2009). Despite popular belief, the use of manipulation, coercion, and domination to influence others is not a requirement for leadership. In actuality, individuals who seek group consent and strive to act in the best interests of others can also become effective leaders (e.g., class president; court judge).

Setting and Procedures of Research

TBL is used as learning methods which is applied in the classroom by giving action (it is called classroom action research). The goal is to solve the problems found in the field of learning. The step of research refers to the action research of Kemmis and Mc Taggart (1990: 11) model. The action research spiral process includes planning, action, observation and reflection. Learning actions implemented through cycles of action for three cycles. Each cycle of evaluation and reflection to look for the strengths and weaknesses which are used as a basis for consideration in the next cycle. Additionally naturalistic approach by using the technique of "participant-observation" of the development of ethnographic and done collaboratively, as well as incorporate the characteristics of the case study methodology (Richards, 1997: 37). A set of activity in the first cycle, second cycle and third cycle is comprehensive and consists of analysis, fact-finding, conceptualization, planning, implementation, additional fact-finding, evaluation, and reflection (Sanford, 1970: 4).

Research was conducted in English Department Faculty of Letters, University of Ahmad Dahlan, Jln. Pramuka 42 Yogyakarta, January to November 2012, in a studio, with 30 students and has been prepared with OHP, LCD, White Board, Screen, markers that can be used as a medium of learning. It was done in 10 months effective with details of activities as follows: December 2011-January 2012 early planning, January 2012 submitted research proposal. Carrying out preparatory research in February, and coordinating the implementation of the action/follow-up. March to April 2012 implemented the activity of Cycle I. May and June 2012 the implementation of Cycle II. Cycle III was conducted in July to August 2012. Preparation of reports began in late August to September 2012. Evaluation the progress of the implementation of the research was carried out in September 2012. Seminar in English letters and revision was conducted in August 2012. Reports completed and submitted by the end of November 2012.

There are four things in research studies, which can be revealed by the research findings, namely (1) describe the results of the application of TBL method, (2) describe the intensity level of student learning, (3) describe the strengths and weaknesses of TBL models, and (4) describe how to overcome the weaknesses / shortcomings.

According to what Richard said (1997: 53) about TBL: "… any structured language learning endeavour which has a particular objective, appropriate content, a specified working procedure, and a range of outcomes for those who undertake the task, 'Task' is therefore assumed to refer to a range of work plans which have the overall purpose of facilitating language learning – from the simple and brief exercise type, to more complex and lengthy activities such as group problem-solving or simulations a decision making".

Means that: TBL is a work planning, process, and output (outcome). Task on TBL, as work plans refers to the learning activities in which a task will be reserved. Task on TBL, the process refers to what is supposed to be made or done in the classroom. Task on TBL, as the outcome of learning refers to activities or who have actually done as a result of the execution of the task.

In this study, the application of TBL poured in three cycles, with each of the four main steps, namely (1) planning, (2) action, (3) observation, and (4) reflection. All steps are carried out thoroughly and carefully observed for either outcome sought in the form of goodness and shortcomings, then reviewed and conducted repairs to obtain maximum results.

1. Planning the following activities:
   a. TBL socializes.
   b. Preparing Syllabus.
   c. Setting up a Learning Plan.
   d. Preparing teaching materials.
   e. Preparing learning tasks.
   f. Setting up rules using the TBL learning.
   g. Preparing instruments for implementing TBL.
   h. Setting up the pre-test and post-test items for every cycle.
   i. Preparing the implementation of TBL by using the observation sheet.
   j. Setting up the instruments of learning outcomes assessments seeing the effective aspects
   k. Setting up the instruments of learning outcomes assessments seeing the psychomotor aspects.

10 ITEMS OF TBL INSTRUMENT'S IMPLEMENTATION WITH 28 INDICATORS

a) *Classifying*: (1) preparing class, (2) preparing objectives,
b) *Predicting*: (3) learning material, (4) learning system, (5) learning strategy,
c) Influencing Result (*introducing*): (6) supervising the students to find problems, (7) supervising students to do observation,
d) *Taking note*: (8) giving task, (9) giving opportunity to finish the task,
e) *Mapping Concept*: (10) giving opportunity to the students in presenting their result of their work.,

f) *Questioning*: (11) there is a condition of giving question in between students, (12) there is a question situation between lecturer and students, (13) there is a question situation between students and lecturer, (14) there is a question situation between students and the model,

g) *Personalizing*: (15) forming learning group, (16) there is sharing condition, (17) creating two ways communication.

h) B*rainstorming*: (18) there is thinking creativity, (19) thinking creativity in the form of students' work or creativity on academic form,

i) Re*flecting*: (20) there is reflection, (21) there is students' journal, (22) there is creativity result of the students.

j) *Authentic assesment*: (23) evaluation which is done along with the activity during the teaching-learning process, (24) measuring performance, (25) measuring not to assest the fact, (26) longlife measurement, (27) integrated measurement, (28) feedback.

2. Action

   a. First meeting, which was done in 90 minutes. Discussing the introduction, the step of teaching learning using TBL as a method and the learning activities. Explaining that TBL has five characteristics: (1) an emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language, (2) use of authentic learning materials, (3) giving students the opportunity to focus attention on the language and the learning process itself, (4) the expansion of students' personal experiences as an important element that supports learning in the classroom, and (5) efforts to link learning in the classroom and outside the classroom speaking activities. Task in TBL is twofold. First, the target task, which are assumed duties performed outside the classroom students. Second, the pedagogical tasks, the tasks that makes up the core activities in the classroom. This second type of assignment includes a series of tasks designed to achieve the target learning (Nunan, 2004: 1-2).

   b. Second meeting, which was done in 90 minutes, review assignments and lesson last week, question and answer, giving the task to be done, discussed and presented the results. Lecturer gave the assessment to all student activities.

   c. Third meeting, which was done in 90 minutes, discussing the last week assignment, and how to overcome adversity, benefit from the provision of task. Learning activities carried out in three stages: introduction, content with giving the task, the conclusion with the presentation and discussion. Discover the benefits of using TBL, finding the difficulties and obstacles of using TBL and finding the way how to overcome them. Regular assessment conducted by lecturers.

   d. Fourth meeting, which was also done in 90 minutes, reviewing the materials given in the first, second, and third meeting. Solve the student's difficulties and problems of using TBL. The significant improvement of leadership and learning outcomes can be seen.

   e. Fifth meeting, this was also done in 90 minutes. A final test and evaluation of learning were given. There was a change in attitude and performance.

3. Observation

Observations were carried out to study the effect of using TBL actions with the observation, participating, in-depth interviews, questionnaires, documents analysis, working papers, journals, and tests. Based on the observations, an increase can be seen, such as in:

a. Learning achievement
b. The intensity and consciousness of learning
c. Leadership attitude
d. Lecturer for a more professional awareness
e. Students' Motivation and Interest in Learning
f. Communication between student-lecturer-student

Table 1: *The result of Pre-Test and Post-Test in Cycle 1,2,3*

	Test in Cycle 1		Test in Cycle 2		Test in Cycle 3	
Score	Pre Test	Post Test	Pre Test	Post Test	Pre Test	Post Test
Lowest	48	43	52	56	58	58
Highest	72	83	81	79	78	88
Mean	57,41	65,22	62,30	70,60	69,86	79

4. Reflection

Achievement in cycle 1 increased 7.81 points (57.41 to 65.22). Similarly, there was a significant increase in cycle 2 (8.30 points) and cycle 3 (9.14 points). Students' leadership attitude Increased. There were improvements on environment responsibility, more caring, polite, and able to respect others. Their performance was also improved: they are more diligent, more active, better, broader opinions, more efficient in using time. Their appearance was more confident. Lecturer and students were more professional. It was supported by the ability that they were patience, communicative, using effective approach, hard working, responsive, more creative and innovative.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

J.B. Carroll (1993: 17) said about the development of professionalism: "Self-awareness is at the core of profesional development. It means that by knowing who you are and what you enjoy doing, and being able to recognize your skills, strengths and weeknesses, as well as your effect on other people, it provides a baseline from which to boost your career potential. The more you know, the more effectively you can adapt what you do".

In the concept of professional development, personal awareness is very important and absolutely necessary. Sullivan (2005: 23) commented on the awareness component of professional development, who said: "I cannot make an informed choice unless I am aware that one exists. Awareness requires that I give attention to some aspects of my behavior or the situation I find myself in. Once that aspect

my attention, I must also view it with detachment, with objectivity, for only then will I become aware of alternative ways of behaving, or alternative ways of viewing the situation, and only then will I have a choice to make".

Furthermore, Sullivan (2005: 27) described (1) awareness, (2) attitudes, (3) skills, and (4) knowledge.

1. Awareness serves the function of triggering our attention to attitude, skills, and knowledge.
2. Attitude is described as a "stance toward self, activity, and others".
3. Skills, which constitutes "the how of teaching", include our methods, techniques, activities, materials, and other tools.
4. Knowledge embodies "the what teaching", which includes our subject matter and our knowledge of the students, as well as the socio-cultural and institutional context.

Talking about professionalism means talking about the incredible success to have special features, such as: being able to teach well, perfect, and flawless and without error. Learning variables that faced by a professional lecturer is the change, such as changes in methodology, increased performance capabilities, curriculum, have an interest in the whole process of learning, learning materials, the spirit of learning, learning seriousness, and responsibility for learning success.

A leadership competency, **the first role is facilitator**. As a facilitator, as suggested by George J. M (2000: 1035) including: (1) introduce the session, (2) encourage discussion, (3) encourage involvement, (4) deal correctly with sensitive issues, (5) build rapport, empathize, (6) avoid being placed in the role of expert, (7) control the rhythm of the meeting, but in an unobtrusive way, (8) take time at the end of the meeting to summarize, check for agreement and thank the participants, and (9) listen for additional comments and spontaneous discussions which occur after the meeting has been closed.

The second role is recorder. The competence of a recorder in the teaching-learning is reflected through the role as the learning process. The recorder is the group's memory, noting what was said during the discussion, then prioritizes and found keywords, which would be submitted to all members of the group after the meeting. The recorder also has a responsibility to record the lessons' material learned, and the results of the group discussions in the form of a group notebook. The note of the group should be shared by all group discussions. The results of the discussion must be presented, discussed and submitted in order to know the progress. The recorder is also responsible for representing members of the group who did not follow the discussion, the recorder was also responsible for the overall group results.

In conjunction with the duties as recorder, he should be able to record everything which is generated in the discussions, including (1) the date, time, place for discussion, (2) name and characteristics of participants, (3) an overview of the discussions, what are the occurs, the spirit of the participants who follow the

discussion, (4) participants' opinions, and the ideas which are presented, (5) emotional aspects that occur during the discussion, (6) the vocabulary used, especially in doing the tasks using TBL method, how to develop questions, how to answer, (7) spontaneous things that are relevant to the subject. To meet the competencies of the recorder it is sought the tape recorder, and if it is implemented by people, it is better done by two people who should be in charge to note everything which always happened.

Leadership competence is also reflected through the recorder task, even in a supporting role as a facilitator. The things that happen and it should be noted are: (1) failure of the participants to comment, (2) the failure of the talks on topic, which often appear outside the conversation strayed to the topic.

The third role is leadership. Leadership is reflected by the performance of one's when he led the group. It is different with facilitator and recorder, a leader plays an active role in the discussions. Making design and decision are made by the leader helped by facilitator to make the meeting assisted living; the discussion is active and smooth in order to develop a suitable and appropriate atmosphere. During the meeting, the leader of the group is obliged to master everything, become the decision makers, have power over the activities and success of the meeting. Leaders are expected to address: the conflict, the difficulty of making active discussion, brave and wise in making decision, and lead the discussion so smoothly, active, and well managed.

Yule (1997: 24) outlines the process to produce exemplary effectiveness. Yule's theory focuses on two dimensions, namely: "the indentification of referent dimension", and "the role-taking dimension". According to this theory, effective role models should reflect both dimensions. The first dimension is the ability to identify clues. The second dimension suggests how to dominate the other person. Everyone needs the ability to see the perspective of talking with, making arguments, and actively present in the delivery of feedback. Indicators related to emotional intelligence (EI) have a significant impact and can enhance the ability of exemplary leadership.

Moral aspect is marked by several indicators such as emotional awareness, patience, self-confidence, self-control, adaptability, ability to motivate self and others, responsibility, optimism, have initiative, recognize the feelings of others, respect for self and another, trustworthy, and others. All indicators had been closely associated with EI. EI can be categorized as a component of skills and abilities, such as initiative, know how to respect others, reliable power, which affects the ability of self-discipline that influences individual person in facing the environmental stresses.

CONCLUSION

The results showed that there are 5 key themes of discovery that the application of TBL increased: (1) achievement: the ability to express opinions, ideas and

suggestions; (2) Intensity: awareness and interest in learning, (3) professionalism: attitude, personal awareness, motivation, and appreciate the time, (4) communication: social skills, cooperation, and collaboration, (5) leadership: exemplary and moral values.

Besides that, it can be found that TBL in its application has several advantages: (1) increasing motivation, interest and willingness to participate in learning, it is proven by the improvement of cognitive, affective and psychomotor aspects of learning outcome; (2) changing the students' attitude to be more positive; (3) making students active in speaking English; (4) enhancing cooperation in the group discussions and learning activities; (5) increasing the intensity of students' learning, they are more diligent in attending classes and doing the tasks given; (6) raising awareness to learn to be more enterprising and serious; (7) improving relationships, togetherness, active communication, brainstorming, partnerships, the atmosphere of mutual respect, mutual openness, exchange of ideas, and mutual trust; (8) improving their understanding of learning material.

The weaknesses of the application of TBL can also be found, such as: (1) it should be started simultaneously together, then inevitably involved in all learning must go on time; (2) because there is a test at the beginning of each cycle and the final test so students must actively seek and continue to go to college; (3) it made a weak student become more lazy, bored, and sometimes desperate; (4) making the students who have less motivation in learning become a stowaway success; (5) students who are selfish make other students emotional and the atmosphere of learning becoming not conducive; (6) Dictionary makes and causes the lack of time to learn; (7) it can make the students less tense and not relax; (8) it can create stress and frustration if they cannot follow the learning process.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Bono J.E. & Ilies R. (2006). *Charisma, positive emotions and mood contagion*. The Leadership Qarterly 17 (4): pp. 317-334.

Bower, Gordon H. & Hilgard, Ernest R. (1994). *Theories of Learning.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Brown, H. Douglas. (2001). *Teaching by Principles. An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*. Second Edition. New York: A.W. Longman, Inc.

Bygate, M; Skehan, P; and Swain, M. (2001). Introduction. In M. Bygate, P. Skehan, and M. Swain (Eds.), *Researching Pedagogic Tasks* (pp.1-20). Harlow: Pearson Education.

Cambridge University Press.

Carroll, J. B. (1993). *Human Cognitive Abilities*. New York: Cambridge.

Cote, S.; Saavedra, R. 2005. T*he contagious leader: Impact of the leader's mood on the mood of group members, group affective tone, and group processes*. Journal of Applied Psychology 90 (2): 295–305. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.90.2.295. PMID 15769239.

Diakses pada tanggal 12 September 2005.
Diakses pada tanggal 13 September 2005.
Forsyth, D. R. (2009). *Group dynamics* (5th ed.). California: Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole.
Gardner, Howard and Shulman, Lee S. Summer (2005). *The Professions in America Today: Crucial but Fragile*. Daedalus. (pgs. 13-14).
George J.M. (2000). *Emotions and leadership: The role of emotional intelligence*. Human Relations 53, pp. 1027–1055.
http//www.onestopenglish.com/news/magazine/Archive/taskbased.htm
http//www.onestopenglish.com/news/magazine/Archive/taskbased.htm.
Kaufman, Roger & Thomas Susan. (1980). *Evaluation Without Fear*. New York: New Viewpoints.
Kemmis, S. and Mc Taggart, R. (1990). *The Action Research Planner*. Third Edition. Victoria: Deakin University Press.
McKinnon, Mark & Nicky Rigby. (2005). *Task-Based Learning* (methodology plus). Tersedia pada http://www.onestopenglish.com/news/magazine/Archive/elt_ taskbased.htm Diakses pada tanggal 22 Mei 2005.
Montana, P. J. and B. H. Charnov. (2008). *Leadership: Theory and Practice*. p. 253. California: Pacific Grove.
Noer Doddy Irmawati. (2012). *Task-Based Learning (TBL) Improved the Ability of Academic Reading Achievement*. Yogyakarta: UAD Press.
Nunan, D. (1989a). *Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom*. New York:
Richards, Jack C. dan Rogers, Theodore S. 1997. *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Richards, Platt, John & Platt, Heidi. (1993). *Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics*. London: Longman.
Sanford. (1970). *Concept of Evaluation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Scrivener. 2005. *Task-Based Learning* (methodology plus). Tersedia pada
Stewart, G. L., & Manz, C. C. (1995). *Leadership for self-managing work teams: A typology and integrative model*. Human Relations, 48, 747 – 770.
Sullivan, William M. (2nd ed). (2005). *Work and Integrity: The Crisis and Promise of Professionalism in America*. Jossey Bass.
Thomas, R.M. (1974). *Evaluation the Teaching Materials in Use, Course for Writers of InstructionalDesign*. New York: McGraw-Hill Books, Co.,Inc.
Widdowson, H.G. (1987). "The Teaching of English as Communication", *The Communicative Approach to Language Teaching,* (ed). C.J. Brumfit dan K. Johnson, 117-121. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Willis, Jane. (1996). *A Framework for Task-Based Learning.* Tersedia pada
Yule. (1997). *Teaching and Learning English*. Cambridge, London: Cambridge University Press.

MEDIA LITERACY LEVELS OF TURKISH UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

Hilmi Sungu
Bozok University, Turkey

Mustafa Bayrakci
Murat Topal
Sakarya University, Turkey

ABSTRACT

With the help of the developments in information and communication technologies, the role of media has gained importance in modern life. While utilizing from media people's being aware of its negative effects together with the positive ones. Due to its positive and negative aspects, media literacy has started to be considered as an important concept for preventing individuals from detrimental effects of media tools. The purpose of this study is to determine the media literacy level of university students. The study group was consisted of Turkish university students. Data was collected with "Media Literacy Level Determination Scale" which was developed by Karaman and Karataş (2009). The students' replies were analyzed under three dimensions as "being knowledgeable", "analyzing and reacting" and "judging, being aware of implicit messages" of media tools. The data collected through the scale analyzed with SPSS. In order to determine the students' media literacy levels; frequency, percent, mean, and Standard deviation were used as descriptive statistics. To determine whether there were any differences between the replies t-test and ANOVA were used according to the type of the variable. As the result of the study, media literacy levels of Turkish university students were seen together with the how the variables like having a computer, having internet access facilities, reading newspaper regularly, frequency of watching TV., frequency of using internet affected their levels.

Keywords: *media literacy, Turkey, university, student*

INTRODUCTION

Technological developments have profoundly influenced the ways how people communicate and share the messages with each other. These developments have also caused essential changes in social life as well. Now people are expected have certain skills to adapt today's world. Therefore education and educators have undertaken a new role to equip the individuals with the required skills. The dimensions of education have been enlarged with these new roles and content of literacy as a concept have been enriched. Today educators and policymakers agree that individuals must develop these 21st century skills like critical thinking, collaboration, communication, and information literacy (Ahn, 2013).

Now literacy indicates a number of new skills and involves gaining the skills and knowledge to read, interpret and produce certain types of texts and contributing to culture and society. It is a commonly agreed fact that education and literacy are intimately connected. In an era of technological revolution, educators must make use of forms of literacy; such as media, multimedia and computer literacy in order to restructure education increase the contribution of education to social life (Kellner&Share, 2005).

Thus, it could be asserted that media literacy might be considered as one of the important skills each individual should have. Because of that reason educators and researchers have started to address this educational need. Programs of media literacy education have been developed and many different definitions of media literacy have been proposed. Despite the various definitions, one of the widely accepted definitions which was agreed upon at the National Leadership Conference on Media Literacy and adopted by the National Association for Media Literacy Education suggests that media literacy involves a set of competencies associated with accessing, analyzing, evaluating, and communicating messages (Schmidt, 2013).

Educational experts consider media literacy as a way of using mass media actively in order to be conscious media consumers. The experts emphasize the importance of providing children with the insight to use media. However, media literacy includes not only teaching positive and negative sides of media or how to use it, but it also encompasses understanding, expressing and interpreting facts and events daily life; so, media literacy should cover critical, creative, and cultural functions of media which is an indispensible reality of life and cornerstone of social change (Elma et al, 2010).

In Turkey, media literacy education program aims to protect children and youth against the possible harmful effects of the media. Media literacy education has been started in 2006 as a pilot study by Turkish Radio Television Authority and the Turkish Ministry of Education cooperatively. As a result of the interest of the students to the course, Media Literacy course has been started to be given countrywide during 2007-2008 academic year as an elective course for the 6th, 7th and 8th classes of lower secondary schools. 11.45% of total lower secondary school students (424.655 students) took this elective course in the first year. This rate has increased to 14.04% (553.791 students) of total students during 2011-2012 academic year (Alagözlü, 2012; Bek 2011; Altun, 2009).

In media literacy education, the basic principle for teachers is to decide the points incompatible with society's moral values, prevent students from being exposed to negative effects of media. Therefore, teachers as the models for students should be equipped with media literacy skills to reduce the harmful effects of it. In this study it was aimed to determine Turkish university students' media literacy levels together with the aspects which has impact on it.

METHODOLOGY

Study Sample

Study group consisted of 140 students from Sakarya University Faculty of Education Special Education, Psychological Counseling and Guidance and Computer and Instructional Technologies departments. The students participating to the study were all teacher candidates attending to the mentioned departments of education faculty in 2012-2013 academic year. 32.9% of the participants were from Computer and Instructional Technologies Department, 15.7% were from Psychological Counseling and Guidance Department and 51.4% were from Special Education Department. 46.4% of the participants were female, 53.6% were male students. Most of the students (75%) responded that they had their own personal computer while 25% responded that they did not have their own computer. What is more, 64.3% of the students stated that they had internet access but 35.7% said they did not have internet access. 34.3% of the students replied that they read the newspaper regularly, 65.7% replied they did not. As for the time spent on watching TV., 43.6% responded that they watched TV. less than 1 hour a week; 33.6% responded that they watched TV. between 1-5 hours a week; 17.9% responded that they watched TV. between 6-10 hours a week; 2.1% responded that they watched TV. between 11-20 hours a week; and 1.4 responded that they watched TV. more than 20 hours a week. Moreover, 11.4% of the students stated that they used internet less than 1 hour a week; 26.4% of the students stated that they used internet between 1-5 hours a week; 26.4% stated that they used internet between 6-10 hours a week; 13.6% stated that they used internet between 10-20 hours a week; and 22.1% stated that they used internet more than 20 hours a week.

Instruments

Necessary data was collected through "Media Literacy Level Determination Scale" developed by Karaman&Karataş (2009). The scale had 17 statements with five-point-Likert-scale responses. The scale had three subscales as being informed about mass media, being able to analyze and response, judging and being aware of implicit messages. Media literacy Level Determination Scale explained 42.5% of the total variance of students' media literacy levels. Factor loadings ranges varied between .745 and .415. The construct validity of the scale could be regarded as high.

Data Analysis

The data were analyzed with SPSS (Version 20). Percentages and frequencies were used to analyze demographic variables. To describe students' media literacy levels descriptive statistics were used. To make comparisons between the students media literacy levels based on the variables like having personal computer, having internet access, reading newspaper regularly, time spent for watching TV., time spent for using internet t-test and One Way Anova were used.

FINDINGS

Descriptive statistics related with the responses given by the students in the study group to the statements included in the scale were given in the Table 1.

Table 1: *The Responses of the students to the statements in the Media Literacy Level Determination Scale*

Statements	X	SD
I am able to decide the accuracy of the messages appeared in the media on my own.	4.12	.932
I am able to realize the aspects like consumption culture, violence etc. produced by the media.	4.12	.860
I am able to realize for what purpose (social responsibility, tempting for consumption, giving information, entertainment) the messages are created	4.15	.858
I am able to identify the positive and negative aspects of the broadcasts produced by the media.	4.17	.807
I consider the messages given by the media from an analytical point of view.	4.04	.812
I am informed about the ways how the media influence individuals.	3.97	.885
I realize the media has its own political, economic, cultural and social priorities.	4.17	.776
I give positive or negative reactions to the messages given by the media.	3.78	1.078
I propose to avoid from negative aspects of the broadcasts produced by the media.	3.27	1.143
I am aware that the messages given in the media might be reflected in different ways in different media organs.	3.71	.976
I watch over if the media follow the ethical codes in the broadcasts.	3.34	1.057
I know how much I can influence individually the broadcasting process in the media.	3.12	1.055
I realize if biased news is reported in the media.	3.92	.873
I realize the implicit advertisements in the media.	3.69	.920
I observe the influence of sponsors on broadcasts.	3.67	.923
I realize the implicit messages transmitted by the media.	3.73	.910
I am able to analyze the meaning of the messages transmitted by the media.	3.85	.912

As seen in the table, the statements that the students agreed more were "identifying the positive and negative aspects of the broadcasts produced by the media" (X= 4.17) and "realizing the media has its own political, economic, cultural and social priorities" (X= 4.17). However, the statement that the participating students less agreed were "I know how much I can influence individually the

broadcasting process in the media" (X= 3.12). Overall media literacy level of the students was found out to be higher than the average level (X= 3.81).

Moreover, in order to compare the students' media literacy levels based on the variables like having personal computer, having internet access, reading newspaper regularly t-test was used. As a result of the analysis, it was seen that the students who have their own personal computers (X= 3,85) and who read newspapers regularly (X= 3,93) had higher media literacy levels than the ones who do not have personal computers (X= 3,69) and who do not read newspaper regularly (3,75). Media literacy levels of the students who have internet (X= 3.818) and who do not have (X=3.815) were almost the same. But the differences between these groups were not statistically meaningful. Therefore it might be said that having personal computer [$t_{(138)}$= 0.112; p >0.05], reading newspaper regularly [$t_{(138)}$= 0.059; p >0.05] and having internet access [$t_{(138)}$= 0.974; p >0.05] did not have a statistically significant impact on the students' media literacy levels.

Furthermore, One Way Anova was used to compare the students' media literacy levels based on the variables like time spent for watching TV. and time spent for using internet. According to the results, was found out that the media literacy levels of the students did not differ depending on the frequency of watching TV. ([$F_{(2-137)}$= 1.871; p >0.158], but the frequency of using the internet [$F_{(2-137)}$= 5.446; p <0.05] influenced the students' media literacy levels. Thus it, might be said that the students who use internet between 6-10 hours (about one or one and a half hour a day) a week have higher media literacy levels than the ones using the internet more than 10 hours a week (more than one and a half hour a day) and between 1-5 hours a week (less than one hour a day).

CONCLUSION

The findings of the study could be summarized as Turkish university students' media literacy levels were higher than the expected level and having personal computer, reading newspaper regularly and having internet access influenced students' media literacy levels slightly and in a positive way but the influence was not statistically meaningful. What is more, it was concluded that the duration that the students spent in front of TV. or on the internet also affected their levels of media literacy. The time spent for surfing on the internet had a more considerable effect in terms of media literacy. However, it does not mean that spending too much time on TV. or internet had positive effect on media literacy, as the students who watch TV or use the internet about 1-1.5 a day had higher media literacy levels than the ones who spent more or less than this amount.

Considering the findings it could be restated that the students who use media more effectively that is, who use media tools at the desired level (not much or less than needed) had higher media literacy skills. Therefore instead of spending much or less time on TV or internet, using these tools aware of their individual requirements would contribute to improve such skills.

As a model for their students, it is crucial for the teachers to have higher literacy skills and make use of media consciously. With the recent facilities provided by the state, Education faculty students have the chance to improve the professional skills. Information literacy and media literacy are of these two key skills. So, it is important for us to define their strong and weak points in terms of literacy and train them as the teachers of the future considering the aspects what they lack. To make teachers aware of the positive and negative aspects of media and make use of such information in teaching, it is essential for teachers to increase their literacy skills. In-service-training courses could be designed to train existing teachers, who are already in charge. Offering media literacy courses at universities is another option to make sure that prospect teachers have adequate media literacy skills. In this way it is possible to guarantee that all individuals who are trained to be teachers have required qualification. It is an important issue to determine university students' media literacy levels and the factors affecting their levels.

The study gave us some hints showing Turkish University students' media literacy levels and some of the aspects affecting the media literacy. Besides, it might be suggested that the scale used in the study could be redesigned, improved and implemented to some other group who have different educational backgrounds and different professional requirements.

REFERENCES

Ahn, J. (2013). What Can We Learn from Facebook Activity? Using Social Learning Analytics to Observe New Media Literacy Skills. *3rd Conference on Learning Analytics and Knowledge LAK 2013*, Leuven, Belgium.

Alagözlü, Ç. (2012). *Media literacy in Turkey and European countries*. Ankara: Turkish Radio Television Supreme Council.

Altun, A. (2009). A critical approach to the curriculum of elective media literacy course from educational sciences point of view. *Ahi Evran Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 10 (3), pp. 97-109.

Bek. M. G. (2011). Critical Media Literacy and Children In Turkey: Policies, Initiatives and Suggestions. *International Conference, the Future of Education*, Florence, Italy.

Elma, C., Kesten, A., Dicle, A. N., Uzun, E. M. (2010). Media Literacy Education in Turkey: An Evaluation of Media Processes and Ethical Codes. *Educational Sciences: Theory& Practice, 10* (3), pp. 1439-1458.

Karaman, M. K.&Karataş, A. (2009). Media literacy levels of the candidate teachers. *Elementary Education Online*, 8 (3), pp. 798-808.

Kellner, D.&Share, J. (2005). Toward critical media literacy: Core concepts, debates, organizations and policy. *Discourse: studies in the cultural politics of education*, Vol. 26, No. 3, pp. 369-386.

Schmidt, H. C. (2013). Media literacy education from kindergarten to college: A comparison of how media literacy ıs addressed across the educational system. *The National Association for Media Literacy Education's Journal of Media Literacy Education*, 5 (1), pp. 295-309.

A POLICY ANALYSIS ON RECENT 12-YEAR-COMPULSORY EDUCATION LAW IN TURKEY

Hilmi Sungu
Bozok University, Turkey

Mustafa Bayrakci
Sakarya University, Turkey

ABSTRACT

Education is an essential process to train and guide the future generations. This process must be organized to guarantee quality learning environments which provide all the students to be equipped with the intended skills. Maintaining the education process effectively would give the opportunity to the nations to supply prospective required qualified manpower. Turkey is one of these nations considering education as way to bring up qualified individuals and develops educational policies based on this objective. Turkish educational system has experienced a recent reform introducing 12-year-compulsory education. Until 2012, the children were obliged to take eight year primary education. In 2012, current legislation which is also known as 4+4+4 has been introduced; that is 4 years of primary, 4 years of lower secondary and 4 years of upper secondary education. The current reform has caused drastic changes which influence the whole system profoundly. To illustrate, the children's starting age to primary schools, the duration of the primary and lower secondary education, the set and content of the courses given during primary and secondary education have all been redesigned. However, these radical changes in the system have been done all of a sudden, without making any pilot study. Thus, the reform have been started to be criticized heavily even if there are supporting views. This is a theoretical study based on formal documents and experiences and aims to submit a policy analysis of the recent education reform realized in Turkey, discussing the strong and weak points upon the first year of its implementation.

Keywords: *educational policy, compulsory education, Turkish education system*

INTRODUCTION

In Turkey, the government has introduced 12 years compulsory education and a new system which is formulated by 4+4+4 from 2012-2013 education year. In the new compulsory education system, there has been some regulations on the children's school starting year and it has been determined as 5 years old. So, compared with the previous system, the children will have to start school 1.5 – 2 years earlier.

With the regulation of 4+4+4 educational system, four years secondary education was included in compulsory education. Compulsory education which was previously eight years was heightened to twelve years. From now on students will be able to get

their diplomas when they complete the secondary education not elementary education. As from 2012-2013 educational year, it will be compulsory to continue high school for students who graduate from 8th grade. Also, students who graduate from 8th grade or continue their high school education can complete their secondary education in an open high school if they like.

MEB also declared that with legally compulsory secondary education mobile education which was practiced in elementary education in rural areas and inclusive education which was practiced for exceptional students would be generalized in high school education. The new regulation which touches nearly 15 million students and their parents has also brought about some debates. In this study, what the new regulation which has legally approved by the government has been examined from different aspects by analyzing based on previous studies and legal documents.

Preparation Process of Related Law

According to many stakeholders such as universities, experts and non-governmental organizations, before bill of law it wasn't discussed in any platform so it hasn't become persuasive. In a subject matter like education that is very crucial for our country's future, it was necessary to examine the subject thoroughly and to discuss it in detail before making law. Before the bill of law, there wasn't any groundwork. There was no pilot practice and experts were not consulted. Additionally, the views of NGOs and universities weren't taken. That's why, the support of society and stakeholders in education to new system is low. Karadeniz (2012) in a study with teacher stated that %62,8 of the teachers don't support the new system. In addition to this, %66,9 of the teachers think that the ones who prepared this law regulated it based on their political view.

60 months old children's starting to school

Most academicians and studies think that lowering the school age to 60 months is not suitable to children's physical and emotional development. In this education system, a child goes to primary school at the age of 5 in which he is not at the age of concrete operations. He goes to elementary school at the age of 9 which is before abstract operations. He goes to high school at the age of 13 (Karadeniz, 2012).

Generally children start school at least at the age of 7 and there are practices of preschool education in many countries all over the world. These practices are not coincidences. On the other hand, it is known that in 1983-1985 educational years children at the age of 5 were accepted to primary scools and it was not a successful practice.

60 and 72 months old children's studying together

Also, this practice will require 60 and 72 months old children to be taught in the same classroom. Yet, these children are quite different in terms of mental, physical, social, emotional and personality traits. 3 months difference is regarded as a very important difference at an age in which a child grows very fast in all terms (Hacettepe University, 2013). To teach 60 and 72 months children who have such differences in the same classroom will create a negative effect on their psychology (Karadeniz, 2012).

The former system let the parents keep their children who were born at the end of the year in preschool education by writing a petition. But in the new system these parents who don't want to send their children to school are obliged to get sick certificate for their children. In this certificate it has to say that 'child is not competent physically and mentally'. It means that parents are obliged to get incompetent certificate for their children.

More than 1 million students start school

In 2012-2013 educational year, nearly 1 million students started school additionally. This increase in students' number is one of the most important difficulties that the new regulation will bring about. Such an increase has created a burden difficult to handle with for education system which has already some problems such as lack of teacher and room. And there are inequalities between different parts of the country.

Firstly, it has been claimed that there are not enough classrooms in schools to meet the need that has emerged from additional students. Although Provincial directorate of national education has tried to open new classrooms, especially in some parts of the big cities which get migration and densely populated the number of students in a classroom may exceed 70. With this increase, the quality of education which has already many problems will be under a serious risk (ERI, 2012).

Physical condition of schools isn't appropriate for 66 month children for whom school is compulsory and 60-65 month children whose parents wants their children to start school also with the increasing number of students. Various modifications and preparations have been made to school buildings. According to this, gradual transition to new education system made most of the school buildings consist of primary school, middle school and imam hatip (religious) school at the same time. During the three-year transition period, students with different course schedules, different hours and different programmes have to get education under the same roof. Inconvenience of physical environments threatens both quality of education and pupils safety (ERI, 2012).

Curriculum and Courses

In the new curriculum, one hour has been diminished from each of Turkish, Free Activity, Visual Arts and Music lessons while one hour has been added to Math lessons. Joining to Free Activity course is no longer obligatory and it is depended on school management according to parent's will.

Additionally, physical education lesson is changed to "Game and Physical Activities" and lesson hours are increased to five hours from two hours. Lesson programme is announced at the last week of August. Because the lesson book is prepared this year, education materials arranged by related head office was used in 2012-2013 education term.

The Ministry aims to reduce the academic burden of students and develop sense of belonging to school with the changes in course schedule. Considering the changes, five hours for Game and Physical Activities lesson is a motivating step for developing sense of belongings of younger students. However it is not possible to say students' lesson burden is reduced as it is aimed. When one hour is reduced in Turkish lesson, one hour is added to Math lesson. To save five hours for Game and Physical Activities, one hour is diminished from each of Visual Arts and Music lessons. Compulsory lesson hours of first grades are 26 when compared to last year it is one hour more, total lesson hour is still same.

Classroom teachers didn't get a comprehensive education about the new curriculum so this prevented to apply the programme effectively. Teachers are provided distance education for new system but it is limited to five days starting on September 3rd. Teachers who are educating students belonging to new age group in a different system aren't prepared and experienced with the new system and programme except from these seminars. Furthermore no matter how better the programme is designed, effectively applying the new activities focusing on learning with games isn't applicable for some districts probably having 70 students in a class.

High Schools

Some of the students in middle schools which is equal to secondary stage of primary school (ages 10-14) will be guided for vocational schools. It could be inconvenient for students at those ages going to vocational schools. Vocational education for students whose characteristic attitudes just developing is controversial with one of the aims of the legislative proposal; "determining the students interests and skills and providing required guiding". Giving education for just one occupation to 10-14 ages students means these students decided which occupation they are going to have at between 6-10 ages which is too early age to make this decision (Karadeniz, 2012).

CONCLUSION

As a result, legislative proposal mentioned should be withdrew as it isn't related with scientific basis, it isn't appropriate to developmental characteristics of child and it doesn't have beneficial effects on public welfare. Instead of this, it is thought that there is a necessity for all stakeholders to attend the process and reach an agreement for structuring human based education system which is more contemporary and more democratic for solving the basic problems of education system.

REFERENCES

Bulut, İ.& Akalın, T. (2013). 4+4+4 Eğitim sisteminin ilkokul 1.sınıf öğrencilerinin sanat eğitimi sürecine etkileri [The effects of 4+4+4 education system on art education process of 1st class students at primary schools]. *Ulead 2013 Annual Congress: ICRE*, Ürgüp, Nevşehir.

Eğitim Reformu Girişimi [ERG]. (2012). *4+4+4'e geçiş – Eylül 2012 bilgi ve politika notları [Transition to 4+4+4-September 2012, information and policy notes]*. Retrieved from http://erg.sabanciuniv.edu/sites/erg.sabanciuniv.edu/files/444_Bilgi_Notu_Ne_Degisti_SON.pdf

Hacettepe Üniversitesi. (2013). Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Basın Bildirisi [Press bulletin of Hacettepe University Education Faculty]. Retrieved from http://www.egitim.hacettepe.edu.tr/belge/4+4+4EgtFakKurulKarar.pdf

Karadeniz, C.B. (2012). Öğretmenlerin 4+4+4 zorunlu eğitim sistemine ilişkin görüşleri [The perceptions of teachers on 4+4+4 compulsory education system]. *Eğitim Toplum Bilim, 10* (40), 34-53.

Külekçi, E. (2013). 4+4+4 Eğitim sistemi kapsamında birleştirilmiş sınıf uygulamasına ilişkin öğretmen görüşlerinin değerlendirilmesi [An evaluation of teachers' perceptions on unified classes within the scope of 4+4+4 education system]. *Journal of Research in Education and Teaching, 2* (2), 369-377.

Sağlam, M. (2013). 4+4+4 in narratives of the teachers who teach first grade students in turkey: yozgat city as an example. *Ulead 2013 Annual Congress: ICRE*, Ürgüp, Nevşehir.

THE IMPORTANCE OF STATE FUNDING FOR QUALITY EDUCATION: SOUTH AFRICAN PERSPECTIVE

Takalani Samuel Mashau
Humbulani Nancy Mutshaeni

University of Venda

ABSTRACT

Before 1994, South Africa had sixteen education departments which were divided according to race and ethnicity. South Africa amalgamated all these departments after the dispensation of democracy in 1994. Then funding of education was also determined according to race and ethnicity. In order to amalgamate different departments, parliament promulgated National Education Policy Act 24 of 1996. Parliament went further to promulgate South African Schools Act 84 of 1996. In terms of Section 34 (1) of South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 the state must fund public schools from public revenue on an equitable basis in order to ensure the proper exercise of the rights of the learners to education and the redress of past inequalities in education provision. Therefore the minister in terms of Section 35 South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 was assigned to determine norms and standards for the funding of public schools after consultation with the Council of Education Ministers, the Financial and Fiscal Commission and the Minister of Finance. This paper will explore on whether South African Norms and Standards for School Funding Policy is addressing the imbalances of the past which are equity, equality and access in order to add value to quality education provision.

Keywords: *policy, equity, quality, access*

INTRODUCTION

There have been major changes in the state of South African schools, but there are also deep continuities with the past. It is no accident that the poorest provinces with the poorest schools are those that incorporate former homelands. The current state of the schools in those provinces is closely intertwined with the twists and turns of the history of apartheid over more than two centuries. It is also linked to present dynamics and social forces unleashed by democratization of South African society, as well as to the evolving nature of education itself, a system that is slow to change and so embedded in the tensions, stresses and strains of society itself that there is a continuous contradiction between its intentions and outcomes. This combination of history, contemporary dynamism and the character of the education system itself must go some way towards explaining both success and failure (Chisholm, 2005:203). According to Malherbe (1977:535) education, like any other public or private service, has a twofold economic aspect:

- Where does the money come from to pay for it? –and

- What spiritual and material returns can be expected from the money so invested?
- According to Classen (1995:487), the financing of education is a crucial component of any education system, as the entire system (that is, schools, policies and administration) is dependent on funds in order to function. In 1994 the South African Government of National Unity, led by the African National Congress, launched its Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) as a welfarist, social democratic or socialist initiative aimed at redressing the legacy of social and economic injustices and inequities of the apartheid era (Kallaway, 1997:35). The programme was aimed at redressing inequality, including in the education system. Kallaway interprets RDP policy as a policy which determines the caring for people, especially those in formerly disadvantaged communities, so that the policy was about redressing the imbalances of the past.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The central problem that this research project attempts to answer revolves around the following question: Which model of funding can be used in South Africa in order to redress the imbalances of the past which are equity, equality, adequacy and access for provision of quality education? Thus, the research question can be subdivided the following sub-questions:

1. How does the implementation of Norms and Standards of funding impact on the provision of quality education and redress the past imbalances in South Africa?
2. What are the challenges experienced by public schools in the implementation of the current public funding policy on the provision of quality education?

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

To start with Baron (2013) states that the purpose of literature review is to provide the reader with a comprehensive review of the literature related to the problem under investigation. The review of related literature should greatly expand upon the introduction and background information presented in the proposal.

South Africa's Pre-Democratic Era

According to Fataar (1997:74), the existing pattern of provision of schooling in South Africa is the outcome of a history of colonialism, segregation and apartheid. Its vision can be traced back to the first colonial conquest by the Dutch East Indian Company in the mid-seventeenth century. From the earliest times education was configured along race, class and geographic lines. Generally the best available education was provided for the landed urban white classes, while rural whites (generally Afrikaners) provided mainly religious schooling for their children. African schooling was the most neglected, and missionary schools of various dominations and European origins remained the dominant form of schooling for Africans. However, as the demand for schooling increased, missionary societies became increasingly unable to fund schools adequately. The primary aim of missionaries was in any case to evangelise. Education

was seen as a means of accomplishing this aim which, in most cases, resulted in the founding of schools and educational institutions linked to the mission stations (Lewis & Lemmer, 2004:58).

Education Legislation Since 1994

According to Chisholm (2005:205) there can be little doubt that there have been major changes since 1994. In the first two years after 1994, racially divided departments were restructured into one national and nine provincial departments. There was a drive to unify education departments, which were fragmented according to race and ethnicity, into one department. Commissions were appointed and White Papers were debated and passed in parliament. The commissions came up with recommendations on how education could be unified and how equity could be achieved.

White paper on Education and Training

The White Paper on Education and Training No. 196 of 1995 was published before the drawing up of the final Constitution of 1996. It was formulated after the Interim Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1993 introduced Bill of Rights incorporated in the final Constitution of the Republic of South Africa No.108 in 1996 and the Reconstruction and Development Programme of 1994.
Considering the Interim Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1993, the White Paper (DoE, 1995:13) describes the purpose and scope of the paper as being the first steps in policy formation by the Ministry of Education in the Government of National Unity. Amongst these first steps, it:

- Previewed important developmental initiatives on which the Ministry of Education was engaged;
- Provided information about how the national and provincial departments of education were to be established;
- Analysed the budget process in education, and the necessity for a strategic approach to education funding in relation to the national priority for human resource development;
- Discussed in detail two significant policy initiatives for the school system: the organization, governance and funding of schools, and the approach to the provision of free and compulsory general education.

The White Paper (DoE, 1995:21-23) committed itself in some of the following:

- Deployment of the state's resources according to the principle of equity, so that they are used to provide essentially the same quality of learning opportunities to all citizens;
- Redress of educational inequalities among those sections of our people who have suffered particular disadvantages;
- The principle of equity, so that resources are used to provide essentially the same quality of learning opportunities for all citizens;

- Dispelling the chronic alienation of large sectors of society from the educational process; and
- Financial sustainability of education and training.

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa

Under the Bill of Human Rights, this was also in the Interim Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1993, in terms of Section 29 (1) (a-b) of South African Constitution, Act 108 of 1996:

(a) Everyone has the right to basic education, including adult basic education; and
(b) To further education, which the state, through reasonable measures, must make progressively available and accessible.

The National Education Policy Act (NEPA), 27 of 1996

The National Education Policy Act 27 of 1996 provides for a national policy on education, to amend the National Policy for General Education Affairs Act of 1984 so as to substitute certain definitions, and to provide a new policy on the salaries and conditions of employment of educators, and to provide for matters connected therewith. In terms of Section 3 (4) (c) of the National Education Policy Act 27 of 1996, the Minister shall determine national policy for the planning, provision, financing, co-ordination, management, governance, programmes, monitoring, evaluation and well-being of the education system and, without derogating from the generality of that section, may determine national policy for facilities, finance and development plans for education, including advice to the Financial and Fiscal Commission.

The South African Schools Act (SASA), 84 of 1996

This South African Schools Act was enacted in 1996 and provides a uniform system for the organization, governance and funding of schools, to amend and repeal certain laws relating to schools, and to provide for matters connected therewith. It also specifies the way in which parents should help schools in terms of bringing their children to school and funding their children's education. It also provides guidance on how the state should fund schools.

The South African Schools Act of 1996 calls for all schools to be governed by elected governing bodies made up of all the school's stakeholders, including parents who comprise majority. Each governing body makes recommendations regarding the appointment of all educators, including the principal, and is mandated to take all reasonable measures within its means to supplement the resources provided by the state (Fiske and Ladd, 2002:159).

Norms and standards for school funding Policy

The Minister of Education is given the mandate by the National Education Policy Act (NEPA) 27 of 1996 in terms of Section 3 (4) (c) of determining national policy for financing education. That is why a 'National Norms and Standards for School Funding' is set out in Section 35 of the South African Schools Act (SASA), 84of 1996. This section sets out the national and minimum standards for school funding, and Section 3(4) (g) of NEPA also states that the Minister may determine national policy for the organization, management, governance funding, establishment and registration of the education system.

Considering both these pieces of legislation, the Minister determined the 'National Norms and Standards for School Funding' as gazetted in October 1998 and this became national policy on 1 April 1999 with implementation in 2000 (Nicolaou 2002:95; Karlsson, Mcpherson, & Pampallis, 2002:159). The 'National Norms and Standards' thus established funding procedures which promote equity and redress inequity, within a context of inadequate government spending and increasing parental financial support for education. The document sets out the minimum standards for the public funding of public schools, and exempts parents who are unable to pay school fees.

The 'National Norms and Standards for School Funding' require provincial education departments to prioritise the neediest schools when making decisions about capital expenditure, and to provide higher levels of recurrent non-personnel, non-capital funding for schools in poorer communities. The procedures also provide for governing bodies to give fee exemptions to poorer learners. It does not address educator salaries or provincial education departments' school-level expenditure (Pampallis, 2002:107; Karlsson *et al*., 2002:159).
The purpose of the procedures is to effect redress and equity in school funding with a view of progressively improving the quality of school education, within a framework of greater efficiency in organizing and providing education services. The procedures indicate the method by which funds are to be distributed according to certain categories. The funding norms recognize that SASA imposes a responsibility on all public school governing bodies to do their utmost to improve the quality of education in their schools by raising additional resources to supplement those which the state provides (Patel, 2002:176).

According to Karlsson *et al.* (2002:159), to bring about redress of inequity among existing schools, provincial education departments are required to direct 60% of the non-personnel and non-capital expenditure towards 40% of the poorest schools in their provinces. In order to implement this, provinces are required to compile a list of schools based on their socio-economic levels of development and physical resources. This 'resource targeting list' will be used to divide schools into five categories based on needs. The framework outlined below provides a guideline for the procedure, detailed further below.

Table 1: *Resource targeting based on condition of schools and poverty of communities*

School quintiles from poorest to least	Expenditure allocation (percentage of resources)	Cumulative percentage of schools	Cumulative percentage of non-personnel and non-capital recurrent expenditure	Per learner expenditure indexed to an average of R100
Poorest 20%	35	20	35	175
Next 20%	25	40	60	125
Next 20%	20	60	80	100
Next 20%	15	80	95	75
Least 20%	5	100	100	25

Source: Government GazetteNo. 19347, October 1998:27

According to quintile grouping of schools, the poorest 20% of schools will receive 35% of resources, while the next poorest 20% will receive 25%. The next two categories will receive 20% and 15% respectively. The last 20% of schools, which are largely former Model C and former House of Delegates schools which are regarded as least poor, will receive 5% of resources. The recurrent cost allocation will be used to fund water and electricity bills, maintenance of buildings and the purchase of learning materials equivalent to at least R100 per learner. If provinces lack sufficient funds, priority will be given to the poorest schools.

According to the National Norms and Standards for School Funding gazetted in 1998, the norms deal only with school level expenditure. The norms and minimum standards in the document apply:

- Uniformly in all provinces, and are intended to prevail in terms of Section 146(2) of the South African Constitution; and
- Only to ordinary public schools.

According to the 'National Norms and Standards for School Funding' policy of 1998, the Department of Education is required to undertake its monitoring and evaluation role in the following way:

- In a reasonable manner, with a view to enhancing professional capacities in monitoring and evaluation throughout the national education system, and assisting the competent authorities by all practical means within the limits of available public resources to raise the standards of education provision and performance.
- Each Head of Department will be expected to verify that the national norms are being complied with in allocating funds, or that acceptable alternatives are being implemented, after consultation with the Department of Education. If the Provincial Education Department is unable to comply with the norms because of lack of expertise or for any other reason, the Department of Education must be informed without undue delay, so that the problem can be examined and remedies sought.

- SASA imposes other important responsibilities on the state with respect to funding of public schools. The basic principle of state funding of public schools derives from the constitutional guarantee of equality and recognition of the right of redress. Section 34 (1) of SASA states that the state must fund public schools from public revenue on an equitable basis in order to ensure the proper exercise of the rights of the learners to education and the redress of past inequalities in educational provision.

According to the Norms and Standards policy, the Ministry of Education's personnel policy for schools embodies the following principles:

- Schools must be supplied with an adequate number of educator and non-educator personnel;
- Such staff members must be equitably distributed according to the pedagogical requirements of the schools; and
- The cost of personnel establishments must also be sustainable within provincial budgets.

Further according to the policy, in order to make progress towards equity in school funding, each provincial education department must:

- Use relevant provincial data much more intensively in budgeting and planning decisions;
- Develop the necessary data systems to guide planning and allocations; and
- Be able to demonstrate to the Department of Education that progress is being made.

Schools must provide information to provincial education departments. On their part, departments must ensure that information is received on time from schools, so that the necessary analysis can be undertaken, and resource allocation decisions made on time. Provincial Education Departments must annually provide public schools with sufficient information so that the schools' governing bodies can develop their budgets as required by Section 34 of South African Schools Act (SASA) 84 of 1996. It also deals with the procedures to be adopted by provincial education departments in determining resource allocation to their schools.

Conceptual Framework

Since the main focus of this paper is the implementation of policy in funding public education for provision of quality education in South Africa, its conceptualization developed from three constructs: policy implementation, quality education and public basic education. Policy implementation of public funding of public basic education in South Africa should impact on the provision of quality education to target the impoverished groups or citizens of this country. Quality education depends on equity and equality as far as funding is concerned. This is to address and redress the inequality and inadequacy of the past.

Theoretical Constructs

The groundwork for this paper was developed from three theoretical constructs to be discussed below.

Policy Implementation

South Africa is engaged in the task of transforming its politics, economy and social system into a democratic society that offers all racial groups the opportunity to participate fully as citizens, workers, and fulfilled individuals. The most important thing has been the construction of an equitable and democratic education system. The 'Norms and Standards' policy should be an instrument that guides the equitable distribution of resources, such as support services, in all schools (Motala & Singh, 2001:1).

Quality Education

Although opinions about quality in education are by no means unified, at the level of international debate and action three needs tend to be broadly shared. They can be summarized as: the need for more relevance, for greater equity of access and outcome, and for proper observance of individual rights (UNESCO, 2005:30).
Education authorities wrestle with the question of quality in education while trying to improve accessibility, equality and equity (Niewehuis, 1996:1). Sources of funding and methods of funding allocation have important implications for the outcomes of educational systems (Schiefelbein, 1983:12).

Funding of Public Education

According to the World Bank (1995:53), public finance is the main instrument for implementing public priorities and there is strong rationale for public intervention in the financing of education. The state has a role in promoting equality of opportunity.
According to Weber (2002:284), the South African Schools Act provides room for differential fee structures across schools:

- Public schools will be funded equitably by the state,
- Governing bodies could determine the procedures according to which parents who were unable to pay school fees were exempted,
- Governing bodies could charge school fees provided most of the school's parents supported the idea, and
- Parents who were liable for payment of school fees could be prosecuted if they did not do so.

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The term methodology literally refers to the science of methods and it contains the standards and principles employed to guide the choice, structure, process and use of method as directed by the underlying paradigm. It is the way in which people proceed to solve problems (Swanson & Holton 1997:94-3). This paper utilized a qualitative method approach focussing on the following:

Population

We needed information from key informants. In this case, the informants were principals and treasurers. These respondents were chosen because they were likely to be knowledgeable and informative (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:173) about the phenomena we were investigating.

Sample selection

Rural and peri-urban schools needed to be the focus. The schools were thus chosen from either secondary or primary levels of Quintiles 1-3, i.e. the poorest of the five quintiles designated by the Department of Education. The principals and treasurers of such schools responded to questionnaires, and their experience in their positions was not considered.

Data collection strategies

Data was thus collected through a questionnaire.

Questionnaires

Questionnaires were preferred due to economic reasons, as McMillan and Schumacher (2001:257) show that the use of a questionnaire is economical, it contains standard questions, and questionnaires use uniform procedure thus ensuring comparability of results. Another advantage of questionnaires is that they can ensure anonymity to maintain and ensure confidentiality, thus giving the respondents more confidence in giving accurate information.

DATA ANALYSIS

Quantitative data was analysed using a standard SPSS Version 21 package, thus enabling the results to be widely understood. The following Tables indicate how respondents responded to the questionnaire:

Table 1: *Quintiles of schools*

QUINTILE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
1	3	30.0
2	4	40.0
3	3	30.0
Total	10	100.0

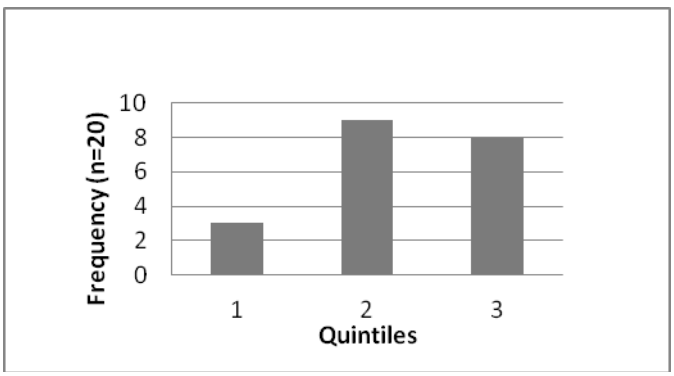
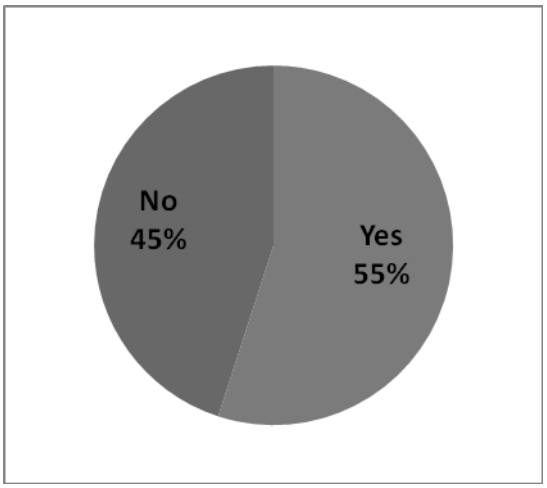


Table 1 results, shows which quintiles, 1 to 3, respondents thought their schools had been grouped into. Poor schools in South Africa are grouped into quintiles 1 through 3. All are allocated to quintiles, with the poorest 20% of schools (Quintile 1) receiving 35% of the budgeted funds, the next 20% of schools (Quintile 2) receiving 25% of the budgeted funds, the next 20% of schools (Quintile 3) receiving 20% of the budgeted funds, the next (Quintile 4) receiving 15%, and the least poor 20% (Quintile 5) receiving the remaining 5% of the funds (DoE, 1999:1).

Public Funding of Public Schools

Table 2*: Understanding of the resource target list*

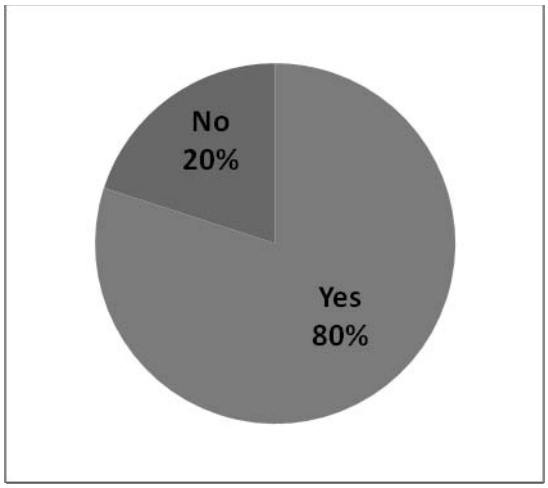
	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Yes	11	55.0
No	9	45.0
Total	20	100.0



It is interesting to note from Table 2 that 55% of respondents indicated that they know about and understand the Resource Target List, which is not a very great majority. The Resource Target List ranks all schools in the province from the poorest to the least poor. When deciding how each school should be ranked, there are two factors which are equally important. The first factor takes into account the physical condition of the school, and overcrowding. The physical condition of the school refers to whether school buildings need repair, whether there are facilities such as toilets, running water, electricity and telephones, and overcrowding looks at how many learners are there in each classroom. The second factor is the relative poverty of the school community. How poor is the community that geographically surrounds the school, and how poor is the community that is served by the school?

Table 3: *Understanding the application of quintiles*

	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Yes	16	80.0
No	4	20.0
Total	20	100.0



At least Table 3 indicates that 80% of respondents do know what a quintile is. The Norms and Standards policy suggests that the rank order list of schools be divided into five groups, called 'quintiles' (Mabidi, personal communication 2006), as described above.

Table 4*: Knowledge of the criteria used to determine funding*

	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Yes	12	60.0
No	8	40.0
Total	20	100.0

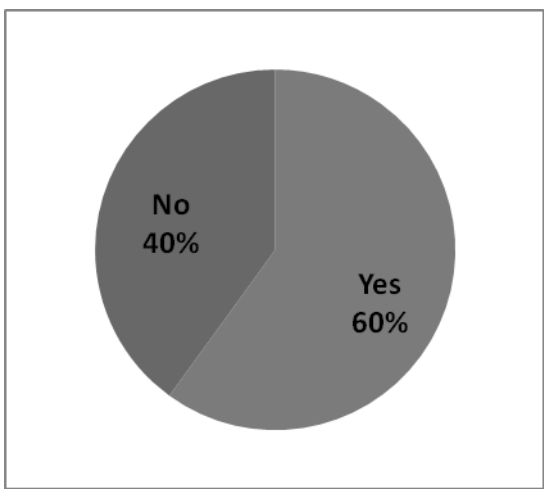
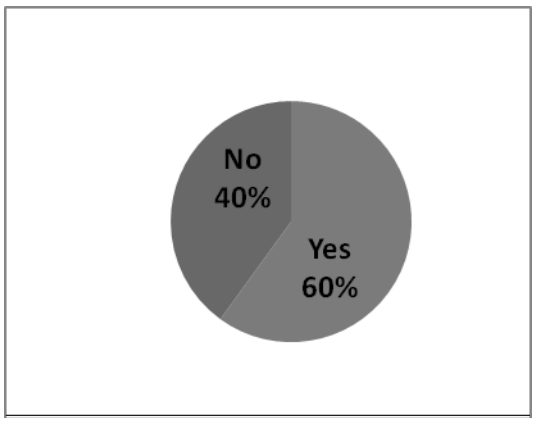


Table 4 indicates that only 60% of respondents know the criteria which are used to determine funding for their schools, which seems quite a low majority. Due to the fact

that a Snap Survey is conducted yearly, principals and treasurers should know that annual survey determines funding and that the number of learners in the schools is the main determining factor in allocating funding.

Table 5*: Knowledge about the poverty level of the school community*

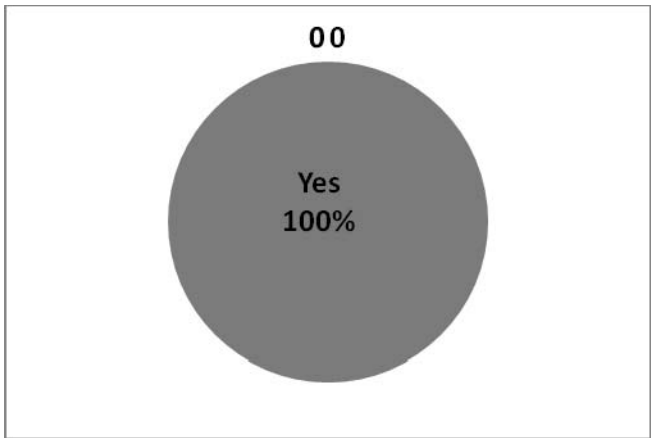
	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Yes	12	60.0
No	8	40.0
Total	20	100.0



From Table 5, it appears that 60% of respondents know about the poverty level of their school community, although it seems strange that as many as 40% do not know about the poverty level of their school community. The poverty level of the school community refers to the condition of the households around the school and considers whether houses are built in face brick or mud brick, and whether the community has running water and electricity (DoE, 1999:3).

Table 6*: Whether school submits an annual budget to the Provincial Department of Education*

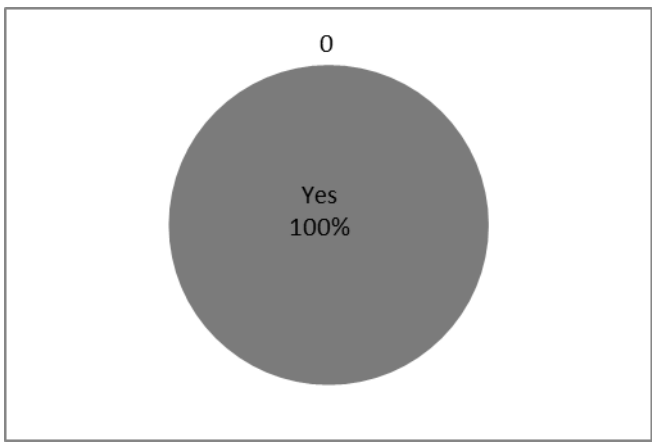
	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Yes	20	100.0
No	0	0.0
Total	20	100.0



It is not surprising to find that 100% of respondents submit an annual budget to the Department of Education. All schools are supposed to submit one, and if they do not, it is likely that they may not receive their annual allocation according to the scripts of the Education Department (LP, 2011).

Table 7*: Whether the school annually submits audited statements to the Provincial Department of Education*

	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Yes	20	100.0
No	0	0.0
Total	20	100.0



Again in this regard, Table 7 shows that 100% of respondents indicated that they submit an annual budget to the Department of Education, as per policy. In terms of

this, schools are supposed to appoint independent auditors who audit their annual income and expenditure. Schools are also required to complete a self-assessment questionnaire and submit it together with the Audited Financial Statement and Compliance Certificate (LP, 2011).

Table 8*: Whether the number of learners is considered when funds are allocated to the school*

	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Yes	20	100.0
No	0	0.0
Total	20	100.0

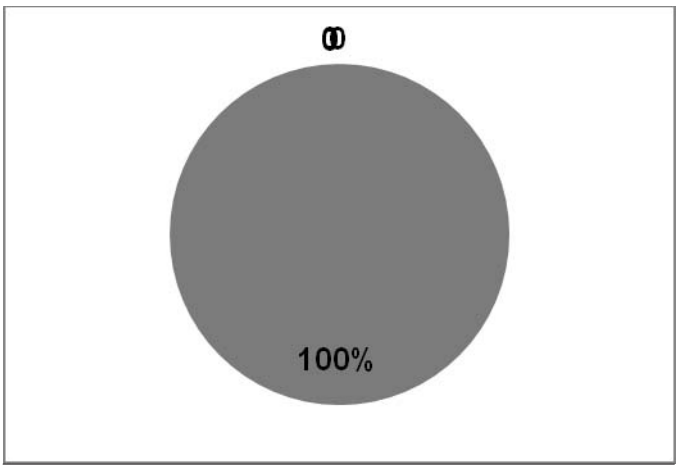
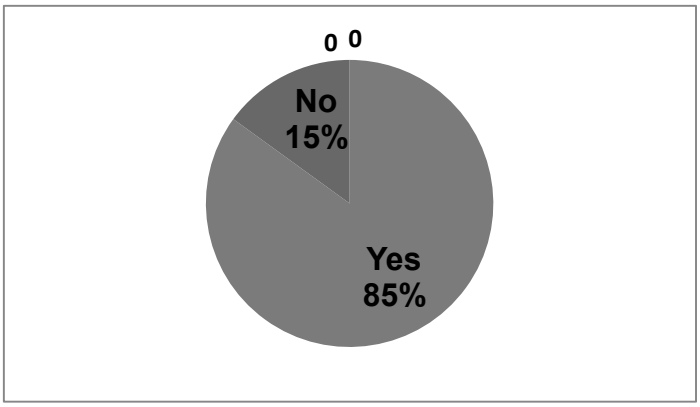


Table 8 indicates that all of the respondents believed that the number of learners is considered when funds are allocated to their schools. The Resource Target List is no longer considered when funds are allocated to schools and only the number of learners per school is considered.

Table 9: *Prescription of utilization of funds by schools*

	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Yes	17	85.0
No	3	15.0
Total	20	100.0



The results reflected in Table 9 are not surprising as the Department of Education prescribes what schools should do with the funds, although it could be wondered why 15% of respondents do not seem to know this, or are not told by the Department how their funds should be used. All public schools which have been declared 'No Fee Schools' should not charge mandatory school fees, as defined in SASA as amended. The minimum standard requirement for all No Fee Schools should entail the following (LP, 2011):

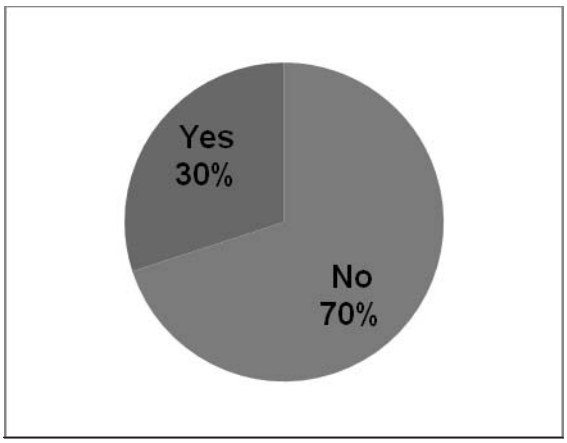
- 60% of the total allocation must be spent on curriculum needs, supplementary Learning Teacher Support Material (LTSM) to address the curriculum needs e.g. teaching aids, education toys, charts, science kit
- Schools be permitted to use funds for local sporting activities/ equipment but should not exceed 10% of total allocation,
- Schools have to prioritise allocations to pay for the running of the school i.e. all operational expenses e.g. leasing of copiers, water and electricity, telephone, proper security fencing, provision of clean water or borehole, repair of all broken windows and doors, electrical and gas fittings, filling cracks and painting and other repairs, annual servicing of fire equipment, eradication of termites and other pests every 3 years, quarterly cleaning, weeding and maintenance of gutters, channels and other storm water drains to prevent flood damage to foundations and other facilities,
- Annual repairs and maintenance of roofs to prepare for the rainy season, treating roof trusses and replacement of gutters, annual maintenance of ablution blocks including the speeding up of digestion in toilets and emptying toilets, annual painting and treatment of outdoor equipment to prevent rust damage to metal works,

Schools could be allowed to erect ablution facilities, provided approval is granted, the school allocation may not be used to cover cost of personnel and new buildings e.g. new classrooms or admin blocks, extra-mural curriculum and choice of subject options in terms of Provincial Curriculum Policy, travel claims to be minimized and payments should be as per the SGB approved rates. Transport budget should not exceed 5% of the total allocations with no option of virement (budget

shifting), and travel claim forms for principals must be authenticated by the Circuit Manager and SGB chairperson before payment can be effected.

Table 10*: Supplementary funding from other sources*

	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Yes	6	30.0
No	14	70.0
Total	20	100.0



In this regard Table 10 indicates that about 30% of respondents considered that they do have other sources of funding. Section 39 of SASA (imposes a responsibility on all public school governing bodies to do their utmost to improve the quality of education in their schools by raising additional resources to supplement those which the state provides from public funds. It may be difficult for parents to get funding elsewhere as most of them are illiterate.

Table 11*: The payment or non-payment of school fees*

	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Yes	1	5.0
No	19	95.0
Total	20	100.0

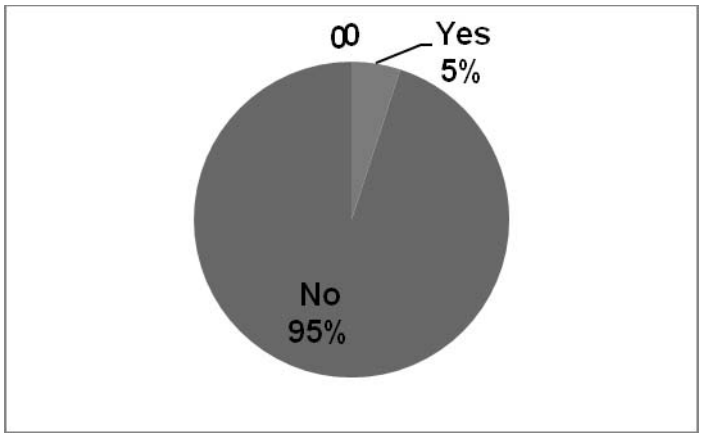


Table 11 shows only 5% of respondents indicating that parents pay school fees for their children, whereas the rest indicated that parents do not pay school fees. Every school in the country should try to supplement government funding. There is no limit to the amount of school fees which parents can agree to pay (Pampallis, 2002:107). In terms of SASA (South Africa, 1996c:Section 36 (1) a governing body of a public school must take all reasonable measures within its means to supplement the resources supplied by the state in order to improve the quality of education provided by the school to all learners of the school. In fulfilling their obligation to raise supplementary resources, governing bodies are not required to charge school fees. Whether or not to charge school fees is a matter for the parents of the school. SASA links the question of fees to the budget of the school, which the governing body must present to a general meeting of parents for approval. The intention is that the governing body will give the parents all necessary information about the school's income, from the state and other sources, and its educational needs. Parents will then decide what additional revenue the school needs for educational purposes, and how that revenue is to be raised, including whether or not fees are to be charged.

Table 12*: The availability of activities to raise funds for the school*

	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Yes	14	70.0
No	6	30.0
Total	20	100.0

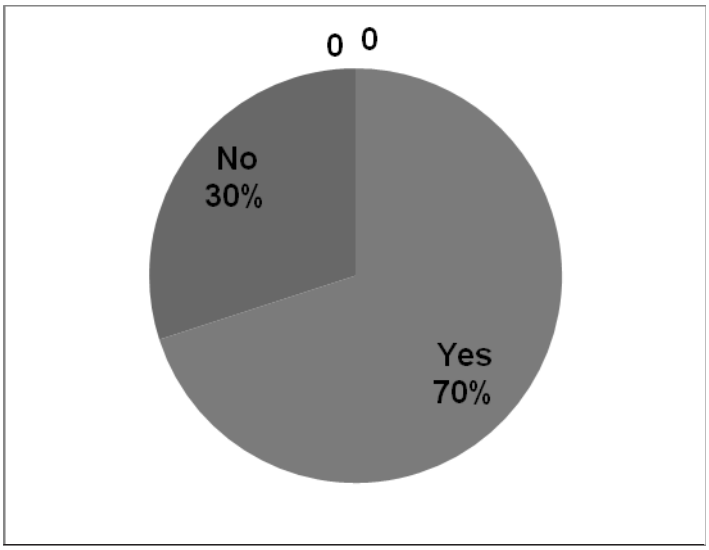


Table 12 indicates that 70% of respondents engage in activities to raise funds for their schools. In terms of SASA (South Africa 1996c:Section 36 (1), a governing body of a public school must take all reasonable measures within its means to supplement the resources supplied by the state in order to improve the quality of education provided by the school to all learners of the school.

CONCLUSION

The implementation of the Norms and Standards policy for school funding still needs attention, as far as the principals are concerned. The challenges are clear from the responses provided in the interviews. It is clear that it South Africa is not yet at the stage in which she can provide quality education for its citizen. Norms and Standards for School Funding Policy was the way in which government wanted to redress the imbalances of the past, unfortunately the dream of redressing the imbalances of the past is not yet realized.

REFERENCES

Baron, M.A. Guidelines for writing research proposals and dissertations. http://people.usd.edu/mbaron/edad 885/Dissertation%20guide.pdf. [Access Date: 06 February 2013].

Chisholm, L. 2005. The state of South Africa's schools. *In* Daniel, J., Southall, R. & Lutchman, J. (eds). *State of the Nation South Africa 2004-2005*. Cape Town: HSRC Press. pp.201-226.

Classen, J.C. 1995. The education system of South Africa. *In* Dekker, E. &Van Schalwyk, O.J. (eds). *Modern education systems.* Johannesburg: Heinemann. pp.447-495.

DoE (Department of Education). 1998. National Norms and Standards for School Funding. Notice 2362 of 1998. *Government Gazette,* no. 19347 (400).

DoE Limpopo Department of Education Limpopo province). 2011. *Prescripts for financial management of school funds in public schools manual*. Polokwane: Government printers.

Donald, D., Lazarus, S. & Lolwana, P. 1997. *Educational psychology in social context. Challenges of development, social issues, and special needs in Southern Africa.* Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Fataar, A. 1997. Access to schooling in post-apartheid South Africa: Linking concepts to context. *In* Kallaway, P., Kruss, G., Fataar, A. & Donn, G. (eds).*Education after apartheid*. Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press.

Fiske, E.B. & Laad, H.F. 2004. *Equity: education reform in South Africa.* Pretoria: HRC Press.

Kallaway, P. 1997. Reconstruction, reconciliation and rationalization in South African politics of education. *In* Kallaway, P., Kruss, G., Fataar, A. & Donn, G. (eds). *Education after apartheid*. Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press. pp.1-39.

Karlsson, J., Mcpherson, G. & Pampallis, J. 2002.A critical examination development of school governance policy and its implication for achieving equity. *In* Motala, E. & Pampallis, J. (eds).*Education and equity*. Sandown: Heinemann. pp.139-177.

Lemmer, E.M. 2002.Restructuring system of education and training in South Africa. *In* Van Wyk, N. & Lemmer, E.M. (eds).*Transforming education: The South African experience*. New York: Nova Science Publishers. pp. 23-47.

Malherbe, E.G. 1977. *Education in South Africa. 1923-1975*. Cape Town: Juta & Co.

McMillan, H.J. & Schumacher, S. 2001. *Research in education: A conceptual introduction*. (5th edition). New York: Longman.

Motala, E. & Singh, S. 2001. *Education and Equity*. Cape Town: Heinemann.

Nicolaou, K. 2001. The link between macroeconomic policies, education policies and the education budget. *In* Motala, E. & Pampallis, J. (eds). *Education and equity. The impact of state policies on South African education.* Sandown: Heinemann. pp. 53-104.

Niewenhuis, F.J. 1996. *The Development of education systems in postcolonial Africa*. Pretoria: HSRC.

Pampallis, J. 2002. The nature of educational decentralization in South Africa. *In Education and decentralization*. Conference proceedings. Johannesburg: Gauteng Department of Education. pp.1-17.

Patel, F. 2002. "Putting our money where our mouth lies" - Norms and standards for public school funding in South Africa - Empowered decentralization. *In Education and decentralization.* Conference proceedings. Johannesburg: Gauteng Department of Education.

APPLYING APPRECIATIVE INQUIRY APPROACH AS A FOUNDATION TO IMPROVE TEACHER PERFORMANCE

Carolus Patampang

Saint Louis University-Baguio City, Philippines

ABSTRACT

This study aims to identify the benefits of using Appreciative Inquiry (AI) approach as a foundation to improve teacher performance. The respondents of this study are the teachers of SekolahMenengahAtas (SMA) Katolik (or Senior High School) Rantepao, KabupatenToraja Utara, Provinsi Sulawesi Selatan - Indonesia in the second semester of school year 2011-2012. Applying the qualitative and descriptive method, the researcher gathered the data from the teachers using four (4) activities, namely: (1) Half-day seminar on AIapproach and teacher performance: the fundamental ideas behind AI approach and detailed step-by-step of how this approach will be applied to teacher performance issue; (2) writing of daily journal performance experiences; (3) focus group discussion (FGD) using 4-D model of AI approach; (4) and personal interviews. The analysis and results of this study described that using this approach, the teacher were able to discover their positive experiences, to envision their future performance, to formulate the commitments of developing self-motivation and being role model for the students as theirbases to improve their performance.

Keywords: *Appreciative Inquiry, discovery, dreams, design, destiny/delivery, positive experiences, commitment, performance, self-motivation, role model*

INTRODUCTION

People are essential in any organization. This principle led to the belief that the successes and failures of an organization are significantly determined by how the personnel perform. In education, this principle is recognized by placing teachers as the important element in school. Pearson (2010) mentioned that teacher quality is the largest in-school factor affecting student learning at about 30 percent. Moreover, the recent research discovered claims that despite little evidence that teachers' credential matter for students achievement (Rockoff, 2003), the improvement of teacher quality raises students' scores as well as effects on the quality of education (Aaronson, Barrow, & Sander, 2007; Harris & Sass, 2007 a). Meanwhile, Nakpodia (2010), by comparing the trained teacher and untrained teacher proved that the shortage of human resource affect the quality of education. These descriptions, therefore, underscore that "teachers are central to any consideration of schools, and majority of education policy discussion focus directly or indirectly on the role of teachers" (Hanushek&Rivkin, 2006, p. 3).

The central position in education requires teachers to develop good performance. Tatar and Horenczyk (2000) explained that this good performance embodies teaching competence (teachers' behaviors such as explaining well, having strong control over the lesson content, being firm in keeping order in the classroom, and being well organized); help and assistance (the way teachers live the image as good educators, support and trust their students, and being aware of students' needs); and fairness (the way teachers honor their contractual).In the context of Indonesia, DitJen PMPTK (2008) claimed that there are three indicators that that are used to determine teacher performance, namely: teaching plans and materials (teacher competencies on understanding syllabus or constructing lesson plan); classroom procedures (teacher skills in classroom management, using media and resources, and method/strategy of teaching including the use of indigenous material and technology); and evaluation process (teachers' capacity in making and utilizing the evaluation process).

Because of the central role of teachers, there is expectation that more serious effort will be developed to improve teachers' performance. Especially, studies discovered that many teachers have low quality of performance caused by low level teacher professional competence (Mji and Makgato, 2006; World Bank, 2006; Department of Education in South Africa, 2001; Suryadi, 2009; Supriatna, 2010; Indrawati, 2006), school organization and management (World Bank, 2006), social aspects (Whannell& Allen, 2011), and even personal aspects, like stress (NUT, 1999). However, the concern to improve teacher performance can only be actualized if there is a good policy in school that provide good atmosphere for teachers to workand build self-reflection based on their routine experiences (Mrazik, 2009; Ripley, 2002).

As the realization of the mentioned expectation, this study will present Appreciative Inquiry (AI) as an approach in improving teacher performance. This approach is conceptualized by David Cooperrider and Suresh Srivastva in the 1980's as "a revolutionary and positive philosophy towards organizational change and is a process focused on leveraging an organization's core strengths" (Gordon, 2008 p. 19). Through a reflective process, people are invited to realize that a new vision for the future is basically found out in the positive experience in the past and present and an unlimited imagination about what can happen in their lives (Cooperrinder&Barret, 2002 as cited by Gergen, Gergen, &Barret, 2004). AI guides people to restore trust, generate hope, invite vision, and open up infinite vistas of possibilities (Hammond, 1998). This approach assumes that "every organization and community has many untapped and rich accounts of the positive – what people talk about as past, present, and future capacities, or the positive core" (Cooperrider& Whitney, 2005, p. 8). Johnson & Leavitt (2001) supported this idea by saying that AI is an organizational transformation tool that focuses on: learning from success; discovering what works well, why it works well, and how success can be extended throughout the organization; visioning and processing for developing the vision; and driving change throughout the organization. Therefore, the originator of AI, David Cooperrider mentioned that this approach is "a positive revolution" (Cooperrider and Whitney, 2005 p. 1).

In practice, as described by Whitney & Trosten-Bloom (2010), AIis often worked out by implementing the 4-D model: Introduction (Affirmative Topic Choice: determining a topic where the inquiry process will be focused); **D**iscovery (uncovering and valuing the rich description about the positive cores, best practices and exemplary actions of an organization); **D**ream (exploring collectively hopes and dreams in people's work, relationship, organization, and the world and envisioning possibilities that are big, bold, and beyond the boundaries of what has been in the past); **D**esign (drawing on discoveries and dreaming to select high-impact design elements, then crafting a set of provocative statements that list the organizational qualities they most desire); and **D**estiny or **D**elivery (commitment: planning and implementing a new vision).

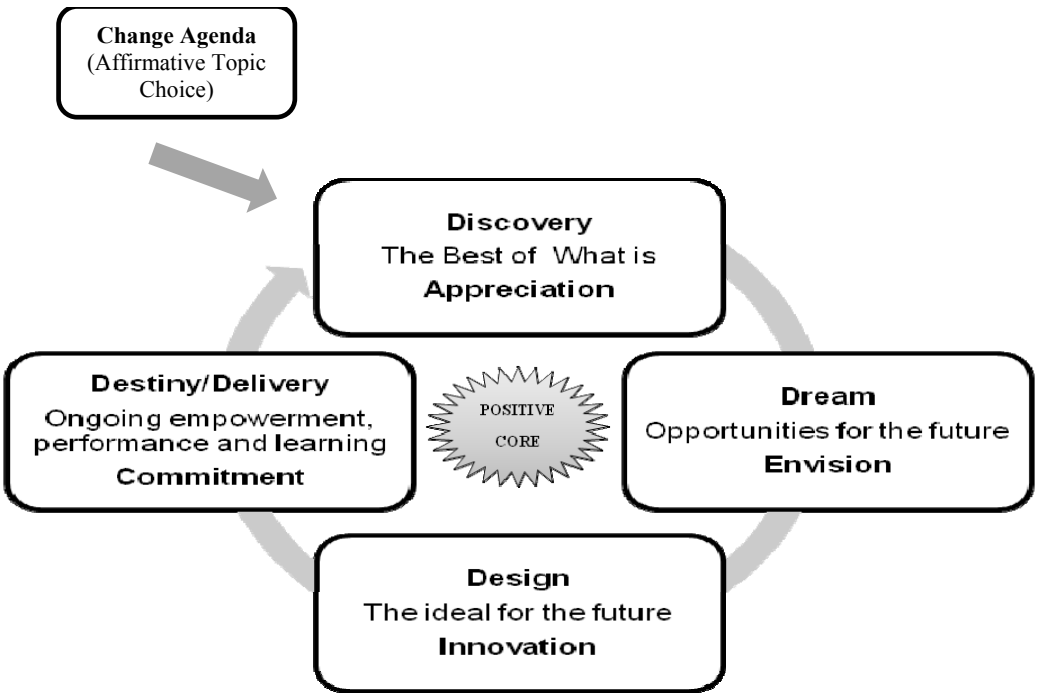


Figure 1: AI Process – 4-D Model

Through the inquiry towards the positive experiences, AI has contributed to the development of education field, especially in creating positive change in the school (Conklin & Hart, 2009; O'Grady, 2000, Ryan et al., 1999). For the teachers, these positive experiences become a framework in building new vision and knowledge (Pearson, 2010; Newberry, 2011; Akiri&Ugborugbo, 2009; Adediwura&Tayo, 2007; Rockoff, 2003). The findings of positive experiences also form a better spirit for

teachers not only to maintain the dignity of their profession (Karissa, 2006; Hanusek&Rivkin, 2006; Indonesian Teachers Act, 2005), but also to envision higher level performance in the future.

To achieve this higher level performance, Ai provides opportunity for teachers to form organizational (Conklin & Hart, 2009). Having the organizational commitment, teachers give positive contribution by creating a desirable atmosphere within the school and handle effectively their responsibilities as well as to go above and beyond the call of their responsibilities (Tella, Ayeni, &Popoola, 2007). This condition energizes teachers to perform at high level performance in order to present quality education for the school and students and to improve their professional knowledge, teaching profession and career continuance (Crosswell& Elliot, 2004; OECD, 2011; GemaPendidikan, 2010). Furthermore, this commitment can be used by the school administration as an entry point to build better policies and to offer support programs for teachers in order to achieve the quality of education (UNSAID, 2006; Sugiyarto, 2005; The Thailand Education Reform Project, 2002).

Through this study, it is expected that through the inquiry process using this approach, teachers can acknowledge their past and present positive experiences, envision and design a new vision, and build commitment for their future performance. Such expectation can move the practitioners in education to believe that this approach is an effective tool that become foundation to improve their performance.

METHODOLOGY

This study was conducted in SekolahMenengahAtas (SMA) (or Senior High School) Katolik Rantepao, KabupatenToraja, Provinsi Sulawesi Selatan-Indonesia. There were 16 teachers who participated during the study. Applying qualitative research and descriptive method, the researcher gathered the data based on the following activities: (1) half day seminar on AIand teacher performance theory; (2) at the end of the seminar, as the beginning of discovery phase, the teachers were given a daily journal template to be filled out. They were given five school days to share their daily experiences. The intention of giving five days to write their reflection is to help the teachers in preparing themselves well, so that they have something to share during the focus group discussion (FGD); (3) The focus group discussion using the 4-D model. In the discovery phase the teachers were divided randomly in a group consisted of 4 or 5 teachers in order to build deep and intimate discussion. In their own group, they shared their personal performance experiences as recorded in their daily journal.

To help the teachers, the researcher gave the simple summary of their experiences as shared in the daily journal. During this phase, the teachers gave additional information regarding their performance experiences. Then, every group reported to the big group their sharing so that at the end of the discovery phase, a rich description about the teachers' positive experiences will be provided. After guiding the teachers to recognize their positive performance experiences, the researcher led them to envision possible achievements in the future (the dreams phase).

The next step is, the teachers were facilitated to craft a set of provocative statements to be selected as their future commitment (the design phase). Before facilitating this phase, they were asked to go all over again the activities conducted so that they would gain enough understanding about the idea presented. Finally, during the destiny/delivery phase, the researcher guided the teacher to vote for the commitments. The teachers identified which of the different commitment statements presented is the most relevant to be adopted as organizational commitment. As suggested by Conklin and Hart (2009) in "Appreciative Inquiry in management education: Measuring the success of co-created learning", the teachers were asked to cast their votes three times on one particular commitment or distribute their votes on other the proposed commitments.

The commitment with the highest number of votes became the most relevant organizational commitment. This process resulted to a list of commitment statements arranged from the most relevant to the least relevant based on the total number of votes. Having identified the most relevant commitment statements as their organizational commitment, the teachers were asked to reconvene with their small groups to discuss what they have to do to make their ideas become realities and on how they will undertake their responsibilities which would manifest their behavior towards the commitment already taken. To close the focus group discussion, every group reported the product of their discussions in front of all the other groups; and (3) The interview with the teachers in order to explore the information thoroughly. The interview was done two days after the focus group discussion. Every teacher was interviewed to find out their personal reaction about the organizational commitment.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The Teachers' Experiences as Foundation of Improving Teacher Performance

The following findings discuss the positive experiences of the teachers according to the area of teacher performance:

Table 1: *Teachers experiences in area of teaching plans*

Themes	Significant Statements
Linking Syllabus to the Lesson Plan	*"I made the syllabus as an initial framework….It is necessary for me to develop a syllabus."* *"I directed the basic framework into lesson plan as mentioned in the syllabus so that there is integration between the syllabus and the lesson plan."*
Contextualizing Syllabus and Lesson Plan	*"I tried to reflect the syllabus in accordance with the students' needs…to help students to have more understanding about the meaning of Torajan heritage."* *"I emphasized in my lesson plan that students should find and recognize the folktales from their place…."*

	"I developed my syllabus based on the common values lived and practiced in the community."
Prioritizing Students' Needs, Interest, Experiences in the Syllabus and Lesson Plan Development	*"I developed the materials…based on the concrete experience of students…related to their religious experience as well as helped them to understand the uniqueness of every religion."* *"…I adapted my lesson plan according to students' condition and their environment."* *"I consider students' varied perception and abilities."*

Teachers' ability in understanding teaching plans is the foundation of successful teaching activities. In the domain of teaching plans, teachers have to deal with the two main activities related to developing syllabus and building the lesson plan (DitJen PMPTK, 2008; BadanStandarPendidikanNasionalPendidikan, 2007; Ministry of National Education Indonesia, 2006a & b). In relation to this study,the positive experiences of the teachers does not only describe their understanding on teaching plans but also illustrate their desire in building reformation of curriculum in school, developing educational process, and anticipating good achievement in the future. This desire revealed by their perseverance to bridge the syllabus content with the lesson plan design, to contextualize and integrate local culture and noble values of the community in the syllabus, and to consider students' situation and needs when undertaking the content of the syllabus.

The experiences of the teachers in connecting the syllabus' content into the lesson plan determine the success of the learning process. The work of Lane (2007) and Slattery & Carlson (2005) stated that teachers' skill in articulating syllabus' content into the lesson plan helps them to understand well the tone of the learning activities because every syllabus serves as the blue print of the learning process. This skill is considered as the basis for teachers to be professional and competent(Sugiyarto, 2005). It also keeps teachers' credibility as educators in front of their students (Banfield et al., 2006; Mji&Makgato, 2006; Department of Education in South Africa, 2001). Indeed, the experiences of the teachers described their comprehensive understanding about this skill. They considered that the syllabus and lesson plan are inseparable. The syllabus functions as a guideline in building a lesson plan (BadanStandarPendidikanNasionalPendidikan, 2007). Following the guidelines set in the syllabus, the teachers could undertake their lesson plans efficiently and effectively during the learning process.

Moreover, the teachers considered contextualization as an important issue in the syllabus and lesson plan development activities. In this case, they justified the idea of Ministry of National Education Indonesia (2006 c) that these activities are closely related to the actual situation and concern happening around the students, such as the local culture. In the realm of AI, the teachers'ability to integrate the local culture and the concern of the community in their teaching activity affirms how this approach facilitates people in recognizing the untapped and rich accounts in cultures

(Coopperrider& Whitney, 2005). This is part of the contribution of this approach to recognize, appreciate, and preserve the local culture. Undoubtedly, AIcan be used to build or unravel the culture of a community since there is always a possibility that in every culture there are inactive wisdoms which basically can be used to create more assets. Once these inactive wisdoms are activated, they will contribute significantly in building and rebuilding a community(Emery, Fey, & Flora, 2006). Furthermore, for the teachers, the above mentioned ability will become a seed in setting new vision for the improvement of teaching performance. It allows them to build an enjoyable learning process because the students learn lessons related to their actual lives. Consequently, they could easily guide the students, make innovation, and bring the transformative practice in the learning process.

BadanStandarNasionalPendidikan (2007) pointed out that in the syllabus and lesson plan development teachers have to consider the different capacity of their students regarding their intellectual level, potential, learning styles, needs, and background. In this study, the teachers applied this principle by considering always the students' condition, perception, and experiences in the syllabus and lesson plan making. Although they have to make some adjustments, the teachers discovered that this consideration helps the students improve the quality of their learning.These experiences proved that the teachers have sensitivity about the need of the students. This sensitiveness leadthe teachers to have a good performance in the managerial and instructional function during the learning process (Ranjan&Rahman, 2012; Zaslavsky&Lavie, 2012; Beltrán, 1995). Through managerial function, they can make a systemic educational plan which allows the students to meet the expected objectives, and to experience the process of information exchange with their teachers and classmates. This situation can create an atmosphere which gives chance for the students to express their knowledge based on their perception and experience. Meanwhile, the instructional function allowsthem to make intervention during the learning process: completing perception and experiences or correcting the information given by the students. They can maximize the use of giving examples in the classroom or the making of reflections on personal experiences that would direct the students to the right perception or experiences.

Table 2: *Teachers experiences in the area of teaching materials preparation*

Themes	Significant Statement
Seriousness in Preparing the Teaching Materials	*"Two weeks is an ideal time for me to prepare my teaching material and resources…."* *"By preparing teaching materials, I became more confident…."*
Collecting the Resources	*"My teaching materials are based on text books, students' worksheet, or other relevant references…."* *"…I used the paper of Torajan culture, Toraja Language dictionary, and the information from "To Minaa" (the traditional priest) and….the term or language used in "the rambutuka'" (thanksgiving feast) and "the rambu solo" (funeral feast)"* *"I downloaded several materials from the internet…."*

Preparation of teaching materials bridges teaching plans and classroom activities. During this preparation, teachers prepare the media and resources, develop activities promoting the learning process, and determine the learning process and teaching methods/strategies (Chamot, Keatley, & Kennedy, 2003).In this current study, the teachers discovered that their major positive experiences in preparing teaching materials related to their seriousness and the process of collecting the materials.

To be serious in preparing teaching materials is a way to anticipate the dynamic activities in the class considering that the teachers have to deal with students with different learning styles, behavior, and condition. They need to set a special time for material preparation so that they have opportunity to develop the capacity to manage the students. By preparing a special time, the teachers experience that they have more chance to learn or implement the new strategy for their teaching activities. They could not enter the classroom without doing any preparations. Otherwise, they would not be able to lead their students because of the lack of creativity and in looking for helpful information. The teachers' experience also explained that their seriousness in preparing teaching materials allow them to build self-confidence. Past studies proved that self-confidence contributes significantly toward teacher performance (Davies, 2000; Santamaria, Taylor, Park, Keene; Mandele, 2010). Self-confidence is a key factor in classroom management because it gives opportunity for the teachers to build creativity in teaching method/strategies and to deal with the unpredictable situation in the classroom. In relation to the personal development, self-confidence gives opportunity for the teachers to reflect their experience and to build more responses about their values, interpretation, and judgments in their lesson.

In process of collecting the teaching materials, it was discovered that the teachers maximized the used of reference materials provided by the text books or immediate environment, like indigenous materials as well as those provided by the modern technology. Definitely, these experiences are influenced by their comprehensive understanding about the content of the syllabus and lesson plan as well their seriousness in preparing their teaching activity. Then, they did not only depends on the earlier studies which proved that maximizing the references materials (like text books) have given significant influence in shaping students' knowledge (Zeringue, Spencer, Mark, &Schwinden, 2010); Reys, Reys, & Chavez, 2004). The teachers also believed that the integration of indigenous material and local culture contributes in developing the skills and knowledge of students, especially those that related to their daily lives (Ministry of National Education Indonesia (2006 c).

Moreover, the teachers also discovered that integrating technology contribute positively in their teaching profession. This experience described the readiness of the teachers to modify their lesson in an interesting, varied,and updated manner. These experiences also illustrated the teachers' willingness to develop their competence in information and communication technologies (ICT) as suggested by the Government (DitJen PMPTK, 2008). Furthermore, this competence helps teachers "to improve the communication in the learning and teaching process" (Selvi 2010, p. 172), especially since nowadays most of the students are technology literate.

Table 3: *Teachers experiences in the area of classroom procedures*

Themes	Significant Statements
Managing Students' Behavior (Classroom Management)	*"I created a joyful atmosphere which made my students enjoy...."* *"....I tried to attract students' attention. I started by smiling and greeting my students, and then moved on to motivate them. I used a friendly tone to make them feel at ease...."* *"I... opened the learning process by using games and sharing; started the learning process (making presentation, case study, discussion; and closed the activity by telling a story)."* *"....I believed that my students have cognitive, affective, and psychomotor capacities."* *"I made it a point that...all my students would listen carefully and actively participate in the flow of the learning process."* *"I believe that I have to be a role model to my students."* *"....I asked my students to participate in preparing the teaching media."*
Using the Media and Resources	*"...media and resources help me to change the learning process better and helped me to enrich my experience and my students' capability."* *"I used a folktale as one of my teaching aids."* *"....I used the national coat of arms and flag as my visual aids...text books and Indonesian 1945 Constitutions...."* *"The teaching media in my school is very limited. I tried to utilize the materials available in my classroom...."* *"I used other relevant resources...which are useful in actualizing the lesson being taught."* *"I instructed my students to observe the flowers in the school ground."* *"I prepared in my laptop the framework of the learning process and presented it through power point."* *"I used TV news as my media...."*
Method/Strategy of Teaching	*"I involved the students to take part in the learning process....I also encouraged the skillful students to assist their peers who are less skillful."* *"I used varied methods in the learning process: lecture, Q-A (Question-Answer), discussion, assignment techniques."*

Wong (1998) described classroom procedures as the set of procedures which is done by teachers, like organizing students, space, time, and materials to support the learning process. Also, these procedures include fostering students' involvement or cooperation and establishing a productive working atmosphere during the lesson. In this study, the teachers' experiences are more connected to the management of students' behavior, the use of media and resources, and teaching method/strategy.

In the process of managing students' behavior, the teachersdiscovered that the development of conducive atmosphere, building discipline/order, and inviting students' participation are the experiences determine their performance. Conducive

atmosphere results to enjoyable activities in the classroom. It also provides opportunities for the teachers to improve their teaching quality as well as for students to have good understanding about the lesson (Jones, 2008). To create this conducive atmosphere, they applied several strategies: setting gentle gestures to make the students feel at ease; making several creative innovations that aimed at eliminating students' boredom and arousing their interest (for examples: watching movies, singing, joking, or telling a story and so forth); cultivating respect, building positive thought, recognizing the students' contribution, and acknowledging their achievements.

Although creating conducive atmosphere is emphasized, the teachers still considered the importance of instilling discipline in order to supervise the students and facilitate the learning process as well.To establish discipline, they believed in the effectiveness of teachers to become role models, especially since their students are teenagers. As teenagers, students need a person who can display behaviors reflective of moral virtues(Ulug, Ozden, &Eryilmaz, 2011; Lumpkin, 2008). Through their behavior and attitude, teachers already played this role and affect students' personal life. While learning, students can take their teachers as their role models. This is especially because students spend most of their time, when they apart from their parents, with their teachers in school. The teachers believe that being role models gives chance for then to control the atmosphere in the classroom.

Moreover, the teachers also realized that inviting students' participation helps them to manage the classroom. They allow the students to take part in preparing the instrument/media and resources for the learning process. This is part of recognizing students' potentials and contribution in the learning process. Nowadays, the modern technology allows students to have more information and skills. Sometimes teachers have to learn from their students about the new information or technology. However, the teachers also have to realize that among the vast mass information offered by modern technology, not all of this information is valid and suitable for students (Avgoulea, Bouras, Paraskevas, &Stathakopoulos, 2002). Consequently, inviting student participation has to coincide with the capacity of teachers to filter the information and skills discovered by their students.

In using media and resources, the teachers affirmed the idea that media and resources function to facilitate the learning process. The use of media and resources helps the students to focus and participate actively as well as supports the teachers to develop the quality of learning process.In regards to the contextualization of media and resources, the teachers utilized the local instruments, like folktales or national symbols (national coat of arms and flag). This contextualization aims to share the information related closely to students' lives and the values and attitude sustained by the community for long time. Contextualization also helps the students recognize the characteristic of their culture and nation. Furthermore, it can build the personal character of students as contained in the noble values of their culture and nations (TjiptoSubroto, 2012; Fien, 2000).

Meanwhile, the effort to maximize the use of available media and resources (reference books, nature, and news/information, including the integration of technology) illustrates the teachers' strong determination in keeping their performance. Studies proved that despite the limited school facilitation, strong determination inspire teachers to keep their high motivation (Fujita et al., 2009; Al-Salmi, 2011; Gendron&Faherty, 2006). Strong determination also allows them to look for and share updated information for the students(SETDA, 2007; Alejandre, 2005; Peñas et al., 2008; Klopfer et al., 2009). In relation to the AIapproach, the consciousness about strong determination described how this approach brings advantage to the teachers in utilizing the media and other resources. Rather than fix the problem, like the concern on limited school facilities, the teachers motivated themselves to maximize what is working now in the community, school, and the world around them by utilizing the available media and resources. Thus, the teachers offered possibility in creating great changes in their profession, in the lives of the students, and in the community.

The ability of the teachers in managing the learning process is also determined by their teaching method/strategy that accommodates students' interest, including the use of varied teaching method/strategies.The teachers exercised a collaborative work with the students by inspiring them to demonstrate their knowledge as well as to assist their classmates. This capacity portrays the ability of the teachers to integrate the content of the lesson according to the students' condition and to actual situation in the classroom. Meanwhile, the capability to vary the method and strategy of teachings demonstrates the willingness of the teachers to let the students enjoys the learning activities. In the side of the teachers, this ability describes their comprehensive understanding about the lesson so that they can easily modify their method/strategy teaching.

Table 4: *Teachers experiences in the area of evaluation*

Themes	Significant Statement
Determining Evaluation Approach	*"...I used the evaluation approaches which measured students' capacities through the giving of right answers."* *"...I emphasized students' capacities in the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains."*
Varying the Evaluation Tools	*"I made essay questions....I gave positive comment for every improvement they showed."* *"I constructed creative and interactive tests such as quiz, on the spot question and answer with the use of stopwatch."*
Integrating the Evaluation Result in the Whole Process of the Learning Activities	*"I appreciated the students who had achieved the expected result ...."Very good", or showing them the thumbs up gesture."* *"I used the evaluation result to motivate my students....especially the ones who have not yet completed the requirements."* *"The evaluation process did not only function as a measurement for students' understanding, but also became a time for me to evaluate the way I teach my students."*

Agrawal (2004) explained that evaluation is "universally accepted as an integral part of teaching and learning. Evaluation is one of the basic components of any curriculum and plays a pivotal role in determining what learners learn." (p. 361). It also relates to teachers activities: "what teachers teach and how they teach" (p. 361). In relation to the current study, these activities refer to the teachers' experiences in determining the evaluation approach, varying the evaluation tools, and integrating the evaluation result in the whole process of the learning activities.

The understanding of the teachers about the different capacity of the students as discovered in the classroom procedures area affected how they determine the evaluation approach. Wisely, they opted to emphasize on the right answer given by the students. However, the teachers still considered that the students should own the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains. This option is anchored on the spirit of AIwhich emphasizes on maximizing the people's actual potential to achieve better performance in the future. The study of Bushe (2007) explained that by focusing on this potential, there are more possibilities for generativity, change in general, and build trust to make things better. To maximize the option to focus on the students' needs, the teachers provided variation of the evaluation tools, either in the written, oral, or performance tests. This variation aims to help the students in expressing their perception/understanding (Stiggins et al., 2004) and explaining their knowledge and skill in the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains (Krathwohl, 2002; Intel Education, 2001). Furthermore, this option also describes their capability of the teachers to choose and apply the right strategy offered by many possible evaluation tools (Nurdin, 2009). The choice of using the right strategy, then, becomes the basic foundation for the teachers to determine the appropriate evaluation tools and approaches.

Evaluation plays a pivotal role in the school (Agrawal, 2004). The result of evaluation process describes students' achievements after experiencing the meaningful learning process. However, according to the teachers' experience, the result of evaluation tool does not only illustrate the students' achievements, but also describe the performance of the teachers. In regards to the students' achievements, the result of evaluation is beneficial to be use used in motivating the students either those who have good performance or who failed or need improvement. This principle is in accordance with the spirit of AIwhich highlights the need of appreciation and affirmation towards the peoples' works and achievement (Cooperrider& Whitney, 2005). It is strongly believed that the power of appreciation will develop strong foundation for the future success.

The teachers also discovered that the result of evaluation is useful to analyze their own teaching activities, including planning, method/strategy of teaching, and the use of media and resources. This analysis helps themto build willingness for better performance in the future, especially in involving students to participate actively during the learning process and in helping the students to have understanding about the lesson. This willingness is the sign of having strong motivation and optimism to maintain professional growthas educators (Li, 2008; Crosswell& Elliot, 2004). Such

kind of spirit will become very strong foundation to set dreams, design a plan, and choose organizational commitment for the sake of higher level performance in the future.

The Commitment towards the Improvement of Teachers' Performance

The next findings and discussion describe the teachers' choices about the commitment which will be used as the foundation to improve their performance based on the reflection process using AI approach:

Table 5: *The commitment towards teacher performance*

Statement of the Commitment	Total Votes	Rank
1. *Teachers become role models in punctuality, good grooming, courtesy, self-discipline and source of positive support, for example giving appreciation to students' effort and potential that will help them to develop self-discipline.*	11	2
2. *Teachers use persuasive approach to motivate students to participate actively in the class activities and to disenchant them from cheating during the evaluation process despite the absence of teachers.*	3	6
3. *Teachers develop self-motivation to learn including the use of modern technology, research, innovation in the teaching activities that aim to facilitate the students to achieve good result and to compete with other schools.*	13	1
4. *Teachers spare time for guiding and facilitating students in their learning process for them to apply the learning objectives in their daily lives (for example, students becoming inheritors and users of Torajan culture).*	3	6
5. *Materially, teachers have a well-established economic life that can support them to prepare teaching materials.*	3	6
6. *Teachers become more creative in preparing teaching materials, so that they become mentors to their colleagues and students.*	1	9
7. *Teachers have better skills in using teaching materials and technology.*	2	8
8. *Teachers gain respect from their students because they can provide creative teaching activities. Students love them and are proud they are their teachers.*	6	3.5
9. *Teachers get opportunities to join the trainings.*	6	3.5

The result describes that commitment statement number 3 is chosen as the organizational commitment for it was given the highest number of total votes which is 13. However, the commitment statement number 1 has been considered as another significant commitment because it was given 11 total votes. However, it should be noted that during the vote almost all of the teachers distributed their votes equally to every commitment chosen. The fact explains the teachers'consideration towards the importance of applying all the commitments as the foundation in improving their

performance. This consideration is quite logical because the bases of these commitments are the teachers' own experiences.

Seemingly, the reason for choosing the commitment statements number 3 and 1 based on the teachers' consideration that these commitments summarize the rest of the commitments. The decision for choosing commitment statement number 3 includes the commitment to have better skill in using technology (commitment statement number 7) and to be creative in preparing the teaching materials (commitment statement number 6). This idea is supported by emphasizing the need for getting opportunities to enrich their capabilities through training or seminar (commitment statement number 9). It was also mentioned that they have to be given a chance of having better standard of living (commitment statement number 5). Furthermore, the decision for choosing commitment statement number 1 includes the commitment to apply a persuasive approach in dealing with the students (commitment statement number 2) and to prepare special time in guiding and facilitating the students (commitment statement number 4).

The Reasons for Choosing Commitment Statement Number Three (3)

During the interviews, the teachers claimed that self-motivation is a thrust to build innovation in teaching activities. It inspires them to conduct research as part of enriching their personal knowledge and improving their performance:

> *"As teachers, our performance will improve if we have self-motivation...It is very influential for us."*

Self-motivation is the internal factor that determines teachers' competence (DitJen PMPTK, 2008; Sugiyarto, 2005). Self-motivation is considered as the spirit which can keep the teachers' professional growth and morality because it leads them to be responsible in their profession. Motivated teachers always have willingness and readiness to become good consultants and mentors for students. In this study, the teachers explain this experience during the discovery phase: creating collaborative atmosphere as well as appreciating and motivating students'effort. Thus, the teachers' option to develop self-motivation is a wise decision considering that self-motivation serves as the basis to improve the quality of learning process.

The teachers also explained that they chose commitment statement number 3 because self-motivation facilitates them in exercising a true example to students on how to perform well. During the interview, they claimed that self-motivation influences their enthusiasm in teaching. This situation inspires the students to participate actively during the lesson:

> *"I realized that teacher' self-motivation to learn more is the real model for students."*

Ulug et al. (2011) explained that teachers' motivation, as explained in their attitude, affects the learning process. This study claimed that teachers are the second-highest determining factor, second to students' parents, who influence the development of students' lives. As described in the teachers' experiences in the area of classroom procedures, their positive attitude leads the students toward good motivation and in building self-confidence. This attitude, finally, contributes in the students' personal performance developments (Lumpkin, 2008).

The teachers' options to choose commitment statement number 3 were motivated by their ideal during the dream and design phase. They wanted to be more professional by doing their responsibility creatively. As described in commitment statement number 6, the teachers were convinced that by being creative, they will become good mentors for their colleagues and students:

"Teachers become more creative in preparing teaching materials, so that they become mentors to their colleagues and students."

Franken (2001) defined creativity as "the tendency to generate or recognize ideas, alternatives, or possibilities that are may be useful in solving problems, communicating with others, and entertaining ourselves and others" (p. 396). Creativity is built because people need "for novel, varied, and complex stimulation, to communicate ideas and values to solve problems" (p. 396). In education, creativity is considered as a fundamental skill to be developed by teachers in school(General for Education, Training, Culture and Youth of European Commission, 2009). Creativity is a promising starting point in developing teaching practices and students' capability toward an active learning process. Although creativity was not accepted significantly as an inborn talent, it is accepted that creativity can be taught. As educator, to be creative is very possible thing for teachers because they have many chances to learn and apply creativity in every domain of knowledge and school subject.

In this study, the teachers mentioned several concrete creative activities. First, they wanted to improve their personal capacities through reading, researching, and using technology. To support this idea, the teachers proposed to the school administration that they be given chances to attend seminars or trainings (commitment statement number 9). The following statements describe the concrete activities which will be done by the teachers in the future:

"Teachers conduct researches."
"Teachers develop the culture of reading and the use of science and technology."

Second, the teachers wanted to be more productive in preparing method/strategy of teaching and teaching materials:

"...we formulate evaluation method."
"I will add more teaching media and resources."

The intention to be proactive in doing the above concrete activities describes the teachers' commitment on the professional knowledge development. By being proactive in improving their personal capability and productivity, the teachers could enrich their performance experiences which they have explained in the discovery phase. This rich performance experiences shows the effectiveness of using AIapproach. This approach facilitates the teachers in learning from success stories which could inspire them to be more successful.

Aside from being more professional, the teachers also mentioned that they develop their self-motivation by working collaboratively with their colleagues. Several activities like mentoring, sharing experience, and transferring informationwere considered as practical actions in building this collaboration:

"Teachers become mentors to their colleagues."
"We will share methods and techniques in evaluation …."
"I will share my knowledge and skill …."

McGuire (2011) and Wong (2003) emphasized that teachers' collaboration give positive influence to the teachers' professional development. These studies discovered that the teachers who work in isolation may have low self-efficacy. On the contrary, good teaching habit thrives in school when teachers work together in strong professional learning community. Collaboration allows teachers to work together in order to expand their capability through interaction, sharing individual belief and understanding with their colleagues (DitJen PMPTK, 2008). Working collaboratively also helps teachers to strengthen their commitment (Wong, 2003; Crosswell& Elliot, 2004). Teachers can develop their commitment when they feel connected to their school and colleagues. In many cases, the committed teachers are willing to share and learn from their colleagues. Moreover, by having good collaboration, they experience that their profession is not only a job, but also a part of their group development. This condition helps them to stay in school because they feel supported by the colleagues and have "high interpersonal relationships founded on trust and respect" (Wong, 2003, p.3) with them.

The Reason for Choosing Commitment Statement Number One (1)

The teachers also gave their reasons for choosing commitment statement number1. They mentioned that their professionalism can also be measured from their capability of being role models to their students. Based on the experienced described in the daily journal and during the discovery phase, there is a need for students to look at somebody who can give concrete examples. Faced with this situation, the teachers believed they have more chances to guide their students in the right path if they show positive examples in the school:

"My choice of commitment statement number 1 is based on my consciousness that by giving concrete examples, I can become a good role model …."

Prior studies claimed that teachers can affect the development of students' personality (Machmudah, 2012; Ulug et al., 2011; Lumpkin, 2008; Yara, 2009). These studies contended that through their presence, teachers can help students learn about moral values (like honesty, trustworthy, fair, respectful, and responsible) or to live according to these values. Since they are still in formation, students can accept or copy directly the teachers' behavior. For example, whenever teachers admit their mistakes and correct them, they train their students to accept every consequence caused by their action. Such modeling of moral valuing helps students to understand that their teachers do not only talk about virtues, but incorporate it in their practice. Thus, teachers are expected not only to teach about knowledge, but also to train and guide their students based on the examples of their lives (Indonesian Teachers Act, 2005; Karissa, 2006).

Another reason for voting commitment statement number 1 is by being a model, thereby, develops good atmosphere in the classroom. This atmosphere, then, affects the students to be more enthusiastic during the learning process even if they do not like the subject:

"Giving positive examples means giving concrete examples to the students…. If the students can follow these examples, then the good learning atmosphere can be created."

In fact during the discovery process, the teachers have already been shared about being good role models in front of their students. During the dream phase, they envisioned that in the future their expectation toward the students has to be accompanied with positive examples practiced by the teachers themselves (like punctuality, discipline, being innovative and dedicated person). Meanwhile in the design phase, the teachers created other positive examples they would practice, namely, the need of using persuasive approach in guiding the students (commitment statement number 2) and preparing special time to help the students (commitment statement number 4).

This study revealed that the teachers are committed on developing their self-motivation (commitment statement number three) and be role models (commitment statement number one). These are significant factors which can be used to improve their performance. During the dream phase and design phase, the teachers planned these practical actions. First, by learning the use of technology, upgrading their knowledge (like doing research or being innovative and creative in the teaching process), and strengthening teachers' collaboration are the activities which could lead to cultivating self-motivation to learn more. Second, presenting good behavior, giving positive support, applying persuasive approach, and gaining students' respect are the activities which the teachers could uphold to be the role models in school. The

teachers believed that the chosen commitments and the practical actions mentioned above will contribute to the teachers' personal development (Tella et al., 2007; Shein&Chiou, 2011) and higher educational outcomes for students (Crosswell& Elliot, 2004; OECD, 2011; Roxas 2009; GemaPendidikan, 2010).

CONCLUSION

Appreciative Inquiry approach helps the teachers to give a rich description about their best practices and performance experiences.The success in sharing this rich description is predictable since AIapproach believes that individually and collectively people have unique gifts, skills, and contributions to life. It leads the teachers to recognize their past that describe their positive achievements as educators even for a very simple experience. Thus, AI approach can be considered as a potential effective methodology in addressing challenging issues and effecting transformation in the teachers' profession.

The spirit of this approach, "it is better to appreciate rather than to criticize" (Cooperrider& Whitney, 2005; Hammond; 1998), was able to inspire the teachers to not only to recognize their performance experiences (in the discovery phase), but also to be guided to the new vision (in the dream phase and design phase). Having these visions, the teachers looked at the future positively because they believe that it is possible to exercise the commitment of having self-motivation and being good role model since these commitments rooted in their past success experiences. To help the teachers to be diligently apply this commitment in their practice, then, the school administration can include this commitment as part of their performance evaluation.

REFERENCES

Aaronson, D., Barrow, L., & Sander, W. (2007).Teachers and student achievement in the Chicago public high schools.*Journal of Labor Economics25 (1),* 95-133. Retrieved on December 29, 2011, from http://fac.comtech.depaul.edu/wsander/250104.Web.Pdf

Adediwura, A. A. &Tayo B. (2007). Perception of teachers' knowledge, attitude, and teaching skills as predictor of academic performance in Nigerian secondary schools.*Educational Research and Review2 (7),* 165-171. Retrieved on November 14, 2011, from http://www.academicjournals.org/err/PDF/pdf%202007/jul/adediwura%20and%20tayo.pdf

Agrawal, M. (2004). Curricular reform in schools: The importance of evaluation. *Journal Curriculum Studies, 36 (3),* 361-379. Retrieved on July 13, 2012, from http://riic.unam.mx/01/02_biblio/doc/currriculum_reform_and_evaluation.pdf

Akiri, A. A. &Ugborugbo, N. M. (2009).Teachers' effectiveness and students' academic performance in public secondary schools in Delta State, Nigeria.*Journal of Study Home Community Science*, 107-113. Retrieved on November 14, 2011, from http://www.krepublishers.com/02-journals/s-hcs/hcs-

03-0-000-09-web/hcs-03-2-000-09-abst-pdf/hcs-03-2-107-09-094-akiri-a-a/hcs-03-2-107-09-094-akiri-a-a-tt.pdf

Alejandre, S. (2005).The reality of using technology in the classroom.Technology-supported mathematics learning environments. Retrieved on August 7, 2012, from http://www.cimm.ucr.ac.cr/sitio2/simposios/simposios/xxiii/mesa1/the%20reality%20of%20using%20technology%20in%20the%20classroom.pdf

Al-Salmi, B. J. (2011). Teaching vocabulary using shared reading and flashcards. 87-92. Retrieved on August 5, 2012, from http://www.moe.gov.om/Portal/sitebuilder/Sites/EPS/Arabic/IPS/Importa/tesol/3/Teaching%20vocabulary%20using%20shared%20reading%20and%20flashcards.pdf

Avgoulea, M., Bouras, C., Paraskevas, M., &Stathakopoulos, G. (2002). Policies for content filtering in educational networks: The case of Greece. Retrieved on July 12, 2012, from http://www.eric.ed.gov/PDFS/ED476965.pdf

Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan. (2007). Peraturan menteri pendidikan nasional Republik Indonesia nomor 41 tahun 2007 tentang standar proses untuk satuan pendidikan dasardan menengah. Retrieved on August 8, 2012, from http://www.scribd.com/doc/3371469/Permendiknas-No-41-Tahun-2007

Banfield, S. R., Richmond, V. P., &Mccroskey, J. C. (2006). The effect of teacher misbehaviours on teacher credibility and affect for teacher.*Communication Education*, *55 (1),* 63-72. Retrieved On December 30, 2011, from http://www.jamescmccroskey.com/publications/215.pdf

Beltrán, E. V. (1995). Roles of teachers a case study based on diary of a language teacher (Joachim Appel). *Jornades De Foment De La Investigació, UniversitatJaume, 1-14.*

Burke, Robert M. (2001). Appreciative inquiry: A literature review, *LTU Cimba-Module 6, 1-15.*

Bushe, G. R. (2007). Appreciative inquiry is not (just) about the positive. *Organizational Practitioner, 39 (4),* 30-35. Retrieved on August 10, 2012, from http://www.gervasebushe.ca/AI_pos.pdf

Chamot, A. U., Keatley, C., & Kennedy, K. (2003).Planning a lesson. Retrieved on August 2, 2012, from http://www.nclrc.org/essentials/planning/planning_a_lesson.pdf

Conklin, T. A. & Hart, R. K. (2009). Appreciative inquiry in management education: Measuring the success of co-created learning. *Organization Management Journal 6, 89-104.*

Cooperrider, D. L. & Whitney, D. (2005). *Appreciative inquiry a positive revolution in change*. San Francisco: Barrett-Koehler Publishers, Inc.

Crosswell, L. & Elliot, A/Prof. B. (2004). Committed teachers, passionate teachers: The dimension of passion associated with teacher commitment and engagement. Retrieved on December 14, 2011, from http://www.aare.edu.au/04pap/cro04237.pdf

Davies, T. (2000). Confidence! Its role in the creative teaching and learning of design and technology.*Journal of Technology Education 12 (1),* 18-30. Retrieved on August 5, 2012, from http://scholar.lib.vt.edu/ejournals/JTE/v12n1/pdf/davies.pdf

Department of Education South Africa.(2001). National strategy for mathematics, science, and technology education in general and further education and training. 1-28. Retrieved on December 6, 2011, from http://www.education.gov.za/LinkClick.aspx?fileticket=4YHaJWH0sSA%3D&tabid=106&mid=406

Direktor at Jenderal Peningkatan Mutu Pendidikdan Tenaga Kependidikan Departemen Pendidikan Nasional (Ditjen PMPTK).(2008). Penilaian kinerja guru. Jakarta: Departemen Pendidikan Nasional. Retreived on December 16, 2011, from http://teguhsasmitosdp1.files.wordpress.com/2010/06/22-kode-04-b3-penilaian-kinerja-guru.pdf

Emery, M., Fey, S., & Flora, C. (2006).Using community capitals to develop assets for positive community change.*Community Development Practice, 13*, 1-19. Retrieved on August 9, 2012, from http://www.comm-dev.org/commdev/collection/2006%2013.pdf

Fien, J. (2000). Indigenous knowledge & sustainability. Retrieved on August 6, 2012, from http://www.unesco.org/education/tlsf/mods/theme_c/mod11.html

Franken, R. E. (2001). *Human motivation (5th ed.).*Wadsworth Publishing. Belmont.

Fujita T., Jones, K., &Kunimune, S. (2009). The design of textbooks and their influence on students' understanding of 'proof' in lower secondary school. Proceedings of ICMI Study 19 Conference. 1-172. Retrieved on August 5, 2012, from http://eprints.soton.ac.uk/72264/1/Fujita_Jones_Kunimune_ICMI_proof & proving_2009.pdf

GemaPendidikan. (2010). Tantangandanharapanbagi guru. Retrieved August 6, 2011, from http://gemapendidikan.com/2010/04/tantangan-dan-harapan-bagi-guru/

Gendron S. &Faherty, A. (2006). Managing resources to focus on student performance: A case study of an efficiency and effectiveness review process. 1-7. Retrieved on August 6, 2012, from http://www.leadered.com/pdf/gendron.pdf

General for Education, Training, Culture, and Youth European Commission. (2009). Creativity in schools in Europe: A survey of teachers. Retrieved on August 6, 2012, from http://ftp.jrc.es/EURdoc/JRC55645_Creativity%20Survey%20Brochure.pdf

Gergen, M. M., Gergen, K. J., Barrett, F. (2004). *Appreciative inquiry as dialogue: Generative and transformative.*Bradford: Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Gordon, S. (2008). Appreciative inquiry coaching.*International Coaching Psychology Review, 3 (1),* 19-29.

Hammond, S. A. (1998). *The thin book of appreciative inquiry (2nd ed.).* Oregon: Thin Book Publishing Co.

Hanushek, E. A. &Rivkin, S. G. (2006).*Teacher quality*.In E. Hanushek& F. Welch (Eds.), Handbook of economics of education.(Vol. 2, chap. 18, pp. 1-29). Retrieved on December 30, 2011, from http://edpro.stanford.edu/hanushek/admin/pages/files/uploads/hesedu2018.pdf

Harris, D. N. & Sass, T. R. (2007 a) Teacher quality, teacher training, and student achievement.(Working paper 3).National Center for Analysis of Longitudinal Data in Education Research. Retrieved on December 14, 2011, from http://www.eric.ed.gov/PDFS/ED509656.pdf

Indonesian Teachers Act (Undang-UndangRepublik Indonesia nomor 14 tahun 2005 tentang guru dandosen). (2005). Ministry of National Education Indonesia. Retrieved on November 12, 2011, from http://dikti.go.id/tatalaksana/upload/uu_14_2005.pdf

Indrawati, Y. (2006). Faktor-faktor yang mempengaruhikinerja guru matematikadalampelaksanaankurikulumberbasiskompetensi (KBK) padasekolahmenengahataskota Palembang. *JurnalManajemen&BisnisSriwijaya*, *4(7)*, 41-58. Retrieved on November 21, 2011, from http://digilib.unsri.ac.id/download/Jurnal%20MM%20Vol%204%20No%207%20Artikel%203%20Yuliani%20Indrawaty.pdf

Intel Education. (2001). Designing effective projects: Thinking skills frameworks Bloom's taxonomy: A New Look at an Old Standby. Retrieved on August 27, 2012, from http://download.intel.com/education/Common/au/Resources/DEP/skills/Bloom.pdf

Johnson, G. & Leavitt, W. (2001). Building on success: Transforming organizations through an appreciative inquiry. *Public Personal Management, 30 (1), 129-136.* Retrieved on August 30, 2011, from http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/search/detailmini.jsp?_nfpb=true&_&ERICExtSearch_SearchValue_0=EJ624367&ERICExtSearch_SearchType_0=no&accno=EJ624367

Karissa (2006).The my hero project: Ki HadjarDewantara. Retrieved on December 1, 2011, from http://www.myhero.com/go/hero.asp?hero=Dewantara_stursula_indonesia_06_ul

Klopfer, E., Osterweil, S., Groff, J., & Haas J. (2009).Using the technology of today in the classroom today.The instructional power of digital games, social networking, simulation and how teachers can leverage them. Retrieved on August 19, 2012, from http://education.mit.edu/papers/GamesSimsSocNets_EdArcade.pdf

Krathwohl D. R. (2002). A revision of Bloom's taxonomy: An overview. *Theory Into Practice, 41(4),* 212-264. Retrieved on August 7, 2012, from http://www.unco.edu/cetl/sir/stating_outcome/documents/Krathwohl.pdf

Lane, J. L. (2007). The two-purpose syllabus: A blueprint for faculty and students (rev.). Retrieved on July 7, 2012, from http://www.schreyerinstitute.psu.edu/pdf/TwoPurposeSyllabus.pdf

Li, S. (2008). Philosophy of teaching statement. Retrieved on December 14, 2011, from www.ruf.rice.edu/~shuijing/CV/Teaching.doc

Lumpkin, A. (2008). Teachers as role models teaching character and moral virtues.*Journal of Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance (JOPERD),79 (2),* 45-49. Retrieved on July 12, 2012, from http://www.csuchico.edu/kine/documents/teachersasrolemodels.pdf

Machmudah, U. (2012). Professionalisme guru. Retrieved on July, 16, 2012, from http://humaniora.uinmalang.ac.id/index.php?option=com_phocadownload&view=category&download=31:profesionalisme-guru&id=5:publikasi-ilmiah&Itemid=166

Ministry of National Education/DepartemenPendidikanNasional.(2006 a).Instrumenpenilaiankinerja guru (IPKG) I. Retrieved on December 16, 2011, from http://www.general-files.com/download/source/gs501ad247h24i0

Ministry of National Education/DepartemenPendidikanNasional.(2006 b).Instrumenpenilaiankinerja guru (IPKG) II. Jakarta: DepartementPendidikanNasional. Retrieved on December 16, 2011, from http://taufikmulyana.blogspot.com/2011/11/instrumen-penilaian-kinerja-guru-ipkg-i.html

Ministry of National Education/DepartemenPendidikanNasional.(2006 c).Model matapelajaranmuatanlokal. Retrieved on August 2, 2012, from http://akhmadsudrajat.files.wordpress.com/2008/07/model-pengembangan-muatan-lokal.pdf

Mji, A. &Makgato, M. (2006). Factors associated with high school learners' poor performance: A spotlight on mathematics and physical science. *South African Journal of Education, 26(2),* 253–266. Retrieved on December 6, 2011, from http://www.ajol.info/index.php/saje/article/viewFile/25068/20738

Mrazik, J. (2009). Teachers-problems-teachers' problems: What is considered as a problem among the main teacher activities by Hungarian teacher. *US-China Education Review, 6 (1),* 58-66. Retrieved on August 30, 2011, from http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/contentdelivery/servlet/ERICServlet?accno=ED504952

Nakpodia, E. D. (2010). Human resource management in school administration in Delta State Nigeria.*Journal Social Science,23 (3),* 179-180. Retrieved on January 3, 2012, from http://www.krepublishers.com/02-Journals/JSS/JSS-23-0-000-10-Web/JSS-23-3-000-10-Abst-PDF/JSS-23-3-179-10-920--Nakpodia-E-D/JSS-23-3-179-10-920--Nakpodia-E-D-Tt.pdf

National Union of Teachers (NUT).(1999). Teacher stress.NUT guidance to division and associations. Retrieved on July 19, 2011, from http://www.teachers.org.uk/node/377

Newberry, S. (2011).Using student performance to evaluate teachers.Research brief.RAND education. Retrieved on November 22, 2011, from http://www.rand.org/content/dam/rand/pubs/research_briefs/2011/RAND_RB9569.pdf

Nurdin, D. (2009). Perencanaanevaluasi. Retrieved on August 7, 2012, from http://file.upi.edu/Direktori/FIP/JUR._ADMINISTRASI_PENDIDIKAN/197108082001121-DIDING_NURDIN/Bab_8_PERENCANAAN_EVALUASI.pdf

O'Grady, B. (2000). Making a difference in Ghana's classrooms educators and communities as partners. Retrieved August 27, 2011, from http://www.glp.net/c/document_library/get_file?folderId=12858&name=DLFE-853.pdf

Orem, S. L., Binkert, J., & Clancy, A. L. (2007).*Appreciative coaching.* San Fransisco: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development-OECD. (2011). Building a high-quality teaching profession: Lesson from around the world. Retrieved on November 22, 2011, from http://asiasociety.org/files/lwtw-teachersummit.pdf

Pearson, D. D. R. (2010). Managing teacher performance in government schools. Retrieved on November 19, 2011, from http://download.audit.vic.gov.au/files/20100526_Teacher_performance_Full_Report.pdf

Peñas, D. L., Antonette, M. A., & Bautista, D., M. (2008).On maximizing technology resources and their benefits in teaching and learning mathematics.Paper presentation on the 11th International Congress on Mathematics Education (ICME). Retrieved on August 6, 2012, from http://www.google.com.ph/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&source=web&cd=1&ved=0CD8QFjAA&url=http%3A%2F%2Ftsg.icme11.org%2Fdocument%2Fget%2F223&ei=PPl9ULWkBI6XiAeE0oHQBA&usg=AFQjCNGh22GHcxwMRFUEismeXYQ1M63UcQ&sig2=3pxXcjg74HAtttiReNuALw

Ranjan, N. &Rahman, N. (2012).Role of teacher in enhancing learning achievement of child & emphasis on teacher skill development, knowledge building and ICT. 1-16. Retrieved on August 2, 2012, from http://dhsekerala.gov.in/downloads/role_tech.pdf

Reys, B. J., Reys, R. E., & Chavez, O. (2004). Why mathematics textbooks matter. *Educational Leadership, 61 (5),* 61-66. Retrieved on August 5, 2012, from http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/search/detailmini.jsp?_nfpb=true&_&ERICExtSearch_SearchValue_0=EJ716725&ERICExtSearch_SearchType_0=no&accno=EJ716725

Ripley, D. (2002). Improving employee performance: Moving beyond traditional from responses. Retrieved on January 3, 2012, fromhttp://www.ispi.org/pdf/suggestedReading/Ripley.pdf

Rockoff, J. E. (2003). The impact of individual teachers on student achievement: Evidence, from panel data. 1-41. Retrieved on December 29, 2011, from http://www.eric.ed.gov/PDFS/ED475274.pdf

Roxas, C. C. (2009). Stress among public elementary school teachers. *University of Cordilleras, 1 (4),* 86-108. Retrieved on August 30, 2011, from http://www.eisrjc.com/journals/journal_1/ucvol1no4-5.pdf.

Santamaria, L. A., Taylor M. K., Park T. D., Keene, B. L., &Mandele, E. (2010). Practical literacy matters: Teacher confidence is key. Retrieved on July 11, 2012, from http://136.165.122.102/UserFiles/File/techniques/Park_2_Literacy.pdf

Selvi, K. (2010). Teachers' competencies. Retrieved August, 30, 2001, from http://www.international-journal-of-axiology.net/articole/nr13/art12.pdf

Shein, P. P. &Chiou, W. B. (2011). Teachers as role models for students' leaning styles. *Social Behaviour and Personality, 39 (8).* 1097-1104. Retrieved on August 10, 2012, from http://researcher.nsc.gov.tw/public/wbchiou/Data/11171255771.pdf

Slattery, J. M. & Carlson, J. F. (2005). Preparing an effective syllabus current best practices. *College Teaching, 53(4),* 159-164. Retrieved on July 7, 2012, from http://web.ebscohost.com/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?vid=4&hid=123&sid=6579ce8e-1fd0-4e65-9a6d-521866af6634%40sessionmgr114

State Educational Technology Directors Association (SETDA). (2007). Maximizing the impact the pivotal role of technology in a 21st century education system. Retrieved on August 7, 2012, from http://www.setda.org/c/document_library/get_file?folderId=191&name=P21Book_complete.pdf

Stiggins, R., Arter, J., Chappuis, J., &Chappuis, S. (2004). *Classroom assessment for students learning: Doing it right-using it well.* Assessment Training Institute. Portland. Retrieved on August 20, 2012, from http://www.pbs.org/teacherline/courses/inst325/docs/inst325_stiggins.pdf

Sugiyarto (2005) *Pengaruhpersepsi guru tentangkepemimpinankepalasekolah, kompetensi, danmotivasiterhadapkinerja guru SMK senidankerajinankota Surakarta.*Thesis. Program PascasarjanaUniversitasMuhammadiyah Surakarta, Indonesia.

Suriptiatna, A. (2010). Indonesia's Issues and challenges on teacher professional development. 29-42. Retrieved on August 30, 2011, from http://home.hiroshima-u.ac.jp/cice/publications/sosho4_2-04.pdf

Suryadi, I. (2009). *Akademikkepalasekolahdanmotivasiberprestasi guru terhadapkinerjamengajar guru SMP Negeri di kabupatenMajalengka.*Thesis. Chapter I: Pendahuluan. 1-23. UniversitasPendidikan Indonesia. Retrieved on December 6, 2011, fromhttp://arteducise.blogspot.com/2010/07/tesis-kontribusi-persepsi-guru-tentang.html

Tatar, M. &Horenczyk, G. (2000).Parental expectations of their adolescents' teachers.*Journal of Adolescence, 23*, 487-495. Retrieved on July 17, 2011, from http://blogs.ubc.ca/newproposals/files/2009/03/parents_expect_teachers_2000.pdf

Tella, A., Ayeni, C. O., &Popoola, S. O. (2007). Work motivation, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment of library personnel in academic and research libraries in Oyo State, Nigeria. *Library Philosophy and Practice,* 1-16. Retrieved on January 10, 2012, from http://unllib.unl.edu/LPP/tella2.pdf

The Thailand Education Reform Project (2002).Teacher development for quality learning. Retrieved on August 31, 2011, from http://www.edthai.com/publication/0005/fulltext.pdf

TjiptoSubroto, W. (2012).Peranpendidikankewarganegaraandalammelestarikanbudaya and karakterbangsa. Retrieved on August 6, 2012, from http://blog.elearning.unesa.ac.id/waspodo-tjipto-subroto/peran-pendidikan-kewarganegaraan-dalam-melestarikan-budaya-dan-karakter-bangsa

Ulug, M., Ozden, M. S., &Eryilmaz, A. (2011).The effects of teachers' attitudes on students' personality and performance.*Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences 30,* 738-742. Retrieved on July 14, 2012, from http://ac.els-cdn.com/S1877042811019690/1-s2.0-S1877042811019690-main.pdf?_tid=1cee5d331f261d484cf447d62e559260&acdnat=1342335871_a87062d8f20399ba7cd964d4d4415a04

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) & United States Agency for International Development (USAID). (2006). Situation analysis of teacher education: Toward a strategic framework for teacher

education and professional development. 1-83. Retrieved on November 25, 2011, from http://www.eric.ed.gov/PDFS/ED497052.pdf

Whannell, R. & Allen, W. (2011). High school dropouts returning to study: The influence of the teacher and family during secondary school. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education,36*, 22-35. Retrieved on December 6, 2011, from http://www.eric.ed.gov/PDFS/EJ940862.pdf

Whitney, D. & Trosten-Bloom, A. (2010).*The power of appreciative inquiry (2nd ed.)*. San Francisco: Barrett-Koehler Publishers, Inc.

Wong, H. K. (2003). Collaborating with colleagues to improve students learning. Retrieved on July 16, 2012, from http://newteacher.com/pdf/CollaboratingWithColleaguesToImproveStudentLearning.pdf

World Bank. (2006). Third Punjab education. Retrieved on November 25, 2011, from http://www.apwsipnsp.gov.in/APWSIP/Downloads/APWSIP%20-PAD.pdf

Yara, P. O. (2009). Relationship between teachers' attitude and students' academic achievement in mathematics in some selected senior secondary schools in Southwstern Nigeria. *European Journal of Social Sciences, 11 (3),* 364-369. Retrieved on July 16, 2012, from http://www.eurojournals.com/ejss_11_3_02.pdf

Zaslavsky, O. &Lavie, O. (2012).Teachers' use of instructional examples. Retrieved on August 2, 2012, from http://www.google.com.ph/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&source=web&cd=1&ved=0CCAQFjAA&url=http%3A%2F%2Fstwww.weizmann.ac.il%2Fg-math%2Ficmi%2Fzaslavsky_Orit.doc&ei=vPZ9UM_4LsPrQe-9ICgBw&usg=AFQjCNHo4xvtBxRrpI1W8x-2LBrcsr4u7A&sig2=jgQ4YTOQnlgf1_FDYd6h3w

Zeringue, J., K., Spencer, D., Mark, J., &Schwinden, K. (2010). Influences on mathematics textbook selection: What really matters? Paper presented at the NCTM research pre-session, 1-21. Retrieved on August 5, 2012, from http://www2.edc.org/mcc/pubs/Final%20Draft%20Research%20Presession%202010.pdf

NEW WAVE OF SOCIAL CHANGE

K.N. Janardhana

Rural Development and Self-employment Training Institute (RSETI), India

ABSTRACT

Unemployment is one of the biggest challenges that India has been facing in the process of its development. Millions of unemployed youth particularly from rural and semi-urban background who could not access higher/professional education but are oriented towards white collar jobs are driven to despair for not finding a job. In these circumstances Rural Development & Self Employment Training Institute [RUDSETI] was established in the year 1982 jointly by Sri Dharmasthala Manjunatheshwara Educational Trust, Syndicate Bank and Canara Bank under the visionary leadership of Dr D Veerendra Heggade, Dharmadhikari of Dharmasthala. Encouraged by the success of RUDSET, Ministry of Rural Development GOVT India replicated RUDSTI model at all India level and advised all the Banks to establish one RUDSETI type institute in each of their Lead Districts by name Rural Self-Employment Training Institute (RSETI) for training the rural unemployed youth to take up self employment ventures during 2008-09. With the various initiatives taken by the sponsoring Banks and the continuous mentoring and monitoring of all the RSETIs, as at the end of March 2013, 3,37,290 unemployed youth were trained by 549 functional RSETIs across the country during the year 2012-13 out of which 68% of the candidates have been successful in establishing their own enterprises and earning on their own Present papers explains how RSETI has helped unemployed youth to start their own self employment ventures and thereby contributed for eradication of serious problems of unemployment, poverty, hunger and rural development.

Keywords: *unemployment, self employment, social change, RSETI*

BACKGROUND

Unemployment is one of the biggest challenges that India has been facing in the process of its development. Lakhs of youth are entering the job market every year after completing their school/collegiate education. On the rural side, the employment potential in agricultural economy reached a saturation level leading to large-scale migration of manpower from rural areas to urban areas adding woes and pressure to already overstrain civic infrastructure. Millions of unemployed youth particularly from rural and semi-urban background who could not access higher/professional education but are oriented towards white collar jobs are driven to despair for not finding a job. This under these circumstances **Rural Development & Self Employment Training Institute [RUDSETI]**, a unique initiative in mitigating the problem of unemployment was taken in the year 1982 jointly by Sri Dharmasthala Manjunatheshwara Educational Trust, SyndicateBank and Canara Bank under the

visionary leadership of Dr D Veerendra Heggade, Dharmadhikari of Dharmasthala. The collective thinking gave concrete shape in providing an institutional framework in the form of Rural Development & Self Employment Training Institute in 1982 and the first RUDSET Institute started functioning from Ujire near Dharmasthala.

Encouraged by the success of Ujire experiment, RUDSETI has now established 27 units in 17 States. So far, RUDSETI has trained 3.22 lakh youth of which 2.33 lakh trainees have settled with their self employment ventures, thus constituting 73% to the settlement rate, which is really

Evolution of Rural Self Employment Training Institute (RSETI)

Ministry of Rural Development, Government of India, New Delhi studied the concept of RUDSETI during 2007-08 and was highly inspired by the successful RUDSETI model and accepted RUDSETI concept as a replicable model at all India level and advised all the Banks to establish one RUDSETI type institute in each of their Lead Districts by name Rural Self-Employment Training Institute (RSETI) for training the rural unemployed youth to take up self employment ventures during 2008-09.

The RSETIs have been entrusted with the task of training minimum of 750 youths of BPL family every year. during 2010-11, with the presence of 354 RSETIs functional across the country and more expected to follow, these RSETIs being promoted by different banks are following different norms of training and as a consequence, the outcomes are also different. While seeking to establish the RUDSETI type institutions, the MoRD is fully conscious of the uniqueness of the RUDSETIs with their distinctive set of values, ethos and culture and desired that the RSETIs that are going to be established under the present scheme shall conform to the values of the RUDSETI. Govt. of India also recognized that the principal reason behind the success of the RUDSETI model is the visionary leadership provided by Dr. D. Veerendra Heggade and the unflinching commitment and continued support extended by SyndicateBank and Canara Bank to the cause of youth development and expect that the same shall continue in the RSETIs that are going to be established under the new scheme as well.

Management

Each Bank, through the Trust sponsored by them, monitors the functioning of their RSETIs.

- Chairman & Managing Director / Executive Director and the top executives of sponsor organizations in the ex-officio capacity evolve strategies and take policy decisions and monitor the progress of all the units and guide the institutes suitably.
- Each RSETI is managed by a deputed officer from the sponsoring Bank and duly assisted by faculties and other staff members. It is also assisted by "Local

Advisory Committee" (LAC) an advisory body with the representatives from Sponsors, Government officials and eminent personalities. At quarterly intervals, it reviews and monitors the progress of RSETI

With a view to effectively monitor the performance of each RSETI, MoRD rolled out a comprehensive MIS which will help in generating multiple reports such as number of trainees trained, number of training programmes conducted, settlement details etc., as per the requirements of MoRD, sponsor Banks and other stakeholders. It also helps in taking policy initiatives at the Ministry level. Following the directions of MoRD, majority of the Banks have procured the MIS and 519 RSETIs have already keyed in the required data with effect from 1.4.2012.

Distinctive features of RSETI

- Visionary leadership provided by Dr. D. Veerendra Heggade as Hon. Chairman of National Advisory Council for RSETIs
- Sponsored by a Nationalized Bank under the supervision of MoRD, GOI.
- Free training with free food and free accommodation.
- Campus approach with unique training methodology.
- Short term training with long term follow up / Escort services for a period of Two years.
- Practical orientation, rigorous training and extended hours of learning.
- Past trainees becoming trainers and imparting training.
- High settlement rate of 68% of trained youth.
- The youth who have started Micro Enterprises are earning in the range of Rs. 3,000/- to 30,000/- per month. In several cases, the earnings have crossed Rs. 50,000/- per month.
- Employment generation by settled trainees in the range of 1-50 persons. This is the best part of RSETI training which has got multiplier effect on the society and is the most significant contribution to the Nation in addressing unemployment problem in its own way.

Training programmes offered @ RSETI

RSETIs offer more than 60 types of EDPs (Entrepreneurship Development Programmes) in various avenues. All the programmes are of short duration intervention ranging from one to six weeks. The training programmes, mainly are classified into four categories as shown below:

For first generation entrepreneurs:

- Agricultural EDPs: Comprehensive Agriculture & Allied activities, Dairy farming, Poultry, Bee keeping, Comprehensive Horticulture, Plant Nursery etc
- Product EDPs: Dress Designing for Women/Men, Agarbathi making, Soft toys making, Food processing &Bakery products, Embroidery & Fabric painting etc.

- Process EDPs: Electric Motor rewinding & Pumpset maintenance, Beauty Parlour management, Basic Photography & Videography, Multi Phone servicing, Domestic Electrical Appliances Repair, Two Wheeler servicing, Computer DTP, Refrigeration & Airconditioning, Computer tally, Computer basics etc.
- General EDPs: Rural Entrepreneurship Development Programme (REDP), EDP for Women, PMEGP etc.

For the established entrepreneurs:

- Skill Upgradation: To improve the skills and enhance capability of the settled trainees.
- Growth Programmes: To aim and achieve high goals in life and business for the settled trainees

Selection of candidates for training programmes

Any unemployed youth in the age group of 18-45 years, irrespective of caste, creed, religion, gender and economic status, having aptitude to take up self employment or wage employment and having some basic knowledge in the related field can undergo training which is totally free of cost.

Escort Services

The cutting edge of RSETI training is the post training follow up for sustained motivation among the trainees. The effort to make them rise to pinnacle includes:

- Two years' follow up - Through regular correspondences, individual contacts, Unit visit, Village / Taluk / District / Branch level meeting etc.
- Facilitating credit Linkage with the banks for setting up of micro enterprises

Training pedagogy

Through structured psychological exercises, the participants in an RSETI are stimulated to shed inhibitions and develop interest in learning. Besides Lecture sessions, behaviour simulation games, exercises, field visits, hands on experience, interface with supporting system, group discussions, Role play, case study etc. are effectively used in the training. Most important of all these is that all the training sessions are conducted in vernacular languages only.

Performance of RSETIs

With the various initiatives taken by the sponsoring Banks and the continuous mentoring and monitoring of all the RSETIs, as at the end of March 2013, 3,37,290 unemployed youth were trained by 549 functional RSETIs across the country during the year 2012-13 out of which 68% of the candidates have been successful in establishing their own enterprises and earning on their own. It is a matter of pride that as many as 1,17,948 trainees have been credit linked by various bank branches.

Impact on social change

Among 10 Lakh unemployed youths trained in the last 5 years, around 5.60 Lakhs had started own self employment ventures. The average income of these self employed persons is in the range of Rs. 6000/- to Rs. 8000/-PM and in few cases the income has crossed more than a lakh per month.

The most fascinating impact of self employment ventures created by trainee of RSETI is that he/she is able to take care of their family which normally consists of a spouse and two children. So, if one trainee settles down, RSETI contributes to wipe out tears from the faces of four people. This is the Multiplier effect of RSETI training. Therefore the impact of 5.60 lakh trainees who have created self employment venture are supporting four members of their family means to say that 22.4 Lakh people are leading a comfortable life with smiles on their faces.

Another important multiplier effect of RSETI training lies in the fact that in the journey of growth of the Entrepreneur, he / she could provide employment to minimum of one person and there are ample number of cases wherein the employment generation is in the range of 1:50. Even assuming the minimum employment that a successful trainee can provide to be only one, that means another 5.6 lakh unemployed youth are on the jobs and with the same above logic, another 22.4 lakh people are having smiles on their faces. This indicates that with the RSETI intervention in the last five years, 44.8 Lakh youth are able to lead a meaningful life and are grateful to the RSETI movement with which they have been able to be on thier own.

Another significant contribution of RSETI training is a win-win situation for the Bankers. While banks have to lend for the small and medium enterprises, RSETI provides a platform to the Bank branches in the command area for getting quality clients as they are trained in RSETIs. Out of 5.60 Lakhs trainees reporting settled, as many as three lakh plus entrepreneurs have been financed to the tune of Rupees 450 plus crores where the repayment is reported to be good.

Another sociological change that is observed among the trainees is that when they come out of the RSETI, their confidence level and the motivation will be so high that they will be ready to face any challenges in their new ventures. Further more the total outlook of the trainees will undergo metamorphical change in the sense that they will be highly obliging to the society at large by their changed attitude. This itself is a real transformation when the country is facing lot of Naxal related problems connected with unemployment and poverty. Further more, even where the trainees have not taken up any ventures, their changed attitude not to take law into their hands is really a boon to the society / Country at large which is bogged down with umpteen number of youth related problems. This is the only intervention lead by a banker and supported by Government of India which can address unemployment problem of our Nation .

CONCLUSION

The concept of RUDSET1 which took birth in a small village Ujire near Dharmasthala in Karnataka under the visionary leadership of Dr. D. Veerendra Heggade, President of RUDSET Institutes and undisputed support and guidance from SyndicateBank and Canara Bank has been accepted with open hands by none other than Government of India as a replicable model throughout the country and this is a highly satisfying and a motivating factor for the sponsors of RUDSETI.

With strong identity under the visionary leadership of Dr. D. Veerendra Heggade, Hon. Chairman, National Advisory Council for RSETIs, MoRD and undisputed support and guidance from sponsoring Banks and other Stakeholders, RSETI rededicate itself to the cause of the unemployment problem through undeterred confidence and motivation.

DIFFERENTIATED SUPERVISION MODEL: A WAY OF IMPROVING SCHOOL LEADERSHIP IN SAUDI ARABIA

Rashid Alabdulkareem
King Saud University, Saudi Arabia

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the differentiated supervision initiative that was implemented in some Saudi schools as a way for school leadership improvement. Four reports written by the supervisors of districts participating in the initiative were qualitatively analyzed looking for their main themes. All reports agreed that the model is effective and helps to improve instruction and the school environment. There was also agreement that the model enhanced the role of the supervisor in the instructional aspect of the schools' daily life. According to these reports, another advantage of the model was that it increased the ability of the supervisor to focus on a few schools. Major weaknesses and barriers to its implementation were also identified.

Keywords: *school leadership, differentiated supervision, professional development*

INTRODUCTION

Instructional supervision is "the comprehensive set of services provided and processes used to help teachers facilitate their own professional development so that the goals of the school districts or the school might be better attained" (Glatthorn, 1990, p. 84). Thus, supervision is a way of offering to teachers specialized help in improving their work (Oliva & Pawlas, 1999). It is a process that involves working with teachers in a collegial, collaborative relationship to enhance the quality of teaching and learning within schools and that promotes the professional development of teachers (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000).

Supervision in Saudi schools

According to the Supervisor Guide (Ministry of Education, 1999), educational supervision in Saudi Arabia has gone through four main stages: strict administrative inspection, "educational" inspection, direction, and supervision.

The 1957 inspection system, which is the traditional form of supervision, involved strict inspections supervised by the Ministry of Education. Inspectors were expected to visit each school three times during the school year in order to inspect the administrative and instructional aspects of the school and to enforce Ministry regulations. This type of inspection was characterized by the behaviors of telling, directing, and judging. Often, the purpose of the supervisory visits to schools was to identify mistakes or shortcomings. In 1964, this system was changed to technical

(instructional) inspection. The word “technical” was used to denote the educational and scientific aspects of the inspections and to move the focus away from the administrative inspection. In reality, the nature of the inspection did not change. Inspectors were assigned new tasks that focused on the instructional aspects of the schools in addition to administrative aspects.

In 1967, inspection sections were established in the districts’ educational directorates, and the inspection sections were linked to the departments of elementary, intermediate, and secondary schools. Each district inspector was expected to submit a biannual report on his/her work to the inspectors in the Ministry of Education. Later, the title of “inspector” was changed to "director", and directors were encouraged to develop good working relationships with teachers.

In 1981, another significant development in supervision occurred in Saudi Arabia: the establishment of the Department of Instructional Supervision and Training within the Ministry of Education. In 1996, the title of the directors was officially changed to “instructional supervisors” (Ministry of Education, 1999).

Supervisory practice in Saudi Arabia has been rooted more in tradition and personal preferences than in a body of research or knowledge. Supervisors in Saudi schools do not follow a set approach to supervision. In fact, most of them do not have clear, well-defined goals (Almakushi, 2003). Although the situations vary considerably between schools and regions, nearly all of the supervisors perform the same tasks within the general guidelines that are mandated by the Ministry of Education. Thus, supervisory practices are largely built from personal experiences and experimentations. Because supervisors are typically appointed without prior preparation, the quality of their work depends strongly on their personal abilities, qualifications, and willingness to work. In some research studies, teachers and supervisors have indicated that there is a need to revise the supervision system in Saudi Arabia (Al-Tuwaijri, 1985).

Research in Saudi Arabia (Al-Tuwajri, 1985; Alabduljabar, 2008) has shown that teachers desire an alternative model of supervision characterized by shared teacher-supervisor responsibility, collegial rather than superordinate supervision, cooperation and trust rather than imposition and fear, and a democratic rather than authoritarian process. Saudi teachers also support the use of different supervisory activities.

In 1997, the Ministry of Education proposed the *new supervision practice*, and supervisors were highly encouraged to employ it. In this new system, collegial supervisory and staff development activities were emphasized. In addition, the co-supervisor was proposed as an on-site supervisor. The co-supervisor is an expert teacher whose teaching load is reduced so that he/she can arrange professional development activities for teachers.

The genesis of supervision and the practices of many supervisors are tied to classroom visits and evaluations. For both teachers and supervisors, it is difficult to

separate supervision from these two practices. Supervision is often confused with the evaluation of teachers. This confusion hinders the improvement of supervision. According to Al-Tuwaijri (1985, p. 167), "Saudi supervisors generally are of the opinion that teachers feel insecure during the supervisor's classroom visit."

For the most part all of the different approaches and models of supervision have the ultimate goal of supervision as an aim: improving instruction. Improving instruction, which eventually improves students' outcomes, is the purpose of every supervisory system. Supervision in Saudi Arabia, as in other countries, encounters many difficulties in achieving its goals. According to Starratt (1997), "there is no research that shows that supervision, as it is generally practiced, results in substantial and sustained changes in teachers' teaching" (p. 6). In his study, Alhammad (2000) surveyed the obstacles facing supervisory practices. The major obstacles were: (1) lack of trust between teachers and supervisors, (2) the supervisors' high load of teachers, (3) lack of training for supervisors, (4) weak relationships between teachers and supervisors, (5) lack of cooperation from principals, (6) the amount of office and paper work supervisors must complete, and (7) the emphasis on the classroom visit as the only supervisory practice.

Many models have been implemented; however, more reform efforts are needed. Problems such as tension and lack of mutual trust between supervisors and teachers, poor staff development programs, and ritual supervisory activities, to mention a few, are common in the school environment. The supervision field must develop a supervision model that can integrate the advantages of the other models while avoiding their shortcomings.

Differentiated Supervision

Differentiated supervision is among the latest approaches to supervision. It aims to carefully consider the individual differences among teachers, on the one hand, and the human relations between the supervisor and the teachers, on the other. Thus, it provides teachers with the opportunity to choose the type of supervision they will receive (Glatthorn, 1990).

The differentiated supervision model was first proposed by Allan Glatthorn (Glatthorn, 1984). It "is an approach to supervision that provides teachers with options about the kinds of supervisory and evaluative services they receive" (Glatthorn, 1997, p. 3). The basic premise of differentiated supervision is quite simple: different circumstances and different teachers require different approaches of superivion (Daresh and Playko, 1995). As Glatthorn (1997) emphasizes, in differentiated supervision, the term "supervisor" denotes any professional providing supervision services, including supervisors, principals, and peer experts. This broad view of supervision presents it as a process rather than a job. From this perspective, the supervisor is not the sole person who is in the position of "supervision"; rather, anyone who practices the process of supervision fulfills this role.

Differentiated supervision is a relatively new concept. It was proposed as a supervision model by Allan Glatthorn in the first edition of his book, *Differentiated Supervision* (1984). In this book, the author proposed four options for teachers' professional development. These were modified in the second edition of the book (Glatthorn, 1997) into only three options, which he called "components": (1) intensive development, which is a version of clinical supervision, (2) cooperative development, and (3) self-directed development.

In the second edition of *Differentiated Supervision* (1997), the full model is presented. The author provides the foundation for differentiated supervision, including the rationale behind it. In the book, the author presents two options for his model: the developmental option and the evaluative option. Then, the book demonstrates the three components of the developmental option in detail. At the end of the book, the author provides readers with "a process approach" that each school or district can utilize to develop its own model.

In his argument for the rationale behind differentiated supervision, Glatthorn (1997) states that teaching should be considered a profession, not a craft. Teachers should not be required to wait for the supervisor to solve their problems or improve their performance. Teachers should take the initiative and should have more control over their professional development, within generally accepted professional standards (Glatthorn 1997). Teachers can work toward their own professional development. He adds that working in a collegial school environment, where teachers serve as sources of support and feedback for one another, motivates teachers, which is essential for school effectiveness. Glatthorn (1997) asserts that a differentiated system is one of the best ways to foster collegiality as it strongly emphasizes cooperation and mutual assistance. A key component of the differentiated approach is that it enables teachers to work together, helping each other to grow professionally.

Another rationale for the model that was identified by Glatthorn is individual differences among teachers. Teachers differ in their skills, abilities, and motivations. They also vary in their preferences for professional development strategies. Differentiated supervision takes this into consideration and attempts to provide teachers with several options for improving their teaching. Glatthorn's final rationale for the model is that supervisors cannot do everything alone. One of the main problems that supervisors face is their inability to work effectively with a large number of teachers. Visiting all of the teachers is time consuming and prevents supervisors from concentrating their efforts on areas that need improvement. Differentiated supervision enables the supervisor to focus the assistance on those teachers needing or requesting them, rather than providing ritualistic visits for all teachers (Glatthorn 1997, p. 5). The differentiated model of supervision enhances the leadership aspects in school work. It empowers principals and teachers to create a self-renewing school.

In addition to the variety of options available in the differentiated model, flexibility is a distinctive feature that makes the model applicable and practical.

Glatthorn recommends that each school or district develop a model of differentiated supervision that best suits the environment (Glatthorn, 1997).

Differentiated supervision was originally implemented in three schools in Riyadh. Principals and teachers were briefly oriented to the model and provided with short workshops on it. Principals received coaching from three supervisors (including the researcher). Several meetings were held with teachers. Also, there were several meetings for the principals in which they presented their progress and discussed the problems they faced. By the end of that year, the model was modified and rebuilt to suit Saudi schools. Major changes included deleting curriculum evaluation and action research from the second option (professional development) and suggesting some standards for each option. In the following year, the model was implemented in four districts. All supervisors were trained *during* the implementation. The project was supervised by a team from the Ministry of Education. This phase of implementation lasted for one school year. At the end of the first semester, representatives of the participating districts held a meeting to review their progress. At the end of the school year, each district was asked to hold a workshop for the supervisors to write an evaluative report of the implementation.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the differentiated supervision initiative in Saudi schools by analyzing the reports written by the districts participating in the initiative. Each district submitted a detailed report that showed the process of application, advantages and disadvantages of the model, and the difficulty faced during the application period. Evaluating this initiative would help in developing the model and enlightening the decision about its implementation.

DATA

This study is based on the analysis of the four reports written by the districts that applied the model. These are five lengthy reports developed through supervisor and principal workshops held specifically to review and evaluate the project. Some reports include results of questionnaires administered to teachers and principals. Each report begins by describing the process of implementation and then focuses on detailed description of the advantages and disadvantages of the model as well as barriers to its implementation as seen by the principals and supervisors.

The basic qualitative research approach was followed (Creswell, 2009). The reports were analyzed looking for general themes in three main areas: advantages (what are the positive points in the model?), disadvantages (what are the negative points in the model?), and obstacles (what obstacles did the schools face during the period of application?). Each report was read several times and coded according to categories that related to the above three main themes.

RESULTS

The data analysis revealed major findings in the three areas of strengths, weaknesses, and obstacles; the results are detailed below.

Strengths

The reports analysis revealed several positive aspects in the model. These aspects are closely related to the instructional process at school. All reports agreed that the model is effective and helps to improve instruction and the school environment through initiating and fostering professional dialogues inside the school. It "created warmth in the school", according to one of the reports. The reports also showed the agreement that the model enhances the role of the supervisor in the instructional aspect of the schools' daily life, rather than focusing on inspection and evaluative tasks. It reinforces a motivating educational leadership. According to all reports, teachers are starting to develop a new understanding of supervision. Teachers are now looking at supervisors as advisors. As one of the reports stating it: "they are not coming just to look for mistakes".

In the traditional supervision system a supervisor was required to visit up to fifty schools, in this differentiated model of supervision the supervisors is responsible only for 4 to 5 schools. Thus, according to these reports, another advantage of the model is that it enhances the ability of the supervisor to give greater attention to a few schools. Focusing on limited number of schools enables the supervisors to plan for improvement and follow up his/ her planning, and helps in developing a collegial relationship inside schools. Offering different options for teachers along with not focusing on classroom visits was mentioned by the reports as a factor that led to an atmosphere of trust and acceptance between the teachers and the supervisor. Teachers feel that supervision is more responsive to their abilities and changing needs. Another strength mentioned by some principals is that the application of the model created rapport, which schools typically lack, in the school.

Teachers began to work collaboratively and discuss their professional growth and responsibilities. The model also led to the discovery and enhancement of teachers' abilities. Another remark mentioned as an advantage for the model is that it transfers training into the school building. The reports also agreed that the model "breaks the ice" and facilitates the advancement of a culture of professional development in the school. The current results confirm those of Piraino (2006), including a strong principal preference for differentiated teacher supervision. Also, principals indicated that differentiated supervision was effective in fostering a school culture that encouraged teacher collaboration, professional inquiry, and a commitment to continuous improvement. Principals also stated that differentiated teacher supervision was quite effective in improving teachers' planning and preparation, classroom instruction, and professionalism through collegiality and professional inquiry. It is evident that this model has created a sense of collaboration and trust among teachers, which are main factors for creating a learning community.

Weaknesses

The reports, however, indicated several weaknesses and disadvantages of the model. The most perplexing comment in the reports (which was also raised frequently during the regular meetings with the supervisors) was the model's general approach to teacher supervision. Many supervisors were concerned about the fact that they had to observe teachers in other subject areas and analyze their teaching. They asserted that assuring that the teacher is presenting sound information on the subject matter is a major task for the supervisor and cannot be accomplished by teachers from different specialties. They further stated that this approach of general supervision is embarrassing and limits the supervisor from providing real assistance to teachers from other specialties.

It appears as though the traditional view of specialized (subject matter) supervision is deeply rooted in the culture of instructional supervision. Reports mentioned that some supervisors are afraid that teachers will stop keeping their knowledge in their subject matter area current because they do not receive visits from a specialized supervisor. Another weakness mentioned by several principals is the lack of time as teachers with four to five classes per day cannot engage in peer coaching sessions. Lack of time was identified as one of the main problems of supervision in Saudi schools (Albabtain, 2009). Several principals, however, stated that if the teachers are committed to the activity, they will find the time to complete it.

Obstacles

The third theme that the study revealed is the obstacles – the administrative or environmental factors that external to the model but they negatively affect its implementation. The reports mentioned several obstacles that limited the process of applying the model. These included the lack of: teachers' and principals' time, proper rooms for meetings and other staff development activities, and an orientation for teachers and principals. Principals and supervisors' lack of leadership skills seems to be an obstacle for effective implementation of the model. Although these obstacles are mentioned in the reports as factors that hinder the implementation, it should be noticed that these obstacles are not limited to the model. In fact they hinder the implementation of any model for improvement. Several studies have sited lack of proper buildings and rooms a major problem that prevents supervisors from implementing staff development activities (Alhammad, 2000; Albabtain, (2009).

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The evaluative reports of the differentiated supervision initiative in Saudi schools show that the model is promising and helps in building the characteristics of a successful school, such as collaborative work, collegiality, and professional development in the school building. The model also has some weak points that could be modified through training and collaboration with other specialists. The obstacles identified are not limited to this model and could be overcome through careful

planning and appropriate orientation. The model is promising, though it needs development taking into consideration all teachers and supervisors' concerns.

REFERENCES

Alabduljabar, A. (2008). Instructional Supervision and Teachers Professionalization. Riyadh.

Albabtain, A. (2009). Difficulties faces by instructional supervisors in their work and how they overcome them. Journal of educational and Psychological Sciences, 10(2), 239-268.

Alhammad, I. (2000). Barriers for instructional supervision in Riyadh schools. Unpublished Thesis. King Saud University. Riyadh. (In Arabic).

Almakushi, A. (2003). Educational Supervision: Definition and Aims in Theory and Practice. King Saud University - Educational and Islamic Studies, 16(1), 263-294. (In Arabic)

Al-Twaijri, S. (1985). The relationship between the Ideal and the Actual Supervisory Practices as perceived by Supervisors in Saudi Arabia. Unpublished Dissertation, University of Oregon.

Beach, Don M. and Reinhartz, (2000). Supervisory Leadership: focus on Instruction.

Blankstein, A. (2010). *Failure is not an Option: 6 Principles for Making Students Success the Only Option.* Thousand Oaks: Corwin.

Creswell, J. (2009). Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches. Los Angeles: Sage.

Daresh, J. & Playko, M. (1995). Supervision as a proactive process: concepts and cases. Illinois: Waveland Press Inc.

Glatthorn, A. (1984) Differentiated Supervision. ASCD. Alexandria.

Glatthorn, A. (1990). Supervisory Leadership: Introduction to Instructional Leadership. GlenView: Scott.

Glatthorn, A. (1997) Differentiated Supervision. ASCD. Alexandria.

Glickman, C. D., Gordon, Stephen P., & Ross-Gordon, Jovita M. (1998). Supervision of instruction a developmental approach. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Ministry of Education (Saudi Arabia). (1999). Supervisor's Guide. Riyadh. (Arabic)

Oliva, P., & Pawlas, G. (1999). Supervision for Today's Schools. New York: John Wiley.

Piraino, G. (2006). A Qualitative Study of Differentiated Teacher Supervision's Impact on Classroom Instruction and Pedagogy. Unpublished dissertation, University of Pittsburgh.

Starratt, Robert J. (1997). Should Supervision Be Abolished? Yes. In Jeffrey Glanz and R. F. Neville,, eds. Educational Supervision: Perspective, Issues, and Controversies. Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon Publishing, Inc.

SELF-DETERMINATION, MOTIVATION AND STUDY ENGAGEMENT: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF UNDERGRADUATES IN MALAYSIA

Arif Hassan
Ibrahim Hizam Al Jubari

International Islamic University Malaysia

ABSTRACT

The paper examines the role of learning climate (autonomy supportive vs. controlling), intrinsic motivation resulting from the three basic needs satisfaction, as posited by Self Determination Theory of motivation, self-perception of choice and self-awareness on students' study engagement. The data were collected from 529 undergraduates Muslim students (Females = 57.7% and 81.7% Malaysians) representing several study disciplines. Standardized instruments were employed to measure the constructs of learning climate, basic needs, perceived self-determination, and study engagement. Results provided strong support to the SDT proposition suggesting that an autonomy supportive learning climate significantly contributed to intrinsic need satisfaction of autonomy, competence, and relatedness. It was also found that the autonomy supportive learning climate and satisfaction of competency need contributed to study engagement. The study provides good empirical support to the SDT propositions from a non-Western cultural context.

Keywords: *intrinsic motivation, self-determination, learning climate, study engagement, performance*

INTRODUCTION

Motivation is considered to be an important determinant of students learning achievement and academic performance. However, motivation is traditionally being viewed as something that differs in degree, hence parents and teachers would like to *increase* the motivation level of less motivated ones. However, the Self-Determination Theory (SDT) of motivation given by Ryan and Deci (2000) put more emphasis on the type rather than degree of motivation. They argue that people differ in motivation based not only on the different amount or degree, but also on the different kinds of motivation. Thus an individual may engage in an activity because it is of interest to him or her and another person may do the same but expecting some outcomes. Therefore, SDT distinguishes between two types of motivation: intrinsic motivation, doing something because it is interesting and enjoyable and extrinsic motivation, doing an action because it leads to separable outcome. Importantly, behaving intrinsically can be much better in terms of performance and the quality of experience.

When intrinsically motivated, people engage in activities for the potential fun, excitement and challenge. These behaviours originate from within the self-associated feelings of curiosity and interest, rather than being brought about by any external contingencies (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009). SDT argues that people have natural motivational tendencies and readiness to learn, to explore, to grow and to assimilate knowledge and to develop new skills. However, these tendencies can be either facilitated and supported or hindered by social contexts (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Due to the fact that not all activities are intrinsically interesting and enjoyable to derive satisfaction from them, an individual needs some instrumental extrinsic factors to get him/her motivated. Extrinsic motivation refers to doing an activity with the expectations of separable outcomes. SDT argues that extrinsic motivation can fall in degrees and as not one category (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Extrinsic motivation can vary in degree from fully controlled by contingences external to individual, such as expecting reward or avoiding punishment (doing an assignment because students fear losing their grades), to autonomous motivation (doing an assignment because students perceive it valuable to their careers) which can be considered as identical to intrinsic motivation. Doing assignment because of fear of loss and doing it because it is perceived valuable are still extrinsic motivation but they vary in their degree. What differentiates both behaviours is that in the first one, students are pressurized to do so. However, in the second behaviour, it involves some sort of endorsement and relative autonomy (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Given the classification of motivation (intrinsic and extrinsic) by self-determination theory and how extrinsic motivation can be further divided into sub-groups, it proposes that people have three universal, psychological needs in order for them to develop and function optimally. These three needs are: autonomy, or the perception that one's behaviour is self-congruent and volitional; competence, or the perception that one is capable of influencing the environment in desirable ways; and relatedness, or the feeling of closeness and connectedness with others (Weinstein & Ryan, 2011). It is suggested that the social contextual factors that provide people the opportunity to satisfy these needs will facilitate intrinsic motivation and the integration (the fullest type of internalization) of extrinsic motivation, whereas those that prevent satisfaction of these needs will decrease intrinsic motivation and the integration of extrinsic motivation (Deci& Ryan, 2000). Weinstein & Ryan (2011) describe the state of individuals whose needs are satisfied or dissatisfied by the social environments. They argue that individuals move towards motivational states that are characterized as self-volitional or autonomous when their environments support their needs. But, if environmental factors don't support the basic needs, motivation is pressured or controlled.

Self-determination theory can be seen as a powerful motivational theory, especially in an educational setting. It can be observed that students may only be intrinsically motivated for some courses and not interested in some other. Some may like to go to college not because of their own interest but because they are told to do

so. Some others will join college because they have a perceived value and expect to have some favourable outcomes. As a macro theory of motivation, SDT looks at all these dynamics and provides a better understanding of students' motivation. These motivational processes have an impact on the students' performance, engagement, as well as on their well-being.

According to SDT, satisfying students' basic psychological needs for autonomy and competence can make their intrinsic motivation sustainable. Both needs are important for maintaining intrinsic motivation. Stated differentially, if one need is satisfied and the other is not, intrinsic motivation can be hindered (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009). Benware & Deci, (1984) conducted a study to test whether students who learn with an active orientation (learn to teach) would be more intrinsically motivated than those who learn with a passive orientation (learn to take exam on the same material given to the active orientation group). The authors used a sample of 40 first year university students. Students were divided into two groups: experimental group (learning to teach), and control group (learning to take an exam). Findings showed that the students with the passive orientation (learn to be examined) were less intrinsically motivated, had lower conceptual learning score and had lower perception of themselves to be more actively engaged with the environment than the students with the active passive orientation (learn to teach others). Niemiec & Ryan, (2009) reported that two studies conducted in USA (Grolnick and Ryan, 1987) and Japan (Kage and Namiki, 1990) found out that evaluative pressures undermined student's intrinsic motivation for classroom topics and materials, as well as their performance in school, whereas, autonomy support facilitated it.

As postulated by SDT that satisfying students' needs is vital for their academic motivation internalization, Jang, Reeve, Ryan, & Kim, (2009) found out that experiencing the feelings of autonomy and competence enhances intrinsic motivation. They conducted a series of studies testing SDT in a collectivistic culture in South Korea using samples of middle-class students. As it is argued that collectivistic culture does not value autonomy, the authors,specifically, wanted to examine whether those students enjoy learning activities that afford basic psychological need satisfactions. Findings showedthat the basic assumptions of SDT hold true even a collectivistic culture. It was found that basic needs satisfaction led to more satisfying learning experiences and greater academic achievement.

As self-determination is claimed to be universal and that people share three needs; namely autonomy, competence, and relatedness, some studies (e.g., Brickman & Miller, 2001; as cited in Zhou, Ma, & Deci, 2009) suggest that students acquire their needs, values and attitudes from their culture and this cultural element influence students' motivation for learning. Accordingly, children in collectivist cultures are inclined to develop strong need for belonging as these cultures do not value autonomy, whereas children in individualistic cultures are raised to develop strong need for autonomy. Research has shown that autonomous motivation is associated with positive learning outcomes such as interest in course material, conceptual understanding, and classroom adjustment among elementary students and

achievement and adjustment among college students. To be autonomously motivated, the three needs should be met.

However, it has been suggested that autonomy is not important for school outcomes in collectivist cultures such as China. Using a sample of elementary school students, Zhou et al., (2009) conducted a study, applying SDT, to investigate the motivation for learning of rural Collectivists Chinese children. This study aimed at examining the relationship of autonomous/controlled motivation and three classroom adjustment perceptions including: (a) perceived competence (b) perceived choice; and (c) interest. It also aimed at investigating the relations of teachers' autonomy support to these classroom adjustment variables. Findings showed that students' autonomous motivation was associated with a higher level of interest, perceived competence, and choice, whereas controlled motivation was related to a lower level of perceived choice and reduced interest. Further, this study suggested that students' perception of teachers autonomy support positively predicted changes in autonomous motivation, controlled motivation and perceived competence (Zhou et al., 2009).

Engaging students in classrooms setting is very important. Not only can engagement predict important outcomes such as learning and development, but it also reveals the underlying motivation (Guay, Boggiano, & Vallerand, 2001). Engagement refers to the behavioural intensity and emotional quality of a person's active involvement during a task. In this study, it has been argued that the congruence between students' self-determined inner motives and their classroom activity is facilitated by autonomy-supportive teachers through identifying and nurturing students' needs, interests, and preference. In contrast, these inner and self-determined motives could be degraded by controlling teachers as they will shape their agendas of what students should think, feel and do. As teachers agendas are shaped, controlling teachers introduce extrinsic incentives in order to shape students' adherence toward that agenda, which essentially bypass students' inner motives.

As engagement of students is very important and beneficial, Guay et al (2001) argued that teachers can be autonomy-supportive when they are trained to do so. In this study, trained teachers, who participated in an informational session on how to support students' autonomy and who engaged themselves in independent study on the study-specific website, were able to display greater autonomy-supportive behaviours than the non-trained ones. Furthermore, this study suggests that students' engagement was more promoted with teachers who used autonomy support during instruction.

Students differ in their perception of the learning environment and thus their engagement efforts rely on what they perceive. Hardré et al., (2006) mentioned that students' outcomes are results of systematic interactions of factors that involve students, teachers and their educational institutions. The characteristics that teachers and students bring to their educational settings and culture of that setting interact and affect students' outcomes either positively or negatively. To investigate this interaction of factors, students individual differences (need for cognition & perceived ability), perceptions of classroom environments (based on self-determination theory),

and goal structures (based on achievement goal theory), and how these collectively and differentially predict high school students' motivation, Hardré et al., (2006) conducted a study using a sample of 6,539 students from 14 high schools in Taiwan (Asian context). This study concluded that individual differences directly predict motivation as well as through classroom perception (teacher support, peer support, teacher interpersonal style). Also, students' engagement and efforts were predicted by goal structures (learning goals, performance-approach goals, performance-avoidance goals, future goals).

According to Katz &Assor (2007) offering choice in classrooms is not motivating by itself; rather teachers should offer choices that meet their students' needs. That is, choice should be constructed to support students' autonomy, competence and relatedness. To support these basic psychological needs, choice should be constructed to match students' interest and goals (autonomy support); to match their abilities, neither very complex nor too easy(competence support); to match the values of students' families and their original culture(relatedness support). Also, they suggested that when choice is offered in a non-controlling environment, it will contribute greatly to enhancing students' functioning and development.

Lack of motivation toward learning among students is one of the pressing issues in academic contexts. Students lose the desire to do the tasks assigned to them and thus, the feelings of frustration and discontentment arise and their productivity and well-being can be encumbered (Legault, Green-Demers, & Pelletier, 2006). Generally, various positive outcomes are associated with self-determined motivation and negative outcomes are associated with less self-determined forms of extrinsic motivation. In academic context, boredom and poor concentration in class, higher perceived stress at school, poor psychosocial adjustment to college while studying, and high school dropout have been associated with *Amotivation*(Legault et al., 2006). Amotivationis defined as a state in which students lack the intention to learn. Amotivated students are not able to sense the connection between their behaviour and its subsequent outcomes(Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Little attention has been given to amotivation and factors affecting it, whereas motivation has been extensively studied(Legault et al., 2006). Amotivation has been treated as one-dimensional, whereas it is believed to be multidimensional. Legault et al., (2006) conducted three studies to explore and validate this claim and to determine the factors that give rise to academic amotivation. Four dimensions were identified: (1) ability beliefs, (2) effort beliefs, (3) characteristics of the task, and (4) individual values relative to the task. Results show support and validation of the four sub-dimensions of amotivation. It also showed distinct classes of reasons that give rise to students' amotivation. These include lack of belief in their ability, lack of belief in their effort capacity, unappealing characteristics of the academic task, and finally lack of value placed on the task (Legault et al., 2006). This study further showed that inadequate social support (from parents, teachers, and friends) gives rise to amotivation, and thus negatively affects students' academic outcomes (e.g., achievement, academic self-esteem, intention to drop out).

High school students' motivation to attend college varies significantly. Some students may want to attend college because they place high value on it, so they will do it volitionally. Others don't want to attend but their parents will affect their decisions to go to college. In SDT, context surrounding an individual has a great impact on his/her decisions. In the case of adolescents, parents are the closest persons to them. If their basic psychological needs are supported by parents, they will be more autonomous in their decisions. To investigate effects of perceived need support from parents on the adolescents' autonomous self-regulation for academics, and the adolescents' well-being, Niemiec et al., (2006) conducted a study on high school students to explore this relationship. This study demonstrated that parents have an impact on predicting adolescents' wellbeing, mothers being more influential (Perceived need support). Furthermore, the results also showed that higher the autonomous self-regulation for attending college reported by those high school students, higher the well- being (vitality, life satisfaction) and lower the ill-being (depression, externalizing problems). Another study was conducted to examine the effects of students self-regulation and perceived teachers' autonomy support on their adjustment and performance among college students (Black & Deci, 2000). Findings showed that higher the reported self-regulation for learning organic chemistry, the higher the students perceived themselves as competent and course materials as interesting and enjoyable, as well as the lower anxiety they experienced. Also, similar interesting outcomes were experienced when they perceived their teachers as autonomy supportive.

In their review of SDT application to education, Niemiec & Ryan, (2009) concluded that intrinsic motivation and autonomous types of extrinsic motivation are essential to students' engagement and optimal learning in educational contexts. They also reported that students' autonomous self-regulation for learning, academic performance, and wellbeing is facilitated by the perceptions of their teachers' support of their basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Students' academic performance was also found to be influenced by their perceived autonomy and competence (Fortier, Vallerand, & Guay, 1995).

Just recently, an interesting study was conducted to examine SDT theory in educational workplace (Klassen, Perry, & Frenzel, 2012). This time, the concern was on teachers' relatedness with their principal, colleagues and students and its impact on their engagement and well-being. The study revealed that the more the teachers perceived autonomy support from principal, the higher the relatedness with colleagues and students they displayed. Their relatedness with students showed higher work engagement and lower anxiety, anger and emotional exhaustion. Also, autonomy support enhanced teachers' psychological needs, which in turn, are associated with higher levels of engagement and teaching enjoyment.

RESEARCH MOTIVATION AND HYPOTHESIS

The theoretical propositions of Self-Determination Theory of motivation need to be tested in different cultural as well as organizational context. Our literature review indicated that the theory has not been tested in Muslim countries and Islamic institutions. Some of the unique cultural characteristics that may be observed in Asian as well as Muslim countries such as Malaysia include collectivism, relationship orientation, conformity to social and religious norms, face saving, power distance and obedience to authority. There are arguments that the basic propositions of SDT should not apply in such cultures (Bond, 1988; Markus &Kitayama, 2003; Markus, Kitayama, &Heiman, 1996 as cited in Jang, H. *et al*, 2009). According to these scholars in Eastern collectivistic cultures like Malaysia priority is given to maintaining social obligations over autonomy support. The preferred parenting and teaching style, therefore, is characterized by controlling rather than encouraging autonomy (Quoss& Zhao, 1995). As such, psychological need satisfaction proposed in the SDT may not yield the same impact on positive educational outcomes as found in Western contexts (Iyenger& De Voe; Tseng, 2004). It would, therefore, be of interest to test the premises of SDT in different cultural context. This was the motivation behind this study. It was conducted on the undergraduate students of International Islamic University Malaysia located in Kuala Lumpur.

However, based on the arguments and related empirical evidence provided in support of the SDT it was hypothesized the propositions of SDT are universal and will remain valid in different cultural as well as institutional context. Therefore it was hypothesized that:

H1:*The autonomy supportive learning climate, sense of choice and self-awareness will foster the satisfaction of the three basic needs of students.*

H2: *The satisfaction of the three basic needs, which constitute the ingredients of intrinsic motivation,will contribute to students' study engagement.*

METHODOLOGY

Sample

A sample of 529 undergraduates from several facultiesparticipated in this study. This included 57.7% females and 81.7% Malaysians. The sample largely conformed to the population distribution in terms local vs. international and female vs. male students in IIUM. They represented first to four years of study. Faculty wise distribution of sample is displayed in Table1.

Table 1: *Distribution of sample by faculty*

Faculty	N	%
Engineering	76	14.3
Econ &Mgmt	122	23.0
Islamic & Human Sciences	113	21.3
Law	84	15.8
Architecture	84	15.8
ICT	47	8.9

Instruments

The following instruments were used to collect data for this study.

1. **Basic Psychological Needs Scale (BPN)**. Central to self-determination theory of motivation is the concept of basic psychological needs that are assumed to be innate and universal. According to the theory, these need—the need for competence, autonomy, and relatedness—must be continuously satisfied for people to develop and function in healthy or optimal ways (Deci&Rayan, 2000). The Scale addresses need satisfaction for competence, autonomy, and relatedness. The 21-item scale has 7 items measuring autonomy, 6 items measuring competence, and 8 items measuring relatedness need satisfaction. However, in the present study only 20 items were used as one item measuring relatedness need was found to have low reliability value. Responses were solicited on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = Not at all true; 7 = Very true). Examples of items are: I feel like I am free to decide for myself how to live my life (Autonomy). People I know tell me that I am good at what I do (Competence). I get along with people I come in contact with (Relatedness). BPN Scale has been widely used in several studies (Deci, Ryan, Gagne, Leone, Usunov, &Kornazheva, 2001; Ilradi, Leone, Kasser, & Ryan, 1993; Kasser, Davey, & Ryan, 1992) and has provided good empirical validity.

2. **The Self Determination Scale (SDS).** This scale is designed by Deci and Ryan (2000) to assess individual differences in the extent to which people tend to function in a self-determined way. It is thus considered as a relatively enduring aspect of people's personalities which reflects: (a) being more aware of their feelings and their sense of self, and (b) feeling a sense of choice with respect to their behavior. The SDS is a 10-item scale with two 5-item subscales. The first subscale is awareness of oneself, and the second is perceived choice in one's actions. Responses are recorded on a 5-point scale. Examples of items are:

    1. A. I always feel like I choose the things I do.
       B. I sometimes feel that it's not really me choosing the things I do.

Only A feels true	1	2	3	4	5	**Only B feels true**

2. A. I choose to do what I have to do.
   B. I do what I have to, but I don't feel like it is really my choice.

Only A feels true	1	2	3	4	5	**Only B feels true**

The scale has been extensively used by researchers in several contexts thus providing it the empirical validity (Sheldon, Ryan, & Reis, 1996; Sheldon, 1995).

3. **Learning Climate Questionnaire (LCQ).** This scale has been developed by Williams, Wiener, Markakis, Reeve, &Deci, (1994) and adapted to measure the autonomy support provided to the students by the faculty members. Responses are solicited on a 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree; 7= strongly agree). Examples of items are:

   1. I feel that my lecturers provide me choices and options.
   2. I feel understood by my lecturers.

   Several studies using this scale in different contexts have provided good empirical support to this construct (Black &Deci, 2000; Williams, Saizow, Ross, &Deci, 1997; Williams, Wiener, Markakis, Reeve, &Deci, 1994).
4. **Study Engagement Scale (SES).** This scale measured the degree to which students feel engaged in their studies. Items of this scale have been adapted from Utrechet's Work Engagement Scale (UWES), (Schaufeliand Bakker, 2004). The construct of work engagement includes Vigor, Dedication, and Absorption. This 9-item scale has been reworded to measure students' study engagement. Responses were obtained using 5-point Likert scale. Items of the scale include:

   1. When I get up in the morning I feel like going to the class
   2. I am immersed in my studies.

5. **Background Information**. A few relevant pieces of background information were also collected such as gender, nationality (Local/International), Faculty, Department, and year of study

METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION

Data were collected during the class time with the support extended by the faculty members. Students were provided instructions on the cover page of the printed questionnaire. They were requested to not disclose their identity anywhere on the questionnaire, thus encouraging them to be candid in their responses.

RESULTS

Table 2 summarizes the means, standard deviations, inter-correlations and reliability coefficients for the study variables. The reliabilities for all items were generally good. As shown in Table 2 alphas ranged from .70 to .91.

The mean values of the three basic needs satisfaction indicated fair endorsement in the following order: autonomy (Mean = 5.22), competence (Mean = 4.51) and relatedness (Mean = 4.94) respectively on a seven-point scale. Learning climate was also rated slightly above average (Mean = 4.48). The self-determination constructs(self-awareness and choice) and students' engagement too received moderate to high scores on a five-point scale:choice (Mean = 3.31), self-awareness (Mean = 3.56) and engagement (Mean = 3.46). Almost all the study variables, except CGPA, were significantly correlated to one another (See Table 2)

Table 2: *Descriptive statistics, alpha, and correlations*

	Mean	SD	Alpha	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Autonomy (6)	5.22	.92	.70	-							
2. Competence (6)	4.51	.76	.72	.53**	-						
3. Relatedness (8)	4.94	.79	.78	.42**	.51**	-					
4. L. Climate (15)	4.48	.89	.91	.29**	.23**	.29**	-				
5. Self-awareness (5)	3.56	.77	.79	.33**	.28**	.31**	.21**	-			
6. Choice (5)	3.31	.86	.86	.39**	.24**	.26**	.16**	.29**	-		
7. Engagement (9)	3.46	.60	.86	.27**	.36**	.18**	.35**	.29**	.16**	-	
8. CGPA				.12**	.11*	-.02	.01	.12**	.08	.13**	-

*** p< .01; *p<.05, Numbers in parentheses are number of items in the scale.*

No significant mean differences were found between male and female students on any variables and so was the case between local and international students.

In summary the descriptive statistics demonstrated that the students of IIUM were moderately satisfied with the three basic needs, endorsed the learning climate to some extent autonomy supportive. However, the feeling of being self-determined through self-awareness and choice was reported just average. So was the case with study engagement.

Learning Climate and Basic Needs Satisfaction

According to SDT teachers play an important role in creating a learning climate that is either controlling or providing choice to the students which in turn would determine students' satisfaction of the three basic needs, namely, autonomy, competence, and relatedness.

The theory also posits that individuals differ in the extent to which they tend to function in a self-determined way. It is considered as a relatively enduring aspect of people's personalities which reflects: (a) being more aware of their feelings and their sense of self, and (b) feeling a sense of choice with respect to their behaviour. This could be the result of the way they are exposed to the social environment. Thus a strong and supportive family, school and community environment should fostergreater sense of choice in life and the awareness of own feelings and cognitions.

Table 3,4, and 5 present the multiple regression results to test the hypothesis.

Table 3: *Multiple regressions predictingautonomy need satisfaction from learning climate, self-awareness, and choice*

Predictors	Std. β	t-value	Significance
Learning climate	.21	5.17	.000
Self-awareness	.19	4.71	.000
Choice	.29	7.24	.000

Adj. R^2 = .23, (F= 53.33, p<.000)

Table 4*: Multiple regressions predictingcompetency need satisfaction from learning climate, self-awareness, and choice*

Predictors	Std. β	t-value	Significance
Learning climate	.17	4.09	.000
Self-awareness	.20	4.61	.000
Choice	.15	3.54	.000

Adj. R^2 = .13, (F= 26.73.33, p<.000)

Table 5*: Multiple regressions predictingrelatedness need satisfaction from learning climate, self-awareness, and choice*

Predictors	Std. β	t-value	Significance
Learning climate	.23	5.44	.000
Self-awareness	.20	4.75	.000
Choice	.16	3.87	.000

Adj. R^2 = .16, (F= 34.68, p<.000)

The results were in the expected direction. It supported the universality of the SDT. All the three predictors significantly entered into the equations predicting the satisfaction of autonomy, competency, and relatedness needs and explained 23%, 13%, and 16% variances respectively. Thus, if teachers were perceived as less controlling and more autonomy supportive and if students developed a better sense of choice in life and were more aware of their thoughts and feelings then it resulted into the satisfaction of the basic needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness.

Basic Needs Satisfaction, Learning Climate, and Self Determination as Predictors of Students Study Engagement

Table 6 presents the multiple regression results predicting study engagement from basic needs, learning climate, self-awareness and choice constructs. Overall the model explained 49% variance and was highly significant. However, only two variables, namely, competence and learning climate significantly predicted the dependent variable i.e., study engagement

Table 6: *Multiple regressions predicting study engagement*

Predictors	Std. β	t-value	Significance
Autonomy	-.00	-.06	.94
Competence	.35	5.80	**.000**
Relatedness	-.05	-1.22	.222
Learning Climate	.12	6.66	**.000**
Self-awareness	.08	1.32	.188
Choice	.05	.93	.349

Adj. R^2 = .49; (F = 18.96, p <.000)

DISCUSSION

The study was planned to test the universality of the Self Determination Theory of motivation in the cultural and institutional context which were non-Western, collectivistic, and Islamic. The critiques of the theory maintained that inEastern collectivistic cultures priority is given to maintaining social obligations over autonomy support. The preferred parenting and teaching style, therefore, is characterized by controlling rather than encouraging autonomy (Quoss& Zhao, 1995). As such, psychological need satisfaction proposed in the SDT may not yield the same impact on positive educational outcomes as found in Western contexts (Iyenger& De Voe; Tseng, 2004). The results, however, did not found it be true. On the contrary it strongly supported the position of SDT. The results supported our hypothesis that the autonomy supportive learning climate, as well as sense of personal choice and self-awareness will foster the satisfaction of the three basic needs, i.e., autonomy, competence, and relatedness.

When it came to predicting students study engagement the results partially supported our hypothesis.Among the three basic psychological needs, only the need

for competence contributed significantly to students' study engagement. The finding is consistent with previous research that suggested competence is related to positive student outcomes and well-being (Jang et al., 2009; Skinner & Chi, 2012).

The SDT posits that the basic psychological needs function as the requisite nutriment for students' active engagement and positive school functioning(Jang et al., 2009), and as the essential ingredient for optimal learning and well-being (Zhou et al., 2009). That is, people whose psychological needs are satisfied will be psychologically healthier and more effective in learning contexts regardless of their cultures. Because of the claim that autonomy is insensitive to culture differences,the SDT received criticism, where it is argued that eastern culture may not value autonomy as western does (Zhou et al., 2009). Though this seems to hold true in this study as well (as neither autonomy nor relatedness need made any significant contributions to students study engagement) however, students' perceptions of autonomy-supportive learning climate enhanced their engagement. This is consistent with previous researches where autonomy-support predicted increase in perceived competence, autonomous self-regulation and enjoyment (Black & Deci, 2000). Also, Roth, Assor, Niemiec, Deci, & Ryan, (2009) found that autonomy-support predicts choice and academic engagement.

The contributions of other variables on study engagement, namely, choice and self-awareness were positive though not significant. As posited by SDT, choice can be either motivating or otherwise. It can promote engagement when it is offered in a way that meets students' needs. For instance, "choice is motivating when the options are relevant to the students' interests and goals (autonomy support), are not too numerous or complex (competence support), and are congruent with the values of the students' culture (relatedness support)" (Katz & Assor, 2007).

CONCLUSION

This study was mainly planned to address the issue of students' motivation and engagement and how they are facilitated in the context of an Islamic University in Malaysia. The Self-Determination Theory, which proposes that humans naturally have innate needs, which when satisfied, result in optimal functioning and positive outcomes, guided this research. The findings provided empirical validity to the SDT by showing that autonomy supportive learning climate and individual's sense of choice in life as well as being self-aware of thoughts and feelings contributed to the satisfaction of three basic needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Results also provided strong support for the effects of competence and learning climate (autonomy support) on study engagement. Future research mayexamine how the SDT proposition predicts students' academic performance while controlling for factors such as intelligence and aptitude.

REFERENCES

Benware, C. A., & Deci, E. L. (1984). Quality of Learning With an Active Versus Passive Motivational Set. *American Educational Research Journal*, *21*(4), 755–765.

Black, A. E., & Deci, E. L. (2000). The Effects of Instructors ' Autonomy Support and Students ' Autonomous Motivation on Learning Organic Chemistry : A Self-Determination Theory Perspective. *Science Education*, *84*(6), 740–756.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The "What" and "Why" of Goal Pursuits: Human Needs and the Self-Determination of Behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, *11*(4), 227–268.

Fortier, M. S., Vallerand, R. J., & Guay, F. (1995). Academic Motivation and School Performance: Toward a Structural Model. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *20*(3), 257–274.

Furrer, C., & Skinner, E. (2003). Sense of relatedness as a factor in children's academic engagement and performance. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *95*(1), 148–162. doi:10.1037/0022-0663.95.1.148

Gagne, M., & Deci, E. L. (2005). Self-determination theory and work motivation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *26*(4), 331–362.

Guay, F., Boggiano, A. K., & Vallerand, R. J. (2001). Autonomy Support , Intrinsic Motivation , and Perceived Competence : Conceptual and Empirical Linkages. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *27*(6), 643–650.

Hardre, P. L., & Reeve, J. (2003). A motivational model of rural students' intentions to persist in, versus drop out of, high school. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *95*(2), 347–356. doi:10.1037/0022-0663.95.2.347

Hardré, P. L., Chen, C.-H., Huang, S.-H., Chiang, C.-T., Jen, F.-L., & Warden, L. (2006). Factors Affecting High School Students' Academic Motivation in Taiwan. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, *26*(2), 189–207.

Jang, H., Reeve, J., & Deci, E. L. (2010). Engaging students in learning activities: It is not autonomy support or structure but autonomy support and structure. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *102*(3), 588–600. doi:10.1037/a0019682

Jang, H., Reeve, J., Ryan, R. M., & Kim, A. (2009). Can self-determination theory explain what underlies the productive, satisfying learning experiences of collectivistically oriented Korean students? *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *101*(3), 644–661.

Katz, I., & Assor, A. (2007). When Choice Motivates and When It Does Not. *Educational Psychology Review*, *19*(4), 429–442.

Klassen, R. M., Perry, N. E., & Frenzel, A. C. (2012). Teachers' relatedness with students: An underemphasized component of teachers' basic psychological needs. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *104*(1), 150–165.

Legault, L., Green-Demers, I., & Pelletier, L. (2006). Why Do High School Students Lack Motivation in the Classroom? Toward an Understanding of Academic Amotivation and the Role of Social Support. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *98*(3), 567–582.

Niemiec, C. P., Lynch, M. F., Vansteenkiste, M., Bernstein, J., Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2006). The antecedents and consequences of autonomous self-regulation

for college: a self-determination theory perspective on socialization. *Journal of adolescence*, *29*(5), 761–75.

Niemiec, C. P., & Ryan, richard m. (2009). Autonomy, competence, and relatedness in the classroom: Applying self-determination theory to educational practice. *Theory and Research in Education*, *7*(2), 133–144. doi:10.1177/1477878509104318

Roth, G., Assor, A., Niemiec, C. P., Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2009). The emotional and academic consequences of parental conditional regard: comparing conditional positive regard, conditional negative regard, and autonomy support as parenting practices. *Developmental psychology*, *45*(4), 1119–42. doi:10.1037/a0015272

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations: Classic Definitions and New Directions. *Contemporary educational psychology*, *25*(1), 54–67.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2011). A Self-Determination Theory Perspective on Social, Institutional, Cultural, and Economic Supports for Autonomy and Their Importance forWell-Being. In V. I. Chirkov, R. M. Ryan, & K. M. Sheldon (Eds.), *Human Autonomy in Cross-Cultural Context, Cross-Cultural Advancements in Positive Psychology* (Vol. 1, pp. 45–64). Dordrecht: Springer Netherlands.

Skinner, E. a., & Chi, U. (2012). Intrinsic Motivation and Engagement as "Active Ingredients" in Garden-Based Education: Examining Models and Measures Derived From Self-Determination Theory. *The Journal of Environmental Education*, *43*(1), 16–36. doi:10.1080/00958964.2011.596856

Weinstein, N., & Ryan, R. M. (2011). A self-determination theory approach to understanding stress incursion and responses. *Stress and Health*, *27*(1), 4–17.

Zhou, M., Ma, W. J., & Deci, E. L. (2009). The importance of autonomy for rural Chinese children's motivation for learning. *Learning and Individual Differences*, *19*(4), 492–498.

DISTRIBUTED LEADER DEVELOPMENT AND THE MORAL IMPERATIVE FOR COMMUNAL ACTION REFLECTION LEARNING

Asiyath Mohamed Didi
Terence J Sullivan
Takeyuki Ueyama

Sultan HassanalBolkiah Institute of Education
University Brunei Darussalam

ABSTRACT

School leaders, like all people, continually change as a fact of life, as a result of their personal and professional experiences. The purpose of this research was to explore the process of workplace school leader learning through professional development, its pre-requisites, and what continues to drive school leaders to want to learn. The ultimate aim was to develop and implement a sustained effective strategy for workplace leader development. A qualitative phenomenographic approach was used to illicit personal workplace experiences of growth as a leader from 15 school leader informants. The results of the study showed that leaders and followers in leadership relationships change when they; 1) visualise their learning and the learning of others within their relationships; 2) discern variations in multiple aspects of experiences; 3) connect existing knowledge with new knowledge; 4) accept and share responsibility for behaviour as a group; and 5) become communally committed to improvement as a group moral imperative. Learning theories such as action reflection learning approaches, variation theory and complex theory were enhanced by understanding leadership as a group phenomenon and so taking a community of practice perspective whereby the motivation for being a leader emerges from the community as a moral imperative to create benefits for all. This conceptualisation forced the researcher to reconceptualise the process as interactive reflective learning focused directly on expanding distributed leadership throughout organisations functioning as learning communities.

Keywords*: distributive leader development, professional learning communities, variation theory, action reflection learning*

INTRODUCTION

Like everything else existing in the ecosystem school leaders and schools are also bound to change through their personal and professional experiences and learning. When the school leaders evolve, change in the organisation also becomes inevitable. Every single factor in the school is bound to evolve. To enhance these changes school members need to work together as a learning community whereby each and every

factor benefits from each other. Kelly and Papaefthimiou(1998) state that the inter-relationships of elements within systems cause multiple chains of dependencies and this causes change. The authors say that though these changes are not very obvious at the beginning, slowly, such changes become significant as stakeholders begin to see newlyemerging patterns. This is because at the beginning, the changes are simultaneously taking place at micro-organisational levels and eventually reach thresholds where they break through to become observable macro-organisational dynamics within the evolutionary process of leader development and community change.

Leadership learning at all levels can be improved and the learners will gain more benefits from what they learn if there is a better understanding of the concept, how people learn through reflection and interaction. Hence, the study aims to gain a deeper understanding of the concept of workplace school leader learning through a particular hybrid on-campus/online/in workplace action reflection learning professional development programme. More specifically, the intention is to find the effective pre-requisites of professional development for school leaders and the on-going factors that influence school leader participants in such programmes to want to learn more. By drawing conclusions about these pre-requisites and on-going factors, the ultimate focus is to develop an effective career-long lifelong strategy for school leaders to continue to develop and change through sustaining the residual effects of their professional development programme in theirschool workplaces.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Experiential Learning in Continuing Professional Development

Learning is an individual and group process (Kolb, Boyatzis, & Mainemelis, 1999) whereby each and every individual deploys their own learning strategies to achieve desired learning goals. Logically, individuals' personal learning strategies need to be considered in professional development programmes to maximise effectiveness(Tulbure, 2011). Though the importance of learner-centred teaching is now valued and discussed widely, still latest professional development practices do notinclude the opportunity for learner participants to choose learning techniques which they think would fit their learning best. In many instances, learners are still expected to listen and learn what they are taught. However, more professional development programmes are strongly encouraging participants to reach full potential and sustaineffective productive outcomes.

Wright (2009) states that when programmes are developed based on content, more concern is given to improve the content. As a result, programme developers lose the opportunity to improve the learner's learning process (ibid). The researcher highlights the importance for professional development programme designers and facilitators of taking cognizance of the ultimate aim of professional development programmes which is to transform the participant, not necessarily the content of the programme.

When considering the professional development of school leaders it also must be kept in mind that they are adult learners with years of experience and learning. Though they may not have been using their learning experiences to get the maximum benefit from past experiences, they still value previously gained knowledge, and hence want to apply their previous experiences to the new learning. Knowles (1980) and Corley (2008) believe that they reject much of the new knowledge delivered to them via passive lectures because they are not afforded the opportunity to clarify these new variations to their mind-sets.

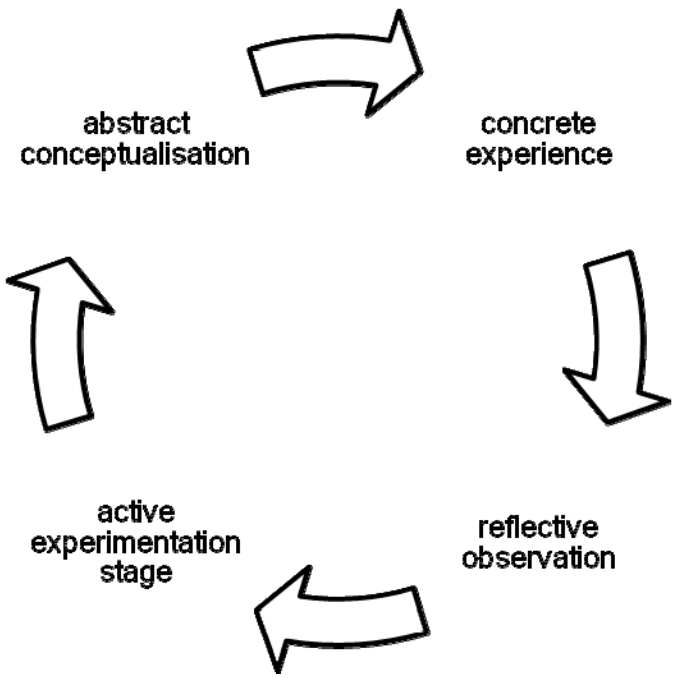


Figure 3: The four stage cycle experiential learning
Source: (Kolb, 1984, p.41)

In many cases, it is important for the learners to use the experiences they have collected over the years to compare and discern variations in the presented conceptualisations and so learn. When learners combine their existing knowledge and experience with new knowledge they begin to understand variations and continua within their conceptual frameworks. Kolb (1984, p. 41) defines experiential learning as "the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience. Knowledge results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience." Experiential learning is a four staged cycle which involves; 1) concrete experience; 2) reflective observation; 3) abstract conceptualisation and 4) transforming experience (ibid). According to this theory, concrete experience is related more to kinetic and emotional attributes of the learners rather than cognition.

In professional development programmes, it is more related to what the learners do such as workshops, reading, online learning and also learning experiences from workplace. Reflective observation is when the learners begin to combine cognition with their physical and emotional experiences to analyse and make judgements about the things happening around them. In abstract conceptualisation, the learners focus on the experience cognitively to create comparisons between specific and general and previous and new concepts about that experience. The learners are then able to build conclusions based on the theories they have created. In the stage of active experimentation, the learners apply what they learned and further test the validity and reliability of their abstract conceptualisations. It is these decisions about the effectiveness of the application of their conceptualisations that enables the learners to make resolutions about further mind-sets and behaviours and so change as people.

School leaders work in volatile environments. Each and every day they confront new situations which require solving to the satisfaction of many stakeholders. Professional development programmes whose purpose is to enable school leaders to deal with such expectations effectively, need to focus on teaching them to transform these confrontational problem solving situations into learning situations. School leaders need to understand that maximum learning occurs in the workplace when organisational members can convert all situations into learning situations (McNair, 1994).

This added dimension of learning transforms experiences from reactive to proactive and creates pathways for innovative reform and improvement of situations and people, including the school leader as instigator of change. In workplace learning, school leaders and their communities learn from each other and every situation. Such dynamics enable a learning community to emerge around the organisational members.

As stated by Kayes, Kayes, & Kolb (2005) some people learn by carefully watching other people and reflecting on their actions while others want to experience situations themselves. Whatever method the learners prefer to use, they must be given opportunities to learn using experience. Cercone (2008) says that teaching adults should be very much based on their experiences to help them connect to their previous experiences. This will allow them to base further actions on the new knowledge. Experiential learning has 3 major categories; 1) knowledge of concepts, facts, information and experience; 2) prior knowledge applied to current, on-going events; and 3) reflection with thoughtful analysis (Cercone, 2008).

Learning via the understanding of the variations and continua of reflected previous experiences and current new experiences and that is strengthened and sustained through decision making about future action in the face of similar experiences enables learners to develop and change personally and professionally. Jordi, (2011) says that to embody experiential learning, learners need to see learning as a process. To learn through experience learners do not have to be always in the

workplace because they can use past experiences or simulated situations. According to Larson (2004), many researchers believe that real life can be simulated in formal classes through various instruments, unstructured group dynamics, instrumented group dynamics, video feedback and computer segmented feedback. The researcher says that for maximum learning to occur naturally the learning situations have to be made as authentic as possible.

Learning as discernment of a change in the way we perceive some aspect of our world

Learning is defined by many researchers as change. Changes, both personal and professional occur through learning. Learning is a permanent change in the intellect and behaviour of a person which can be either observable or not to themselves and others(Burns, 1995). Schunk(2012) explains learning as change in behaviour and explains it using three factors, which are; 1) learning involves change; 2) learning endures over time; 3) learning occurs through experiences. He says that people are considered to be learning when they are capable of doing something in a different manner and this change in the behaviour must be sustainable. Further, he says that environment plays a vital role in learning and this is the reason why experience plays a major role in the individual learning process.

Learning is usually focused on learning about a particular concept or an object and related concepts or objects and if learning occurs, there will be a change in the perception of that concept or object based on the new knowledge gained through learning(Marton & Booth, 1997). The more learners get to discuss and talk about the new knowledge based on their existing experiences the stronger the learning outcomes become. Ling &Marton(2012) point out that one of the basic concepts of variation as a learning theory is that learning is always targeted to something (phenomenon, object, skill or certain aspect of reality) and the learners must go through a change in the way they see that "something". Marton and Pang (2006) describe variation theory as a process of discrimination and discernment. While learning about a particular object the learners need to focus on a particular feature of an object or a situation and discern that particular feature. In this way, the learner experiences a difference between certain aspects of the object or the situation.

The researchers (Marton and Pang, 2006), further explain this learning situation with the example of a short sited girl. They say that in order to separate what she sees and her short sightedness she has to wear a glass. When she sees words with her glasses and without glasses she becomes aware of the degree of her short sightedness. Through this learning process, she learns that wearing glasses is an improvement. To conclude this theory about learning the researchers say that 4 conditions are necessary for perceptual learning; 1) contrast – cannot discern one aspect without simultaneous experience of a mutually exclusive aspect; (2) separation – a dimension of variation cannot be discerned without other dimensions varying at a different rate, (3) generalisation – for the aspects of one dimension to be discerned from the other dimension, certain aspects of dimension one must stay invariant while aspects of the

other dimension vary, and (4) fusion – the two dimensions also must vary simultaneously in order to experience the simultaneity of the two dimensions.

Learning is the mastering of knowledge about a topic or an object and so developing a deeper and new perception of that topic or object and aligning future behaviours according to their understanding of the new aspects. People need to go through a hierarchy of levels before they are able to master knowledge. According to Bloom's taxonomy learning takes place in 6 levels**Error! Reference source not found.** as in figure 2 described by Athanassiou, McNett, & Harvey (2003)

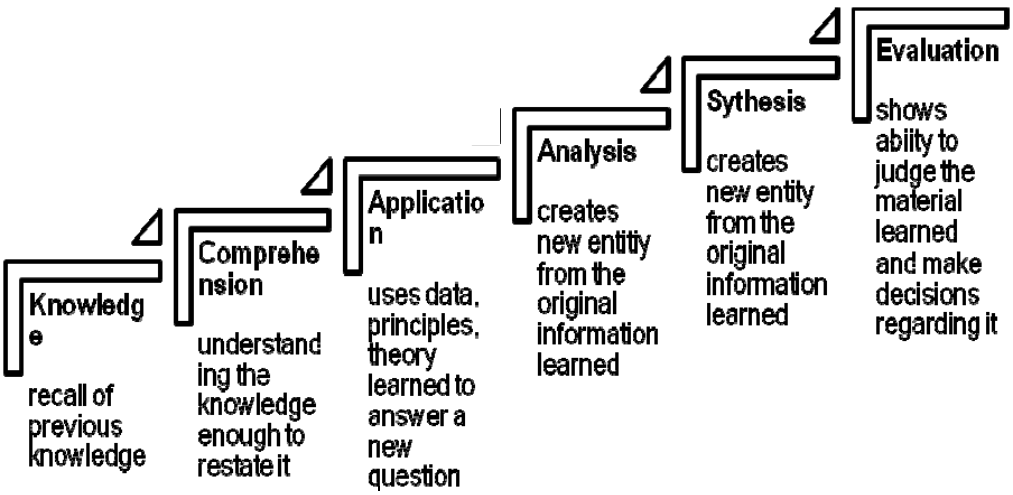


Figure 4: The levels and their relationships of Bloom's Taxonomy
Adapted from Athanassiou, McNett and Harvey (2003, p.536)

Saljo(1979) has described 6 hierarchically related conceptions of learning that are related to Bloom's 6 taxonomy levels. They are: (1) the development of one's knowledge, (2) the ability to memorize and produce it again, (3) the ability to apply and utilize during practice, (4) understanding the meaning of what is learned, (5) understanding the reality and changing the previous concepts of it, and (6) changing as a person. According to Lin (2011) who has explained these level of learning, the first 3 levels increases one's knowledge and are related to the quantitative views of learning as during these 3 stages the emphasis is more given on what is learned rather than aspects of learning as these level are more based on memorising and copying accurate information. The researcher explains these first three stages as the reproductive conceptions. The next three conceptions are more towards the qualitative perspectives of learning where the learners are more concerned about the ways of learning the information. During these 3 stages the learner becomes more actively involved in learning and tries to find meaning and this leads the learner to transform his or her views about the knowledge leading to the last 3 stages which influence all aspects of a person and so induces change as a person(Lin, 2011).

Learning through Action Reflection Learning

Everyone reflects and so uses reflective learning as a learning strategy to a certain extent in their daily life. However, to use the strategy to achieve its maximum benefit, one needs to know how to use it effectively. Reflection can be used to understand ourselves and others and this is one reason why reflective learning isan important part of a school leader's role.

Dewey (1933) defined self-reflective learning as "active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief" (p.9). According to Boyd and Fales(1983), reflective learning is "the process of internally examining and exploring an issue of concern, triggered by an experience, which creates and clarifies meaning in terms of self, and which results in a changed conceptual perspective" (p.100).

Self-reflective learning is a process through which learners take the responsibility of their own learning. Through self-reflection learners are able to understand their own learning better and so to cater to their learning needs. This way learning becomes more meaningful and useful to the learners. Self-reflection that is used to understand one's own learning strategies embodies what is conceived as "learning about learning" or meta-learning. Such learning is a higher order of learning as it is continually developing the potential to learn more effectively and so learn more. Reflective learning is an important factor needed to create deeper learning (Hedberg2009).

Self-reflection is actually a part of all learning processes which help learners help themselves. Reflection is a key factor needed for educational programmes to ensure the effective influence on the learners' skills, values, attitudes and behaviours (Branch Jr, 2010), through which they are able to compare their new learning with these factors and hence bring necessary changes. During the learning process, learners reflect on their learning in order to understand what is required of them to complete a certain task, to determine the type and level of learning required, and to evaluate whether or not their learning strategies are successful (Shin, 1998)

For people to learn new concepts it is very important for them to understand the concepts already in their mind. Such existing concepts may be well defined or simply a mass of vaguely related fragments of a number of concept. Jordi (2011) says that reflective learning can help the learners to connect these fragmented aspects of their experiences and so create an integrated understanding of their concepts and practices. Action reflection learninghelp individuals learn to; work together, handle conflicts or crises and face challenges(Rimanoczy& Turner, 2008).

Action learning integrates a learner's previously held conceptualisations with new experiences to form new understanding and to enable the learner to apply that new understanding in the new preferred way (Plack, Driscoll, Marquez, & Greenberg

2010). “The action-reflection-learning process supports leaders to continually develop new mind-sets, attitudes and behaviours and enables them to face new challenges. It is a dynamic learning methodology that learners can adopt to align with their developing abilities to discern new insights” (Sullivan, 2011).

Collaborative action reflection learning within the leadership relationship

Whether, through purposeful learning or not everything in the environment is bound to change with time. Anything in the environment, including individual people and organisations as a whole develop in the course of time, maintain or brings changes itself according the situations faces due to the conditions in the environment (Laszlo and Krippner(1998). Complexity theory revels that people are always in a dynamic reaction with their environment and are part of the process which creates the environment through the interaction with the factors in it (Keene, 2000). Interaction between both the separate domains in a system and the community related to the system create changes in each other as changes in one domain is bound to change the other (Jenlink, Reigeluth, Carr, & Nelson, 1998). In an educational organisation these domains could be parents, employers, social service agencies, religious organisation. Changes in one of these domains or stakeholders also result in changing the system as a whole. Due this reason it is always beneficial to work as a group or a community, so that all can learn and develop together.

Collaborative learning influences the performance of the learners (Yazici, 2005), as it involves the sharing of individual action reflection learning experiences and hence provides the opportunity for the learners to help each other. When professional educators from different disciplines work together, collaborative learning can enable a wider holistic perspective of various workplace experiences and routines to emerge. This concept of collaborative learning can be applied to both professional learning programmes and workplace learning. As school leaders work together as a group there is so much to learn from each other. If leaders can create a learning community in the school it helps people to use one another’s resources and strengths as a learning resource for each other. This makes learning more meaningful for everyone and creates opportunities for educational specialists to understand the full spectrum of their workplace. Everyone learns totake responsibility, both in their own professional development and the development of the organisation as a whole.

In a community of practice, teaching and learning moves more towards interactive reflective learning where people learn throughgroup interactions. Through discussion singular incidents can be learning experiences for other members. Winch & Ingram (2004) point out that when learners do not use their experiences then they “are attempting to function in a complex, ambiguous, uncertain and unpredictable real world work, doubting in their own experience thoughts and perspectives, looking for the expert to solve their unique challenge rather than realising that the resources and development they need can only be found in the midst of the experience itself” (p. 232).

When interactive activities such as discussions among the learning community allow learners to learn from each other's experiences, each individual will not have to wait to experience the same situations others faced in order to learn about similar situations.These interactions create a bond of support within thelearning community and hence buildtrust between members. This mode of learning both in professional development programmes and workplace learning creates life-long learners. Tafuri(1999) suggests that in the process of teaching and learning, promoting co-operation, solidarity and mutual help between students, and learning through research are very important.

When school leaders learn through collaborative interactive reflective learning the leadership dynamics tend to become distributed. Distributed leadership occurs when the actual leadership dynamics are delegated and adopted by other community members. Harris (2008) states that distributed leadership does not mean that everybody in the organisation will be leading the place simultaneously but it is more about the way potential leadership qualities in others are facilitated, orchestrated and supported. School leaders distribute their leadership dynamics as they developthe school as a related system and this occurs duringcollaborative interactive learning in both professional development programmes and workplace learning.

Though collaborative interactive reflective learning is essential and beneficial to school leaders to develop, there are difficulties they face to practice these strategies in the schools. Harris(2008) says that there are three major barriers to ensure distributed leadership and building and sustaining learning communities in schools. They are: 1) distance: the physical space and distance becomes an issue for the people to meet and solve problems; 2) culture: moving away from cultural method of "top down" leadership becomes a problem; and 3) structure: finding ways to remove organisational structures that restrict organisational learning become a challenge.

RESEARCH METHOD

Informants for the study were selected through purposeful sampling as the research needed participants who have had the experience related to the phenomenon to be studied. A total of 15 informants were selected for the purpose of the study. They are 15 candidates from Masters of Educational leadership and School Improvement at the Universiti Brunei Darussalam. Six of them finished the course in the year 2011 and the other 9 finished in the year 2012. The data for the study were collected through open ended discussions and document analysis. The length of discussions varied between 1 to 2 hours.

To guide the discussions a list of possible themes related to the study were formed. The researcher did not aim to restrict the discussions by any means though strategies such as the use of various gestures and the prompting of ideas were used to make the discussions more rich and productive. To ensure a rich source of data, various documents from the informants during the learning programme were

analysed. These included project papers, critical writings or the diary notes they made during various parts of the programme.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

When school leaders join a professional development programme, whether short term or long term, they join with lots of expectations influenced by external and internal factors. The study shows that internal factors which influence the learners are; desire to overcome the short comings in their knowledge and behaviour as a school leader and so close the gap of their feelings of a lack of confidence as a leader. When people start working in their professional field they face various situation. During the process of solving these situations they feel that they do not have enough knowledge related to the field. Also these feelings of lack of knowledge in themselves and not being able to deal with the situations positively makes them feel less confident. These factors push the learners towards joining professional development programmes to improve themselves to be better people.

According to the study external factors include the desire to live up to the expectations of other people within their leadership relationships. These expectations include parents wanting their children to reach a certain level of education and hence they force their children to go for higher education. Also when people start working in a particular job, example like principal, people start having high expectations from them and expect them to be perfect in all ways. To reach this perfection people are forced to join learning programmes.

The study also shows that creating a learning community (learning group) in the work place or among the participants of the learning programme and its facilitators helps the learners to learn new knowledge. This paves way for the learners to collaborate in constructive discussions with both their colleagues and the facilitators of the programme. When discussions take place in the learning community the learners are able to get various perspectives of one concept they learn. This helps the learners to see learning in multiple perspectives which helps them to discern variations and so understand the concepts better. When they see the learning concepts in multiple perspectives they change personally and professionally.

The results suggest that it is essential to implement 5 strategies in a workplace professional development programme to ensure change in the learners. These participant learner strategies include; 1) visualising their learning and the learning of others within their relationships; 2) discerning variations in multiple aspects of experiences; 3) defragmenting knowledge; 4) accepting and sharing responsibility for behaviour as a group; and 5) becoming communally committed to improvement as a group moral imperative. These results are most closely related to the study of Marton& Booth, (1997) and Robertson & Lesley, (2006).

The results also suggests that, for the participants to understand their needs and goals and to develop strategies for achieving their goals, communal action reflection

learning is an important aspect to be included in learning programmes. The results suggest that action reflection learning can be further extended through communal action reflection learning to a concept of interactive reflective learning which occurs when learners have the opportunity to create a learning community among their colleagues.

Collaborative interactive reflective learning in leadership relationships becomes an effective, high potential learning strategy and culture in learning programmes and workplace learning. In a learning community, the learners learn as a group and share their experiences and knowledge as group.

Visualise their learning and the learning of others within their relationships

School leaders as professionals with years of experience in the field do not learn without being actively confronted by new experiences which actively challenge their previously held beliefs. In such learning situations, they need to go through a process of deep learning in order to re-align new and old experiences.

Becoming aware of different points of view and so visualising experiences differently is more easily achieved when school leaders have the opportunity to discuss what they learn in their learning community. The results of the study show that there are 3 learning strategies to be included in professional development programmes to allow the learners to visualise and re-align their learning with others; 1) experience, 2) discussion and 3) reflection.

Multiple aspects of learning

Natural learning occurs when learners learn through authentic learning situations Larson (2004). For significant learning to occur, people need experience multiple aspects of the learning object. For the learners to change personally and professionally they need to see different aspects of the knowledge they learn. Learning occurs when a phenomenon occurs in a new way or in different ways (Ling &Marton, 2012; Marton and Pang, 2006; Booth, 2008). The results of the study suggest that 1) intervention; 2) relaxed mind when learning; 3) iteration and creativity; and 4) communication and discussion; need to be included in learning programmes to enhance the learners to see various aspects of what they learn.

Defragmentation of knowledge

Many school leaders have a holistic conceptualisation of what it means to be a school leader that has been developed through years of experience, but it has been accumulated as fragments of knowledge gained from a range of sources. Most of these concepts cannot be effectively used by the leaders as they are often referring to specific experiences rather than connected through a continuum of ongoing and evolving events. This study shows that in order to use this knowledge the leaders

need to defragment it and connect the scattered concepts in an alignment with the changing flow of their personal and professional experiences.

Through action reflection learning, the leader can focus on the connections and their evolving conceptualisations and so align and defragment their personal and professional view thus making a greater more holistic sense of what it means to be a leader. Professional development must give the learners opportunities to relate the existing knowledge to new knowledge and that this contributes to the learners' growth(Cercone, 2008). According to the results of the study; 1) integrating theory and practice; 2) refining the knowledge in mind and 3) creating opportunities for clarification (asking questions); need to be included in professional development programmes to enable a learner to connect different conceptual and experiential aspects into a holistic global viewpoint.

Accept and share responsibility for own behaviour

For people to change the way they have been doing things for years they need to understand and accept the short comings in their own behaviour. If they do not realise this, they will not believe that they have any need to change their actions and will most probably repeat the same mistakes over again. The results of the study suggest that for the leaders to take responsibility for their behaviour they need to relate their actions to professionally accepted theories that relate to their particular actions. If experience is not actively related to professionally acceptable best practice learning theories, the experience as a learning experience is overlooked and missed(Schunk, 2012). This study suggests that activities such as; 1) responsibility of own learning (self-reflection); 2) feedback; 3) understanding leadership roles; 4) interaction (among the members in the learning community; and 5) being conscious about one's context are effective strategies to be included in a learning programme in order to ensure that the learners are aware of alternative views and can transform their understanding and align their actions with new experiences and theories.

Become communally committed to improvement as a group moral imperative

To gain the maximum input from the learners of a professional development programme, they need to work as group. The results of the study suggest that when a learning group acts as a Learning Community they improve as a group and so that they learn and change together. When the learners are communally committed towards their improvement they create a strong bond of commitment between them and this allows them to reflect on each other’s experience, talk about events around them, build their trust for each other and learn and grow together. The study suggests that 1) learning through a Learning Community and 2) giving learners opportunities to be conscious about their surroundings, ensures communal learning.

CONCLUSION

Factors which drive many school leaders towards further continuing professional development is mainly their desire to achieve academic and career excellence. This achievement of excellence may be envisaged as the need to learn better strategies for dealing with their personal and professional challenges in life such as overcoming self-weaknesses and building confidence. Other external factors include satisfying the need to escape the daily problems of their personal and professional lives and to meet the expectations of other personal and professionally significant people in their lives.

When people learn something new the way they see the world or aspects of the world changes. When school leaders learn in a learning community through interactive reflective learning, they become aware of an expanded understanding of what being a leader means to them. Leadership does not exist anymore as an authoritative relationship between leaders and subordinates, but more towards a collaborative relationship where everyone takes equal responsibility for the development of themselves and the system.

Continual collaborative interactive learning about leadership concepts in the school community tends to distribute the leadership dynamics across the community. Thoughdistributed leadership is often understood as organising and delegating work, if we look at distributed leadership from a learning point of view, then it can be described as an outcome of collaborative interactive reflective learning about the dynamics of leadership situations.

Leaning and adopting new and more effective ways of thinking and behaviour as it occurs in leadership situations eventually changes how people treat each other as leaders and followers by building relationships in which all members are interacting as leaders. When the relationship changes people feel obliged to help each other and so it helps in sustaining the learning community in a caring leadership way. This changes the school leaders and community members, both personally and professionally, because the very nature of the leader relationship has been altered. Through sharing learning and behaviour there are more leaders in the leader relationship.

Though the outcome of learning is supposed to be change, both personal and professional, it can happen only when the professional learning programme can provide the learner with enough differentiating opportunities to discern and learn new viewpoints and ways of acting in order to achieve desired personal and professional goals. Visualising one's learning and the learning of others within a personal and professional relationship; discerning variations in multiple aspects of experiences; connecting existing knowledge with new knowledge; accepting and sharing responsibility for behaviour as a group; and becoming communally committed to improvement as a group moral imperative are all aspects of a deep communal

interactive reflective learning dynamic that when focused on communal leadership dynamics, will influence a distributed leadership dynamic to permeate a school learning community.

REFERENCES

Athanassiou, N., McNett, J., & Harvey, C. (2003). Critical thinking in the management classroom: Bloom's Taxonomy as a learning tool. Journal of Management Education, 533-555.

Booth, S. (2008). Researching learning in networking learning - phenomenography and variation theory as empirical and theoretical approaches. Proceedings of the 6th International Conference on National Learning, (pp. 450-455). Halkidiki.

Boyd, E., &Fales, A. (1983). Reflective learning: key to learning from experience. Journal of Humanistic Psychology, 22, 99-117.

Branch Jr, W. (2010). The road to professionalism: reflected practice and reflective learning. Patient Education and Counselling, 80(3), 327-332.

Burns, R. (1995). The adult learner at work. Sydney: Business and Professional Publishing.

Cercone, K. (2008). Characteristics of adult learners with implication from online learning design. AACE Journal, 16, 137-159.

Corley, M. A. (2008). Professional development fact sheet No 5: adult learning theories. California: American Institute for Research.

Dewey, J. (1933). How we think: a restatement of the relation of reflective thinking to the education process. Boston, MA: D.C: Health & Co., Publishers.

Harris, A. (2008). Distributed leadership: according to the evidence. Journal of educational administration, 46(2), 172-188.

Hedberg, P. R. (2009). Learning through reflective classroom practice: applications to educate the reflective manager. Journal of Management Education, 33(1), 10-36.

Jenlink, P., Reigeluth, C., Carr, A., & Nelson, L. M. (1998). Guidelines for facilitating systemic change in schools districts. System research and behavioural science, 217-233.

Jordi, R. (2011). Reframing the concept of reflection: consciousness, experimental learning, and reflective learning practices. Adult Education quarterly, 61, 181-197.

Kayes, A., Kayes, C., & Kolb, D. (2005). Experiential learning in teams. Simulation Gaming, 36(3), 330-364.

Keene, A. (2000). Complexity theory: the changing role of leadership. Industrial and Commercial Training, 32(1), 15-18.

Kelly, E. M., &Papaefthimiou, M.-C. (1998). Co-evolving of diverse elements interacting within a social ecosystem. Retrieved March 7, 2012, from http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.24.417&rep=rep1&type=pdf

Knowles, M. S. (1980). The modern practice of adult education: From pedagogy to andragogy. Chicago: Follett Publishing Company.

Kolb, D. (1984). Experiential learning: Experience as a source of learning and development. Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Kolb, D., Boyatzis, R., &Mainemelis, C. (1999, August 31). Experiential learning theory: previous research and new directions. Retrieved October 5, 2011, from University of Minnesota Duluth: http://google.umn.edu/search?q=experimental+learning+theory&client=campus_duluth&proxystylesheet=campus_duluth&output=xml_no_dtd&sort=date%3AD%3AL%3Ad1&oe=UTF-8&ie=UTF-8&ud=1&exclude_apps=1&site=campus_duluth

Larson, H. H. (2004). Experiential learning as management development: theoretical perspectives and empirical illustrations. Advances in Developing Human Resources, 6, 486-503.

Laszlo, A., &Krippner, S. (1998). System theories: their origins, foundations, and development. In S. J. J, System theories and a priori aspects of perception (pp. 47-74). Amsterdam: Elsevier Science.

Lin, H.-M. (2011). A phenomenographic approach for exploring conceptions of learning marketing among undergraduate students. Business and Economics Research, 1, 1-12.

Ling, L. M., &Marton, F. (2012). Towards a science of the art of teaching: using variation theory as a guideline principle of pedagogical design. International Journal for lesson and Learning Studies, 1, 7-22.

Marton, F., & Booth, S. (1997). Learning and awareness. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Marton, F., & Pang, M. F. (2006). On some necessary conditions of learning. The journal of the learning sciences, 15, 193-220.

McNair, S. (1994). An adult higher education: a vision of a future. Education plus Training, 3-7.

Plack, M., Driscoll, M., Marquez, M., & Greenberg, L. (2010). Peer-facilitated virtual action learning: reflecting on critical incidents during a paediatric clerkship. Academic Paediatrics, 10, 146-152.

Rimanoczy, I., & Turner, E. (2008). Action reflection learning. California: Davies Black Publishing.

Robertson, J., & Lesley, M. (2006). Developing the person in the profession. Retrieved October 5, 2011, from NCSL: http://www.nationalcollege.org.uk/docinfo?id=17145&filename=developing-the-person-in-the-professional-full-report.pdf

Saljo, R. (1979). Learning in the learner's perspective: I, Some common sense conceptions (University of Gothenburg, Sweden: Institute of Education, University of Gothenburg.

Schunk, D. H. (2012). Learning theories; an educational perspective. Boston, MA: Pearson education Inc.

Shin, M. (1998). Promoting students' self-regulation ability: guidelines for instructional design. Educational Technology, 38(1), 38-43.

Sullivan, T. J. (2011). The design of leader development. 3rd International Conference on Education, Economy and Society, Analytics, held at Hotel Concorde La Fayette, Paris, France.

Tafuri, J. (1999). Learning together through research method. International Journal of Music Education, 33, 88-93.

Tulbure, C. (2011). Do different learning styles require differentiated teaching strategies? Procedia Social and Behavioural Sciences, 11, 155-159.
Winch, A., & Ingram, H. (2004). Activating learning through the lifetime navigator: a tool for reflection. International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 16(4), 231-236.
Wright, A. W. (2009). Reframing professional development through understanding professional learning. Review of educational research, 79(2), 702-793.
Yazici, H. J. (2005). A study of collaborative learning style and team learning performance. Education + Training, 47(3), 216-229

POSITIVE REINFORCEMENTS AS EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP SKILLS: USING NEGATIONS IN CLASSROOM INTERACTIONS

Mazlin Azizan

Albukhary International University, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

The role of positive reinforcements in educational contexts is undeniably crucial in any academic institution. It is perceived to have a significant role in shaping a promising classroom scenario that will help create positive outcomes in both academic and disciplinary purposes. In this paper, discourse analysis (DA) is used to enfold this pedagogical issue at the tertiary level. Pregnant with contexts, DA could provide vital information pertaining to the pedagogical approach used by instructors; the social positions of the people involved in a particular classroom event, and the roles that the instructors play in it. In this study, primary focus was given to teacher talk particularly the use of negations during classroom interactions. The functions of negations observed were then examined from discourse analysis point of view. After analysing the transcripts from the classroom observations, the findings suggest that the authoritative role of an instructor is pertinent towards actualising the positive reinforcements intended. The meaning of negations used was also found to be much more complex than normally perceived, and what is actually conveyed could be exclusively understood from the shared background knowledge that exists between the teachers and the students. These meanings could then be translated into some kind of positive reinforcements depending on the contexts of the speech events. This study will suggest ways in which negations could be properly used in achieving positive atmosphere in tertiary classrooms and most importantly, it implies that the leadership role of an instructor should not be taken lightly.

Keywords: *linguistics, discourse analysis, pragmatics, negations, classroom interactions, education, leadership*

INTRODUCTION

To state that discourse analysis has a very crucial role in the realisation of positive elements in negations could be regarded as a big claim. However, being highly contextualised, it is possible to claim that discourse analysis can be a very useful tool in portraying positive reinforcements in negations used in classroom interactions as what this study suggests. Why do we want to seek positive elements in everything that we do? Is it an irony to look for positive elements in negations as negations will always be regarded as the opposite of affirmatives or anything positive? However, is it just in the term and the literal meaning that suggests the negative notion but in actuality, are negations pregnant with meanings; both negative and positive according

to the contexts they are used? If yes, what kind of positive reinforcements do they imply? And what are the implications of them carrying these positive notions in the contexts of classroom interactions? How great is the instructor's role in determining the positive atmosphere in the classroom? These are among the salient features that will be explored in this paper which will be viewed from one aspect of educational leadership skills: positive reinforcements.

In the midst of the classroom observations and analysing the data, it was realised that we simply use language to convey messages and achieve purposes. But how we do what we do while interacting is so much of a mystery still. It appears as something innately prescribed to us and it just bogs down to how effective we can convey our messages and purposes in an interaction, which might differ from one individual to another. Imagine if our interactions could be structurally determined and performed accurately by us to achieve our specific goals. Imagine also if we could make people respond exactly how we want them to. The idea might be implausible as no human being is programmed as such. We are no robots. We are one unique being after all but undoubtedly complex at the same time.

The complexities of our daily interactions might be underestimated anyway. However, we can be programmed to follow certain guidelines that can be ingrained in us in order to function in the most effective way possible, which means it will vary according to one individual to another which might be rooted to many variables, either good or bad. In this case, we are relying very much on language itself which leads to the focus of this paper; a grammatical element which is looked at from systemic-functional linguistics (SFL) point of view introduced by Halliday (1985). This paper intends to enfold some pedagogical issues which relate to a specific language function, namely negations and explore the possible leadership role of the speakers involved in the multicultural classroom interactions.

Why Discourse Analysis?

Trappes-Lomax (2004), defined Discourse Analysis as "the study of language viewed communicatively and/or of communication viewed linguistically" and "it typically involves reference to concepts of language *in use*, language *above or beyond the sentence*, language as meaning *in interaction*, and language in *situational and cultural context*."(p.134). Discourse analysis is all about communication, either written or spoken, which also includes the behaviour or gestures involved, and looks closely at the social contexts where discursive analytic studies could be carried out. As it can also be used to interpret the meaning conveyed by the text, what actually entails in the meaning making process can be figured out.

Another definition was given by Hatch (1992), which also related DA to the social and linguistics aspects. According to her, "discourse analysis is the study of language of communication – spoken or written" and that "the system that emerges out of the data shows that communication is an interlocking social, cognitive, and linguistic enterprise" (p.1). She further explained discourse analysis as a study that

looks at how language is used to make it socially appropriate and linguistically accurate. This definition, in particular, fits the objective of the study which is trying to look at discourse analysis as a tool in enfolding linguistic issues that relate to what language is used for socially.

However, Jorgenson and Philips (2002), interestingly, argued that the definitions of discourse analysis are somewhat misrepresented by many linguists as they just provide a definition to it according to their liking. To them, "there is no clear consensus as to what discourses are or how to analyse them". They, however, proposed a "preliminary definition to discourse as a particular way of talking about and understanding the world (or an aspect of the world)"(p. 12), which obviously rings true with what the study generally tries to accomplish here.

On the other hand, discourse analysis, according to McCarthy (1991), is "the study of the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used" (p. 5). He also asserted that the relationship between discourse analysis and speech acts theory is concerned with how the language is used by the speaker, what the language is doing and also how the audience should react to it. This suggests that there is a close relationship between the study of discourse analysis and pragmatics. Therefore, it fits the picture here as the social contexts of the speech events in which the speech acts occur are the basis of this paper.

Classroom Interactions and Meaning

In this paper, discourse analysis is regarded as a tool for analysis that is based on the theoretically acceptable ground. It is therefore undeniable that as ideal as it may sound, the interpretive manner of the framework might lead towards a leakage of accuracy in meaning. It is however understandable that in such complexities of classroom interactions, the reliability of the individual interpretation of meaning conveyed in the speech events can be of an acceptable manner. In negotiating meaning, students may rely on the classroom dialogue to achieve some reasoning and to arrive to conclusions of understanding what have been communicated to them (Mercer, 2010).

According to Halliday and Hassan (1989), the language used in the course of interaction can carry both intra- and interpersonal purposes. Firstly, the purposes and intentions are carried by the means of verbal language that serve as an ideational function. Secondly, they can be regarded as an interpersonal function relating to the personal and social relationships between the interactors. But identifying the language functions might be a bit tricky.

However, Ray and Kumpulainen (2002) might have a solution to this. They asserted that identifying the functions of the language used in peer interaction can be done by looking at how the meaning is implied or what is suggested by the speaker. However, it may not be an accurate account as to what the speaker literally says.

Therefore, literal meanings might have to be analysed closely to determine the actual intended meaning. This only shows that the form used to deliver the content might not go hand in hand with the meaning. However, by looking at the form and content contextually, socially and culturally, we might be able to determine the actual meaning intended.

Looking from a deeper perspective, Halliday (2003), however, explained that the "architecture" of human language is rather complex and fuzzy because it is used as a social tool to function according to situations. He further added that language carries a semiotic system which leads towards meaning intended. He asserted that "to give a realistic estimate of the meaning potential of a language – of its semiotic power – we need to include not only the options in meaning that are available but also the relative contribution that each of these options makes." It is also therefore important for us to understand that "semiotic power is not simply a product of the number of choice of meaning that are available; their different quantitative profiles affect their semogenic potential – and therefore affect the meaning potential of the linguistic system as a whole"(p. 24). This means that however manifested, the language used has some intended or unintended meaning as it is not as clear-cut as we hope to accomplish whenever we use language to communicate with each other. However, it is undeniable that the real potential that language has in determining or achieving goals of speech depending on the speakers' credibility and the way it is used to actualize its manifestations can be regarded as positive.

It is, however, undoubtedly difficult when dealing with classroom interactions as the analysis involved can be very subjective in manner. Kumaravadivelu (1999) argued that, "to be relevant, any classroom discourse analysis must be based on an analysis of the potential mismatch between intention and interpretation - between the teacher's intention and the learner's interpretation, on the one hand, and between the teacher's and learner's intention and the observer's interpretation, on the other" (p. 458). He suggested that classroom discourse analysis should be looked at from multiple perspectives and to be regarded as more relevant, any mismatch between intention and interpretation must be put under multifaceted considerations. He also demonstrated how "classroom discourse analysis can facilitate an understanding of the degree to which classroom participants are able or unable to create and utilize learning opportunities in class" (p. 458) which means that discourse analysis carries enormous potential in assisting understanding in classroom learning and if further explored, DA can become a very useful tool in the positive executions of ideal classroom practice.

Negations and the Potential in Positive Intentions

Negations might seem simple to define or understand but it is actually not as simple as it sounds. People accept the common knowledge that negations involve the word 'not' or anything that might be interpreted as a negative stand against the affirmative. Blanco and Moldovan (2011), in their study, stated that negations "could be reduced to finding negative keywords, detect their scope using syntactic analysis and reverse

its polarity" (p. 582). However, they also further exclaimed that it is more complex than that. The challenging situations of trying to understand and interpret negations used and the meaning intended might be underestimated by many.

However, they also explained negations as to be simply seen as a process that turns a statement into the opposite of the other, which is the affirmative to the negative. According to them, "a negation is normally marked by words (e.g., *not*, *no*, *never*) or affixes (e.g., *-n't*, *un-*) and that "some other words that might be indicating the negative sense are *neither*, *nor* instead of *either*, *or* that are used in the affirmatives" (p.582). There are also words starting with *any-* (*anybody*, *anyone*, *anywhere*, etc.), that might trigger the negative connotations. Modal auxiliaries *dare* and *need* and the grammatical units such as *at all*, *much* and *till* are among those that can be used as a form of negation. When dealing with verbs, a negation usually needs an auxiliary by which when this happens, the auxiliary *do* is inserted instead (e.g., *I did the assignment* vs. *I didn't do the assignment*).

According to Mohsen (2011), a negation, because of the universality that it has across different languages and cultural contexts, leads to both the simplicity and complexity of us trying to understand it. Because the function of negations is fairly straight-forward and simple, which is to negate parts of or the entire sentence or clause, the formal realisation, however, ironically leads to complexities of interpretations which will vary "across languages, across speakers, and even in the same speaker across contexts" (p. 1).

This paper will try to address the importance and the complexity of negations and the functions intended in the classroom interactions from discourse analysis point view. However, negations' role in determining positive reinforcements has to be explored further because of the limited corpora that have actually looked into this matter. Following this very problem of the limited corpora, Blanco and Moldovan (2011) also concluded that the potential of negations carrying a positive role in meaning and function is present but it is also rather difficult to prove. It is especially so in this context which involves classroom interactions and the leadership quality of the instructor through positive reinforcements, if there is any. However, this finding implies that there is a high possibility that negations can be incorporated in our interactions to convey positive meanings which could trigger positive results.

Language as a Positive Reinforcement for Leadership Tool

Language has its witty way of conveying its meaning and functions. We need language in order to communicate with each other, pass on information and convey messages with specific meanings and purposes. Without language, communication is deemed almost impossible. Looking from Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) point of view, as introduced by Halliday, M.A.K. (1985). this paper is trying to reveal the possibilities of language conveyed as a positive leadership tool especially in pedagogy.

Kay (1979), in commenting on SFL, mentioned that one of the advantages that he claimed for functional grammar at the outset was that "it places the logical relations that words and phrases contract on an equal footing with relations that expound communicative functions" (p. 18) when analysing grammar from functional point of view. Hence, the use of grammar, with its function in mind, can be quite an issue when it comes to formalizing the approach of understanding it. He further concluded that this might be why Halliday resorted to the systemic functional approach at the first place, as he tried to establish the relationship between grammar, functions (meaning) and social contexts. Therefore, this relationship is undeniably crucial in determining the existence of the leadership quality of educators through the use of positive language.

SFL also does not look at language as an autonomous system but as part of wider social and cultural context and as "social semiotic". The main goal is "to look into language from the outside and specifically, to interpret linguistic processes from the standpoint of the social order" (Halliday, 1978, p. 3) and grammar as carrying potential meaning which could functionally realised by the speakers and writers themselves to represent experience (the ideational function), manage their relationship with their co-participants (the interpersonal function) and produce dialogue or monologue all at the same time. The language used, whether spoken or written, will also be examined in terms of the cohesion and coherence of the text (the textual function) and all these are done by looking at both the micro-level of clause structure and at the macro-level of context. This is important in ensuring that the complicated process of language use, even in its trivial manner, could lead to conveying messages that are full with intentions and meanings.

Another explanation was given by Johnstone (2008) in terms of intention of the speaker and interpretation of the target audience in shaping a specific discourse. She exclaimed that the different conventions of the speakers' utterances will be interpreted by the hearers as what forms of the purposes really are; be it "a promise, an apology or and order". It means that there are specific conventions that are typically used "for indicating or interpreting speakers' motives for saying what they do: how utterances are taken to function in arguments, how they are taken to fill conversational slots, and how they are taken to be logically connected" (p. 258).

The contextualisation cues, known as the discourse markers, are very important in the process of indicating and interpreting motives or intentions based on the social contexts of any specific interaction. Johnstone (2008) added that the powerful way of the speakers' "performance" will lead us to examine the strategic options for applying the techniques of persuasion and how they contribute towards shaping rhetorical discourse as well as how they are used in different contexts that might lean on either positive or negative results. This implies that the strategies used in imparting meaning and motives can be seriously linked to the "performance" that will potentially be interpreted as what is positively intended.

Interestingly, according to Denton (2008), "teacher language—what we say to students and how we say it—is one of our most powerful teaching tools. It permeates every aspect of teaching". She further added that our words can elevate students to achieve their highest potential. "It can help them build positive relationships or encourage discord and distrust. It shapes how students think and act and, ultimately, how they learn" (p. 28). This resonates very well with the positive elements in the classrooms that every instructor should hope to achieve and it also shows the relationship between language and positive reinforcements and highlights the role of language as a teaching tool.

Cummins (2000), in discussing the relationship between language, power and pedagogy, maintained that if we want to change the educational practice, and provided that it is the goal of the analysis, an "adequate conceptualization of teacher-student interactions requires an interdisciplinary analysis that draws on, and integrates, different disciplinary perspectives" while also mentioning that "interactions between educators and students represent the direct, determinant of bilingual students' success or failure in school" (pg. 6). This just implies how the language that is used in pedagogy, while carrying the element of the leadership power of the educators, can have a great impact on the success of an institution as a whole. However, it also needs deeper interpretations and the analysis should be looked at from many different angles of various disciplines. Cummins (2000) also suggested that the educational results, when used properly, with the right amount of language and authoritative power of the educators (as leadership skill), could be positive.

Positive reinforcement is one of the four salient features of the behaviourists' reinforcement theory as introduced by Skinner in 1938 and this point was discussed by McLeod (2007). It is seen as a form of stimulus in triggering positive behavior or results. According to the theory, positive reinforcements should be followed by positive responses and rewards. In this paper, peeping through a psycholinguistics point of view, language (specifically the use of negations) is regarded as the stimulus that demands positive outcomes. However, with the lack of corpora that deals directly with both language and positive reinforcements, it is still very challenging to prove that language can be the effective tool to lead towards positive reinforcements that stimulate positive reactions from the students.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), as introduced by Halliday (1985), is mainly chosen as this paper is more interested to look at meanings which are expressed and intentions interpreted in human interactions in a social context rather than what is going on in the brain when the language is expressed. Therefore, SFL was chosen mainly because it is an approach that focuses on examining how language is used in social contexts and for specific purposes. The importance of the language function (what it is used for) is regarded as greater than the language structure (how it is produced).

SFL is concerned with the social semiotic approach to language, which is a systematic approach to analyzing the elements of linguistics involved. Halliday (1994) referred to the term *systemic* to the view of language as "a network of systems, or interrelated sets of options for making meaning". He referred to the term *functional* as it means that language has evolved itself in terms of its function which has a lot to do with one's meaning, intentions and goals. He also referred to it as "the *multidimensional architecture of language* that reflects the multidimensional nature of human experience and interpersonal relationships" (Halliday, 2003, p.29).

According to Trappes-Lomax (2004), any research that involves discourse analysis is mainly qualitative because it is inherently interpretive in manner. A discourse analysis study of this nature is usually qualitative and it needs quite an analysis in order to find out the elements behind the use of language and its function (meaning). The main reason why SFL approach is adopted here is because of this very nature. Considering all the other approaches in the effort of analyzing the discourse involved, SFL then stands out to be one of the most appropriate methods when it comes to interpreting meaning and functions of the language used. It is also because of the special focus on the social context of where and when and how the text is produced that SFL stands out even more.

The study tried to engage and connect with the texts as much as possible in the process of analysing the data gathered from the general observations, transcriptions and video recordings of interactions in three classrooms. The study was carried out by observing and video recording three Mathematics lessons conducted in a one-hour tutorial session, Statistics, another one-hour tutorial session, Algebra, and a two-hour lecture for Calculus. The three classrooms' interactions that were observed are from the Centre for Foundation Studies at Albukhary International University, Malaysia. Primary focus was given to the teacher talk and their use of negations in teaching when interacting with their students. Close attention was given to the way the instructors use negations that may suggest positive reinforcements towards the students. Secondary focus was put into looking at how the students respond to and interact with their teachers as well as with their peers that might suggest positive understanding or acceptance.

The analysis was done by extracting crucial parts from the interactions and matching them with the elements of SFL in order to make sense of their meaning according to specific contexts of what was going on in the interactions. From there, further analysis was done in the effort of interpreting the meaning intended by the specific speaker and how it is perceived by the audience while considering the social contexts of the events. The possibility of whether or not the positive reinforcements exist in the interactions in the form of negations and that whether they are used to trigger positive responses are looked at very closely.

RESULTS

The results of the study can be seen as follows:

Excerpts from the three transcriptions that suggest positive reinforcements (presented within the contexts).

Observation 1 - Mr. Rajasegeran
Lecture Theatre 2 / 10 am-12 am
Calculus

T: Can you multiply this?
S: Yes
T: … good?
S: **No.**
T: **No.** Writing questions on the board.
T: (***Tag*** questions asked)
S: (Answered the ***tag*** questions)
…….

T: **Don't** wait for me to give the answer all the time. It's **not** something new, right?
S: Yes
S 1: What …?(While trying to do the exercises)
T: **Didn't** you come to class last time?
S: **No.**
T: That's why.
T: The rest of you, please check whether your answer is correct or **not**, ok.
……

S 1: I **didn't** do this because…
S 2: This function is **not** er, **not** …..
T: You **don't** lose any marks for that…
T: **Don**'t cut …
T: You **don't** forget the …
T: That's why I **don't** encourage you to do this. (While trying to address the problem/common mistakes made by students)
T: You learn to expand the formula. What to expand is **not**…
……

T: Derivative of this function…
T: 2 over 2 etc. is **not** the same answer, right?
T: If you **don't** want to use X, use Y.
T: Anyone still has problem?
S: **No**
T: Then you expand the formula…

……

S: How to divide?
T: **No** one has to divide
T: Any question?
T: Still remember what is ..., class?
S: **No.**
T: Any **problem** in 2?
S: **No**
T: There are four markers. Please **don't** take back as souvenirs, ok?

……

T: **Don't** worry…I won't give this kind of questions
S: ……..
T: **Don't** worry ……..
S: ……
T: Never mind
T: **Don't** worry too much.
T: **Don**'**t** use….. use English. Your English teacher is here to see whether you use English or **not**.
S: (laugh)

……

T: Oh, you go for the hard one, **not** the easy one.
S: (to another student – after checking his work)

Observation 2 - Mr. Amirul
Tutorial (1hour)
Algebra

T put students into groups

T: Groups of 4, **not** more than that.
S: **Not** ten?
T: **No.** (Shaking his head a few times, gesturing negative response)
- Students moved to form their groups.
- Questions were given by the teacher to each group.

……

S: Ok.
T: **No, not** that one.
T: **Not** like this.
……

S1: Explain to me how to answer the question
S2: Ok. You do **not** have to do this.
S1: **No.** Just explain it to me.
S2: **Don't** worry, man.
……

S3: I **don't** understand how you got the answer
S4: Me too.
.....

T: Do you think this is correct?
T: Did you forget something here?
S: I **don't** know. (hesitantly answered)
T: This is **not** correct. Why?
……

T: Why **didn't** you answer it this way?
S: I tried it in another way.
……

T: Ok, that's all for today.
T: **Don't** forget to get the other questions from other groups and answer them as well.

Observation 3 - Mr. Khyasuddeen
Tutorial (1 hour)
Statistics

T: You said median
S: Why you said median?
T: … , **isn't** it?
T: But does the median change?
S: **No** (all)
T: (Tag questions again and again)
T: Is it going to be less than 3?
S: **No** (all)
T: Is it …?
S: **No**.

T: **No,** I want you to calculate the answer.
T: You **don't** need to …
T: I **cannot** find the mean here.
T: Mean **doesn't** make any sense here.
T: It **doesn't** change.
T: I **cannot** simply find the mean.

……

T: Does it make sense or **not** ?
S: **No.**
T: It **doesn't** make sense.
T: Catfish, dogfish.
T: Have you heard of fogfish? (joking)
S: (laugh)….**No**

.....

T: Have I finished question no. 8?
S: A mixture of Yes / **No.**
T: (Some said yes, some said **no.)**
S: Yes!.
T: In interval, you **cannot** minus the value.
T: It **doesn't** make sense.
T: ……. , **isn't** it?
T: But you **cannot** divide.

……

T: It **doesn't** make sense.
T: ……because we do **not** know the true zero. We do **not** know.
T: What is the answer?
S: Interval
T: Why interval, and **not** ratio?

……

T: Do you get it or **not?**
T: What is the answer?
S: …(still not answering)
S: You **don't** know the answer.
T: Is it nominal or ordinal?
S: Ordinal.
T: … **not** … ?

……

T: … but it **doesn't** change the data.
T: You **don't** ask me, but the other group asked me.
T: Anybody…
T: **No** idea?

Table 1*: A brief summary of the negations used and the possible positive meaning*

Examples of negations used	Positive meaning /goals in context
1. T: It is ok, **isn't** it? S: **No**	confirming, checking for understanding
2. T: …**don't** forget the … T: **Don't** use this here …	reminder, advice
3. T: **Don't** worry…I **won't** give this kind of question.	reassurance, showing understanding and empathy
4. T: It **doesn't** make sense.	reasoning, emphasizing the content
5. T: …I **don't** encourage you to..	disapproval, advice
6. T: You **cannot** do this …	disapproval, gentle warning

DISCUSSION

In any classroom interactions, it is fairly hasty to assume that motives and success could easily be achieved. Certain techniques to be applied during interactions that can vary from very minimal to various and extensive interactions might be the key to achieving the specific goals. The nature of the subject or the pedagogical approach adopted by the instructors to tackle the subject matter or content in the particular lessons being delivered might also be a trigger factor. As can be seen from the results, the interactions that were observed were mostly done by the teacher. This shows the main authoritative role played by the teachers themselves. This also leads us to understand that the teachers were the ones who will be taking the leadership role in creating and shaping the right atmosphere that might be desirable by the students.

When the functions of the negations used in the interactions were analyzed, they are likely to suggest that the functions could be seen as to influence the students positively to a certain degree. This was done to ensure that the students were following the lesson as well as for them to be engaged in the discussion that was carried out in the interactions. Therefore, the results mostly suggest that teachers play an important role in suggesting or implying the meaning behind the use of negations in classroom interactions. This is mainly because in this particular case, teachers' social position as the authoritative figures allows the teachers to convey what is intended and at the same time can be understood by the students, who carry the social position as the subordinates to the teachers.

This is implied because the interactions involved were mostly one-sided and the students would interact and respond from a cue signaled by the teacher or when it was only necessary. One main factor that might contribute to this was due to the nature or the goals set by the teachers for the specific lesson that might not require much interaction especially from the students' side. For instance, at one point, the students seemed to be too engrossed with how to tackle the questions or exercises given rather than asking questions or responding to the teachers. However, this does not indicate whether it impedes the understanding of the interactions going on in the classrooms or not.

Another observation made is in the form of repetitions of the negations used in conveying the goals and intentions of the teacher. When a negation is used repeatedly, it is actually to emphasise whether something should be avoided when it comes to answering the questions in a more important setting. During an examination, as an example of this kind of setting, it might require the students to be reminded of the don'ts of something which also lead the students to the affirmative action behind it, which is the do's in exams. Here, the negations used serve as a reminder or a kind warning to the students. One might also see this as advice given from the teacher to help the students to be more focused in dealing with the subject.

Negations used in the interactions in some instances could also suggest that the teachers are just confirming about a concept or something in the lesson or the previous shared knowledge. In some parts, negations were used to suggest that the teacher was also reassuring and consoling the students, and sometimes disapproving of something the students had done or gently reprimanding them when they did something wrong. The gentle approach was indicated by the tone used by the teachers and the contexts of the events. Therefore, this also suggests that negations do have a role in the positive reinforcements that were created or shaped by the teachers as the authoritative figure in the classroom, either intentionally or unintentionally.

The negations used, together with the existence of other conventions that were used in specific contexts, do lead to some form of positive reinforcements. However, it may be unconsciously done due to our innate ability in conveying meanings. The persuasive strategies applied while teaching or imparting knowledge are apparently useful and necessary and should be done effectively. However, an observation on the different personalities of the teacher might also be a crucial factor to consider when trying to accomplish desired outcomes. Another important variable of a successfully positive lesson that is similarly important is the language competency of the instructor. Being able to use the language, or in this case, the use of negations, might be a big contributing factor towards achieving the positive goals intended.

On the other hand, students, while interacting with the teachers, used negations very rarely. This is again due to the lower social position in the classroom as opposed to the teacher. They sometimes used negations to indicate confusion or to seek guidance from the teacher. In peer interactions, not much negations were observed but when negations were used, the functions were merely to seek guidance from a

friend or to console the other party. However, there were instances whereby students do respond and also interact with their instructor. Even nodding and shaking their heads can be regarded as responding, as well as when the students were just reflecting things on their own or trying to solve the questions. These responses also imply that the positive reinforcements might be well-received.

Therefore, the results suggest that the functions of the use of a certain form of language grammatically could influence the students to behave and learn in a certain manner as dictated by the teachers. The negations used were to show intentions and goals of the speaker, but they could only be understood exclusively by having the shared knowledge between the parties involved in the interactions. However, somehow, there were also instances whereby the meaning could be understood by considering and understanding the social context of the speech events. The intentions of the use of negations might be positive or negative. However, since the focus of the study is on the positive elements that exist in the use of negations specifically as well as of language as a whole, only the positive sides of the meanings or intentions are discussed. The results, thus, also suggest that the positive reinforcements do exist in classroom interactions and that the instructor, who is the authoritative figure, plays a huge leadership role in shaping the positive ambience in a classroom.

CONCLUSION

Language is used to indicate meaning and purpose. It allows us to express what we think and feel given the different contexts that we are in. But why we use certain forms or structure of language to mean what we mean in those different contexts is still very much mysterious for the brains of human being to decipher. It is also perplexing to think of how we can figure out the meaning and intentions of speakers in front of you. However, this approach of the study from discourse analysis point of view might give an idea of how language is used as it is. This also suggests that human interactions can still be understood by looking closely at the marriage of form and function in the given social context.

The findings imply that the shared knowledge in one particular context might assist understanding of the content being discussed in the classroom. In this case, practitioners should look at the importance of the use of negations as leading towards shaping more shared knowledge to be carried on to the next sessions. The importance of the role of the teacher as an authoritative figure in confirming, reassuring, consoling, disapproving or penalising in appropriate contexts understood by both the teacher and the students at the receiving end is also implied here as the functions conveyed by the use of negations. This also implies the necessity of the leadership skills in every instructor as well as in using negations as representing some form of positive reinforcements in pedagogy.

This study was done to establish an understanding on how discourse analysis could be a useful approach in examining spoken texts in classroom setting. It also tried to enfold the mystery behind the use of negations in implementing positive

atmosphere in the classrooms. Due to the limitations encountered, this study needs further and deeper analysis and interpretation in terms of how the positive meaning and function are actually conveyed from a more systematic approach of the grammatical item chosen as the focus of the study. A closer examination on the SFL as the method of analysis of this nature might also be in dire need.

REFERENCES

Blanco, E. and Moldovan, D. (2011). *Semantic Representation of Negation Using Focus Detention.* Proceedings of the 49th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics, 581-589.

Halliday, M.A.K. (1975). *Learning How to Mean: Explorations in the Development of Language*. London: Edward Arnold.

Halliday, M.A.K and Hasan, R. (1976). *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman.

Halliday, M.A.K. (1985). *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. London: Edward.

Halliday, M.A.K. (1994). *Introduction to Functional Grammar*, 2nd ed. London: Edward Arnold.

Halliday, M.A.K. (2003). On the "Architecture" of Human Language. *On Language and Linguistics.* Volume 3 in the Collected Works of M.A.K. Halliday. Edited by Jonathan Webster.

Hatch, E.(1992) *Discourse and Language Education.* Cambridge University Press.

Johnstone, B., *Discourse Analysis* (2008). Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.

Jørgensen, M. and Phillips, L. (2002). *Discourse Analysis as Theory and Method*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Kay, M. (1979). *Functional Grammar*. Proceedings of the Berkeley Linguistics Society, 142-158.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (Autumn, 1999). Critical Classroom Discourse Analysis*. TESOL Quarterly*, Vol. 33, No. 3, Critical Approaches to TESOL., 453-484.

Kumpulainen, K. & Wray, D. (2002). *Classroom Interaction and Social Learning*. London: Routledge Falmer.

McCarthy, M. (1991). *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers,* Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.

McLeod, S. A. (2007). B.F. Skinner: Operant Conditioning, *Simply Psychology*. Retrieved from http://www.simplypsychology.org/operant-conditioning.html

Mercer, N. (2010). The Analysis of Classroom Talk: Methods and Methodologies*, British Journal of Educational Psychology,* No.8, The British Psychological Society, 1-14.

Mohsen, K.H. (2011). *Negation in English - Compared to Norwegian*, Master's Thesis, Faculty of Humanities and Education: University of Agder.

Trappes-Lomax H. (2004). *"Discourse analysis*", in The Handbook of Applied Linguistics. ed. by A. Davies & C. Elder. Oxford: Blackwell, 133–164.

Denton, P. (September, 2008). The Power of Our Words*, The Positive Classroom* , Vol. 66, No. 1, 28-31.

EXPLORING THE CHALLENGES RELATED TO AN INTERNATIONAL MASTER'S PROGRAMME

Dr. Päivi Haapalainen

University of Vaasa, Finland

ABSTRACT

The competition between education providers is getting harder. Information about different study programmes is easily available for the students via the Internet. It is getting more common to go and study abroad. This means that education providers should take a close look at their programmes to make sure that the quality of the education is good and that they produce holistic and competitive students for the labor market. This paper introduces a case study about the challenges related to an international master's programme in order to stir a debate. The purpose is more to raise questions than to provide answers. The dimensions of the master's programme are analyzed by using a framework for service quality (tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance, empathy). This framework will be further complemented by a few other dimensions. Student feedback and discussions with the students are used as material as well as observations in classroom situations. The objective is to find strengths and weaknesses of the programme so that the programme could be further developed. The paper shows that there are various challenges related to providing international masters' education in current flat world.

Keywords: *masters' education, quality of education, service quality*

INTRODUCTION

The competition in educational world is getting harder in the same manner as in other (service) businesses. In Finland the higher education (universities) has been for a long time funded by the state and the education itself has been free of charge for the students. Now the status of the universities has slightly changed and the external funding is more crucial than ever. Another drastic change is opening the doors of the universities to students from all over the world in the form of various international masters' programmes. Currently majority of the programmes are still free of charge for the students but there is a growing discussion about the fees. At the same time Finnish students have nearly unlimited possibilities to study abroad. The companies that are the future employers of the current students, both in Finland and abroad, are dealing with highly international environment and value employees that are ready to meet to global challenges. This all forces the universities to turn focus on quality of education.

There are various frameworks and tools for assessing the quality of education, e.g. ServQual (introduced in detail in the following chapter) (see Arabi,

Yarmohammadian and Esteki (2011) for an example) and AQIP (introduced in the following chapter) (see Yarmohammadian, Mozaffary and Esfahani (2011) for an example). It is fairly easy to take a ready-made questionnaire and ask the students to fill it up, then do some statistical operations, and say how high the quality of education is. But if we wish to improve the quality, we need to understand what is meant by the students when they for example say that "Helping students learn" – dimension is not functioning well. Does it mean that the lecturers do not possess the latest knowledge on the field? Or does it mean that they do not get enough support for their thesis work? Or does it mean that it is difficult to get the course literature? There are various reasons why students could feel that they do not get the needed support for learning.

This paper uses an International Masters' Programme in Industrial Management as an example in order to explore the quality of the Programme as well as the challenges in measuring the quality. The purpose is not to offer a thorough analysis of the Programme but to raise into discussion some issues that the Programme Manager has encountered during the past couple of years. The paper is organised as follows. Quality of services and education as well as assessing this quality is introduced in the following chapter. After that the empirical case is introduced and various aspects of the quality of the Programme are discussed. Finally, some conclusions are made.

Quality of services vs. quality of education

Compared to measuring quality of tangible goods it is more complicated to measure quality of services. Services are intangible so the customer cannot get any touchable or visible clues of the quality of a service. Often there is also a great level of heterogeneity related to services. Each customer has a role in defining the service. In some businesses like hamburger restaurants this role is smaller and in some others like in health care services the role is larger. Therefore each service is different based on the customer's needs. A service can also vary from one service producer to another and the supervision of the service process is more challenging than supervision of manufacturing process. The third important difference between a traditional product and a service is inseparability. One cannot get e.g. a haircut without being present in the service process.(See e.g. Parasuraman et al. 1985.)

Defining what service quality actually means is not easy either. Parasuraman et al. (1985: 42) state based on some earlier research that service quality is based on "*a comparison of consumer expectations with actual service performance*" and both the outcome as well as the process affects the quality. Some other researchers believe however that service quality can be measured based on only the customer perception of the service without knowing the customer expectations (Abari et al. 2011).

Parasuraman et al. (1985) introduced ten dimensions of service quality which they (Parasuraman et al. 1988; 1991) later compressed further into five dimensions. The ten dimensions of service quality according to Parasuraman et al. (1985: 47) are: reliability, responsiveness, competence, access, courtesy, communication,

creditability, security, understanding / knowing the customer, and tangibles. Based on the five dimensions (tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy) the ServQual instrument was created for measuring the service quality. ServQual includes some statements which are used for customers to first evaluate the importance of the different dimensions for a certain type of service in general (expectations) and the for a certain service provider (actual service performance). The difference between the expectations and perception reveals the actual service quality. (Parasuraman et al. 1991.)

One example of a tool created for assessing and improving the quality of higher education is AQIP (introduced in 1999 by Higher Learning Commission in United States of America). Nine dimensions of education are evaluated in order to measure the quality of education: helping students learn, accomplishing objectives, understanding students' needs, valuing people, leading and communication, supporting institutional operations, measuring effectiveness, planning continuous improvement, and building collaborative relationships. (Yarmohammadian et al. 2011: 2918.)

If we consider using ServQual and AQIP for assessing the quality of education the difference is fairly clear. ServQual takes purely the viewpoint of the customer (student) whereas AQIP looks at the education also from other viewpoints. The question is: can we consider education as a service? Education has many of the characteristics of expert services. The customer does not always know what she needs, because her knowledge level is not high enough (compare e.g. with medical services, the customer is not expected to know what kind of examinations are needed to find out what is causing the symptoms). We should also ask if it is enough to assess the quality of educational institution purely based on the students' views. Parasuraman et al. (1985: 48) refer to the category of quality characteristics that Darby and Karni (1973) introduced: credence properties. These properties are such that the customer may not be able to evaluate even after they have consumed the service and they are typically related to the nature of expert services. Sometimes the value of a certain characteristic of education can also be understood by the student only after years (e.g. knowledge of how to use a strategic tool or mathematical method). Third interesting question is the role of higher education institution in the society. Should we for example consider also the companies employing the students as customers?

Empirical case

The orientation in the Master's Programme in Industrial Management is technology management,. At the moment it is one of the seven International Masters' Programmes at the University of Vaasa. Currently the intake is about 35 students each year and in addition to this maximum of 30 Finnish students continue from the bachelor level to this Programme. International students come mainly from Asia (China, Pakistan, Nepal), Russia, Middle East (Iran) and some from European countries. Each year the International Affairs Unit conducts a survey among the

graduating students to measure quality of the Programme. The main problem with the survey is the low number of respondents that means that there is no statistical value for the results. However, some of the questions are open ended and give some hints what improvements might be valuable.

Tangibles refer to the physical facilities and staff appearance. At the university settings students could think about classrooms and equipment, library, offices of the professors, cafeterias etc. This seems to be the dimension that our students are most satisfied with. However, in Finland the dress code for the university staff is fairly free, a professor might come to a lecture wearing a pair of jeans and a t-shirt and some students could find it offensive. Should we pay more attention to the staff appearance? In many countries the dress code is more strict and this kind of problem would not exist.

Reliability means the ability to perform services precisely and reliably. For example keeping the promises and showing a sincere interest in solving the customers' problems. This could mean for our students for example that the grades for the courses will be available within 30 days (as promised) or that the professor gives feedback for written assignmentsas promised. The students also face various problems, e.g. related to their personal study plans, that they try to solve with different parties (student counseling, international affairs office, the Industrial Management Unit). The variation between student opinions regarding this dimension seems to be fairly high. Some seem to have faced a numerous bad experiences and some are very satisfied with this. The variation is most likely caused by the number of different people the students contact and differences in their behavior. How could we guarantee services on the same level for all the students by all the personnel they deal with?

Responsiveness refers to the staff being able and willing to answer quickly to customer requests.This is the dimension that our students give the most negative feedback for. About 60 new students (plus 30 in bachelor level and a number of doctoral students) for three busy travelling professors and two other members of teaching staff does make it difficult to answer quickly even the staff would like to. In various feedbacks the students suggest that the best way to improve the Programme would be hiring more professors. Unfortunately this seems to not be possible in reality.Perhaps we should find other channels to help the students with their requests like has been done in various other services.

Assurance means that the staff has the knowledge to help the customers and that the customers can trust the staff. For a university student the knowledge should start from curriculum planning. It should reflect the work life needs and provide a student with a firm foundation on which to build a successful career. This aspect seems to be a bit problematic in ourinternational Programme. Some of the students feel that the Programme does not meet the needs of work life and does not give them tools for their careers. On the other hand, the international companies located in the area claim that they are very happy with the competences and knowledge of the graduates from

our Programme. Many graduates also have very good career prospects. The cultural differences and the different work life needs in different countries could explain this variation. However, if this is the case, the objectives of the Programme should be better communicated for the future applicants.

Empathy is related to personal attention to the each customer whenever they need it and understanding the specific needs of the customers. It is only natural that each student would like to be treated individually. However, again this is balancing between the scarce resources available and satisfying the students. All our students have basically different background: education and work experience. Some of them have a bachelor degree in business administration or in technology from a foreign university, some have studied at the Finnish universities of applied sciences. A Personal Study Plan is prepared for each student when they begin their studies. However, we do not get very high score from the students for this dimension. Improving the admittance process might be one answer to this. However, the current strategy is to admit different students in order to give them competences also in dealing with different people from different cultures because this is going to be the reality for many of them after they graduate.

However, some important aspects of the quality of the Programme seem to be neglected if we only use the dimensions of ServQual instrument. These aspects include international aspect and management aspect that will be discussed next.

A good programme should be well planned and organized. When this Programme was started, there was not much experience about international masters' programmes either in the department or at the university. The student feedback on how well planned and organized the Programme is has been fairly poor at the beginning. The students' comments are getting better each year and lot of improvement work has been done with the Programme. Some of the challenges are not related to department internal things but more to other units of the university proving e.g. method studies (not so many of them in English and not all taught in English every year) or language courses (it is not possible to take many language courses at the same time). The basis of the Programme management is now on good level but yet there is work to be done. Some challenges can be met by improving the Programme and others may require the students to plan their studies (personal study plans) better and also to follow the plan they make.

The final interesting and challenging dimension of an international study programme is the international aspect. Our students give feedback on the following statements:

- The Programme exposes students to the international aspects of the field of study.
- I receive good basis for working in an international environment.
- The programme improves my international managerial and leadership skills.

- The programme creates a good basis for working effectively in international teams.

The international group of students and several visiting professors should at least in theory give good possibilities to meet all the requirements above. However, the reality is not too rosy. Some students can make the most of the possibilities given to them but not all. Visiting professors may (should) have a different point of view to the field of study but this is not sometimes appreciated or understood by the students. Also different teaching methods may hinder learning. The students themselves may also have prejudice against students from other cultures. Many of them are very competitive and ambitious and they may fear that other students (that they don't know) in the group may cause them weaker grades. If the students are allowed to form groups themselves we often end up with a couple of groups of Finnish students, a group of Chinese students, a group of Nigerian students etc. Building team spirit among the whole group of students is something that we should pay more attention to especially in the beginning of the studies.

CONCLUSIONS

Pondering about the quality of education in this paper seems to bring up some issues that are not rare. Yarmohammadian et al. (2011) highlight many of the same challenges. However, we should realize that before we can improve the quality of education or study programmes, we need to know where we are at the moment and where we would like to be. Different frameworks or tools (like ServQual) may help us to find answers to the first question. We need some input from the students, whether we consider them as customers or not. After that it is up to us to find the objectives and a way there. However, mere quantitative information may not be enough for finding the improvement tasks we probably need also some qualitative information.

Yarmohammadian et al. (2011) and Latorre-Medina et al. (2013) state that one important view to improvement of the education quality is paying attention to teaching and learning processes. Although this view has not been dealt with in depth in this paper it is an important issue and should also be considered.

REFERENCES

Abari, A., Yarmohammadian, M. & Esteki, M. (2011).Assessment of quality of education a non-governmental university via SERVQUAL model. *Procedia social and Behavioral Sciences* 15, 2299-2304.

Darby, M. & Karni, E. (1973).Free Competition and the Optimal Amount of Fraud. *Journal of Law and economics* vol. 16, 67-86.

Latorre-Medina, M. & Blanco-Encomienda, F. (2013).Strategic Management as Key to Improve the Quality of Education. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences* 81, 270-274.

Parasuraman, A., Berry, L. & Zeithaml, V. (1991).Refinement and Reassessment of the SERVQUAL Scale.*Journal of Retailing* 67:4, 420-450.

Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V. & Berry, L. (1985).A Conceptual Model of Service Quality and Its Implications for Future Research. *Journal of Marketing* Vol. 49, 41-50.

Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V. & Berry, L. (1988). SERVQUAL: A Multiple-Item Scale for Measuring Customer Perceptions of Service Quality, *Journal of Retailing* Vol. 64, 12-40.

LEADING SCHOOL CHANGE IN CHINA: A PRELIMINARY INVESTIGATION

Tang Shaobing
Philip Hallinger
Lu Jiafang

Hong Kong Institute of Education

ABSTRACT

Mainland China has undergonecontinuous reforms in educationover the past decades. In this context, China's Ministry of Education has cast school principals as key actors in leading and managing change in schoolsat the local level throughout the country. This article reviews the literature background of Chinese school change and explores how school leaders in one city in South China foster successful change. The study employed qualitative interviews with five school principals who had demonstrated success at leading change in their schools. The purpose of the study is to explore how Chinese school leaders successfully respond to the implementation of educational reform. The paper also seeks to uncover directions for future research and offer implications for school leaders in implementing educational change in China.

Keywords: *school principal, change, educational reform*

INTRODUCTION

Nearly everyone agrees on the problems [encountered in implementing China's education reforms]: overemphasis on rote memorization, a top-down instructional style that crushes individuality and a near-total reliance on exams to evaluate progress. But educational reform is a fraught process in any country, China perhaps more than elsewhere. . . A new 10-year reform program that went into effect in 2010 acknowledges these problems and advocates the loosening of state controls over education. (Abrahamsen, 2012, p. 1)

In the past 20 years, the challenge of implementing change has been a core theme of education reform in China (Cheng, 2001; Feng, 2006; Hannum & Park, 2002; Ke, 2007; Mok, 2004; Qian, 2008; Wu & Pang, 2011; Ye,2009; Zhong, 2005). However, as suggested in the above quotation, progress has been slow. Thus, recently, it has become increasingly clear to China's policymakers that national education reform goals could not be met unless individual schools can develop a more robust capacity to change (Chen, 2004; Chen, 2005; Cui, 2006; Dong, 2006).

This realization reflects a subtle and as yet uncertain shift from a long-standing emphasis on change from the top-down and outside-in towards a greater appreciation

for the dynamics of change inside of China's public sector organizations in general (e.g., Cheng, Huang & Chou, 2002; Lau, Tse & Zhou, 2002; Lin, 2008), and schools in particular (Dong & Geng, 2008; Li, 2005; Li & Ma, 2006; Meng, 2008). Consequently some of China's recent education reform policies have begun to move away from a sole reliance on implementation by mandate and towards creating conditions that will support change in practice inside of schools (Dong, 2006; Ma, Wang & Xie, 2008). This shift is simultaneously creating new challenges for China's school leaders (Dong & Geng, 2008; Feng, 2006; Gao, 2002; Ma, Wang, & Yan, 2005; Meng, 2008; Qian, 2008; Ye, 2009). Perhaps foremost among these challenges for school principals is the need to enhance their own capacity for leading change (Chen, 2005; Chen, 2004; Du, 2004; Feng, 2003, 2006; Gao, 2002; Li, 2005; Li & Ma, 2006; Su, 2009; Walker et al., 2011).

Numerous international studies indicate that schools which demonstrate the capacity to improve are led by proactive principals with the capacity to lead staff towards achievement of new goals (Hallinger, 2003; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000; Robinson, Lloyd & Rowe, 2008). In a dynamic context of education reform and change, simply seeking to maintain and repeat past success is seldom a robust formula for future success (Drucker, 1996; Fullan, 2001; Kotter, 1996; Stoll & Fink, 2010). In Fullan's (2007) words, there is "no improving school that doesn't have a principal who is good at leading improvement" (p. 160).

It should be noted at the outset that China is not alone in meeting the challenges of putting education policy reforms into practice. National education systems throughout the world are finding it difficult to implement reforms in ways that produce positive changes in classrooms for children. The challenges of implementing successful education reform have been documented not only in developed Western societies (e.g., (Caldwell, 1998; Cuban, 1990; Evans, 1996; Fullan, 2007; Hall & Hord, 2003; Hallinger, 2003; Hargreaves & Fullan, 1998; Jackson, 2000), but also in rapidly developing societies of East and Southeast Asia (Dimmock & Walker, 1998; Hallinger, 2010; Mok, 2004). For example, the challenges of implementing successful education reform have been documented in Malaysia (Bajunid, 2008; Malakolunthu, 2007; Rahimah, 1998), Taiwan (Chen, 2008, Law, 2004; Pan, 1999; Yang, 2001), Hong Kong (Cheng, 2005; Cheng & Walker, 2008; Lam, 2003), Singapore, (Kam & Gopinathan, 1999; Ng, 2004), Thailand (Author, 2001, 2006, 2011), as well as mainland China (Pepper, 1996; Qian, 2008; Walker et al., 2007).

Unfortunately, system- and school-level leaders in these Asian societies are to some extent 'flying blind' when it comes to leading change. Both the theoretical and empirical literatures that bear upon the challenges of leading change come from a limited set of Western societies (Hallinger, 2010; Qian, 2008). Thus, scholars and practitioners have questioned the extent to which theories, principles, and strategies from very different socio-cultural contexts will transfer to these developing Asian societies (Bajunid, 2008; Cheng, 1995; Dimmock & Walker, 1998; Hallinger, 2010).

The current study took place in the context of a research and development (R & D) project aimed at designing a training curriculum on change leadership for Chinese school principals. Given the lack of a robust *internationally accessible literature* on change leadership in the Chinese context, we decided to undertake a both a literature review and a small-scale qualitative study into change leadership in the mainland China education context. It was hoped that these would inform our understanding of the change, context, obstacles and strategies that describe the context of school change in mainland China.

Education Reform and Change in China

We begin our inquiry into the dynamics of leading change in China with a review of recent literature. At the outset we note that the internationally-published literature on school leadership in China remains limited both in breadth and depth (Walker et al., 2012). Indeed, most of the relevant literature has been published in Chinese language, primarily for domestic consumption. Thus, a key feature of our literature review was to uncover relevant Chinese language literature on leading change. In this regard, we sought to understand the nature of the knowledge base that currently informs Chinese school leaders as they confront the challenges of leading education reform in their schools. This knowledge base consists of cultural assumptions about both the role of leaders and the nature of change, forces that bear upon change in the Chinese education context, as well as predictable obstacles face China's change leaders, and strategies that have been reported to achieve success.

The literature review is divided into two sections focusing first on the context of education reform and change in China, and second on leading change in China. We wish to note in advance that due to the dual goals of this paper (i.e., literature review and empirical study), our review is necessarily truncated. In addition, following the observations and Walker and colleagues (2012), we found that the Chinese literature on school leadership is quite different in composition from the Western published literature. The Chinese literature consists primarily of a combination of prescription and 'commentaries' based either on in-depth analysis of an issue or presentation of single case studies. As Walker and colleagues observed:

> "Interestingly, because the empirical studies are seen to produce little more than ''commonsense'' findings (what people already know), their influence in the Chinese educational community remains marginal. As a result, non-empirical research still dominates the Chinese literature and commonly accepted research norms". (Walker et al., 2012, p. 390).

With this in mind, our literature review is necessarily exploratory rather than explanatory (Author, 2013). It is aimed at surfacing trends, identifying potential issues and generating propositions, rather than drawing conclusions and providing explanations.

The Context of Educational Reform in China

According to Wu and Pang (2010), educational reform in China since the establishment of the People's Republic of China can be classified into three stages. The first stage occurred period before the Cultural Revolution (1949-1966). During this period, the Chinese education system largely mirrored features of the Soviet Union's educational concepts and practices. The second stage is represented in the Ten-year Cultural Revolution (1966-1976). During this stage, formal education in China was widely disrupted, and the emphasis on education as political transformation intensified further. The third stage can be characterized as Reform and Openness (1978 to the present). During this stage education has been approached with dual priorities on social-moral development and instrumental knowledge and skill development. The former emphasis aims at socialist modernization and the latter on the nation's economic development and competitiveness.

Acceleration of developments during the third stage has, over the past 20 years, led to a series of new waves of reform in the Chinese context. In May, 2001, a document entitled "Decisions on the Basic Education Reform and Development" was issued by the State Council (MOE, 2001b). This delineated an innovation blueprint for education reform. The blueprint ranged from moral education to overall social-educational development, and encompassed system management, curriculum, teaching, and assessment (Gao, 2002;Hannum & Park, 2002).

Grounded in the above document, a new education reform, unprecedented in the history of Chinese education, was launched in June of the same year, This was known as the New Curriculum Reform in China. Subsequently, The Outline of the Basic Education Reform (Tentative), was issued by MOE (2001a). This elaborated on the underlying concepts of education innovation and made priority assumptions more explicit. For example, it stated that that educator should:

- pay close attention to students' interests and experience
- carefully choose the basic knowledge and skills for lifelong learning
- respect students' personality, show solicitude to student differences and satisfy different students' requirements. (MOE, 2001a)

In sum, based on the Outline, the new curriculum reform aims to realize three transformations. First, curriculum policy would be transferred from centralized authorities and distributed more broadly to other levels of the education hierarchy. The underlying curriculum paradigm would change from the science-centered to social construction-centered. The norms of classroom teaching and learning would change from an emphasis on teacher direction to student exploration (Zhong, 2005).

During the 10 years that passed since adoption of the new curriculum reform, Chinese authorities concluded: "[although] achievement is great, but there are also numerous problems" (EOE, 2010). Problems included relatively backward ideas of

education, outmoded teaching content and methods, students overloaded by schoolwork, difficulties in gaining acceptance of new concepts of quality education, student problems in adapting to society, and insufficient collective energy and capacity in running schools (EOE, 2010; Feng, 2006) .

With these 'implementation challenges in mind, in July 2010 China announced the "Outline of China's National Plan for Medium and Long-term Education Reform and Development (2010-2020)" (MOE, 2010). This document stated that, "the students' healthy development is regarded as the starting point and the end of all school work." We should "create education that is suitable for students" (MOE, 2010).

Compared to educational reforms undertaken in the late 20th century, this latest effort at educational reform pays greater attention to integrity and harmony of social development. It emphasizes the cohesiveness and relationship between social development and lifelong learning and development of citizens. This has represented a significant change in the direction of education for China's schools. Moreover, the diversification of goals in these non-traditional directions introduced new levels of complexity into China's education reform (Feng, 2006). This has created new challenges and for school leaders, even in the face of previously unmet expectations and goals (Chen, 2005; Dong & Geng, 2008; Feng, 2006; Ye, 2009; Zhong, 2005).

Leading Change in China

The Soviet Union's top-down traditions of management as well as more general educational practices still deeply influence the present Chinese system of education (Wu & Pang, 2011). These structural features are further strengthened by cultural norms of Chinese society that emphasize status differences, hierarchical organization, and the use of position power (Cheng, Huang, & Chou, 2002; Dong, 2006; Gao, 2002; Hofstede, 1983; Lin, 2000; Xu, 2005; Zhang & Zeng, 2006). Thus, a top-down norm of system management has, in the past, predominated in the implementation of China's educational reforms (Dong, 2006; Wu & Pang, 2011). Nonetheless, as noted above, the most recent round of curriculum reform has sought to provide schools with more autonomy than in the past (Feng, 2006; Xu, 2005). Autonomy has, as in other countries (Caldwell, 1998; Leithwood, 2001), also been accompanied by increased accountability (Cui, 2006; Gao, 2002; Qian, 2008; Xu, 2005).

Thus, the new curriculum reform has brought with it increasing demands for change among local schools and more specifically in the role behavior of principals (Chen, 2005; Du, 2004; Ma, Wang, & Yan, 2005; Meng, 2008; Qian, 2008). The key problem confronting Chinese educators in this regard is, "How to adapt?" As Cui (2006) has noted, although schools leaders are already adept at announcing visions of change and displaying blueprints for change, implementing these changes in the real situation is another matter (see also Lau, Tse & Zhou, 2002). Ke (2007) referred to a continuing emphasis on schools produce the appearance of results that meet the

expectations of system leaders as the new institutional system. Or as Walker and colleagues observed:

> "In reality, the complexity of the context seems to result in a disconnection between principal practice and the leadership approaches promoted in both policy and the literature. Thus, despite policymakers and academics advocating curriculum and distributed leadership, the continuing emphasis on high-stake exams by educators across the educational spectrum (education officials, principals and even teachers) means that principals tend to pay lip service to these ideals while continuing to do things 'the same way as they have always been done". (Pepper, 1996, pp. 104-111), (Walker, et al., 2012, p. 388).

One study examined the response of Shanghai secondary school principals to the curriculum reforms of the past decade (Walker, Qian, & Zhang, 2011) . The results showed that, "the enduring cultural norms which continue to underpin societal expectations and accountability" is one of the main reasons why curriculum reform has so far not been able to bring about deep change at secondary school level" (Walker et al., 2011).

Ke (2007) has asserted that compared with the grand plans for change, China's schools have been remarkably stable over the past half century. Yet, there have been cases of successful change reported in the Chinese educational leadership and management literature (e.g., Chen, 2004; Cui, 2006; Dong, 2006; Ma, Wang, & Xie, 2008; Su, 2009; Wei, 2006). Our review of these articles revealed a number of common themes concerning descriptions of successful school leadership and change in the Chinese context. More specifically, reports on successful leaders of change in Chinese schools identify the following characteristics.

1. Rely more heavily on influence and moral suasion than on position power to engage staff in successful change efforts (Dong, 2006; Li, 2005; Lin, 2000; Qian, 2008; Su, 2009; Xu, 2005);
2. Articulate a definite, firm set of beliefs about education as well as an inspiring vision of change (Dong, 2006; Li, 2005; Ma et al., 2005, 2008; Su, 2009);
3. Work to create a united and proactive leadership team (Chen, 2005, Chen, 2004; Cui, 2006; Hu, 2005; Li, 2005)
4. Gain support from external stakeholders (Cui, 2006; Zhang & Zeng, 2006)
5. Cultivate school culture capable of supporting the innovation (Dong, 2006; Li, 2005; Li & Ma, 2006; Ma et al., 2005, 2008; Wei, 2006);
6. Model just and democratic behavior in their relationships with staff (Hu, 2005; Li, 2005);
7. Provide diverse opportunities for teachers' professional development (Dong, 2006; Jia, 2007; Wei, 2006; Wu & Pang, 2011);
8. Model professional growth through engaging in their own personal learning (Chu & Cravens, 2012; Cui, 2006; Dong, 2006; Li, 2005; Qian, 2008)

These themes are surprising in two notable respects. First, they reflect a more ransformational than transactional approach to leadership than one would expect in the Chinese context (see Dong, 2005; Gao, 2005; Hallinger, 2003; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000; Li, 2005; Lin, 2008). That is, these conclusions appear to emphasize empowerment, use of expertise and influence, and capacity building, as opposed to direction, coercion, and use of rewards and sanctions. Second, these conclusions, on the whole, could have been derived from a handbook on leading change in the USA or UK (e.g., Fullan, 2007; Kotter, 1996). similar to guidelines found in the Western change leadership literature (e.g., Drucker, 1995; Fullan, 2001; Gao, 2002; Hall & Hord, 2002; Hallinger, 2003; Kotter, 1996). It should, however, be noted that these 'propositions' have not been 'tested empirically' in the manner that we might expect in the Western research tradition (Walker et al., 2012; Ye, 2009). Thus, it is difficult to assess the extent to which they reflect an emergent normative ideology, or actual practice in schools. Moreover, previous studies of change in the region suggest that although many of the broad principles in the Western literature apply in leading change in selected Asian contexts, there is a culturally defined expression to these principles. Thus, it seemed essential to gain first-hand accounts of how organizational change manifests in the Chinese cultural context.

With these themes and questions emerging from our review of the relevant Chinese language literature, we proceeded to the next stage in this research and development project. We conceived of a small-scale research study that would allow us to examine the themes and explore further some of the questions noted above.

RESEARCH METHOD

Our review of the Chinese literature on leading educational change suggested that there could be both similarities as well as potential differences in the challenges and strategies entailed in leading successful change in schools in the mainland China education context. Consequently, we initiated a small-scale qualitative study to examine propositions that emerged from the literature review. We describe the design and method of the study in this section of the paper.

We chose to begin the research by interviewing a small number of 'successful' experienced school principals. The interviews would allow us to further explore the themes and questions posed above through the eyes of experienced change leaders. Although the results would, of course, not be definitive, we believe that they would move us one step farther along the trail of understanding the types of propositions that could be tested in a broader study.

Selection of Subjects

We built upon the work of others noted in the previous section of the paper to develop an operational definition of successful principal leadership. This was defined as 'principals capable of leading staff to reach the goal of school development and outstanding results in the implementation of changes in their school'. The

achievement of these school leaders should not only be perceived by our researchers, but also widely agreed by school practitioners in the same region. In addition to consensual recognition by the government and peers, we considered five additional factors in selecting participants for the interview:

1. Variation in school size;
2. Coverage of both primary and secondary schools;
3. Coverage of both private and state-run schools;
4. A mix of schools in the city, town and countryside; and
5. Inclusion of male and female principals.

Five school principals were identified and successfully approached in Guangzhou, China. Four principals came from state-owned schools, and one from a private school. Two principals came from primary (i.e., grades 1-6) schools from, two middle schools (i.e., grades 7 to 9), and one 9-year school (grades 1-9). Three schools were located in cities, one in a town, and one in the rural countryside. School size varied from 803 to 1600 students, and the number of teachers working at respective schools varied from 67 to 110. The duration of working in the present schools among the principals ranged from 2 to 14 years. The profile of sampled schools was representative of the schools in Guangdong region. A summary of participants' basic information is showed in Table 1.

Table 1: *Characteristics of the participants*

Identifier	School Category	Gender	Exp as Principal	School Location	No. of Students	No. of Teachers
P1	Private Secondary School	Male	22 yrs	City	1,300	110
P2	State-run Middle School	Male	6 yrs	Rural	1,350	87
P3	State-run 9-year School	Male	16 yrs	Town	803	67
P4	State-run Primary School	Female	17 yrs	City	1,360	87
P5	State-run Primary School	Female	9 yrs	City	1,600	92

Focus of the Interviews

The three foci identified above included the context of change, obstacles to change and change strategies. Thus, the interview questions were aimed at a set of broad issues concerning change leadership in Chinese schools:

1. leadership strategies employed in order to launch, engage, and sustain change (Author, 2011; Hallinger, 2003; Kotter, 1996);
2. nature of the change process as experienced by staff and students (Bridges, 2003; Fullan, 2007; Hall & Hord, 2002; Lewin, 1951);
3. obstacles and forms of resistance faced during the change process (Author, 2011;Evans, 1996; Hall & Hord, 2002; Maurer, 1996);
4. strategies and activities employed to motivate staff and build staff capacity for change (Author, 2001, 2006; Evans, 1996; Fullan, 2007; Hall & Hord,

2002; Kotter, 1996);

5. features of the school's environment that impacted staff motivation and capacity to implement successful change (Drucker, 1995; Fullan, 2007; Hargreaves & Fullan, 1998; Kotter, 1996);

Data Collection

The interviews were conducted in Chinese by the lead author. The interviews each lasted between two and three hours. The interview questions designed around our research foci are displayed in Appendix A. With the consent of participants, the interview was tape-recorded and transcribed into Chinese. After the transcription, participants were invited to check the transcript to guarantee its accuracy. Then the transcription was translated into English for cross-case analysis.

Data Analysis

Interview data were content coded based on the core research foci noted above. Double coding and triangulation were employed to minimize the scope for subjective judgment and assure the validity of our findings (Miles & Huberman, 1984). The first and second authors separately coded the data from first interview. The few inconsistencies that emerged were discussed until the two authors reached an agreement. The first author then coded the remaining data. We also used triangulation across multiple sources of evidence for each case (interviews, observations, and school documents), which revealed a high degree of consistency.

RESULTS

The Context of Educational Reform

Above all, all school changes reported in this study occurred against a common educational policy context. The tidal waves of the educational reform have spread over China since the new curriculum was carried out in 2001 (Ye, 2009; Zhong, 2005). With the launch of the new policy, the goal and the principles of the new curriculum reform became both the objectives and guidelines for school change across China (Feng, 2006; Li & Ma, (2006; Ma et al., 2008).

All five of the principals in this study used the national curriculum reform as a point of leverage for change and improvements in their schools. For example, Principal 3 (P3) arrived at her present school in 2005. The school was set up in 1998 to enroll children of immigrants working in and around Guangzhou's new international airport. The students were of relatively low socio-economic status and among the lower achieving students in the district academically. She first proposed to the district's education department to be the first experimental school in the region. In line with the direction of the curriculum reform policy, she built her school improvement effort around the implementation of new instructional methods. After

six years of experimentation, the school had demonstrated great improvements in student academic performance and as well as other areas. Indeed, the school has transformed into one of the best known primary schools in the city.

A second common feature across cases was that all changes reported were undertaken in the context of policy-stimulated decentralization of school governance. It was obvious that school principals in our study made explicit use of increased autonomy over various aspects of school management. Perhaps foremost among these was the authority to set the direction of change in domains such as school improvement, school-based curriculum and teacher training. As Principal 5 (P5) recalled:

> "When I came to the present school as principal, which was established in 2002 in a new resident district, I felt it gave me much more autonomy in running the school than before to promote and sustain my previous efforts at teaching reform. Then I set this as the direction and vision for my new school".

Indeed, all five principals stated that the focal changes on which they built their school improvement efforts were selected by the school staffs, rather than through direction or mandate from higher authorities. This suggests that the curriculum policy not only provided a powerful framework in terms of targets (i.e., outcomes), but also allowed autonomy in determining the methods to be used by the schools. These principals were able to use both features of the new policy productively in reshaping their schools' priorities and strategies.

When P4 consult the opinions of some leaders in the District Education Bureau about her idea of introducing a new teaching method, she actually faced mild opposition. Some of the district leaders did not see her proposed change in teaching method as consistent with the trend of education reform. Nonetheless, even in the face of lack of support from the district office, P4 believed that the new teaching methods presented a better approach to changing students' learning habits and improving students' overall quality. Consequently, she employed the autonomy offered in the new policy to persist in implementing this change at her school.

Focus for School Change

As noted earlier, China's curriculum reform aimed to reshape the teaching and learning process in classrooms and schools. Thus, the key changes discussed by all five of the principals focused on the implementation of new teaching method. The principals' perspectives on the focus of change were aptly captured in the interview with P3.

> "During these recent years, we have been looking for a way to change the approach to studying and teaching. Actually, in 2003 in my school we had implemented a new approach to moral teaching. However, this still didn't

> address the main challenges of teaching in the subject areas, so we looked for another way. Finally we chose to implement a new teaching learning method on our own judgment. It was not an order from the top. We chose it because we thought it would be a good direction that was suitable for our school". (P3)

P5 thought that his school's change of teaching and learning method brought about a deep change of school culture. He stated:

> "When I learnt about this teaching method in a conference introduced by an expert, I was deeply attracted and moved by its potential. Then I made up my mind to pursuit this as a goal for my school. So I decided to implement it in our school and brought it back to share with my teachers". (P5)

These quotes, as well as other examples encountered in the interviews, convey the sense of excitement, optimism, possibility and inspiration of the principals themselves when they came across these innovations. In their own words, the innovations were "very amazing", "useful, and important", "worth and useful", and "active and full of expectations". This emphasizes the importance of the leader as a learner, and the role of inspiration in fostering change (Dong, 2006; Feng, 2003; Fullan, 2007; Hallinger, 2003; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000; Li, 2005).

Obstacles to Change

A common feature of education reform throughout the world, is the relatively slow pace of change (Author, 2011; Cheng, 2001; Cheng & Walker, 2008; Cuban, 1990; Fullan, 2007; Hall & Hord, 2002; Jackson, 2000; Kantamara et al., 2006; Lam, 2003; McLaughlin, 1990). This has also been the case in China where it is quite common for schools to claim it have successfully implemented change, only to withdraw their efforts after only one or two years. Kotter (1996) referred to this general change phenomenon as "declaring victory too soon". Other theorists such as Lewin (1951) and Hall and Hord (2002) highlight the distinction between "adoption" and actual "implementation" of the innovation.

The pathway towards successful change is strewn with obstacles. Indeed, the obstacles to change have been described in great detail. The Western literature highlights obstacles such as complexity of the change, lack of resources, lack of staff interest and capability, and lack of urgency (Cuban, 1990; Kotter, 1996). The East Asian literature mentions these as well as others such as 'disconnects' between values underlying the change and the culture of the receiving organization (Author, 2011; Hallinger, 2010; Lam, 2003; Lau et al., 2006; Pan & Chieu, 1999).

Based on our interviews with these successful Chinese change leaders, we were able to identify eight specific obstacles. Listed by the order of frequency, were mentioned by the participants. They are:

1. Negative teacher attitudes towards the change,

2. Lack of teacher knowledge and skills in the area of the change,
3. Impatience to see quick results (e.g., quick gain in student achievement),
4. Limited experience and availability of teachers to serve as models at the beginning,
5. Lack of teacher interest and understanding of the new change,
6. Limited resources to support implementation (e.g., funding),
7. Conflicting tasks and distractions initiated by the education bureau that diffused staff focus,
8. Lack of parental understanding and support of the change.

The most frequently mentioned obstacles for change concerned teacher attitude and capability to implement the change. The principals, as a group, emphasized the importance of teacher-related obstacles. They indicated that in the early stages of their efforts to bring about change, "teachers' quality was low" and "teachers did not understand or accept the change". The principals also highlighted the tendency of staff and other stakeholders to see change as an event, rather than as a long-term process (Hall & Hord, 2002). They wanted to see and obtain instant benefits in a short period of time.

We would note, again, that these obstacles do not differ substantively or in emphasis from lists generated by educators in other East Asian or Western societies. As judged by the interviews with these principals, the obstacles to change look more similar to those encountered by principals in New York, London, Bangkok, and Sydney than different.

Leadership Strategies and Activities that Fostered Change

With these obstacles in mind, we set out to explore the types of strategies and activities used by these successful Chinese school principals to launch and sustain innovations in their schools. We refer to strategies as sets of actions taken with the intent to achieve a particular outcome (e.g., 'create a guiding team'). Activities are actions undertaken to implement a strategy (e.g., appoint key formal and informal leaders to a project implementation team) . Coding and subsequent analysis of the interview data led to the identification of a variety of strategies and activities used by the principals to introduce and support change. The frequencies associated with these are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: *Strategies used to launch and gain momentum for the change*

No.	Strategies	Frequency
1	Concentrated on training some key teachers as models	5
2	Organized teachers to attend training on the new methods	5
3	Provided learning opportunities for staff, such as going out to visit schools and exchange activities on teaching and learning	5
4	Established incentive systems for successful implementers, such as bonus, promotion, and recognition	5

5	Built a guiding team of middle-level leaders and key teachers	5
6	Regularly invited experts into the schools to help in guiding and supporting implementation of the new teaching methods	4
7	Periodically reflected on collective experience and supported creativity suggestions to enhance engagement and impact	4
8	Introduced the new teaching methods through multiple channels	4
9	Sought to create a safe environment for innovation and reduce the risks for teachers to	4
10	Provided teachers with successful models of new methods	4
11	Provided opportunities for successful teachers to share their experience with others	3

Kotter (1996) emphasized the importance of "creating a sense of urgency" during the early stage of the change process. This strategic intent alls for actions that enable change leaders to break through the initial resistance to change that is often natural among people in organizations. To create a sense of urgency, the principals focused on both the content and means of communication about the impending change in teaching methods. They emphasized the need to use multiple channels to communicate the rationale for change, and to persist in ensuring that the focus retained a visible presence in their schools.

They also led staff meetings to explain the need for change, and used face-to-face discussions with teacher teams, and individual teachers. Three of the five principals also explained how they had prioritized implementation of the change within the scope of activities carried out in their own daily work. In doing so they sought to model and 'be the change' themselves.

Fullan (2001, 2007) has described how a key role of leaders involves helping others to 'make sense' of change. In several instances, the principals employed 'outside experts' to introduce the changes to the teachers. In high power distance cultures such as mainland China (Hofstede, 1983), these outside consultants embodied a form of expert power that conferred some degree of legitimacy on the new methods. Thus, employing 'expert power' from outside the school was a useful way of capturing the attention of the teachers and conveying the fact that the proposed change was not just a fad favored by the principal.

As noted earlier, the principals also framed these changes in teaching method within the context of China's national curriculum reform policy. Again, this strengthened the perceived legitimacy of the change. However, reliance on reference of national policy alone would have represented a 'weak strategy' when working with teachers who face a continuous stream of requests for change (Drucker, 1995). With this in mind, the principals also emphasized the importance of letting teachers know that 'this change' was a personal priority of theirs, and a priority for the school.

Thus, during the interviews, all five principals described how they had also introduced the new teaching methods within the context of their 'personal visions' of

school development (Barth, 1990). By doing so, they tapped into the existing reservoir of teachers' trust and respect for the principal. The principals used their relational power and influence in asking for the teachers' cooperation and support. In the words of two of the principals:

> P1: Firstly I clearly stated my own perspective and understanding of new teaching method and emphasized the need to change to all staff in the teacher meetings. I also discussed it at length with my key school leaders. By doing this I gained the necessary support and understanding from staff to move forward.
>
> P5: I first introduced this new change to middle-level school leaders. Initially, I showed them the new teaching method and its then discussed it promising prospects for our staff. Besides this, they believed in me. They thought that if the principal recognized it as a good thing, it could be.

In a sense, the principals were employing a type of 'tri-focal vision' that legitimated the change both through reference to experts in teaching and learning, national education policy, as well as to their personal visions of quality education. In the "high power distance" (Hofstede, 1983) context of Chinese society, this strategy of legitimizing the change through reference to these varied sources of power was a useful means of creating a "sense of urgency" in the eyes of the teaching staffs.

Kotter (1996) has articulated the importance of building a coalition of support to help in communicating and guiding the change in practice. Hall and Hord (2002) similarly noted that "principals cannot do it alone". Even in the Chinese context where principals have a considerable degree of position power, we saw evidence that these successful change leaders created coalitions for change. Three of the principals highlighted the importance of gaining support from middle-level school leaders. They noted that they had sought assistance in coordinating implementation of the changes from the outset.

Gaining the attention of staff and providing a vision of the change are not, however, sufficient to bring about productive changes. A successful change strategy must also equip those responsible for making the change happen with the knowledge, skills and attitudes to put the new methods into practice in their classroom. In Kotter's (1996) terms, change leaders must put into place a strategy that 'enables people to act'. So for example, in these schools teachers would need to understand the theory behind the new teaching methods, and learn how to use them skillfully in their classrooms. This typically requires capacity-building of teachers through some combination of training, professional development, and coaching (Hall & Hord, 2002; Joyce & Showers, 2002; Kotter, 1996).

As show in Table 2, all five principals invested in preparing teachers for change with training. These responded to the obstacles mentioned earlier and ensured that teachers had access to training and professional development. As noted in Table 2,

several of the principals again reached out to consultants to provide expertise in the form of training and feedback to teachers on how to use the new teaching and learning methods in practice. For example, P5 invited two outside consultant twice a week to observe classes and give feedback to teachers. P4 regularly gathered teachers to discuss lessons and identify areas of strength and in need for further development.

Sustaining the change also represents a key phase in the change process. As Fullan has pointed out, an implementation dip often follows the frenetic activity that often characterizes the early stages of implementation (Fullan, 2007). Several of the principals had incorporated strategies that sought to engage and encourage staff who joined the change effort (see Table 2). P5 mentioned that,

> "We tried to build up an incentive system to reward teachers who used the new teaching methods. For example, we would try to give them more recognition and opportunities for promotion. We also let them share their experiences with other staff at our school and other schools. This would make them feel that their work was more meaningful and had benefits for the school and our students".

Several of the principals also discussed how they had 'protected the change' by implementing it in small steps. In Kotter's (1996) terms, this could be interpreted as an example of "creating quick wins'. Several of the principals initially implemented the change in teaching methods in a small number of classes, and built on the success of those teachers. In addition, several of the principals sought to create a favorable atmosphere for the change by creating a safe environment in which to take risks. For example, among the primary school principals they intentionally selected lower grade classes which face less pressure for examination results.

Modeling was another important feature used to engage and support teachers during implementation. Three of the principals explicitly discussed how they employed successful implementers as models. These teachers provided an image of successful implementation in the eyes of other teachers. They also became resources who could demonstrate practical examples and models of how to make the change work in their school contexts.

Modeling sometimes encompassed activities that went beyond the schools themselves. For example, P3 stated:

> "Every summer holiday, our school organizes some travel activities with other schools that were trying to use similar teacher approaches. This not only gave our teachers opportunities to relax, build up personal relationship among colleagues, but also to exchange teaching experience with teachers in others schools. Every time when we held these activities, teachers were in high spirits and thought that they could improve a lot".

Other less frequently mentioned activities were also notable in that they reflected the relational influence that appeared to grow from principals' consideration of teachers' individual needs. For example, P1 talked about how she expressed an interest in teachers' individual and family needs, such as living condition, children, and family's life. In the Chinese context this would gain teachers' respect and support, and build up good relationship between principal and staff.

DISCUSSION

This study was undertaken in advance of an effort to develop a curriculum for training Chinese school principals in leading change. Competency in this domain is viewed as increasingly important to achieve successful long-term implementation of China's curriculum reform. We began with a review of the predominantly Chinese-language literature on principal leadership and change management since we hoped this might provide a knowledge base for understanding successful practice in mainland China.

The literature that we review from China was mostly published in Chinese, and therefore largely inaccessible to the international scholarly community. The picture of change leadership in the Chinese context that emerged was indeed quite surprising. The general literature on leadership in Chinese societies suggests that the relationship between leaders and followers is characterized by high power distance and transactional exchange considerations (Casimir, Waldman, Bartram, & Yang, 2006; Hodstede, 1983; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman & Gupta, 2004; Triandis, 1994; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998). In the terms of leadership theory, this approach is more closely aligned with transactional than transformational leadership.

In contrast, the strategies reported among successful change leaders in Chinese schools were more closely aligned with a transformational leadership perspective on leading change. Moreover, the descriptions of successful school leadership for change in China bore a clear resemblance to best practice recommendations that appear in the Western literature on leading change in schools (e.g., Fullan, 2007; Hall & Hord, 2002; Hallinger, 2003; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000). Thus, in our literature review, we frequently encountered terms associated with transformational school leadership (Hallinger, 2003; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000) such as vision, inspiration, engagement, empowerment, and capacity-building. The use of terms such as direction, command, control, authority, reward and sanction was much less frequent. However, we noted that the Chinese literature was highly descriptive, often consisting of single case studies.

With this in mind, we treated the findings from our literature as tentative, suggestive and emergent rather than conclusive. We decide to explore the findings further in a small-scale qualitative interview study with five school principals who had successfully implemented changes in teaching methods in their schools. The sample of principals, though small, did include primary and secondary school principals of both genders and from urban and rural schools. The interviews

employed open-ended questions about selected aspects of the change process as it has unfolded in their schools. Again, surprisingly, the findings cohered into a set of change strategies that were remarkably similar to those that have emerged from 60 years of research on change in Western organizations, including schools (e.g., Hall & Hord, 2002; Fullan, 2007; Kotter, 1996; Lewin, 1951; Rogers, 2003).Moreover, they suggested that these successful change leaders had employed a transformational leadership style in advancing change in their schools. In this final section of the paper, we first review the limitations of the study. Then we discuss these findings and their implications.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This research was framed as a preliminary study of leadership for change in the context of education reform in mainland China. Despite its relevance to current practice, our literature review found surprisingly few studies published in English on this topic and the Chinese literature was less empirically-grounded than we might have liked. Although we lacked the resources to undertake a large study, we decided to explore further some of the findings from our literature review through a small-scale qualitative study. Our own findings are, however, subject to several limitations worthy of explicit delineation.

First, the size of our sample of principals was very small. In any national context, never mind mainland China, a sample of five principals would be insufficient to produce conclusive generalizable results. Moreover, although our sampling strategy sought to encompass some potentially important differentiating factors (e.g., principal gender, school level and location), the size and diversity of mainland China further limit our exploratory findings to Southern China. Of course, as stated earlier, our goals for this study did not include broadly generalizable results, so we proceeded while keeping this limitation in mind.

Two additional limitations related to the research design are worthy of mention. In this research design, we lacked a comparison group against which to assess the change strategies and activities of the successful change leaders. Although we could describe trends in leadership practice of a group of successful change leaders, lack of a comparison group made it impossible to determine if the same trends would differentiate these principals from their peers in more typical schools (e.g., schools that had not succeeded in efforts to change). In addition, the qualitative interview method employed in the study, while suitable for our exploratory purposes, remains subject to the limitations of non-quantitative interview methods.

With these limitations in mind, we make no claims that the results of our qualitative study conclusively confirm or disconfirm the findings reported in the literature review. Rather we offer the empirical results as an incremental step forward as scholars begin to explore the nature of leadership practice in the context of China's education reform. Our findings do, however, lay a foundation for future larger-scale studies of change leadership in China.

CONCLUSIONS

China's curriculum reform policy is falls into the category of top-down, outside-in, mandated change. As observed by Zhong (2005), despite the effort to create greater autonomy for local schools, this education reform effort is still widely perceived as an order from the top and limited in its ability to inspire change among front-line educators. This reminds us of McLaughlin's conclusion that, "You can't mandate what matters to people, but what you mandate matters" (1990, p. 14). Thus, as has been observed in other East Asian countries (Cheng, 2001; Cheng, 2003; Hallinger, 2010; Hallinger & Lee, 2011; Malakolunthu, 2007; Pan & Chieu, 1999), even a well-intentioned plan for change can create resistance among those who are ultimately responsible for implementation. This raises the critical importance of school-level leaders with the perspective, commitment and capability to translate and transform intentions into practice and results in schools, classrooms and communities.

Compared with their counterparts in Western countries, Chinese principals also encounter a number of rather different contextual constraints. China's social structure, government policy, cultural norms, educational theories and teaching principles cohere into a context that deeply influences the attitude of educators towards educational reform and change. This carries over into the role orientations of school principals. As reported in several other Asian societies (e.g., Thailand, Malaysia, Vietnam), China's principals are first and foremost government officers (see Hallinger & Lee, 2011). Although principals are expected to lead the local implementation of government policy, they have no authority over the recruitment of new teachers and are subject to endless checking by a top-heavy supervisory system.

Yet as in other societies, it is possible to find cases of school leaders who are able to achieve results within a context comprised of a particular set of contextual constraints. These principals use their wisdom and competence to transform challenges into opportunities. As noted in this study, the successful principals leveraged the content (i.e., student development) and process (i.e., autonomy) features of China's curriculum reform in order to achieve meaningful changes in their schools. Unlike the main body of principals who just 'wait-and-see', these leaders were active in pursuing their 'personal visions' (Barth, 1990) of education despite the risks. They chose the way of change by themselves, but framed the change within the context of government policy. They dared to risk lack of support from system administrators and persist in their beliefs during the process of change.

During our interviews with the principals, it was clear that, "the culture of a nation exerts a hidden but demonstrable influence on its organizations and their capacity to change" (Author, 2001, p. 388; see also House et al., 2004). Nonetheless, key factors that influenced their capacity to 'make change happen' in their schools included many of the high leverage practices reported in the Western literature on leading change (Hall & Hord, 2002; Hallinger & Lee, 2011; Kotter, 1996; O'Toole, 1995) and transformational school leadership (Hallinger, 2003; Leithwood & Jantzi,

2000; Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris, & Hopkins, 2006; Marks & Printy, 2003). This included offering an inspiring vision of change, creating a coalition for the change, motivating and engaging teachers, building staff capacity to implement through training, coaching and feedback, modeling change practices, maintaining support with external stakeholders such as parents and the system level, and persisting in the face of predictable resistance and obstacles.

The direction and way of the change principal choose must be consistency with the rationale and principles of the new curriculum reform and be accordance to the nature and rules of education. Direction is always more importance than the speed. If the direction of the change goes against the destination of the reform, success will never be achieved. For example, if the goal of change at the school level only focuses on examination scores neither teachers nor students will ever be liberated from the burden of examinations. Yet, even with the national mandate to focus more upon student social development, this change takes place within a context that remains locked into structural and normative rewards linked to examination results. The change leaders in our study found ways to manage this tension successfully. They framed their visions for change within the curriculum reforms and then created safe environments within which teachers could experiment with new methods of teaching and learning. Change implementation proceeded in small steps as the principals and their change teams built upon successes located within small groups of teachers. Persistence and a suitable time-frame for implementing change were, therefore, also essential. It is impossible to succeed if one is too eager to gain success in a short period of time.

Educational reform is not at the end of the day a policy of the national government. It exists in the professional behavior of educators. Teachers are both practitioners and critical resources in the process of change. The ability both to stimulate teacher interest and professional development decides the quality of educational reform (Hall & Hord, 2002; Joyce & Showers, 2002). How can reform succeed unless actually engage in meaningful change?

Under China's curriculum reform policy, school leaders have been entrusted with greater autonomy. However, the DNA of the Chinese principalship is still imbued with the political-managerial ethic of the government official (see also Cuban, 1988; Halliner & Lee, 2011). This DNA creates an aversion to risk and a tendency to look upwards to assess the expectations of system administrators rather more than towards the needs of teachers and students. Nonetheless, our study suggests that it is possible for Chinese principals to transform the framework of curriculum reform into opportunities for the development of their schools.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

We wish to highlights three implications of this study. First, despite the unique features of the Chinese socio-cultural, political context, both change obstacles and strategies, in the main, reprised themes that dominate the Western literature on educational leadership and change. The consistency of this finding came as a surprise to the research team. As noted earlier, the leadership style of Chinese principals who bring about successful change in their schools resonates closely with the characteristics associated with transformational school leaders (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000). We should note that although this finding was not expected by the research team, it is consistent with Bass' (1997) proposition that transformational leadership is a construct that is not limited by cultural context. With that in mind, and given the consistency with which this is reported across many small-scale studies suggests that a larger-scale investigation that explicitly tests this proposition is warranted.

A second implication lies in the domain of organizational change processes. In their research on the implementation of educational reform in Thailand, Hallinger and Lee (2011) earlier suggested that many features of organizational change and change management appeared to apply across cultures. They proposed, however, that the normative values and traditions of a particular society could influence how resistance is expressed and therefore call for the use of different strategies to achieve success. Although the current study did not surface similar patterns of behavior related to the socio-cultural context, this could have been related to limitations of our research methodology. Therefore, in addition to larger-scale quantitative studies that examine leadership styles of Chinese change leaders, we suggest that the literature will also benefit from more in-depth qualitative studies that seek to describe in rich detail leadership and change within the existing socio-cultural context of China's schools.

REFERENCES

Abrahamsen, E. (2012, July 3). A liberal arts education made in China. *New York Times* (online). Downloaded February 5, 2013 from http://latitude.blogs.nytimes.com/2012/07/03/a-liberal-arts-education-made-in-china/.

Bajunid, I.A. (2008). Leadership for learning in Malaysia: Understanding the problems and possibilities. In J. MacBeath and Y.C. Cheng (Eds.), *Leadership for learning: International perspectives* (pp. 241-254). Rotterdam, The Netherlands: Sense

Barth, R. (1990). *Improving schools from within*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Bass, B. M. (1997). Does the transactional transformational leadership paradigm transcend organizational and national boundaries? *American Psychologist*, 52, 130-139.

Bridges, W. (2003). *Managing transitions: Making the most of change*. New York: Perseus Books.

Bush, T., & Qiang, H. Y. (2002). Leadership and culture in Chinese education. In A. Walker & C. Dimmock (Eds.), *School leadership and administration*: *Adopting a cultural perspective.* (pp. 173-186). London: Routledge Falmer.

Caldwell, B. (1998). Strategic leadership, resource management and effective school reform. *Journal of Educational Administration, 36*(5), 445-461.

Carnoy, M. (2003) Globalization and education reform. In N. Stromquist and K. Monkman (Eds.), *Globalization and education: Integration and contestation across cultures* (pp. 43-61). Oxford, UK: Rowman and Littlefield.

Casimir, G., Waldman, D., Bartram, T., & Yang , S. (2006). Trust and the relationship between leadership and follower performance: Opening the black box in Australia and China. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 12*(3)68-84.

Chen, C. L. (2005). Implications of principal curriculum leadership and its requirement of principals' way of thinking. *Education Exploration*, *168*(6), 31-33. (in Chinese).

Chen, P. (2008). Strategic leadership and school reform in Taiwan. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement,19*(3), 293-318.

Chen, R. P. (2004). Principal instructional leadership: Strategies of improving school effectiveness and promoting school change. *Contemporary Educational Science*, *20*, 30-32. (in Chinese).

Cheng K.M. (1995). The neglected dimension: Cultural comparison in educational administration. In K.C. Wong and K.M. Cheng (Eds.), *Educational leadership and change* (pp. 87-102). Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.

Cheng, B. S., Huang, M. P., & Chou, L. F. (2002). Paternalistic leadership and its effectiveness: Evidence from Chinese organizational teams. *Journal of Psychology in Chinese Societies (Hong Kong), 3*, 85-112. (in Chinese).

Cheng, K.M. (2001). Changing cultures and schools in the People's Republic of China: tradition, the market and educational change. In J. Cairns (Ed.), *World yearbook of education 2001: Values, culture and education* (pp. 242-257). London: Kogan Page.

Cheng, Y.C (2005). Globalization and educational reforms in Hong Kong: Paradigm shift. In J. Zaida, K. Freeman, M. Geo-JaJa, S. Majhanovich, V. Rust, & R. Zajda (Eds.) *The international handbook on globalization and education policy research* (pp.165-187). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.

Cheng, Y.C. (2003). Trends in educational reform in the Asia-Pacific region. In J. Keeves and R. Watanabe (Eds.) *International handbook of educational research in the Asia Pacific* (pp. 3-16). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Kluwer.

Cheng, Y.C., & Walker, A. (2008). When reform hits reality: The bottleneck effect in Hong Kong primary schools. *School Leadership and Management, 28*(5), 505-521.

Chia, J. (2008). *Malaysia in globalization: Dilemma in education reform and globalization*. Retrieved May 2008 from, http://www.judechia.com/2008/12/malaysia-in-globalization-education.html.

Chu, H.Q., & Cravens, X.C. (2012). Principal professional development in China: Challenges, opportunities, and strategies. *Peabody Journal of Education, 87*(2), 178-199.

Cravens, X.C., & Hallinger, P. (2012). School leadership and change in East Asia: Building capacity for education reform. *Peabody Journal of Education, 87*(2), 157-`161.

Cuban, L. (1990). Reforming again, and again, and again. *Educational Researcher*, *19*(1), 3-13.

Cui, Y.G. (2006). School change based on the partner relationship. *Contemporary Science of Education, 22,* 3-5

Dimmock, C. & Walker, A. (2000). Introduction justifying a cross-cultural comparative approach to school leadership and management. *School Leadership and Management, 20*(2), 137– 141.

Dong, A. X. & Geng, G. Y. (2008). Exploration of principal leadership style under new curriculum. *Forum on Contemporary Education*, *6*, 33-35. (in Chinese).

Dong, X. P. (2006). From transactional leadership to shared leadership: Building the drive for quality education. *Contemporary Educational Science*, *12*, 33-36. (in Chinese).

Drucker, P. (1995). *Managing in a time of great change.* New York: Talley House, Dutton.

Du, P. (2004). High effective principal leadership: Important guarantee for curriculum reform. *Exploring Education Development*, *11*, 28-31. (in Chinese).

Evans, R. (1996). *The human side of school change*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Feng, D. M. (2003). Principal training and development in the People's Republic of China: Retrospect and prospect. In P. Hallinger (Ed.), *Reshaping the landscape of school leadership development: A global perspective* (pp. 205-216). Lisse, Netherlands: Swets & Zeitlinger.

Feng, D. M. (2006). China's recent curriculum reform: Progress and problems. *Planning and Changing, 37*(1/2), 131-144.

Fullan, M. (2001). *Leading in a culture of change*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Fullan, M. (2007). *The new meaning of educational change* (4th Edition). New York: Teachers College Press.

Gao, H. Y. (2002). Comparisons and considerations of the 'autonomous management' in China and abroad. *Comparative Education Review*, *8*, 54-57. (in Chinese)

Hall, G., & Hord, S. (2002). *Implementing change: Patterns, principles, and potholes.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Hallinger, P. & Kantamara, P. (2001b). Learning to lead global changes across cultures: Designing a computer-based simulation for Thai school leaders. *Journal of Educational Administration*, *39*(3), 197-220.

Hallinger, P. (2003). Leading educational change: Reflections on the practice of instructional and transformational leadership. *Cambridge Journal of Education, 33*(3), 329-351.

Hallinger, P. (2007). Leading organizational change. In P. Hallinger, E. & Bridges (Eds.), *Problem-based management education: Developing "managers for action."* Dordrecht, Netherlands: Springer.

Hallinger, P. (2010). Making education reform happen: Is there an "Asian" way? *School Leadership and Management, 30*(5), 401-408.

Hallinger, P., & Bryant, D.A. (2013). Mapping the terrain of research on educational leadership and management in East Asia. *Journal of Educational Administration.*

Hallinger, P., & Kantamara, P. (2001a). Exploring the cultural context of school improvement in Thailand. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement 12*(4), 385 -408.

Hannum, E., & Park, A. (2002). Educating China's rural children in the 21st century. *Harvard China Review*, *3*(2). Retrieved from http://www.economics.ox.ac.uk/members/albert.park/papers/harvard.pdf.

Hargreaves A., & Fullan, M. (1998). *What's worth fighting for out there*. New York: Teachers College Press.

He, L. F. (2005). Learning and borrowing from each other: The general trend of the world educational management development. *Qiushi*, *9*, 56-57. (in Chinese).

Hofstede, G. (1983). The cultural relativity of organizational practices and theories. *Journal of International Business Studies*, *14*(2), 75-89.

House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W. & Gupta, V. (2004). *Culture, leadership and organisations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies*. London: SAGE.

Hu, C. S. (2005). *New leadership theory and the growth of servant-headmasters in China.* Unpublished master thesis. Beijing Normal University, Beijing, China. (in Chinese).

Jackson, D. (2000). The school improvement journey: Perspectives on leadership. *School Leadership & Management, 2*(1), 61-78.

Jia, H. L. (2007). Investigation on leadership effectiveness of primary and secondary school head teachers. *Journal of Teaching and Management*, *12*, 12-13. (in Chinese).

Joyce, B., & Showers, B. (2002). *Student achievement through staff development.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Kam, H.W., & Gopinathan, S. (1999). Recent developments in education in Singapore. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement, 10*(1), 99-117.

Kantamara, P., Hallinger, P., & Jatiket, M. (2006). Scaling-up educational reform in Thailand: Context, collaboration, networks and change, *Planning and Changing, 37*(1), 5-23.

Ke, Z. (2007). Xuexiao biange kunnan xinzhidu zhuyi jiexi. [An analyze to new institutionalism of the difficulties in school change]. *Peking University Education Review, 5*(1), 42-54.

Kotter, J. (1996). *Leading change*. Boston, Mass.: Harvard Business School Press

Lam, Y.L.J. (2003). Balancing stability and change: Implications for professional preparation and development of principals in Hong Kong. In P. Hallinger (Ed.), *Reshaping the landscape of school leadership development: A global perspective* (pp. 175-188). Lisse, The Netherlands: Swets & Zeitlinger.

Lau, C.M., Tse, D.K., & Zhou, N. (2002). Institutional forces and organizational culture in China: Effects on change schemas, firm commitment, and job satisfaction. *Journal of International Business Studies, 33*(3), 533-550.

Law, W.W. (2004). Translating globalization and democratization into local policy: Educational reform in Hong Kong and Taiwan. *International Review of Education, 50*(5-6), 497-524.

Leithwood, K. (2001). School leadership in the context of accountability policies. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, *4*(3), 217-235.

Leithwood, K., & Jantzi, D. (2000). The effects of transformational leadership on organizational conditions and student engagement with the school. *Journal of Educational Administration, 38*(2), 112-129.

Leithwood, K., Day, C., Sammons, P., Harris, A., & Hopkins, D. (2006). *Seven strong claims about successful school leadership*. Nottingham, England: National College of School Leadership.

Lewin K. 1951. *Field theory in social science.* New York: Harper & Row

Li, C. H., & Ma, Y. P. (2006). Situation and strategies for principal curriculum leadership. *Global Education*, *35*(6), 50-55. (in Chinese).

Li, L. (2005). From management to leadership: Transforming the role and behaviors of principals. *Beijing Education*, *2*, 18-20. (in Chinese).

Lin, C. C. (2008). Demystifying the chameleonic nature of Chinese leadership. *Journal of leadership & Organizational Studies*, *14*(4), 303-321.

Lin, C. H. (2000). Case study and comparison in terms of principal leadership power. *Shanghai Research on Education*, *149*(5), 24-29.

Ma, Y. P., Wang, B., & Xie, S. (2008). Principals' curriculum leadership: An important assurance for deepening development of primary and secondary school curriculum reform in rural area. *Journal of Northeast Normal University (Philosophy and Social Sciences)*, *231*(1), 30-33. (in Chinese).

Ma, Y. P., Wang, B., & Yan, J. S. (2005). Talking about the principals of the rural primary and middle schools as curriculum leaders in the new curriculum reform. *Theory and Practice of Education*, *25*(3), 44-48. (in Chinese).

Malakolunthu, S. (2007). Education reform implementation in Malaysian schools: Challenge for principals. In Marina-Stefania Giannakaki (Ed.), *The teacher and the teaching profession: Current research and international issues* (pp. 591-602). Athens, Greece: ATINER.

Marks, H., & Printy, S. (2003). Principal leadership and school performance: An integration of transformational and instructional leadership. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 39*(3), 370-397.

Maurer, R. (1996). *Beyond the wall of resistance.* Austin, TX: Bard Books.

McLaughlin, M. (1990). The Rand change agent study revisited. *Educational Researcher, 5*, 11-16.

Meng, C. S. (2008). Principal leadership style under new curriculum. *Journal of Inner Mongolia University of Nationalities*, *14*(1), 163-164. (in Chinese).

Meng, D. G. (2004). Improvement of school principal leadership. *Contemporary Educational Science*, *10*, 40. (in Chinese).

Miles, M., & Huberman, A. M. (1984). *Qualitative data analysis: A sourcebook of new methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Minister of Education (MOE). (2010). guojia zhongchangqi jiaoyu gaige he fazhang guihua gangyao(2010-2020). [Outline of China's National Plan for Medium and Long-term Education Reform and Development]. Beijing: Ministry of Education, China.

Ministry of Education (MOE). (2001a). jichu jiaoyu gaige gangyao [The outline of the basic education reform (Tentative)]. Beijing: Ministry of Education, China.

Ministry of Education (MOE). (2001b). zhongguo jiaoyu gaige he fazhan gangyao. [Decisions on the basic education reform and development]. Beijing: Ministry of Education, China.
Mok, K.H. (2004). *Centralization and decentralization: Educational reforms and changing governance in Chinese societies.* Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Kluwer.
Ng, D. (2004). *Change leadership: communicating, continuing, and consolidating change*. Singapore: Pearson Education South Asia.
O'Toole, J. (1995). *Leading change.* San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
Pan, H.L., & Chieu, Y. (1999). Educational reforms with their impacts on school effectiveness and school improvement in Taiwan, R.O.C. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement, 10*(1), 72-85.
Park, H.J. (2002). *Learning effective organizational strategies across cultures: Leading change in Korean organizations.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Peabody College of Vanderbilt University, Nashville, TN.
Pepper, S. (1996). *Radicalism and education reform in 20th century China*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Qian, H. Y. (2008). *The secondary school principalship in China: Leading at the cusp of change.* Paper presented at the UCEA Annual Convention, Orlando, FL.
Rahimah, H. A. (1998). Educational development and reformation in Malaysia: Past, present and future. *Journal of Educational Administration, 36*(5), 462-475.
Robinson, V., Lloyd, C., & Rowe, K. (2008).The Impact of leadership on student outcomes: An analysis of the differential effects of leadership types. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 44*(5), 635-674.
Rogers, E. (2003). *Diffusion of innovations* (5th edition). New York: The Free Press.
Stoll, L. & Fink, D. (2010). The future schools: he aims and approaches of change. Beijing: Peking University Press.
Su, L. (2009). *Successful principal lead school successfully*. Beijing: China Education Press.
Triandis, H. (1995). *Individualism and collectivism*. Boulder, CO: Westview.
Trompenaars, F., &Hampden-Turner, C. (1998). *Riding the waves of culture*. New York: McGraw Hill.
Walker, A., & Dimmock, C. (Eds.) (2002). *School leadership and administration: Adopting a cultural perspective*. New York: Routledge-Falmer.
Walker, A., Hu, R.K., & Qian, H.Y. (2012): Principal leadership in China: An initial review, *School Effectiveness and School Improvement, 23*(4), 369-399.
Walker, A., Qian, H.Y.,& Zhang, S. (2011). Secondary school principals in curriculum reform: Victims or accomplices? *Frontiers of Education China, 6*(3), 388–403.
Wei, H. H. (2006). Meanings and strategies of principal leadership in learning schools. *Journal of Teaching and Management*, *12*, 13-14. (in Chinese).
Wu, Y.P., & Pang,Q.Z. (2011). Xuexiao zhuanxing zhong de jiaoxue gaige. [Teaching Reform during the school transformation]. Educational Science publishing House.
Xu, D. (2005). Understanding headmaster's power under headmaster's responsibility system. *Continue Education Research*, *6*, 161-163. (in Chinese).

Yang, S.K. (2001, March). *Dilemmas of education reform in Taiwan: Internationalization or localization?* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Comparative and International Education Society, Washington D.C.

Ye, L. (2009). Shixian zhuanxing: shijichu zhongguo xuexiao biange de zouxiang**.** **[**Realizing transformation: The trend of the school change in China in the early stage of the century]. East China Normal University. Educational Science publishing House.

Zhang, T. X., & Zeng, T. S. (2006). School improvement and principal power in the view of citizen society concept. *Educational Research*, *27*(5), 55-58. (in Chinese).

Zhao, H. (2005). *The status, role and function-fulfillment of primary and secondary school principals in new curriculum reform.* Unpublished master thesis. Inner Mongolia Normal University, Hohhot, Inner Mongolian Autonomous Region, China. (in Chinese).

Zhong, Q. Q. (2005). Zhongguo kecheng gaige: tiaozhan yu fansi. [Curriculum Reform in China: Challenge & Reflection]. *Comparative Education Review, 12*, 18-23.

Appendix A: Interview Questions

1. How long have you worked as a school principal in this school?
2. Can you please identify an important change that you have been implementing in your school? Please be specific, for example, a new teach method, a new curriculum, or ICT.
3. When did your school begin to implement this change and why? Was it a new Ministry policy or something that the school chose to implement on their own?
4. How did you feel about this change at the beginning (e.g., important, useful waste of time etc.)?
5. How did you first communicate the need to implement this change to your staff?
6. What was the response of staff (students and parents—if relevant) when you first informed them about it? (e.g., happy, no response, some quiet resistance, open opposition).
7. Would you please describe the process of leading the school change?
   a) How did you start the change?
   b) Who was responsible for leading the change (be specific)?
   c) At the time that you began to make this change, please describe briefly:
      1) Factors in your school that supported the change
      2) Factors in your school that would make implementing the change difficult (e.g., budget, staff attitude, staff skills, school culture)
      3) What obstacles or problems did you face in getting the change started? Please describe these in some detail with examples.
8. What kind of activities have you done to motivate your staff to implement the change?

9. What was the percentage of staff who could implement the change after:
   a) One year?
   b) Two years?
   c) Longer?
10. What percentage of staff are now able to use the change now? How successful do you think it has been? Why do you think that? (what evidence of success)
11. What obstacles or problems did you face in moving the change along during the period after you got it started? Please describe these in some detail with examples.
12. Who were the important people in your staff that helped make the change happen? How did each of them help?
13. If you look back now, what were the key factors supporting the change in your school? How did you get these supports?
14. How long did it take for your school to have changed obviously?
15. Would you please provide 4 specific suggestions for other school leaders on how to lead successful school change in Chinese schools? Can you order these by importance?