Proceedings of the ATEE Winter Conference – 2011

Multi-dimensional Aspects of Leadership for Learning

25–27 February 2011, Bled, Slovenia

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ASSOCIATION FOR TEACHER EDUCATION IN EUROPE

Contents

The Winter Conference is an initiative of the Association of Teacher Education in Europe (ATEE) Its purpose is discussion and deepening of the issues studied by one or more of the Research and Development Centres (RDC) of the Association. Year in, year out the RDCs may widen their research by means of specific conferences open to European and non-European experts. The third conference theme will be a consideration of the multi dimensional roles of leaders and managers in educational organisations.

The 2011 ATEE Winter Conference was organised by the Research and Development Centre Educational Leadership and management.

The purpose and goals of the 2011 ATEE Winter Conference are set out below.

'Multi-dimensional aspects of leadership for learning'

The role of leaders of learning is critical to the development of national and European economy and thus is high on the European agenda. In a series of EU documents (Lisbon, Copenhagen and in EU action plans) this has been well highlighted. It is now widely acknowledged that education is the key to a nation's competitiveness in the global economy and a great premium continues to be placed upon the potential of educational leadership to create the conditions for positive development and change. This mini-conference is an opportunity to share and to benefit from the pooled knowledge, insights and strategies to promote leadership for learning and development within educational organisations.

The multi-dimensional aspects of leadership under consideration include:

- Commonalities and differences in the variety of educational contexts
- Challenges facing Leaders in Education
- Leading Professional Learning

Goals

- to raise awareness of the key aspects of educational leadership in different contexts
- to raise consciousness of different learning contexts in Europe
- to explore specific competences of deans and other senior leaders in field of education
- to explore duties, roles and responsibilities in their institutions
- to explore the impact of government policies as well as international co-operation and international agreements on the role leaders in education.
- to have a one-to-one professional coaching opportunity
- to promote European and international co-operation.

The target group were:
Deans, Headteachers, Principals and Senior Leaders in Universities, Schools, Colleges and other Educational Institutions.

The keynote speakers were:
Professor Dr Kit Field, **Dean of the School of Education**, University of Wolverhampton, UK ;
Dr. Paul Sudnik, **Director of the InternationalBusinessCollege**, Kosovo.

During the weekend, there were 35 active members of the conference from more than a dozen different countries.

The schedule of the conference is set out below.

	Friday 25 February 2011 16.00 Arrival & registration
18:00	**Opening Session** Welcome address - Justina Erculj, ATEE President Presentation by RDC Educational Leadership and Management Ada Adeghe, RDC Chair, and Eystein Artzen, RDC Co-chair.
19:00	**Welcome reception**
	Saturday 26 February 2011
09:00	**Keynote lecture 1:** Professor Kit Field, United Kingdom
09:45	Responses to keynote - Ada Adeghe (Facilitator)
10:30	Coffee break - Hotel Bar
11:00	**Parallel sessions round 1**
13.00	Lunch - Hotel Restaurant
14.00	**Parallel sessions - round 2**
15.45	Coffee break - Hotel Bar
16.15	**Facilitated Workshops**
	Chairs: Eystein Arntzen, Glynn Kirkham
20.00	Social Dinner
	Sunday 27 February 2011
09:00	**Keynote lecture 2**: Dr Paul Sudnik, Kosovo
09:45	Responses to keynote - Glynn Kirkham (Facilitator)
10:30	Coffee break - Hotel Bar
11:00	**Facilitated session around the conference theme** Glynn Kirkham
12:00	**Panel: Conclusions from discussions on the conference theme Closing Session**
13.00	Lunch - Hotel Restaurant

Keynote speaker 1.
Professor Dr Kit Field, **Dean of the School of Education,** University of Wolverhampton, England
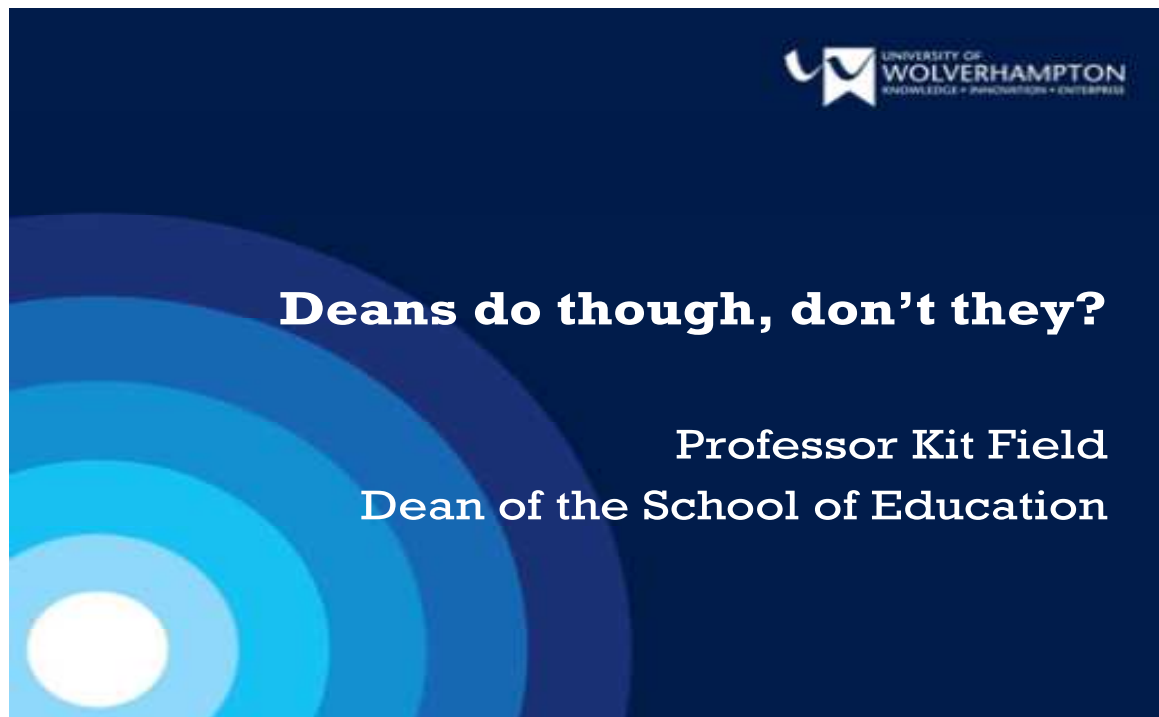

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Kit Field has been Dean of the School of Education at the University of Wolverhampton for three and half years. He has also fulfilled the role of Acting Dean for the University's Business School for a period of eight months. His presentation will look at the role of Dean, both as a leader and as a manager, taking into account:

- *Leading a School of Education: mission, values and vision*
- *The need to 'scan horizons' and make plans in preparation for change*
- *The external facing role and responsibilities*
- *Being part of a whole University management team*
- *Macro and micro management*

The presentation will draw on real experiences, and will include personal as well as institutional challenges. The paper draws on some leadership and management theory, and relates these to practical and pragmatic decisions to be made during very difficult times.
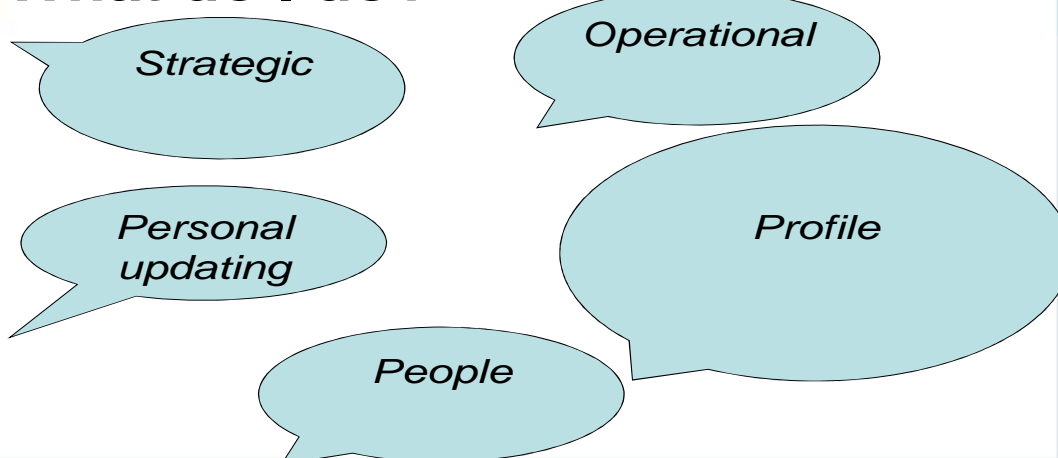
Introduction: A week in the life of a Dean of a School of Education.
The following table contains a list of activities undertaken throughout the working week of
14th – 18th February, 2011.

STRATEGIC
Meet with Local Authority to develop future collaborations (relationship management)
Scenario planning with Whole University Management Group
Interviewing for new Headteacher of a partner school (relationship management)
School governors' Meeting (relationship management)
Letter to all partner schools informing of policy developments
Delegation of project development to three colleagues

OPERATIONAL
Planning meeting for revalidation of Masters provision
Meet line managers to agree final draft of school plan
Attend Research and Knowledge Transfer Department 'awayday'
Liaise with cross University Unit regarding development and 'sale' of accredited course
Budget monitoring meeting
Review of funding bids and projected income
School Executive meeting
Response to student complaint
Preparation for the chairing of a staff grievance hearing
Crisis management associated with actions of a member of administrative team met with scenario
planning with Whole University Management Group
PROFILE
Agree with Reader a guest list for formal dissemination event at House of Commons
Attend launch of new regional Royal Society of Arts centre
Continue with conference presentation paper

PERSONAL UPDATING
Participation in online AGM of professional association
Forward book review to academic publisher copy editor
Refereeing two academic journal submissions
Governors' Meeting

The activities are categorised. Very few do not require prior preparation, and alldemand prior
knowledge and experience. The activities cannot be taken in isolation from each other, in terms of

assuring coherence and consistency. All activities have to be conducted within an ethical framework and in the context of a School plan.The sections of this paper below explain both the conceptual and contextualframeworks within which I have to work, and also the provenance of theseframeworks.

What should a Dean do?

- "An academic dean is an educational administrator who serves as the head of a school within a college or university. Academic deans provide vision and direction to their school. They are responsible for guiding and directing the school's faculty, and they represent the school, its students, and its faculty to the campus as a whole".

(http://www.wisegeek.com/what-does-an-academic-dean-do.htm)

Values and Ethical Frameworks

What does a Dean do? A quick Google search reveals the following:

"An academic dean is an educational administrator who serves as the head of a school within
a college or university. Academic deans provide vision and direction to their school. They are
responsible for guiding and directing the school's faculty, and they represent the school, its students, and its faculty to the campus as a whole".
(http://www.wisegeek.com/what-does-anacademic-dean-do.htm)

The next question must be: Why would anyone want be a Dean? Such an aspiration can only
be explained in terms of a personal biography. I am convinced that nobody begins their career with the ambition of becoming a Dean. One finds oneself in the position of being able
to become a Dean, having taken opportunities over many years which lead towards that position. The key words from the definition above are 'serves', 'vision', 'direction', responsible', 'represent'. Missing words might include 'leadership' and 'management'
Three years ago, I was asked to deliver a paper on leadership. I entitled the paper "*The burden of responsibility*". All of my life I have been drawn to leadership. As a young man I played sport, and was captain of every team I played for. As a teacher, I became a Head of Department in a secondary school. I have led units and centres in Higher Education, a Department and now a School. I have chaired cross-institutional committees. There is no doubt, in retrospect, that I must have always sought leadership roles, and I suppose others have recognised my capacity to lead. Linked to this desire to lead, are the reasons I chose to
enter the education profession. In short I have wanted to make a difference. I have always wanted to make a contribution. My upbringing, as with anyone, instilled certain values –
work hard and play hard, never let people down, be disciplined and honest.
Christopher Hodgkinson (1991) attempted to uncover the source of individual value sets.

He begins by asserting the need to take individual personality into account, followed by 'kin and peer group'. Other factors which influence my perspective on life are the environment, culture and sub-cultures to which I belong. It is these unique combinations which lead me to hold values which overlap and chime with others' but which also make me unique. My professional, academic and personal values are what define me as a leader, and therefore as a Dean. I work in an academic environment, and therefore respect the quest for knowledge and truth. As Lawrence (1999) asserts, the profession would not be worthy if it did not do so.

The School of Education prepares people for professional life, and I recognise the sense of professional codes of conduct, which include innovation, development, and also civic responsibility and accountability. At a personal level, I am gregarious, even a show off, but essentially I like working with people. I feel a sense of responsibility towards people, and I enjoy the social interactions that go with that.

I hold values dear. I insist that every unit I lead has explicit values, and that these are articulated in words, but are also evident through actions. I hold myself accountable to the values and I also expect the values to have been the outcome of consultation and discussion.

I believe in consensus, rather than compromise, and aim to secure the commitment of all to the values. This relates back to one of the key words 'serve'. Thomas Sergiovanni's (1999) concept of servant leadership is one to which I relate.

I am also motivated and driven. I believe in the place of education to inform and to empower individuals, and also to transform and regenerate society. It is important that my actions and decisions are ethically informed.

My political stance (whether interpreted as liberal, social democrat or liberal democrat) determines, to a degree whether my approach is intended to benefit primarily the individual, the collective or an external authority such as the Government. At the most basic level, ethics are borne from customary practice, passed down by authorities, and, from a societal perspective, are crystallised in law. The legal requirements are mediated by professional bodies and organisations, yet the hierarchical hegemony of the law is beyond question. This apparent certitude is helpful to me as a Dean. First and foremost I must comply with legal and moral requirements.

Secondly, I am accountable to the profession. A feature of a profession is that it is selfregulating,and therefore to an extent appears to be above the law. However, no profession has inherent legitimacy. Respect has to be earned and the risk of a conflict between the legal and professional dimensions is high. Lawrence (1999) notes how professional power, derived from the view that professions are self-regulating, can lead to some professions exerting too great an influence over the human agenda. Education is, history tells us, an effective *propaganda* tool. Ethics based on legal foundations protect against corruption.

Another key feature of a profession is its unremitting focus on the client/service user. Koehn (1994) is very clear. Professional powers should not extend beyond serving the public good.

Lawrence (1999) recognises a sense of de-professionalisation the moment the profession shifts its attention to emphasise its own success as opposed to meeting the needs and wants of the customer. In a more commercialised age, this can relate to the generation of externally sourced income. My role as the leader is to maintain the focus of all forms of provision on those we serve at all times. The risk associated with failing to do so extends beyond individuals to the institutions in which I work. Personal and organisational ethics and motives can conflict with the professional. Risk assessment guards against the adverse effects of breeches of ethical codes.

Lawrence (1999) feels that any ethical code must relate to institutional aims and objectives.

Vision and mission, again must be explicit, and shared. By carefully articulating ethics and

consequently governance, the institution is able to reinforce and enhance the profile of itself it wishes to project. As Dean, I should recall, I am responsible for representing the institution to others.

Self-examination, and the scrutiny of ethical codes emanating from social, legal, professional and institutional sources assists me as Dean to weave a path with which I am personally comfortable. This 'weaving' involves mediation, negotiation and sensitivity to others, best expressed through a public statement of the values intended to underpin the School's role and intended purposes (Lawrence 1999).

This need to self-protect and the obligation to declare my values are all the more necessary in a modern society which emphasises consumer rights in public services above traditional expert and professional judgment. Eraut (1994) claims that part of being a true professional is knowing when ethical questions should be asked.

Mission and Vision
My own values demand that a Dean's first priority is to agree and fix a mission, i.e. to set a purpose for a School of Education which is itself underpinned by values. This inevitably involves a process of negotiation with all stakeholders, and the development of a vision of what the work of the School will look and feel like. Neither the mission nor the vision can be developed in a vacuum. They must take account of the social, cultural, political, economic, professional and institutional landscapes. Unpacking this complexity is no mean feat, it involves an analysis of the current state of affairs and horizon scanning in order to future proof provision to assure commitment and sustainability.

The first step involves identifying key principles which underpin the work of a University School of Education, which in commercial language is to identify and clarify the unique selling point (USP) of the School. What gives university-led work integrity can be reduced to two such principles: academic distinctiveness and quality. Both are valued, but both can lead to what appears a slow and cumbersome set of processes. These principles transcend the times, and are equally appropriate in a new world as they were in the old. A series of articles by American leaders of Higher Education Institutions (Breneman and Yakoboski (eds) 2011) has as an underpinning theme of moving from an 'old normal' to a 'new normal'. The 'new normal' includes a focus on academic enterprise, knowledge entrepreneurship, the cross disciplinary use and application of inspired research findings, being a force for societal transformation and a means of maximising the benefits of global engagement. All of these involve looking to, and planning for, a new future, and not dwelling on the past. In short, we may have been excellent at what we have done in the past, but what we are so good at may not be what is needed in the future. This challenge is intensified by the collective understanding that there is no single solution to the 'knotty' problems we face. For me, in the role of Dean, this suggests a piecemeal, 'just in time' approach, resembling trouble-shooting and offering no agreed and committed stance. In my view, schools of education are committed to shaping the future, not being victims of change. It is the mission and vision which serve as a form of glue, binding discrete actions into a strategic approach. The alternative is risking the loss of staff commitment.

Management and leadership texts are clear that systemic change takes up to three years or more. Existing leadership and management teams often consist of colleagues who have excelled in the 'old normal' In a context where there is likely to be no return to the 'old normal' the challenge for a Dean is to avoid fighting a rearguard action. New ways of thinking and therefore possibly new staff are essential. At Wolverhampton, over the last three years the School has completely replaced its team of Associate Deans and Heads of Academic Departments, along with appointing a new team of partnership directors. It is this 'refreshment' that allows a different perspective on the future. New ways of thinking are also informed by evidence, rather than ideology. This provides the reasoning behind a focus on research. University-led provision must be informed and challenged by the outcomes of research. Universities are obliged o contribute to the development of new knowledge, and it is through rigorous research and dissemination that this is achieved. In addition research adds to our reputation and also provides income streams to the School.

A Dean must promote and support research through a range of means, and for a variety of ends.
Maintaining and increasing capacity must be a high priority.

The new normal, makes partnership and collaboration even more essential. Direct funding is being reduced – both from public and private sources. The force of globalisation demands engagement in a broader geographical field. Without a positive response, the profession risks irrelevance. The character of the student body is changing. They may take advantage of credit accumulation systems and flit from one provider to another, and/or dip in an out of accredited programmes in order to accommodate high fee rates and part time work. The sense of belonging to a single institution may be lost. Distinctiveness will be concerned with fitness for purpose, flexibility and a duty of care. On the other hand, Universities like Wolverhampton also have to accommodate local students, who do not arrive at the University with the cultural and social capital associated traditionally with higher education students.
Access to the internet increases the need to develop a competitive edge, which creates a further tension between different 'types' of student. The core value associated with inclusiveness means that Universities like that of Wolverhampton must cater for all. In addition, the market place is becoming more crowded. The examples from USA of 'forprofit' organisations competing with publicly funded institutions inject an even greater commercial dimension. It is through partnership that organisations can achieve greater reach, and also assure an inclusive approach to education. The alternative response to marketisation is to create a competitive system which is riddled with duplication of effort. A partnership approach must not lead to a tiered system of research intensive institutions, teaching only institutions and commercially viable consultancy units. It is the combination of all three that gives the sector authority and gravitas. Partnership is a key element of the mission and vision.

It is foolish to ignore the shift towards marketisation and indeed privatisation. However, it is interesting to note that despite the reduction in state support, enrolment levels have never been higher. University-led provision is popular, in the forms of research informed accredited courses, knowledge transfer, consultancy and CPD. One distinguishing feature is the concept of criticality, which should not be confused with criticism. Criticality must be positive and productive, or it becomes seen by others as a barrier to change. Criticality acts as a check against value-free innovation, but if not kept in check itself, can lead to ossification. Part of the 'new normal' is to promote creativity, innovation and enterprise.
In a world where the student is becoming a more and more powerful consumer, there is a need to, at least in part, match the offer/provision to the customer demands. A positive response to the student voice requires a constantly evolving pedagogy and infra-structure to allow for personal and professional growth. New forms of interaction and exchanges of ideas must enable innovation and development without compromising the high standards and quality of provision of which we are so proud. A student-demand system requires the publication of metrics relating to recruitment, retention, progression, student satisfaction, levels of care, contact time, facilities resources and employability. The Dean must lead the development of accountability systems. This apparent set of 'objective measures' reveals a commitment to the new normal, when much currently in place reflects an old normal. For example how many existing staff profiles mirror the demographics of the student body? Existing staff must change ways of working to accommodate new demands. More than ever students of different ethnic, cultural, class and age backgrounds are attending education related courses. Their demands include a requirement that education courses service career aspirations, and when organisations such as schools and colleges are our customers due account must also be given to organisational development.

The mission and vision are therefore built upon esoteric principles and values, yet are imbued with a sense of realism. The Dean's challenge in articulating an agreed message about his/her school/faculty contains a unique mix of:
· Fitness for purpose
· Future proofing
· Accountability
· Concern for customer needs and demands

· Marketability
· Scalability
· An emphasis on partnership and collaboration
· Perpetual innovation.

In the current climate the combination of the above requires the Dean to consider refocusing the offer/provision to include, in the case of Wolverhampton, the offer of products, services, consultancy and CPD in addition to retaining its contribution to education and training related courses, and without abandoning the distinctiveness of research, accreditation, criticality and quality. New interpretations relating to social justice and civic leadership must be clearly articulated and consequently staff roles and responsibilities must be continuously reviewed. No Dean can achieve this alone. Part of the leadership role is to draw on the perspectives and insights of others. We all have blind spots, and cannot be experts in all aspects. As Heifetz (1994) suggests, these new demands call for collaboration and a flatter management structure.

There are of course problems associated with the empowerment of others during times of change. The response to change by established units, designed to service 'the old normal' is often one of protectionism. The negative connotations of centralisation in order to address financial constraints are well known. The Dean and team has to accentuate the positives – scalability, replicability and efficiency. This demands an emotional intelligence, such as sense of empathy. The complexity and demands extend beyond this. Holub (2011) lists the accusations made against Deans at times of change and reorganisation. He points out that Deans run the risk of being accused of being a simple voice-piece for Vice Chancellors, being too focussed on his/her own career opportunities, being unconcerned about the School's established and successful identity and integrity and detaching academic staff from decision-makingprocesses. A clear attribute of a Dean is a thick skin! To face up to such accusations is indeed in stark contrast to many Deans' intentions of:

· Serving the students
· Engaging staff in the mission
· Adjusting budgets and resources, (including human)
· Creating a sense of urgency without inducing panic
· Developing a sense of inclusive leadership
· Nurturing powerful relationships
· Creating a climate which welcomes change, and
· Reminding all of the crucial features of effective practice in face of an uncertain future.

So, what are the outcomes of this? One hopes an agreed mission and vision, achieved through consultation, but one which is in harmony with the Dean's own personal, professional and institutional values. In the case of the University of Wolverhampton's School of Education, a summary of the mission and vision is:

Mission:

- social inclusion and social change
- critical thinking
- to promote independence in learners
- be responsive to local circumstance and nationally and internationally driven educational agendas
- to lead the transformation of learning in our region
- to raise attainment and aspirations
- to add value to existing resources and build capacity across the partnership
- to foster innovation and promote best practice
- to promote personalised learning and strategies

Vision

- a spirit of collaboration and sharing within and across organisation(s)
- a thriving and aspirational sub-region, driven by educational achievement
- a locum for innovation, experimentation and best practice
- a research informed education provision across all sectors
- informed, open and transparent leadership
- high quality provision across all activity.

Values

- respect for people, respect for professional judgement
- sustained relationships with partners and clients
- evidence based decision making and practice
- embracing difference and diversity in terms of backgrounds and forms of provision across the world
- intellectual freedom, creativity and innovation as a means of supporting improvement through change
- transparent and clear approach to leadership and management
- to contribute to economic, social and educational regeneration.

These have been achieved through a series of strategies, which have been intended to mirror the very values espoused. Questionnaires were sent to external stakeholders, asking for views on how we should work together and for what purpose. Internally a debate is stimulated through a Dean's Address which takes place at least annually. This is followed up in School Executive meetings, the School Management Team meetings and departmental meetings. Cross-School committees address relevant issues (Quality, Learning and Teaching, Partnership and Collaboration, Research and Knowledge Transfer, International) and plans are formally approved at the School Board. In addition a School BLOG is maintained on the virtual learning environment to provide informal evaluations and comments.

Operationalisation and management
Securing an agreed mission and vision has not proven to be contentious, although it is a difficult task. Conflict, tensions and disagreements emerge more from operationalising the aspirations contained in the vision and mission. As Padron (2011) asserts, once the (Unique Selling Point (USP) is in place, the task is to focus on efficiency. Actions must not contravene the mission and vision, but the harder tasks of accommodating harsh realities as opposed to articulating aspirations
becomes the order of the day. Developing organisational structures which avoid duplication of effort and which aim to exploit expertise and at the same time aim to build capacity is problematic. It is essential to be transparent in terms of identifying chains of communication and the locum for decision-making. All are dependent upon professional faith and trust in each other. In preparing for the new normal, it demands openness in the identification of strengths and weaknesses, and the assessment of fitness for purpose. The principle risk is a sense of de-skilling and disillusionment as staff recognise that their strengths may not be what is needed for the future.

My own experience in management studies has helped here. An appreciation of situational and servant leadership (Sergiovanni, 1999) at least provided me with a sense of security. I believe firmly that I should be held accountable to the agreed mission and vision. I should be challenged, and I should think again if my proposals and decisions do not match up to the collective expectations. I recognise too, that at times I have to adopt a more autocratic stance, and on other occasions it is more sensible to lean towards the democratic. My own work on managing change (Field, Holden and Lawlor 2000), recognised four sequential responses to change:

Responding to Psychological responses to change

- Denial

  The imposition of organisational structures (line management responsibilities, team formation, committee structures, reporting processes, budget allocation) processes (appraisal, grievance and disciplinary procedures, workload allocation models)

- Resistance

  The formation of mutual support groups (action learning groups, review panels, research clusters, 'learning conversations', internal staff development secondments, online discussion forums)

- Adoption

  Experimentation and evaluation projects led by middle managers (on-line learning, personal tutoring, targeted research, business development, opportunity awareness)

- Commitment.

  The appointment of internal staff to positions of responsibility (Associate Deans, Heads of Department, Partnership Directors).

This framework justifies four different management responses – insistence, emotional support, enabling piloting and trialling, empowerment. In reality this has meant:

· The imposition of organisational structures (line management responsibilities, team formation, committee structures, reporting processes, budget allocation) processes (appraisal, grievance and disciplinary procedures, workload allocation models);

· The formation of mutual support groups (peer mentoring, action learning groups, review panels, research clusters, 'learning conversations', internal staff development secondments, online discussion forums);

· Experimentation and evaluation projects led by middle managers (on-line learning, personal tutoring, targeted research, business development, opportunity awareness)
· The appointment of internal staff to positions of responsibility (Associate Deans, Heads of Department, Partnership Directors).

These actions are not simply an expedition of the mission. Many are responses to external forces too. The shift of state support from financial to regulatory and policy is very challenging. The challenge is to incorporate these enforced changes into the mission and vision. It is no excuse for the Dean to use the loss of the Government's teaching grant as a justification for change, especially when a value driven approach has been promoted. The conflict arises from the tension between respecting the professional judgment of colleagues and the acceptance that from a student perspective increased fees should lead to improved value. The Dean is compelled to consider business models, which imply a greater consideration of a demand-led provision than a supply-led approach. The demand-led, business model leads to a consideration of two new principles; affordability and access. A whole University response across the world has meant that short term outcomes are a reduction of staff numbers (voluntary redundancy and early retirement packages), vacancy freezing and a consequent re-focussing of staff activity. Further proposals include joint appointments with key partners, secondments, and a reduction and merger of modules meaning a more generic, but customisable, offer for students. Not all of these are easily reconcilable with the core mission and vision.

The hard reality is, in short, Deans need to attract more students and customers in new areas of work, whilst also face up to cutting costs. The 'old normal' of 'growing the School out of

problems' is no longer appropriate. The net result is one which is not attractive to staff. Increased class sizes and teaching loads and working in unfamiliar contexts amount, effectively, to significant changes in working conditions, and new unexpected job descriptions. The shift in business models means that the motivation of staff to work in Higher Education may not match the motivations of students to study. Sensitive management is needed to bridge this gap in the ways outlined above.

Evidently problems and challenges emerge on an almost daily basis. Reference to Holub (2011) provides some reassurance, in that Deans are facing these tensions the world over. How one responds is crucial as it can lead to either a reinforcement of trust and faith, or indeed serve to breech these. Rational arguments are not always the best way to explain problems. A Dean must take into consideration the emotional responses of the staff. To relate to abstract concepts and alternative models can simply add to the distress and anxiety of colleagues – particularly when the perception is that, of all staff, the position of Dean is the safest. Institutional history and conflicts of the past play an important role. The Dean must endeavour to acknowledge and disseminate success stories. To infuse the School with 'success narratives' does help to promote a climate of positivity. The forthcoming changes in working life can, at least on occasions, be surrounded by a sense of excitement and a belief that individuals can take ownership of some of the changes.

The external landscape has led to a diversification of provision. Staff entering the School at the time of the 'old normal', do not necessarily feel comfortable with the demands being placed upon them. Their resistance to change is supported by the existing academic contract and workload allocation systems. Many feel that teaching is their priority, and that they made a conscious choice not to engage in business development activity (knowledge transfer, consultancy, marketing and promotion). Staff development is not the complete solution. Deans must consider the sense of allocating the right tasks to the right person, and thereby break the tradition of tariffs associated with the workload allocation model. It maybe one person's expertise does not lend themselves well to teaching on academic courses, and that their time is better spent on business development and/or project management. A School's fleetness of foot in a commercial environment is better served with a more flexible workload model. Research is a distinguishing feature of a University, and should remain an underpinning activity. However teaching, bidding for funding, project management, relationship management are all becoming School, but not necessarily individuals' priorities. Competition in the world of Education is fierce. No longer are Universities only competing against each other, but new private providers of professional courses are emerging as a real force. Indeed the separation of academic accreditation from professional recognition has meant that for practitioners academic awards are no longer the currency for initial and professional development. The National College, the General Teaching Council, the TDA have all provided support and training for professionals, which relate directly to Government policy. The abolition of some of these bodies releases their approaches into the open market. For Universities the challenge is to re-integrate the academic with the professional, demanding greater in-sector and cross-sector collaborations. Staff do find themselves 'training' professionals, an approach which challenges the key principle of 'criticality'. Tension can be relieved by injecting a research dimension to the training programme. (action research for the practitioners, impact evaluation, cross sector and international comparative studies). It is through the insistence of a research dimension that the added value of higher education distinctiveness is retained.

A further management challenge is to develop exciting ways of addressing difficulties faced by new students. The widening participation agenda rightly leads to new types of students. State disinvestment and increased tuition fees mean that many academics are concerned about the academic standards of students entering Higher Education (literacy, numeracy and study skills). Academic staff are face with taking remedial action. An additional task is to engage pro-actively with potential students in schools and colleges. The development of courses, online support, personal guidance and mentoring are all ways to address the problem. Again, the changes to traditional working patterns are marked, and demand sensitive approaches to delegation. Understandably, a key aspect of a Dean's role is to put in place procedures to manage and pre-empt work related stress.

Managing stress is not separate from managing change. We have interpreted it as part of the process. Consequently support needs to be given to middle managers, who are the implementers of change. The challenge will be to identify colleagues at risk, to take appropriate supportive action, and when necessary to deal with work related stress in the context of a sickness and absence policy. The School of Education at Wolverhampton has developed a policy, but has not yet implemented it. This apparent failure to show due care to staff does exercise some members of the School.

A Dean does not occupy a privileged position which enables him/her to predict the future. Indeed specialists in academic departments may be in better positions to identify changes and developments in their own specialist areas. Communications are therefore essential. The use of BLOGS, the circulation of bulletins by departmental leads, regular update meetings, reading of the education press and academic journals are all essential. Deans should have external engagements – as Governors in Schools, with Local Authorities, professional bodies at home and overseas. All provide a perspective, enabling the Dean to interact with colleagues and to conceptualise issues – opportunities and problems as they arise. Positive responses to colleagues, and indeed, early but informed proposals do assist in securing and maintaining the respect of colleagues as they arise.

These high, and possibly unfair, expectations of a Dean are not limited to colleagues in the School. Whole University committees and Senior University leaders also expect detailed knowledge an understanding of all related sectors, including an appreciation of all forms of provision. As a representative of the School, A Dean must keep up to date and fully informed. Membership of research associations and professional bodies provides a personal support network. Attendance at conferences (internal and external) must be carefully managed. I personally belong to the International Professional Development Association, the Management Forum within the Universities' Council for the Education of Teachers, and local forums. I am an associate editor and books review editor of an international journal, 'Professional Development in Education' which forces me to read and to review. Such activities contribute to my own professional and academic learning. It is the knowledge and understanding acquired from this 'external' engagements that I hope to earn the respect of others. These and my attempts to disseminate through conference papers and publications is my attempt to offer myself as a model to colleagues.

Representing the School extends to a figurehead role. I officiate at graduation ceremonies, attend launches and openings, and speak at school and college events including presentation evenings. My presence is not a personal accolade, but an attempt to establish a profile for the school and University. I write a regular education column in a regional newspaper, for the same reason. Part of the management of the School is to assure its presence in the public eye. Being seen is crucial, which I also interpret as working from the office in the School, rather than from home. Corridor conversations provide excellent insights for me, and my physical presence reflects the respect I have for colleagues and their work.

Personal demands
In order to explain the personal demands of the role, I have used Daniel Goleman's (1998) work as a simple framework. These concepts assist in the analysis on one's own relationship with work, as well as providing reassurance for myself in justifying decisions and actions taken.

Emotional Intelligence

- Know your own emotions and emotional responses
- Manage your emotions
- Motivating yourself
- Recognise and understand the emotions of others
- Manage relationships and the emotions of others

1. Knowing your emotions.

I cannot picture a Dean, who did not consider him/herself worthy of the professional role, being lacking in self-confidence and self-esteem at the outset of his/her tenure. The challenge is to maintain and even build upon that sense of self-worth.

As Dean, I am committed to the mission, and am able to articulate the moral and social purposes underpinning the work of the School. My intention as an appointed leader is to incorporate my own ideas and ideals into the mission, to secure commitment to these and to use the mission and vision to inform the decision making. The difficulty arises from the personal commitment to participation and engagement of all. To recognise the inconsistencies between my own opinions and those of the collective is challenging, and evokes an emotional response. A leader does occupy a privileged position, in that the hierarchical structures and culture of university life provides me with a right of veto. I have never had to deploy that right, but have engaged in personal campaigns to persuade others, or to scrutinise choices to the extent that I, or others, have changed their minds. Upon appointment to the post I expressed a preference for consensus over compromise.

2. Managing your own emotions.

Being a Dean can be lonely, one can feel isolated at times, and the key has been to seek an outlet for disappointment and excitement. Membership of professional support groups, including action learning sets provides the opportunity to detach ideas from the stakeholders, and to apply rational argument to the situations in which one finds one self. Celebrating success, and securing the understanding that one has made a difference can be a private process. A Dean must aim to inspire and motivate others. The Dean's contribution can be indirect, and it is important that due credit is given to the principal 'actors'. A Dean does not seek thanks, or even recognition, but must be ready to provide it for others. Herzberg et al's (1959) work on motivation affirms the need for acknowledgement and recognition. Once again the Dean must seek gratification from those outside the immediate circle of stakeholders. Vicarious gratification provides an inner satisfaction. The clearly and explicitly articulated mission provides a yardstick against which the Dean can self-appraise. A mission and vision enables planning. Strategic plans sit behind operational plans. The system of accountability driving development relates to clearly expressed targets and metrics, designed to assure consistency and direction. Regular referral to the targets accounts for monitoring processes, yet to return periodically to the broader, strategic plan facilitates a narrative of progress against values and purpose.

3. Motivating yourself.

A Dean is the most highly paid member of a School. Work scheduling is personal, and there are few occasions which demand the Dean's presence. Networking, within and beyond the School and University, leads to the identification of opportunities. The strong sense of ownership of and commitment to the work of the School is both stressful and motivating. The management responsibilities mean that others are reliant upon the structures, provision and regular monitoring of progress. The moral stance required of the Dean are explained through the examination of ethical principles which drive me as a professional person. The sense of belonging to a University, whose values and goals chime with my own outlook all provide motivation. The variety of tasks undertaken by a Dean may appear broad and disconnected. However, a personal value set, which informs the mission and vision provide a real justification for such work. Working with people, learning from people for a purpose, and attempting to serve a common cause are all extremely motivating. Maslow (1970) would argue that my motivation reaches the higher levels of his pyramid, including selfactualisation and self-transcendence.

4. Recognising and understanding other people's emotions.

The relationships built by a Dean with teams within the School, and within individuals is in part shaped by the title of Dean, and the expectations colleagues have of one fulfilling that role. Consequently members of staff are often guarded in expressing their feelings in one to one situations. Middle managers usually face the wrath of colleagues, and have to support and challenge professional behaviours. The Dean has to provide support and guidance for the middle managers. Underpinning support, in this sense, is an empathetic understanding. The Dean's task is to provide outlets for emotional responses, to allow time (gestation periods) and respect for professional commitment and specialist knowledge. All colleagues need to escape the pressure of formal work activity.

There are, of course, many ways to address the issues outlined. The School of Education organises social events and charity events, encouraging colleagues to 'let off steam'. Academics enjoy the camaraderie of team meetings, which often extend to impromptu and informal gatherings. Active team building and staff development sessions aim to build upon colleagues' strengths. Occasional celebrations are reinforced through direct messages of congratulations and also regular bulletins are circulated. The establishment of a BLOG allows colleagues to express their views. A Dean must be sensitive to the messages emanating from these and more formal events, and be able to offer appropriate responses to concerns.

The Dean does have formal responsibilities, and does have responsibilities delegated from the Vice Chancellor. These can apply at the end of the line in terms of disciplinary and grievance procedures. It is essential, therefore, not to develop compromising emotional ties with colleagues, and to draw on the services of middle leaders when appropriate. This implies not undermining middle leaders. This demands a respect for colleagues and the roles they fulfil. The Dean must therefore occupy the role of critical friend and also of team member when the area of activity is delegated to a middle leader. The Dean must be sensitive to the time and place for different types of interactions.

5. Managing relationships i.e., managing the emotions of others

Leading a School of some 80 academic staff, and 25 administrative colleagues requires attention to respect, inter-relationships and the well-being of all. Understanding the roles all play in servicing the mission is crucial, and recognising contributions follows. Personal contact is essential, yet this runs the risk of intrusion. Conversations must be guarded, and respect shown for individual personal relationships. Key to success is appropriate communication. A code of conduct may be implicit, but is facilitated through an articulation of expectation. A Dean and executive team should provide protocols for professional behaviour. These protocols must be built upon a realistic understanding of how colleagues should and should not interact. The School consists of multiple teams. Tuckman's guidance on team building and maintenance provides a framework for operating, and provides guidelines on what to expect in terms of intra-relationships. Initially the Dean's role is to form teams, but to expect a period of 'storming. The provision of protocols and codes of conduct help to 'norm' behaviour. Quick and appropriate interactions serve to recognise the

contribution of colleagues during the 'performing stage'.

The second and third stages rely heavily upon the performance of middle leaders. Responsibility for the first and fourth stages lies with the Dean and School Executive. Colleagues expect, and require affirmation, but also challenge and leadership during periods of change. Managing the emotions of others is to a degree the management of expectations.

Conclusion

Deans are human. They have a job to do, a job which is complex and multi-levelled. An analysis of the role identifies strategic and operational responsibilities, a need to promote the profile of the School, University, a focus on people and on tasks and an appreciation of the 'big picture' as well as the detail. In practice these are not separated into differentiated tasks, but are integrated and fully dependent upon each other. Success depends upon particular attributes, experience and a willingness to inform decisions and actions with the specialist expertise of others. Actions and decisions affect the organisational culture and climate, which in turn impact upon performance. The role is therefore demanding yet enormously fulfilling. During a period of change it is exciting, but also challenging. Being a Dean means enjoying the successes and feeling the failures.

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Keynote Speaker 2. Dr Paul Sudnik, Director of the International Business College, Mitrovica, Kosovo

Emerging Best Practice in Higher Professional Vocational Education in Kosovo

Abstract
The education system in Kosovo has long been a tool of politics but, after the war which ended in 1999, there has been significant movement to cut this link and to realise genuine improvements in standards across the whole education sector of the country. The International Business College Mitrovica has been established as an institution of higher professional education with a view to enhancing the employability of young people and minorities, not only in the environs of the town where it is based but also in the wider region. This paper describes the efforts of both local and international staff to come to a statement of best practice across several essential aspects of the institution's activity with reference to procedures described in literature and lecturers' own career experience.

Key Words
Higher Professional Vocational Education, Best Practice, Kosovo, Action Research

1. Introduction

The International Business College Mitrovica (IBCM) has recently taken up the challenge of providing higher professional education in Kosovo and South Serbia with assistance from a consortium of Danish institutions of tertiary education[1] and the SPACE network that links over ninety business and language higher education institutions in Europe. The background against which this undertaking is set is often characterized by the mistrust and suspicion endemic to the Balkan region – see, amongst others, Glenny (1999) and Hann & Goltz (2010).

In order that the IBCM become part of the didactic fabric of Kosovo, it is essential that the new institution succeeds in taking a position of educational leadership in the country. Murphy (2001, p.66), writing in an American context, frames a similar task as a professional "reculturing" and of creating a "framework for recasting the concept of leadership" in terms of the roles of "moral steward, educator, and community builder". He proposes the pursuit of three themes to guide such work: institutional improvement, the development of democratic community and the pursuit of social justice. Each of these themes resonates with the task faced by the authors and our colleagues who are at the core of the day to day operation of the project. This paper will describe the early steps towards the establishment of a structure for best practice in the start-up institution.

Following an examination of the context within which the IBCM is working, we examine the general literature of benchmarking and best practice before focusing on these subjects in the context of tertiary education. We then describe a methodology grounded in action research and the ensuing method of analysis by which we arrived at a structure of best practice in the IBCM. Following a discussion of each of four emergent story lines we conclude with recommendations for future endeavours that may consolidate best practice at the institution.

1.1. Context

The education system of Kosovo "has had a long history of inseparability with the politics of the region" (BritishCouncil, 2000, p.3). However, following the war, which ended in 1999, education reform was placed under the control of Professor Michael Daxner, the Principal International Officer of the United Nation's Mission in Kosovo's (UNMIK's) Transitional Administrative Department of Education, Science and Technology. Daxner drew his authority from UN Security Council Resolution 1244, which set out UNMIK's reconstruction mandate and in the ensuing decade educational reform has, with more or less success, begun to take the direction that Daxner set when he wrote: "We are not here for the school directors, the ministers or the bureaucrats. We are here for the teachers and the students. We have to de-politicize and democratize the system. Because in the end, it is education which will play the key role in peace-building" (UNMIK, 2000). Naturally, Kosovo has not been completely de-politicised at the time of writing and people are only too aware that the promotion of economic and political ideologies across international borders, by assiduous application educational assistance, flourished during the Cold War. Indeed, Berman (1983, p.14) goes as far as to suggest that "U.S. philanthropic organizations offered training intending to 'enculturate' or socialise a generation of African, Asian, and Latin American university graduates toward political and economic perspectives associated with the United States".

As Murphy (ibid.) encourages those seeking a leadership position for their institution to "reculture" the educational practitioners around them whilst Berman (ibid.) warns against "enculturating" students or wider society in development contexts, the paradox in the juxtaposition of these two perceptions emphasizes the imperative that any serious educational reform initiative in contemporary Kosovo must be seen as status neutral. Such neutrality is actively pursued in all IBCM activities and we are of the view that achieving best in class status through a determined effort to implement best practice processes is one way to deflect criticisms that the IBCM is a political vehicle.

2. Benchmarking and Best Practice

The origins of the idea of best practice are to be found in the corporate world of the late 1970s and 1980s. Zairi and Youseff (1995) describe how Xerox Corporation developed the technique of benchmarking to regain competitive advantage in the market for document reproduction. By the late

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[1] Tietgen Business College, University College Lillebaelt acting together within the frame of the Lillebaelt Academy of Higher Professional Education

1980s benchmarking had become a widely used process of management in industry (Camp, 1989). Interest in benchmarking spread to the public sector and higher education during the 1990s, so that Holzer and Yang (2004) were able to report that comparisons of performance measures in the form of rankings and league tables were well established at that time in public management.

In higher education today benchmarking, and the pursuit of best practice, is widespread and numerous examples exist in the literature illustrating how the technique provides objective measurements for goal-setting and improvement tracking of performance which can lead to dramatic innovations. The work of Shafer and Coate (1992) is one such example whilst in a Chinese context Liu and Oppenheim (2006) illustrate how an HEI uses competitive benchmarking to develop student focused corporate strategy, so helping the institution maintain its role in driving the forces of social development.

Drucker (1998) points out that, essentially, benchmarking assumes that what one organisation does, any organisation can do as well. The corollary of this observation is of course that for any organization, being at least as good as the leader in the field is a prerequisite of being competitive. Thus, the purpose of benchmarking is to establish what the sector leader is doing and then to emulate, or beat, those achievements by the implementation of "best practice".

The broad literature of best practice falls into three main groups. Each of these groups has given rise to a generic literature of its own so that "comparative" aspects of the best practice paradigm are associated with benchmarking across all processes and functions of an organisation with a view to defining best-in-class or one of several other possible relative classifications, e.g. product performance or environmental friendliness. The idea of "learning" through the achievement of best practice connects, among others, to the notions of Double Loop Learning and the Learning Organisation whilst the development of techniques such as Total Quality Management (TQM), Continuous Quality Improvement (CQI) and Business Process Reengineering (BRM) are indicative of the thirst of practitioners for recipes of "application" of best practice.

2.1. Best Practice in Tertiary Education

In their seminal work on best practice in undergraduate education, Chickering and Gamson (1987) present seven detailed prescriptions for class-based procedures and activities that have become the basis of good practice statements at numerous institutions, for example Prince Georges Community College (PGCS, 2001), Howard Community College (Okpala et al., 2010) and Lincoln University (Support Department, 2010) In summary, the authors put forward the following as the foundations of good practice in undergraduate education:

1. Encouragement of contact between students and faculty
2. Development of reciprocity and cooperation among students.
3. Encouragement of active learning.
4. Providing prompt feedback.
5. Emphasizing time on task.
6. Communicating high expectations.
7. Respecting diverse talents and ways of learning.

Whilst these classroom customs are most certainly essential aspects of best practice we feel that the concept goes much further in the context of an institutional start-up. From a wider academic perspective Hubball and Gold's (2007, p.9) review of reform in undergraduate programmes through curriculum change conclude that "developing, implementing, and evaluating learning-centred curricula is … a scholarly process." and that the achievement of best practice in the field of curriculum development requires an institutional commitment in order to improve the quality of undergraduate education. However they are adamant that there is no 'cookbook' or single implementation strategy to curriculum development that will suit all settings.

Nevertheless, even the best chef cannot resist seeking advice from other cooks so, if we as practitioners are to write a recipe for best practice that is relevant and exclusive to our own institution, it seems reasonable to see how others have approached the issue.

Strategies for the achievement of diversity in five European countries are examined by Reichert (2009) and she illustrates the high value placed on this characteristic by policy makers, stakeholders and administrators alike. Kyvik (2004) affirms that best practice in the quest for diversity in West European Higher Education is driven by the Bologna reforms which stress outcomes promoting the employability of graduates. Of equal importance is the creation of easier access to education to a more diverse body of students by opening enrollment to women, minorities and disadvantaged groups.

McBride et al. (2004, p. 527) working in a context (Danish vocational training) that is of interest to us, point out the importance of defining stakeholders in the institution as widely as possible but also of ensuring that the education provided be "demand driven and integrated with labour market conditions". In order to reinforce the link to the world of work Svenson and Wood (2007) propose that internships and practical activities be placed at the heart of the vocational curriculum.

Notwithstanding the importance of the practical aspect of vocational education it is as important that students think deeply about underlying theory (Singleton & Newman, 2009). These same authors draw on Bloom's (1956) classical taxonomy of learning objectives and propose that classroom discussion should be structured so that students to move from the simple acquisition of knowledge through comprehension, application, analysis and synthesis to evaluating the initial information. They also propose a concrete approach to educational writing in an age of fast developing technologies that add many alternatives to the traditional essay or report. The idea of writing the "one essential question" after a class and of using reflective journals, reading journals, learning logs to record the progress of learning is presented as an important aspects of best practice. These are of course classroom oriented procedures and they resonate with Chickering and Gamson's (ibid.) foundations for undergraduate education discussed above.

Once the institution is an established working entity, Higbee et al. (2004, p. 14) make clear that attention must turn to the question of student retention: "In order to encourage retention, it is imperative that faculty teaching first-year courses communicate to students that they are welcomed and valued.". Whilst recognising the crucial contribution of student retention to success, we are tempted to observe that in the Western Balkans, where little has been permanent for at least the last twenty-five years, a whole generation has come to adulthood without a sense of long-term commitment. Asking a Serbian, Roma or Kosovar eighteen year old to pledge for a seven semester Bachelor programme must seem to many of the young people at the IBCM like signing their life away – who knows what next month will bring, let alone next year?

Conraths and Trusso (2007) are clear that establishing good practice in the management of universities requires a sense of urgency on the part of academic managers and the early creation of targets, perhaps by means of the now traditional vision and mission statements. In practical terms they advocate the creation of a supportive infrastructure through which a management team may make clear decisions that encourage the organisation to progress.

Equally important in terms of management processes are the structures that are used to assist in the management of teaching staff. Fullan (2001) discusses the importance of sustained professional development and mentorship to the long-term improvement of professional competence and engagement among faculty. In practical terms, Florio-Ruane and deTar (2001) demonstrate that it is by reflection through frequent conversations about themselves, their practice and classroom experiences that professional learning opportunities for lecturers are maximised.

Reference points in the establishment of new institutions of higher education in the Balkans are rare, but Chambers' (1999) detailed and candid account of the genesis of the American University of Bulgaria provides many pointers to best practice that are of great relevance to the IBCM. Chambers summarises his recommendations for the start-up of such an enterprise thus:

1. There must be local impetus to bring alien institution; provision of local information

2. As much time as possible to be devoted to the planning stage to avoid early administrative difficulties and to prepare and train faculty and administrative staff.

3. 'Much more than normal professional competence' required from the staff: need to be adaptable, easy-going, infinite patience and cultural sensitivity.

4. Need financial capacity to make long term commitment.

5. Willingness of whole institution in building of relationship with community (local, regional and national)…continuing effort to 'reach out' and patience to deal with cultural differences without 'a trace of ethnocentrism'

Despite the existence of a wide-ranging and ever growing literature of best practice in higher education, examples of best practice in south-west Europe seem hard to come by. This space in the literature encouraged us to record and formalise our activities at the IBCM with a view to creating case material that would inform the discourse on best practice in higher vocational education in Kosovo.

3. Methodology and Method

Action Research is based on the epistemology that has grown from the work, among others, of Lewin (1951), Argyris and Schon (1974), Dewey (1986) and Argyris (1993). We have considered if Action Research (AR) provides a strong platform upon which to arrive at a statement of best practice for IBCM whose objectives are intensely practical in terms of the *'actionable outcomes'* (Ritchie & Spencer, 1994). Certainly the term, *'Action Research',* seems today to cover a very broad church of research methods in practice and Greenwood and Levin (1998) point out that each tends to have its own particular and distinct emphasis. This encouraged us in the pursuit of an AR strategy for this work.
There is significant support for the use of AR strategies in education. Mertler (2006) has written a practical textbook to help lecturers to research their own practice. Whilst Kosha (2005) illustrates the application of action research to professional development and the improvement of classroom practice. Of great value in structuring this work were McNiff and Whitehead's (2005) descriptions of the overall process of action research.

If AR provided a methodological pathway, then our method was chosen by reference to the need to build innovative processes within the IBCM. Innovative practice became the goal for defining ways in which lecturers would contribute to the performance improvements needed to maintain best practice in the way described by Laughlin and Kean (2002). The aim of process innovation is to challenge the current way of doing things so as to make sure that all aspects of the institution are re-designed to strengthen it. In this work we have essentially had the privilege of starting from the point of "tabula rasa", thus leaving us much scope for exploring best practice methods within the IBCM. Our first step was to use the reviewed literature to identify lines of approach to best practice in multiple fields of activity. This provided a list of eleven dimensions along which we sought to classify best practice processes for the IBCM. This list is reproduced in the results section below.
In working towards a statement of best practice for the IBCM we then looked to Florio-Ruane and deTar (ibid.) who propose that teachers should have frequent conversations amongst themselves in order to improve practice and to Cowan (1998, p. 49), who proposes that innovative teachers in higher education create a "constructive occasion for 'reflection-for-action'". We created many such "constructive occasions" in order to consult with IBCM staff and to record experience which would signpost a path along which policies, teaching and other curricular pursuits in the IBCM could be aligned.

3.1. Story Lines

Through analysis of data such as meeting minutes, draft policies and course handbooks collected during the "constructive occasions" when staff met to talk, we found that story lines as described by Dixon (2006) and Alvesson and Sköldberg (2000), amongst others, began to emerge.
This process of coding and categorising information first involved searching for units of meaning through multiple readings of the collated data. During these multiple readings labels, or codes, were attached to portions of the transcribed interview texts in the manner described by Bloor (1997). These coded portions of text might take the form of individual words, phrases, sentences or paragraphs and represented ideas, thoughts or metaphors – but essentially they were the building blocks of our best practice story lines.
By combining the categories of best practice activity taken from the literature review and combining them with the categories emerging from the experience of the IBCM staff, the eleven best practice categories taken from literature were reorganized according to the emerging story lines that grouped

them at a higher level. Names for the story lines were chosen based on the reviewed literature and the ideas of the IBCM staff themselves, according to principles outlined by Corbin & Strauss (2008). This two step procedure has been described by Tesch (1990) as one of data condensation or distillation. It is a useful explanation of the process of analysis that was carried out in this research as it encapsulates the thought that, through such examination, data become more manageable as a result of the researchers interpretation and organisation.

The basic procedure of coding manually by methods that make use of note cards, or of cut and paste commands in a word processing program, is described by Lofland et al. (2004). However, electronic methods of managing the coding process are now widely available and the QSR NUD*IST software package was used in this work.

4. Results and the Structure of Best Practice in the IBCM

Four combined story lines were arrived at through this analysis and were named as follows:
1. Student Focus
2. Curriculum Management
3. The World of Work
4. Institution Building

The diagram below illustrates the eleven categories of best practice activity derived from literature in the left hand column and shows, in the right hand column, the four combined story lines of best practice that emerged through synthesis from the perspective of IBCM staff views and experience.

From Literature	Joint Story Lines – Principles of Best Practice

Diversity

Student Retention

Student Focus

Curriculum Design

Classroom Practice

Features of Assignments

Deep Thinking

Curriculum Management

Internship and Practice

Labour Market

World of Work

Stakeholders

Management Processes

Lecturer Development

Institution Building
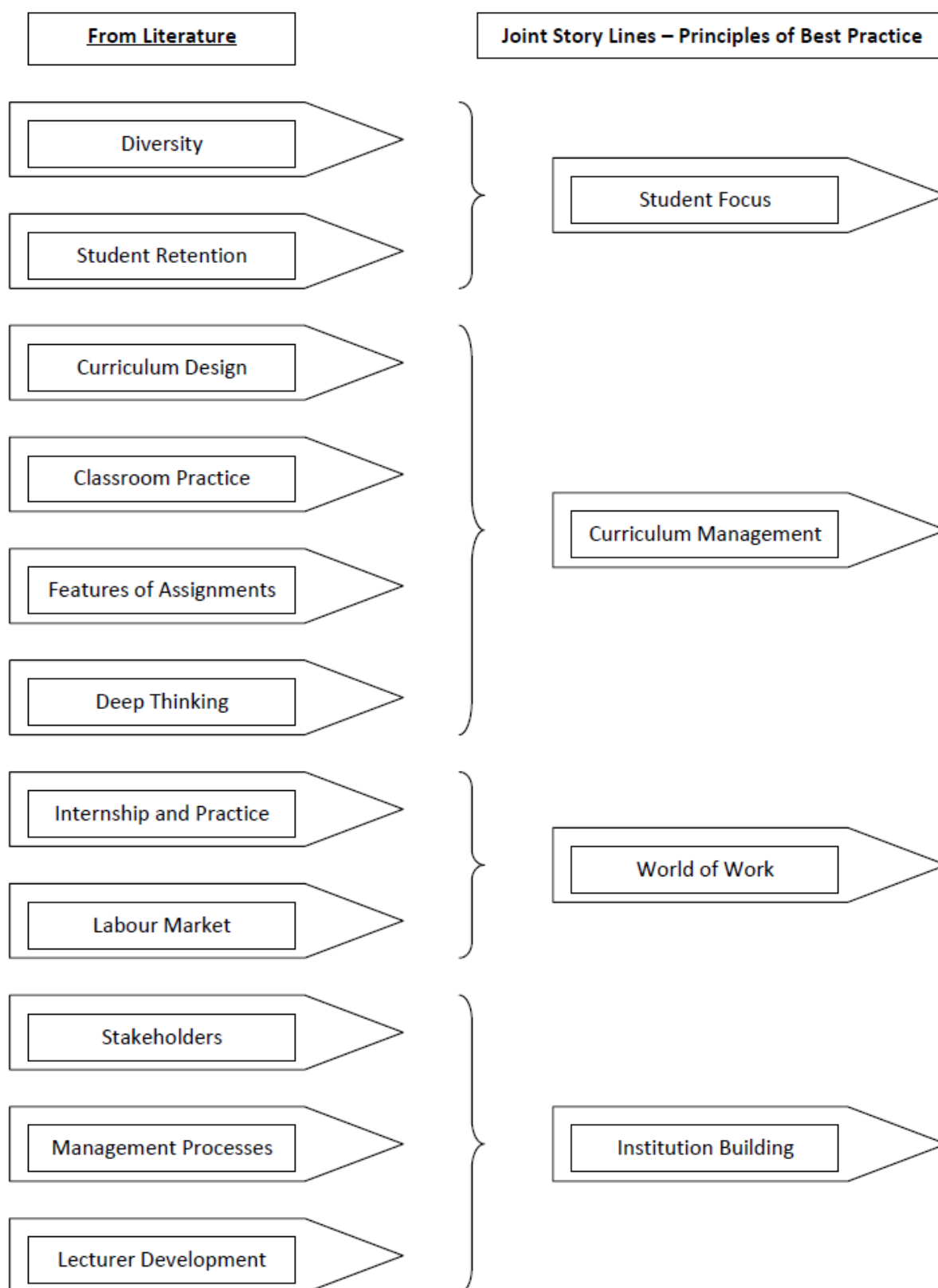
5. Discussion

It is perhaps worth discussing the fundamental parts of each of the story lines in turn with a view to getting a feeling of how best practice at the IBCM is constituted.

5.1. Student Focus

The issue of diversity is a basic principle of the IBCM. One of the underlying tenets of the project is provision of tertiary education to women, minority groups and the disadvantaged. As we have undertaken student recruitment in the period leading to the start up of teaching, much emphasis has been placed on achieving this goal by working through specialised local NGOs who have the trust of groups in both Albanian and Serb communities. The IBCM has also worked through its own community liaison officer and this activity has been so successful that we will be extending the role to two officers in the near future.

An anecdote will perhaps illustrate how much remains to be done in regard to the diversity agenda. A young woman joined us on the first day of studies in the South and seemed very pleased to be enrolling. However, she came the next day with her brother, who was all of twenty years old, but it was clear that she was very sad. The brother told a member of staff, in a perfect American accent, that it was not important for a girl to study and so his sister was withdrawing. We later found out that the family was wealthy and that the brother had studied in the USA.

Against this background it is clear that, following on from recruitment, student retention is one of our major goals. Two students have already left telling us that they have to find work in order to support their families. The argument of deferred financial reward in exchange for present investment is not valid when the existence of a whole household is at stake. Retention, therefore, has a quite different meaning for us at the IBCM than it might in the competitive educational environment of Western Europe. We try to resolve this by keeping close to the students through a Personal Tutoring programme.

Under this scheme, each lecturer is assigned up to ten students to work with. The object of Personal Tutoring is not to monitor students' academic achievements nor to progress chase on assignments or revision, rather it is a pastoral process through which the personal tutor and student build up a relationship throughout the whole period of study. Personal tutors are asked to see each student at least once during a semester for a private conversation of up to one hour and to see the whole group once a semester. Crucially the tutors are asked to be available whenever a tutee requests a meeting, to the point where one tutor recently found herself helping a tutee get emergency dental treatment at 2.00am one morning! We have had an excellent response to the programme and we are confident that the system is unique within the Kosovo education system.

More prosaic student services are also provided in order to help students who are not resident of Mitrovica to settle into student life in a difficult urban environment. For example, the IBCM keeps a register of approved student accommodation as well as having rented a three-storey building as a permanent Hall of Residence. Students can apply under the IBCM scholarship scheme for a subsidy on the rental costs of this accommodation.

5.2. Curriculum Management

We recognize that the complexity of the IBCM, located as it is in Kosovo, necessitates the creation of diverse and complex curriculum management structures. We work within a holistic view of the IBCM curriculum whilst managing the process of curriculum planning and implementation, as well as regular monitoring and evaluation, in close cooperation with internal stakeholders. Key to the success of this approach is the allocation of tasks to lecturers and managers with a clear statement of roles and responsibilities using clear quantifiable statements of objectives for subject leaders and their teams.

In terms of classroom practice we find that we work in quite a different way compared to traditional institutions in Kosovo. By putting the, often unsuspecting, student at the centre of the curriculum we bring out the best in course participants. It has been interesting to see how students have begun to

realise that responsibility for learning rests with them. This has been manifest in the way new students begin to pre-read material and also in how they participate in class discussion. Certainly the process of opening up is commonly observed among all undergraduate students around the world, but we have the impression that the distance covered by students in Kosovo during this process is greater than that of their West European counterparts.

The inclusion of a project week at the half way stage of each semester, when no teaching occurs and students work in group on a project task, is a feature of assignment setting that is quite new in Kosovo. The week can be a turning point for students and we observe how many of them realise for the first time how various parts of the material being covered converge in an assignment that reflects real world practice.

Critical thinking is aimed at encouraging students to assess assumptions, evaluate evidence and examine conclusions. Similarly to the way in which a different approach to assignment setting stretches students, so the requirement to think critically in the learning environment brings out the best in them. The secondary school context in Kosovo is focused on passive learning and so the requirement to discuss, for example, a case in class is a completely novel experience. Of course, case work does not start with the discussion and the need to read and reflect upon a case before coming to a class wide consideration is a key part of involving students in active learning and critical thinking.

5.3. World of Work

Central to the way in which we apply our commitment to ensuring IBCM students are ready for the world of work is the depth of institutional commitment to providing relevant guidance towards the goal of finding employment. At IBCM we are doing this firstly through employing lecturers who can lead this process. We aim to ensure that at least 75% of teaching staff have worked for at least three years outside an academic environment. In addition, we recruit international lecturers wherever we can and by so doing ensure that we provide students with a wider perspective than might readily be available in Kosovo itself. At the time of writing some 60% of lecturers are nationals of other countries. An extension of this policy is our preference for lecturers who have Masters degrees from outside the region. Today there are many Kosovars and Serbs who have studied outside their own countries. As a result of these policies we have an eclectic and committed group of lecturers who are able to open a window on the world for IBCM students.

We recognise the importance of external stakeholders to our undertaking and to this end we have held two workshops aimed at introducing the IBCM to local stakeholders. One workshop was focused on businesses and the other on organisations active in public administration. As a result of these events we have opened a group which we call "Friends of IBCM" whose purpose is to develop relationships with external stakeholders. We have also hired a careers councilor and will be developing our alumni association as our first cohort comes closer to graduation. We expect the "Friends" to become a network that will facilitate the arrangement of internships and eventually will provide employment for graduates.


5.4. Institution Building

Crucial to our position of educational leadership in Kosovo is the maintenance of a relationship with both central and local government and we continue to put much effort into working within government guidelines for the newly established national curriculum. Indeed, one of the problems that face the national curriculum project is the provision of teacher training. The IBCM is at the forefront of developing such continuous professional development courses for teachers of English in secondary schools and this activity is much appreciated by the authorities.

We are also negotiating with the municipal authority in Mitrovica to provide management training to their staff. The fact that such negotiations are taking place indicates that the institution is achieving acceptance in the town and if the courses actually take place then it would be difficult to imagine a better reference than that provided by the mayor of the town sending municipality administrators to the IBCM in order to improve their practice as managers.

Increasing the reach of the IBCM is seen as an important element of external stakeholder development and therefore of institution building. As a means of doing this IBCM has arranged English lessons, delivered by native speakers, in five locations around Kosovo and the Serbian enclaves, with a view to helping students achieve an appropriate level of English so they can participate fully in the

curriculum of the IBCM. At the time of writing more than 220 students have completed such courses and of these more than 100 have applied to the IBCM. Of the 210 students that dropped out between acceptance on the programme and completion the most common reasons can be represented on two axes:

Reasons for dropping out of English teaching programme
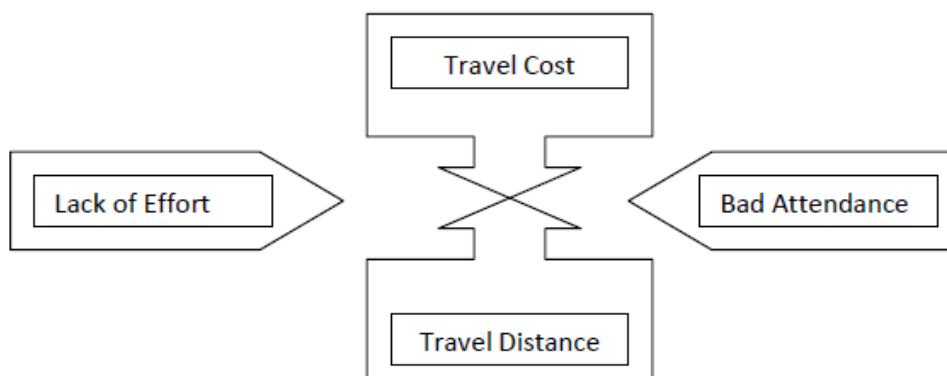
As a result of these English teaching programmes a number of excellent relationships have been built up in the regions of Kosovo with local leaders both in and out of government. In order to develop this solid basis of community relations a field office has been opened in Prizren which is functioning as a contact point for potential students. The unit is some 20 sq.mt. in size and has been furnished in the manner of the European Union information offices that can be found around the region. One full time member of staff is responsible for recruitment in the Prizren area which experience has shown to be a fruitful source of students.

The internal management processes of the IBCM are an important part of building the institution. In establishing goals for the IBCM we have ensured that they are easily understood and relevant to all stakeholders and, most importantly, that they realisable. We have also kept the goals that we have set ourselves appropriate to the level of the institution's development – there is plenty of time in the future for high flying statements; today we are concentrating on the practical aspects of managing a start up organisation.

We are trying hard to ensure a strong sense of partnership between the IBCM and its Danish and International associates. Regular visits to Kosovo, and vice versa, by lecturers are one way to build this bond. During these exchanges, programmes are designed, administrative systems honed and IBCM staff coached. However, participation in SPACE events is also an important element of strong partnership as is the inclusion of IBCM staff on SPACE working groups. It is noticeable that the number of partners in this undertaking is optimal since each brings something "to the party" and there is plenty of space for everyone involved to achieve their institutional and personal goals.
Project champions have been appointed in each of the partner institutions and this lead to a very clear line of organisation and the maintenance of enthusiasm at all levels of the growing IBCM. It is important to underline that this network has not been created to take advantage of a short-term opportunity. There is a clear determination on the part of the donor organisations to build an institution fit for the future. This determination obliges the IBCM to manage resources of time and money responsibly through the application of careful thought to its internal management processes in the fields of finance, human resources management as well as to all commercial activity.
The final aspect of institution building that is being addressed is the professional development of IBCM faculty. To this end a regular programme of symposia, taken together with teaching staff from the Danish partner institutions, is planned at regular intervals throughout the length of our contracted association.

6. Shortcomings and implications for future work

It should be noted that this paper was written based on nine months of co-operation between the partners who are establishing the IBCM. During that time Tuckman's (1965) usual stages of group formation, namely forming, norming, storming and performing, have been passed through by all those involved and we, the authors, are confident that a solid foundation has been build for the development of the ICBM. However, nine months is a very short time in which to establish a fully-functioning institution of tertiary education and we are aware that much remains to be done.

Much of our daily work is focused on ensuring that what we have come to call best practice at the IBCM really does become daily practice and second nature to all those involved. In order to achieve this the next phase of our work will involve us in expanding activities to include blended e-learning and an extensive programme of guest lectures given by experts from the SPACE network. We expect that through the e-learning activity we can put students in Kosovo in direct contact with their peers in Denmark and that the guest lecturing will provide a rich cross cultural context for the IBCM programme.

Beyond these practical enhancements of best practice, monitoring and evaluating activities both within and outside the institution will need to be instituted. We are aware that we will need to find ways to provide students, faculty and management, as well as outside stakeholders, with feedback that will allow them to continue to improve their practice. The iterative nature of continuous improvement will only drive excellence if all participants in the project are committed to such aims. For now we have no reason to doubt this, but future research will examine our success in taking the project forward to the next level.

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Presentation Slides by Dr Paul Sudnik, Director IBCM, International Business College, Mitrovica

Please view slides left to right row by row. Thus, 1 and 2 are on the top line, 3 and 4 below, et cetera.

EMERGING BEST
PRACTICE IN HIGHER
PROFESSIONAL
VOCATIONAL
EDUCATION IN
KOSOVO

Dr Paul Sudnik, IBCM, Kosovo

Kosovo

Ljubljana

888 Kilometers

Kosovska
Mitrovica
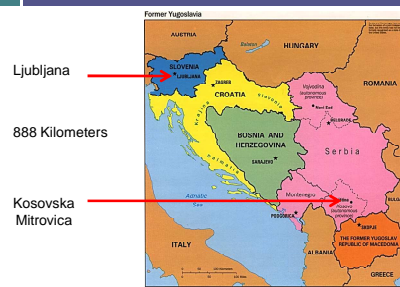
Dr. Paul Sudnik   27th February 2011

Kosovo

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Kosovo

Kosovska
Mitrovica

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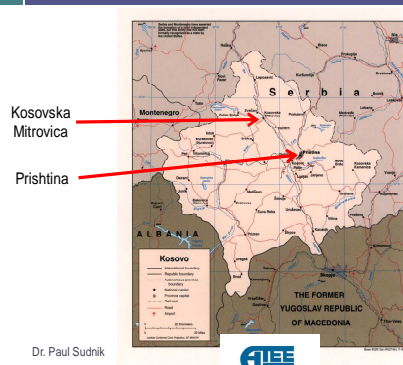
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Politics in Education

- Berman (1983, p.14) suggested:
  - *"U.S. philanthropic organizations offered training intending to 'enculturate' or socialise a generation of African, Asian, and Latin American university graduates toward political and economic perspectives associated with the United States".*

- The education system of Kosovo *"has had a long history of inseparability with the politics of the region"* (British Council, 2000, p.3).

Dr. Paul Sudnik   27th February 2011

Prof. Dr. Michael Daxner

"We are not here for the school directors,

the ministers or the bureaucrats. We are here for the

teachers and the students. We have to de-politicize and

democratize the system. Because in the end, it is

education which will play the key role in peace-building"

(UNMIK, 2000).

Dr. Paul Sudnik   27th February 2011

Kosovska Mitrovica

Location	Community	Numbers
South	Albanian	50,000 plus
North	Serbian	14,000
	Roma	6,000
	Muslim Slavs (Bosniaks)	2,000
Total		70 – 75,000

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The IBCM

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The IBCM

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Mitrovica Bridge

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Mitrovica Bridge

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Chinese Puzzle Bridge at Chengdu

The IBCM

International
Business College
Mitrovica

Best Practice

- □ The origins of the idea of best practice are to be found in the corporate world of the late 1970s and 1980s.
  - ▪ *Xerox Corporation developed the technique of benchmarking to regain competitive advantage*
- □ In higher education today benchmarking, and the pursuit of best practice, is widespread

Benchmarking

- □ Drucker (1998) points out that, essentially, benchmarking assumes that what one organisation does, any organisation can do as well.

- □ Thus, the purpose of benchmarking is to establish what the sector leader is doing and then to emulate, or beat, those achievements by the implementation of "best practice".

Benchmarking

- □ So we felt that we needed to establish what passed for best practice in the sector

Best Practice in Tertiary Education

- □ Chickering and Gamson (1987) Classroom Customs:
  1. Encouragement of contact between students and faculty
  2. Development of reciprocity and cooperation among students.
  3. Encouragement of active learning.
  4. Providing prompt feedback.
  5. Emphasizing time on task.
  6. Communicating high expectations.
  7. Respecting diverse talents and ways of learning.

Best Practice in Tertiary Education

- Hubball and Gold (2007, p.9) review reform in undergraduate programmes through curriculum change:
  - *"developing, implementing, and evaluating learning-centered curricula is … a scholarly process."*

- There is no 'cookbook' or single implementation strategy to curriculum development that will suit all settings.

Best Practice in Tertiary Education

- Kyvik (2004) affirms that best practice in West European Higher Education is driven by the Bologna reforms which stress outcomes promoting the employability of graduates.

- Of equal importance is the creation of easier access to education to a more diverse body of students by opening enrollment to women, minorities and disadvantaged groups.

Best Practice in Tertiary Education

- Higbee et al. (2004, p. 14) turn attention to the question of student retention:
  - *"In order to encourage retention, it is imperative that faculty teaching first-year courses communicate to students that they are welcomed and valued."*

- We were tempted to observe that in the Western Balkans, where little has been permanent for at least the last twenty five years, a whole generation has come to adulthood without a sense of long term commitment.

Best Practice in Tertiary Education

- Conraths and Trusso (2007) see that good practice in Universities requires a sense of urgency and the early creation of targets
  - perhaps by means of the now traditional vision and mission statements

- They advocate the creation of a supportive infrastructure through which a management team may make clear decisions that encourage the organisation to progress.

Best Practice in Tertiary Education

- Fullan (2001) discusses the importance of sustained professional development and mentorship to the long-term improvement of professional competence and engagement among faculty.
- Florio-Ruane and deTar (2001) demonstrate that it is by reflection through frequent conversations about themselves, their practice and classroom experiences that professional learning opportunities for lecturers are maximised.

Best Practice in Tertiary Education

- Despite the wide ranging literature of best practice in higher education, examples of best practice in South West Europe seem hard to come by

- So we did not really find a peer example of best practice

- This paper describes how we have set about establishing best practice in our context

Methodology and Method

- Action Research is based on the epistemology that has grown from the work, among others, of Lewin (1951), Argyris and Schon (1974), Dewey (1986) and Argyris (1993).

- Certainly the term *'Action Research'* seems today to cover a very broad church of research methods in practice

Action Research in Education

- There is significant support for the use of AR strategies in education, e.g.:

  - Kosha (2005) illustrates the application of action research to professional development and the improvement of classroom practice.

  - Mertler (2006) has written a practical textbook to help lecturers to research their own practice.

Methodology and Method

- ☐ Our method was chosen by reference to the need to build innovative processes within the IBCM.

- ☐ The aim of process innovation is to challenge the current way of doing things so as to make sure that all aspects of the institution are re-designed to strengthen it

Working towards Best Practice

- ☐ Florio-Ruane and deTar who propose that teachers should have frequent conversations amongst themselves in order to improve practice
- ☐ Cowan (1998, p. 49), proposes that innovative teachers in higher education create a "constructive occasion for 'reflection-for-action'"
- ☐ We created many such "constructive occasions" to record experience which would signpost a path along which policies, teaching and other curricular pursuits could be aligned.

Story Lines

- ☐ Through analysis of data such as meeting minutes, draft policies and course handbooks we found that story lines as described by Dixon (2006) and Alvesson and Sköldberg (2000) began to emerge.

- ☐ This process of coding and categorising information involved searching for units of meaning through multiple readings of the data.

Story Lines

- ☐ We combined 11 categories of best practice activity taken from the literature review

- ☐ We combined them with the categories emerging from the experience of the IBCM staff

- ☐ … and reorganized according to the emerging story lines so grouping them at a higher level

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Story Lines

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Structure of Best Practice in the IBCM

- Four combined story lines were arrived at through this analysis :

  1. Student Focus
  2. Curriculum Management
  3. The World of Work
  4. Institution Building

Curriculum Management

- We have a holistic view of curriculum
- In terms of classroom practice we find that we work in quite a different way compared to traditional institutions in Kosovo
- By putting the student at the centre of the curriculum we bring out the best in course participants.
- It has been interesting to see how students have begun to realise that responsibility for learning rests with them.

Curriculum Management

- The inclusion of a project week at the half way stage of each semester is a feature of assignment setting that is quite new in Kosovo.
- Critical thinking is aimed at encouraging students to assess assumptions, evaluate evidence and examine conclusions.
- The secondary school context in Kosovo is often focused on passive learning and so the requirement to discuss, for example, a case in class is a completely novel experience

World of Work

- We have institutional commitment to providing relevant guidance towards the goal of finding employment.

- At IBCM we are doing this firstly through employing lecturers who can lead this process.

- We aim to ensure that at least 75% of teaching staff have worked for at least three years outside an academic environment.

World of Work

- The importance of external stakeholders:
  - we have held two workshops aimed at introducing the IBCM to local stakeholders.

- As a result of these events we have opened a group which we call "Friends of IBCM" whose purpose is to develop relationships with external stakeholders.

Institution Building

- Crucial to our position of educational leadership in Kosovo is the maintenance of a relationship with both central and local government
  - We are negotiating with the municipal authority to provide management training to their staff.
- Increasing the reach of the IBCM is an important element of external stakeholder development and therefore of institution building.
  - We have arranged English lessons, delivered by native speakers, in five locations around Kosovo and the Serbian enclaves,

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Future Work

- Much of our daily work is focused on ensuring that what we have come to call best practice at the IBCM really does become daily practice

- Beyond these practical enhancements of best practice, monitoring and evaluating activities both within and outside the institution will need to be instituted.

Dr. Paul Sudnik ATEE 27th February 2011

Titles in alphabetical order

Editorial note: In order to avoid copyright contravention, only titles are given here. Later in this publication, where the author has chosen to have the work published here then the abstract and full paper appear This is marked by **AP** after the title. Where there is only an abstract then **A** appears. Where the author has chosen to seek publication in a journal or publication other than this one the contributions below are given only titles.

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Abstracts and full papers now follow.

Any omissions are entirely without deliberation but all contributions are based on information to hand at the timeof publication.

The editors are grateful for the hard work of the authors and their creative and inventive foci together with the quality of the research. Any linguistic changes made by the editors are to assist understanding

Except where quotes are used, UK English is the standard form for this document.

Some of those present at the ATEE 2011 Winter conference at Bled

Photography thanks to Marija Ivanovic

ABSTRACTS AND PAPERS IN ALPHABETICAL ORDER

The leadership Characteristics of Turkish principals: An Interregional Comparative Study

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During the 20th and beginning of 21st centuries, the characteristics and traits of leadership have stimulated a great deal more interest than the character of leaders. This is so despite the fact that studies and theories, which attempt to describe, analyse and explain the personality of leaders, have attracted the attention of many of the greatest of historians and dramatists over the last two thousand years.

In this study, principals at secondary level have been sought to consider their lives in terms of some of these themes. The research approach adopted in this study presents a series of face-to-face interview with seven principals from seven regions of Turkey. In determining the principals for this study, some criteria were used. First, because the secondary level has relatively a lot of problem, principals were chosen from the schools at secondary level. Secondly, there are seven geographically different regions in Turkey and one principal was chosen from each of them. Finally, chosen principals have being successful in their schools for a long time according to the results of University Entrance exams. The data are in the process of being analyzed.

The Concept of Servant Leadership in terms of the Education Sector

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giderler_ceren@hotmail.com

ABSTRACT
A new philosophy that values "first comes human" and "focus on services" understanding of servant leadership style going for beyond traditional leadership studies servant-leaders create "putting souls in to work" understanding and by this way organizational culture intensified and preserved according to servant leadership principles. In this paper, the servant leadership understanding is studied in terms of education area. servant leadership is important qualification for teachers and managers who working in the education area. The aim of this study is to measure by using descriptive research model the levels of servant leadership of teachers. The results of this research have significant implications for stakeholders of education sector and future research.

Keywords: Servant leadership, education sector, human resources, teacher

The Theoretical Role of the Principal and Its Realization in the Croatian Educational System

Author: Ph.D. Željko Burcar

Summary

In the past fifteen years considerable efforts had been made in the Croatian society to increase the quality of leadership in both the non-profit as well as the profit sector. In the non-profit sector education and training had been realized instituted for leaders in non-governmental, faith and charity organisations as well as in public, educational and social care institutions.

As well as many informal additional educations has been provided by non-profit organizations, Open Society for example. Croatia defines education as a strategic goal.

We agreed that lack of knowledge and skills adds up to poverty. It makes sense that increasing quality of leadership in the educational system should be one of the first strategic points for development. In accordance with an increase in management quality, depends on the efficiency and the effectiveness of the educational system.

Research was conducted in order to get find the answers to omit open questions about leaders' educational needs and the key of quality in educational system.

This research examines the role of the school principal within the context of modern-day schooling. The theoretical explanation of the role of the principal in the Croatian educational system was analyzed through available literature on management, administration and leadership, and through the analysis of documentation such as legislation referring to the educational system, institutional bylaws, and chapters of school curricula referring to the work plan and curriculum of school principals. The role of the principal in the Croatian educational system was examined through empirical research and estimated through the principal's activities within their scope of work, and attitudes towards the role of the principal as seen by potential candidatesfor the job were analysed.

The results of this research indicate the model of the principal's role realization in the educational system of the Republic of Croatia, according with principal's activities in the school through which they accomplish their role and model of the principal's role in the Croatian educational system.

Key words: Educational leadership, instructional leadership, school management, the role of the principal, the principal's job.

1. Introduction

Croatia defines education as a strategic goal. Inside the educational system research and experience shows the importance of management and leadership in educational institutions. The Educational System was decentralised to a local district level. Organizationally in the Croatian educational system there are smaller organisational subsystems. "There are pre-school institutions, elementary school institutions, grammar schools and occupational schools, university systems and science systems. All these institutions have principals", (Burcar, 2008, p. 244).

Basically, we can conclude that formal education relies on the educational institutions. We can also agree that lack of knowledge and skills adds up to poverty. It makes sense that increasing the quality of leadership in the educational system should be one of the first strategic points for development. In accordance with an increase in management quality, all depends on the efficiency and the effectiveness of the educational system. Through the educational system new managers and leaders will be educated and trained.

This research examines the role of the school principal within the context of modern-day schooling. The theoretical explanation of the role of the principal in the Croatian educational system was analysed through available literature on management, administration and leadership, and through the analysis of documentation such as legislation referring to the educational system, institutional byelaws, and chapters of school curricula referring to the work plan and curriculum of school principals. The empirical explanation of the role of the principal in Croatia was analysed through a constructed questionnaire.

2. The role

In the everyday colloquial talk term,*role*, most often presumes the person in the theatre or a film performance, which manifests behaviour a certain person that interprets. In the direct translation from the English language the role presumes: role and the function (English–Croatian dictionary, 1970, p.

846). Role is the expected function from somebody or something, or the part which somebody or something takes place in certain event. In the social context under the role we presume the impact in the specified social context which results in some characteristics or behaviour (accessible on: http://the Encarta.msn.com / dictionary / roles.html, 9/11/2009).

Antić, S. (2000, p. 297) determines that the term *role of the principal* has not been explained, but through analysis of the terms: organizer and the headmaster, it can be defined that the principal as "the first person in school" has been conferred the function of "main leader", whose work at school can take to be the work of country delegate who manages school within entrusted functions.

Entrusted functions towards Antić, S. presumes: a) planning and programming, b) managing, c) leading, d) organizing,) e) focusing, f) monitoring, g) control, h) evaluation, as well as the circle of administrative and financial jobs usually called administrative jobs. From the explanation Antić, S. present, it can be concluded that under the term function presume term role, which responds to the English term of role. Function on the other hand towards Klaić, B. (1978, p. 459) presume more upcoming and different terms: a) impact, b) activity, c) task, d) commitment, is) duty, f) work, g) labour, h) purpose, i) goal, j) aim, k) service, l) occupation, m) employment, n) position, o) settlement.

On the other hand, Pennington, D. C. (2001, p. 279) definesrole as: "behaviors expected from the person who occupy specific position in the group", author towards the Shaw (1971) differ expected roles, perceived roles and performed roles. Pennington, D. C. (2001, p. 281) conclude that: "usually, one person takes different role in a different group".

3. Management & Leadership

According to Vajić, I. (1994), "Basic management functions are: planning, organizing and influence…… Considering that management can be defined as a group of different functions and managerial jobs. They include ten functions arranged in three basic groups: a) functions in the area of human relations, b) functions in the area of information, c) functions in the area of decision-making." (Vajić, I. 1994, p. 121).

Mintzberg, H. (1975, p. 12), as the one of the most relevant theorist in non-profit management, frequently quoted in the Anglo-Saxon system, in his research, explains how managers' role can be tracked through his activity. He explained the role of the manager through integrated activities that manager performs.

1. Formal role:
➢ The authority – which arises from the position of the most responsible person, from which follows,
➢ The status – which leads to many acquaintances and relations.

2. Interpersonal role:
➢ The role of representative – which manifests through different ceremonious tasks,
➢ The role of leader – which comes from the facts that leads people that perform their own business activities (motivating and the encouraging),
➢ The role of binder – which manifests through connecting persons with information's, through the pyramid of the system, through many different forms of communication, using collected information.

3. The role of informer:
➢ The role of controller – through the permanent scan of environment, inside as well as external,
➢ The role of transmitter – making the information accessible in all directions,
➢ The role of spokesmen – explained as the role of information sharing with environment.

4. The role of decision-maker:
➢ The role of entrepreneur – through the series of collected information, manager makes decisions about the importance of innovative information which need to be actualized,
➢ The role of person which conquers the disturbance – through the activity and the decision making according to collected information which disturbs the stability on the market,
➢ The role of the person which relocate resources – as activity in accordance with the information and brought decisions,
➢ The role of negotiator – because only manager has the authorization to bring some decisions.

Leadership can also be defined "as an art of encouragement others to do something in what they believe that must be made" (Packard, V. 1962).

Sergiovanni, T. J. (2001, p. 343) emphasises the leadership role in the educational system as a personal role which consists of three dimensions: a) heart (personal believes, values), b) head (theories, knowledge) and c) hand (actions). Kouzes, J.M. i Posner, B.Z. under the term heart mostly presume the human encouraging (2003, p. 3.)

4. The role of the principal

In last fifteen years, literature records changes about the definition of the roles of the principal. New role definitions of the principal role emerge by different commissions and by professional organisations. USA National Policy Board for Educational Administration (1989), the National Commission for the Principalship (1993) and Institute for Educational Leadership (2000) prescribed recommendations for the increase of the principal competences and preparatory programmes for the principals.

The role of the principal change often in the relation to the decision making, pressure increase at work, candidates testing methods, responsibilities, relationship according to the local community (Williams, R.C. and Portin, B., 1997 in Whitaker, K.S. (2003); Murphy, J., 1994; Hart, And. and Bredesen, P., 1996; Whitaker, K.S., 1999). In spite of their certain positive impacts such role changes results in the workload increase and in the increase of stress. (Pounder, D.G. and Merrill, R.J., 2001; Whan, L.D. and the Thomas, A.R., 1996).

The role of the principal has accomplished in school whose basic purpose is education. Accordingly, the role of the principal often orients toward the instructional leadership. Fullan, M. (1991, p. 144) declares that "role of the principal becomes dramatically complex; it is over tasked and unclear in the last decade. The role of principal is contained in the transition from the principal as the instructional leader or the head teacher in the direction to the transactional leader and most often changes to the role of transformational leader." Many articles have been written in the literature (Berlin, B., Kavanagh, J. and Jensen, K., 1988; Flath, B., 1989; Fullan, M., 1991; McNally, G., 1992; Stronge, J.H., 1988) regarding the importance of principal's responsibility in the role of instructional leader. More clearly we could say how the progress of education requests improvement of the instructional leadership.

Many authors agree that there is no general definition of instructional leadership, nor the specific guiding principles or the guidelines what instructional leadership is (Flath, B., 1989). Therefore authors use their own definitions and result is: meaning of the instructional leadership significantly varies from one to the other practitioner or the scientist. (Bird, T. D. and Little, J. W. cited in [Glickman, C., 1990, p. 19]) explains the difference between educational and the instructional leadership. They say that educational leadership describes that initiatives that would like to preserve or produce the acceptable educational ethos (the morality), while the instructional leadership belong to the specific field of the educational leadership that has been directed to the curriculum and the teaching.

According to Acheson, A. and S. C. Smith, cited in (Glickman, C., 1990, p. 20), instructional leader is administrator who emphasizes the process of teaching, adjust and support interactions between the teacher, student and curriculum. The significant number of researches suggests that principals feel the "dismemberment" between the role of educational leader and the role of the manager (Dimmock, C., 1996), and the problem lies in the decision; focus on the teaching and learning or on the growing load of administrative tasks.

5. Aim, goal and tasks of this research

The aim of this research was to identify the role of the principal through the analysis of performance of tasks. The administrative (formal) role of the principal was determined through the analysis of documentation consisting of relevant legislation, school documentation and recent literature. The role of the principal in the Croatian educational system was examined through empirical research and estimated through the principal's activities within their scope of work, and attitudes towards the role of the principal as seen by potential candidatesfor the job were analyzed. The goal of the research was operationalised through the following research tasks:

• The role of the principal was examined through the study of documentation,

• The tasks of a school principal and correlations between variables were examined through empirical research,

• The attitudes of potential candidates for the job of the principal towards the actual work a principal does were tested through empirical research,

• Differences between the work principals do in primary and secondary schools were tested as well,

- Differences between the attitudes regarding a principal's actual work and the work potential principals think principals do, were also tested,
- Differences between the work principals should do as determined and examined in the documentation and the work principals actually do, were further explored.

A rationally-deductive methodological approach was applied in the theoretical analysis and study of documentation. An empirically inductive methodological approach was applied in the analysis of the results obtained through surveys. The following research methods were used in this research (Švajcer, V. 1971): a) study of documentation, b) survey method.

6. Methods of the research

6.1. Questionnaire
For the purpose of this research a questionnaire was designed consisting of 192 variables which describe different tasks a principal performs. The questionnaire also contained 10 questions which provided data about the respondent and the respondent's school. Respondents provided answers in line with the six categories of the Likert scale: (1) Completely disagree, (2) Strongly disagree, (3) Disagree, (4) Agree, (5) Strongly agree, (6) Completely agree, (Bell, J. p. 165 in Coleman&Briggs, ed. 2003.).

6.2. The sample of respondents
The sample of respondents was intentional and chosen accordingly so as to represent 119 principals, of whom 83 are elementary and 36 secondary school principals, and this sample was further stratified for the purpose of a part of this research, as well as the sample of 120 potential principals, that is teachers and expert-associates.

6.3. Three hypotheses were tested:
$H0_1$ There is no difference between the theoretical description of the role of the principal and the realization of this role in the Croatian educational system.
$H0_2$ There is no statistically significant difference between the tasks principals perform in elementary and secondary schools.
 $H0_3$ There is no statistically significant difference between various tasks principals perform and the perception of these tasks by potential principals.
Correlations were tested with the Spearman Rank Order Correlations. Differences were tested with Kolmogorov-Smirnov two sample tests. The level of relations between tested variables and the level of differences between the two compared samples were confirmed after statistical significance of correlations or differences was proven.

7. Results
The results of the research confirm hypothesis $H0_1$ and lead to the conclusion that principals perform not only duties which are required by law, but more. On the other hand, the role of the principal in the Croatian educational system does not differ from the theoretical role of the principal described in recent literature and relevant legislation.
The results of the research confirm hypothesis $H0_2$ and lead to the conclusion that there are no differences between the scope of work of principals in elementary and secondary schools. This means that principals in both types of school belong to the same population.
The results point to the fact that hypothesis $H0_3$ cannot be fully accepted, or can be partially rejected due to statistically significant differences between the surveyed samples of groups of principals and potential principals in 39% of analysed variables (tasks).
The survey designed for this research was summarized from 192 to 94 variables of a principal's job description and as such can be used for future research.
The results of this research indicate that there is a) hierarchical model of the realization of the principal's role in the Croatian educational system, which is in line with the principal's tasks in school through which this role is realized (Figure 1) and b) the model of the principal's role in the Croatian educational system (Figure 2).

they are faced with
as a result of
expectations set
forth by legislation,
...

| Information collector & disseminator! | Communi- cator! | Strategist & Planner | Executive manager, administrator, and organizer! | leading, resolving conflicts, developing relationships, teaching, training! | Evaluator! | Student! | Link to the community! | Educational leader & educator! |

| Collecting and disseminating information! | Communication with his/her environment! | Long-term & short term planning! | Signing, responding, organizing, and coordinating! | | Analysing, monitoring and evaluating! | Life –long learning! | ...participation in the activities of local community and neighbouring | |

TASKS!

Figure 2; Model of the principal's role.

Principals in the Croatian school system realize their role of information collector and disseminator through various media. The mean of related tasks results is between 4.91 and 5.44, MOD=6, with the results being grouped within a standard deviation of 1.13.

Principals in the Croatian school system realize their role of communicator with the staff, pupils, parents, superiors and local community, directly or by using technology. The mean of related tasks results is between 4.71 and 5.68, MOD=6, with the results being grouped within a standard deviation of 1.11.

Principals in the Croatian school system realize the role of strategist and planner in relation to human resources, teaching and other resources, and pupils. The mean of related tasks results is between

4.70 and 5.55, MOD=6, with the results being grouped within a standard deviation of 1.15, except for the task of planning cultural activities and legislation content (MOD=4).

Principals in the Croatian school system realize the role of executive manager, administrator and organizer as chairpersons, responsible persons, and skilful persons. The mean of related tasks results is between 4.55 and 5.46, MOD=6, with the results being grouped within a standard deviation of 1.19, excluding the project planning task. (MOD=4).

Principals in the Croatian school system realise the role of educational leader and educator by building relations, motivating, educating, and supporting highly educated staff to produce a high level of pupils' output. Here, the mean of related tasks results is between 4.57 and 5.02, MOD=6, excluding teaching of staff (MOD=5) with the results being grouped within a standard deviation of 0.95. The lowest results were recorded for the tasks performed within the educational leader role with the mean being between 3.57 and 4.51, MOD=4, and with the results being grouped within a standard deviation of 1.44.

Principals in the Croatian school system realise the role of evaluator through analyzing, monitoring and evaluating processes and results. The mean of related tasks results here is between 4.62 and 5.15, MOD is between 4 and 6, with the results being grouped within a standard deviation of 0.96.

Principals in the Croatian school system realize the role of student through continuous investment in their own knowledge, skills and behaviour. The mean of related tasks results here is between 4.73 and 5.39, MOD is between 4 and 6, with the results being grouped within a standard deviation of 1.06.

Principals in the Croatian school system realize the role of being a link to the community through various protocol activities. The mean of related tasks results is between 4.25 and 4.72, MOD is between 4 and 6, with the results being grouped within a standard deviation of 1.06.

82.35% (98) of all principals, i.e. 85.54% (71) of elementary school principals and 75% (27) of secondary school principals reported that their schools did not have a mission statement. At the same time, 61.34% (73) of all principals, i.e. 60.24% (50) of elementary school principals and 63.89% (23) of secondary school principals reported that their school had a motto.

An average principal's working day (AS= 8.75 hours/day), and working week (AS=45.89 hour/week) are longer then potential principals estimate (AS=7.81 hours/day, AS=39.75 hours/week).

8. Conclusions

The theoretical explanation of the role of the principal in the Croatian educational system was analysed through available literature on management, administration and leadership, and through the analysis of documentation such as legislation referring to the educational system, institutional bylaws, and chapters of school curricula referring to the work plan and curriculum of school principals.

The aim of this research was to analyse the role of the principal through the analysis of performance of tasks. The administrative (formal) role of the principal was determined through the analysis of documentation consisting of relevant legislation, school documentation and recent literature. The role of the principal in the Croatian educational system was examined through empirical research and estimated through the principal's activities within their scope of work, and attitudes towards the role of the principal as seen by potential candidatesfor the job were analyzed.

In the recent literature there are many different approaches to the principal's role. Authors agreed that the role is in transformation, and the workload increasing. The role of the principal basically covers managing and leading jobs.

The results of this research indicate that there is: a) hierarchical model of the realization of the principal's role in the Croatian educational system, which is in line with the principal's tasks in school through which this role is realized (Figure 1) and b) the model of the principal's role in the Croatian educational system (Figure 2).
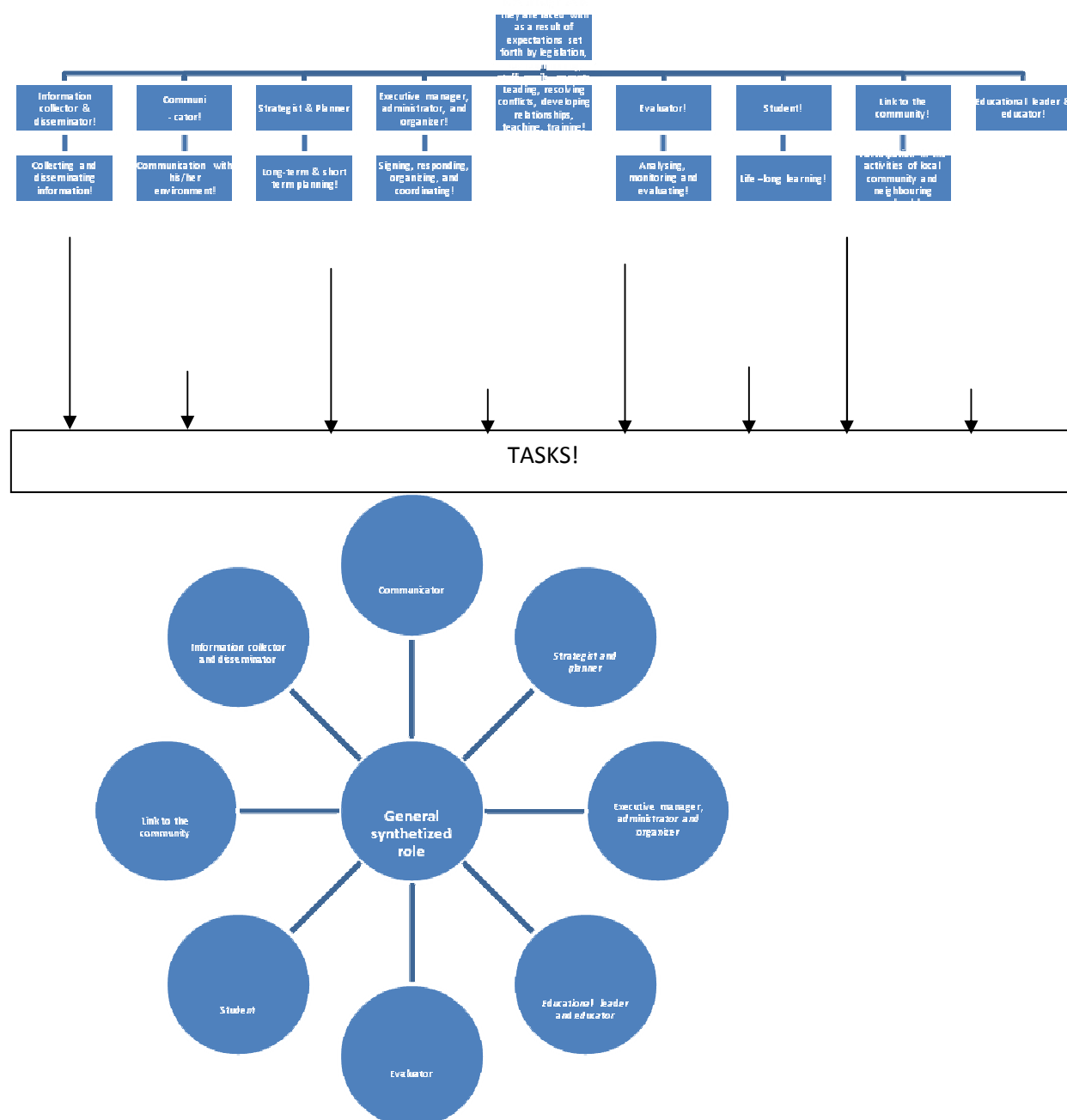
Principals in the Croatian school system realize their role of information collector and disseminator through various media. Principals in the Croatian school system realize their role of communicator with the staff, pupils, parents, superiors and local community, directly or by using technology. Principals in the Croatian school system realise the role of strategist and planner in relation to human resources, teaching and other resources, and pupils. Principals in the Croatian school system realize the role of executive manager, administrator and organizer as chairpersons, responsible persons, and skillful persons. Principals in the Croatian school system realize the role of educational leader and educator by building relations, motivating, educating, and supporting highly educated staff to produce a high level of pupils' output. Principals in the Croatian school system realize the role of evaluator through analysing, monitoring and evaluating processes and results. Principals in the Croatian school system realize the role of student through continuous investment in their own knowledge, skills and behaviour. Principals in the Croatian school system realise the role of being a link to the community through various protocol activities.

The results of the research lead to the conclusion that there are no differences between the scope of work of principals in elementary and secondary schools. This means that principals in both types of school belong to the same population. The results point to the fact that potential principals do not recognise the reality of the principal's job in 39% of analysed variables (tasks).

82.35% (98) of all principals, i.e. 85.54% (71) of elementary school principals and 75% (27) of secondary school principals reported that their schools did not have a mission statement. At the same time, 61.34% (73) of all principals, i.e. 60.24% (50) of elementary school principals and 63.89% (23) of secondary school principals reported that their school had a motto.

An average principal's working day (AS= 8.75 hours/day), and working week (AS=45.89 hour/week) are longer then potential principals estimate (AS=7.81 hours/day, AS=39.75 hours/week).

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The Characteristics of Successful Principals: Three cases from Turkey

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Schools (where most of the individuals spend their at least 8-10 years) provide a structure for gaining of basic skills, knowledge and efficiencies as well as the values, norms and attitudes need to be acquired during a lifetime. Schools can act as a support for the role of parents, can help individuals to improve their skills and help them to increase their potential in affective and cognitive development.

In order to achieve successful outcomes with regard to these important roles, schools need to be managed effectively. Principals' leadership is the key for effective schools. The schools reach educational goals with principals' leadership understanding. With this study, it was aimed to determine principals' leadership understanding and effectiveness in Turkey. The data were collected at three schools in three different cities in Turkey. The study is based on qualitative research method. The data are in the process of being analysed according to the following questions: How do principals shape their roles, scripts, and styles of interaction in a context of challenging changes? How do principals respond to external and internal expectations? How do they argue for their priorities?

Developing integrated professional learning cultures and the continuum of teacher education:
A case study of leadership and opportunities to learn to teach in Ireland and Poland

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to examine the interplay between school culture and opportunities to learn to teach (OTLT) in Ireland and Poland drawing on insights from a cross-national study of learning to teach. In particular, we focus on teacher education at system and school levels and its role in creating and sustaining integrated professional learning cultures to support teacher education at initial and induction phases of the continuum. The impetus for this study was based on the considerable differences in OTLT which emerged from the nine-country cross-national study between the two countries. As such, this paper provides a more in-depth study two countries cogniscent of the insights from the nine-country study. Findings are presented under the following headings: new expectations for teacher education, new professional trajectories, incremental assumption of responsibility, debate about the role of schools in teacher education and fostering conversation between novices and accomplished teachers. Significantly we make a case for the importance of conceptualising emerging trends in both jurisdictions, as a case study of the development of integrated professional learning cultures vis-à-vis the continuum of professional education as central to understanding teacher education review and reform internationally.

Keywords: continuum of teacher education, integrated professional learning cultures, initial teacher education, induction, Ireland, Poland, socio-cultural

I. Introduction
The purpose of this paper is to examine the interplay between leadership and opportunities to learn to teach (OTLT) in Ireland and Poland drawing on insights from a cross-national study of learning to teach. In particular, we focus on teacher education at system and school levels and its role in creating and sustaining integrated professional learning cultures to support teacher education at initial and induction phases of the continuum. The report upon which this study is based was commissioned by the Teaching Council Ireland to inform its review of teacher education across the professional continuum. The research gave priority to initial teacher education (ITE) and induction, their interface, and implications for the continuum of teacher education, including continuing professional development (CPD). In addressing initial teacher education and induction, the commissioned report focused on learning outcomes/professional standards and accreditation in the selected countries. The study involved a two-pronged approach: a narrative review of recent and relevant literature and a cross-national review of teacher education policies in nine countries, namely, Ireland, Northern Ireland, Scotland, England, Finland, USA, Poland, Singapore and New Zealand. In this paper extending the commissioned report research, we focus on two countries in particular, Ireland and Poland, and teacher education at system and school levels, and opportunities to learn to teach during initial teacher education with a focus on the school-university relationship and parameters of engagement with pedagogy in teaching practice schools. The impetus for this study was based on the considerable differences in OTLT which emerged between the two countries. In this paper, we consider these differences in greater depth in the light of the insights from the wider nine-country study. As such, we make a case for the importance of conceptualising emerging trends in teacher education review and reform in both jurisdictions in terms of the development of integrated professional learning cultures vis-à-vis the continuum of professional education. Significantly, we argue, based on the nine-country study, that there is a move toward integrated professional learning cultures is a central feature of teacher education reform internationally.

The paper is organized into five sections. We first provide an overview of integrated professional learning cultures in initial teacher education and induction. Internationally, there is an emerging consensus that teacher education is best viewed as a continuum. In this paper, we focus primarily on

the early stages of that continuum, initial teacher education and induction. In looking at the progress of teacher education in Ireland and Poland over the last decade, the key concept that we use is that of integrated professional learning cultures. In adopting a socio-cultural perspective on learning to teach, we take as our starting point the notion of 'assisted performance' (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Tsui, 2009). We focus therefore on specific aspects of the learning to teach experience, highlighting the levels of support, assistance and contexts for pedagogy-focused professional conversations between neophytes and accomplished teachers that are available to beginning teachers. In particular we examine the (i) dynamics of school-university partnerships and (ii) opportunities for observation, mentoring and engagement with pedagogy (Conway, Murphy, Hall & Rath, 2011). Second, we provide a brief overview of the historical contexts and current arrangements for teacher education in Ireland and Poland, noting the most pressing policy priorities in relation to the quality of teaching in primary and post-primary schooling in both jurisdictions (Conway et al, 2009; Michalak, 2005). Third, using the integrated professional learning cultures framework, we use it to analyze and appraise contemporary directions in teacher education in the focal countries by focusing on school-university partnerships and opportunities for observation, mentoring and engagement with pedagogy. Finally, drawing upon the nine-country cross-national study out of which this bilateral comparison between Ireland and Poland is drawn, we discuss the implications for teacher education.

In summary, with a view to comparing OTLT in ITE and induction in Ireland and Poland, we use integrated professional learning cultures as a framework for conceptualising quality teacher education at initial and induction phases. While teacher education in both countries is broadly similar in concept, particularly since the Bologna accord, there are significant difference between the two countries in the roles of schools in providing opportunities to learn to teach and supporting beginning teachers. Significant differences found in the study include the changes brought about by teacher education reform in Poland (Gorzelak, 2005; Kijowska, 2003; Michalak, 2007; Michalak, 2010b); the structured and supported approach to classroom observation and teaching practice embodied in the Polish system of ITE contrasted with the more ad-hoc approach currently prevailing in Ireland where there are few opportunities for ITE students to observe experienced teachers or be observed by these same teachers in teaching practice schools (Conway et al, 2010) and the structured career progression set out in the Polish Teachers' Charter (2000) which has no counterpart in the Irish system.

In conclusion, we draw attention to a number of themes (i) the scope for the development of school leadership vis-à-vis initial teacher education (ii) leadership as a form of mentoring to support assisted practice, and (iii) leadership and the development of partnerships between higher education institutions and schools as a key context for teacher education reform (Michalak, 2010a; Conway et al, 2011).

II. Assisted performance and integrated professional learning cultures

Our framework for this study conceptualises how opportunities to become a teacher in Ireland and Poland can be viewed from an understanding of socio-cultural learning theory interfaced with an understanding of professional cultures in schools. A socio-cultural perspective is our chosen stance on learning because it offers a generative lens through which to integrate and systematically account for individual, social, and cultural-historical forces in learning, and can make a significant contribution to understanding teacher education in its cultural context. A fundamental assumption of the study is that assisted performance (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Author, 2005) is a core condition in learning to teach. In essence, a socio-cultural model is fundamentally social in nature (Cole, 1996; Daniels, 2001; Claxton & Wells, 2002; Gipps, 2002; Wertsch, 1991; Hall, Murphy & Soler, 2008; Mewborn & Stinson, 2007; Putnam & Borko, 2000). The emphasis is on the social genesis of learning. Thus, it situates the person learning to teach in a sea of relationships and cultural symbols that shape and are shaped by the learner. From this perspective, while learning to teach, student teachers draw not only on the knowledge, beliefs, and skills they have acquired, but also on the cultural and historical legacy of previous generations of teachers - that is, the knowledge embedded in their respective society's cultural tools and signs, in this case those of Ireland or Poland.

Assisted performance can come in many guises in teacher education. It can include co-planning and/or co-teaching with a mentor teacher or student teacher peer, and also includes various forms of observation, feedback and support which might be broadly seen as forms of mentoring. Central to the concept of assisted performance in learning to teach are three ideas: (i) initiation into professional practice is guided and supported rather than seen as a 'sink or swim' or 'trial by fire' endeavour, (ii) a

cog-wheeling of the generations, that is, where accomplished professionals structure and support the professional 'newcomers' and (iii) a graduated and incremental approach to full responsibility for the professional 'newcomer'.

In developing a framework for this study, we link Tharp and Gallimore's learning theory-based idea of assisted performance with the work of Moore-Johnson et al (2004) and Kardos et al. (2001) on the nature of professional learning cultures in schools. Moore-Johnson et al. (2004) and Kardos et al. (2001), drawing on theirmulti-year study of induction for new teachers in three states in the USA, the *Project on the Next Generation of Teachers*, characterise the optimal context for learning to teach as one where *Integrated professional learning cultures*are enacted in schools, with necessary supports for this at school and system levels. Summarising their study, they claim that "…in integrated professional cultures, new teachers described being provided with sustained support and having frequent exchanges with colleagues across experience levels. Principals proved to be important in developing and maintaining integrated professional cultures where the particular needs of new teachers were both recognized and addressed" (Kardos, et al, 2001, p. 250). They contrast professional learning cultures with two other types of school cultures, that is novice- and veteran-oriented schools. Significantly the three school cultures have very different implications for the types of support offered to newly qualified (and student) teachers:

- Novice-oriented professional culture: beginner teachers support each other with little or no mentoring or opportunities to observe and share practice
- Experienced/veteran-oriented professional culture: experienced/veteran teachers are supportive in a general way, yet by and large provide no mentoring, observation opportunities or feedback on classroom teaching
- Integrated professional culture: learning to teach is seen as a task for all in the school. All teachers are encouraged to improve teaching and learning, to collaborate and share practice, and to continue to grow in their profession. There are links between novices and experts within the school. Support for newly qualified teachers (NQTs) is generally widespread across the school, and includes peer observation, feedback and a coaching culture centred around sharing professional practice and a deep focus on pedagogy.

We use this 'school culture' typology as a way of thinking about how and why student teachers can have such different experiences even within a single system (Ireland or Poland) as well as when comparing the two systems.

In examining integrated professional learning cultures as a context for opportunities to learn to teach in Ireland and Poland, we focus on system level and school level policies and practices, to the extent of the data available on these at present. We also note gaps in our knowledge. From a cross-national perspective, we can locate the challenges faced by teacher education in our two countries as contemporary challenges similar to those facing teacher education in other countries. We note the international trend towards reconceptualising or reconfiguring the professional life-cycle or continuum of teacher education. For example, there has been a focus in policy and practice on mapping professional learning journeys from ITE into induction and early professional development in Northern Ireland, the USA, Scotland (Conway et al, 2009). Underpinning this effort is the assumption that becoming a teacher can no longer be seen as a once-off accomplishment ending at graduation from ITE. Rather becoming a teacher is a more gradual, incremental and structured professional enculturation. One consequence of this shift is thatthe relationship between newcomers and experienced teachers is likely to take on new features as practising professionals take more responsibility for educating the next generation of teachers.

III. Policy context: Ireland and Poland

Reforms in teacher education are influenced both by debate with the profession (for example the concerns about accountability, standardised testing and accreditation that have come to the fore in recent years) and by wider social, political and economic context. From a national policy point of view, an educated workforce that meets the need of the economy is essential. Reforms in Poland began as late as the 1990s, as the Polish education system moved from the emphasis on vocational education and training that prevailed under communism to an education system that aimed to equip its citizens with a more rounded education that would enable them to adapt to a rapidly changing world. This push towards reform also entailed reforms in teaching and in teacher education.

By contrast, the Irish system of teacher education has remained basically unchanged for decades. Teaching is still highly regarded as a profession, and it continues to attract students of a high calibre. The general perception has been that initial teacher education was succeeding in producing successful teachers and in turn, a successful school system and a well-educated populace. It is only in

recent years that this has begun to be questioned, as the Irish school system faced the challenges brought about by rapid social and economic changes. The establishment of the Teaching Council (www.teachingcouncil.ie) on a statutory basis in 2006 was a landmark event. The Teaching Council's tasks are to promote teaching as a profession at primary and post-primary levels, to promote the professional development of teachers and to regulate standards in the profession. It oversees the registration of teachers and the accreditation of programmes of teacher education. Previously, these tasks had been carried out by the government Department of Education. The Council is made up of representatives from the various stakeholders in education: teachers, teacher educators, school management, parent and union representatives. The study on which this paper was based was originally commissioned (along with various other research studies) by the Teaching Council in order to inform the council's work. The Teaching Council began in 2010 to review various aspects of teaching, including programmes of teacher education. However, it is only now, with the publication in late 2010 of the most recent PISA results which showed a decline in the achievements of Irish 15 year olds in both mathematics and English (Perkins, Moran, Cosgrove & Shiel, 2010) that a sense of urgency seems to have arisen at government level in respect of both teaching and teacher education.

Poland's PISA results have taken the opposite direction and were one of the factors impelling reform in schools and teacher education there over the last two decades. Poland spends around US$40,000 on educating each of its school students, less than half of what richer countries like the United States and Norway spend on education, and it now achieves similar results, which can be observed in the PISA 2009 results. In the 2000 PISA examination, Poland's average student score was 479, well below the OECD average of 500 points (OECD, 2000). More than 21% of students reached only Level 1 or below. The PISA 2000 results also showed a real disparity between the educational competencies of students in the general education system and the basic vocational schools. Nearly 70% of the basic vocational school students tested at the lowest literacy level. However, thanks to a series of school reforms that began in the late 1990s, Poland has dramatically reduced the numbers of poorly performing students in the last 10 years and in the 2009 PISA tests ranked among the top 15 OECD countries. The changes to the country's school system that made this remarkable achievement possible were needed to help Poland adapt to a free-market economy. Under communism, the emphasis was on vocational education and training. The new basic principles of the Polish education system were established in the School Education Act of 7 September 1991 (with further amendments). The 1999 Education Reform Act introduced a new structure for the Polish educational system. The primary phase was shortened from eight years to six, and a new intermediate/lower secondary stage was introduced: a three-year compulsory school called *gimnazjum* (gymnasium). Thus all students would study a common curriculum – including courses in reading, mathematics, and science – until they turned 15. This provided an extra year of academic studies for those students who otherwise would have spent that year in vocational training. Compulsory education was prolonged and now it lasts from age six[2] to eighteen. In accordance with this reform, the education system now comprises pre-school institutions, primary schools, gymnasia and post-gymnasium schools. The new external *Matura* examination introduced in 2005 has gradually replaced entrance examinations to universities. Higher education in Poland is a separate system. It is a dynamic and expanding area, which has seen an almost five-fold increase in the number of students since 1990.

All of these reforms required changes in teaching and in teacher education as the new school structures and curriculum were implemented. The Teachers' Charter (modified in 2000) established a new four stage career progression structure:

- Trainee teacher (nauczyciel stażysta)
- Contractual teacher (nauczyciel kontraktowy)
- Appointed teacher (nauczyciel mianowany)
- Chartered teacher (nauczyciel dyplomowany)

which rewards those who engaged in professional development. In-service training is provided within two paths: as complementary education which enables teachers to obtain higher or additional qualifications, and as staff development which enables teachers to update or upgrade their skills.

In conclusion, in discussions on education in Europe, it is pointed out that quality and efficiency of education is to a large extent dependent on teachers' professionalism and the degree of professionalisation among teachers. Teachers' work is recognized as the most important factor influencing the quality of education at school (Abbott, 1988; Darling-Hammond, 1999; Hattie, 2003; OECD, 2005). At the same time it is stressed that the quality of teachers depends on the quality of

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[2] A child aged 3 to 5 may receive pre-school education, which is not compulsory, but all six year-old children attend either kindergartens (przedszkole) or pre-school classes (oddziały przedszkolne) organised in primary schools as the Ministry of Education introduced one year of obligatory pre-school education starting the school year 2004/05.

their teacher education and this is reflected in recent European policy documents published by the European Commission (European Commission, 2005; 2007) and the European Council (European Council, 2007). Teacher education is connected with the educational system and to some extend it reflects the characteristics of this system. In this context, the school placement is a vitally important element of initial teacher education. There are formal requirements in both Ireland and Poland as to the number of hours spent in school and the nature of the experience that the student teacher should have while on placement. The quality of learning for student teachers during the practicum is intrinsically connected to the type of learning culture that prevails in the school, as well as the partnership arrangements that exist between the placement school and the university or teacher training college. Schools which have an integrated professional culture offer the optimum conditions for learning to teach, but there can be considerable variation in the experience of students (Moore Johnson et al. 2004, Kardos et al, 2001, Conway et al., 2010) and this reflects the professional learning culture of the individual schools as well as the differences at institution and system level. In both Ireland and Poland, it has been recommended that there should be clearer understandings and formal agreements between schools and teacher education institutions as to their respective roles and responsibilities with a view to remedying this. (Wilkomirska & Zielinska, 2005; Teaching Council, 2011).

IV. Method

The study from which this paper is drawn is a comparative one, commissioned by the Irish Teaching Council and designed to inform debate and discussion on teacher education policy in Ireland. Identifying similarities and differences between the two systems led to further consideration and analysis of the underlying broad socio-cultural contexts, both contemporary and historic. Factors at both system and school levels were identified, that have led both countries to reforms in education, although the changes in Poland have been far more extensive. Further reviews of the literature on teacher education as well as empirical investigations of teacher education in both countries led to the identification of some common concerns as well as some differences between the two systems. The purpose of the study was to deepen understanding of teacher education in both contexts. In keeping with our socio-cultural perspective, we do not assume that the simple transfer of ideas is either desirable or feasible, but we do believe that we can learn from one another. In this paper, the focus is on the role of schools as sites for learning to teach, where theoretical insights and knowledge can be put into practice and the student can develop an identity as a teacher. We consider that schools that have an integrated learning culture are the best environment for this learning and development to take place, and we look at evidence from both systems that suggests how this might be, and is, being promoted.

V. Findings: Developing *integrated professional learning cultures* at system and school level
New expectations for teacher education: ITE & induction

In both Ireland and Poland new expectations have emerged out of strikingly different national exigencies yet shared European policy influences. In both countries these expectations have attempted to create school environments that foster integrated professional learning cultures during initial teacher education and induction.

There have been a number of reviews of teacher education in Ireland in the last decade. These included the report of the Working Group on Primary Pre-service Teacher Education (Kelleghan, 2002), the report of the Advisory Group on Post-Primary Teacher Education (Byrne, 2002), and the OECD (2005) review of teacher education. The OECD background report on teaching in Ireland (Coolahan, 2003) commented favourably on many aspects of teacher education in Ireland but identified the need for greater continuity and integration across the continuum of teacher education, the need for a restructuring of ITE courses to give a greater sense of cross-curricular integration; the need to foster a reflective practitioner approach; and the requirement to provide closer links with school personnel on teaching practice. Other important documents on teacher education include the reports of the inspectorate on trainee and beginning teachers in primary schools (DES Inspectorate, 2006, 2007) the reports on the national pilot induction scheme for newly-qualified teachers (Killeavy & Murphy, 2006; Killeavy & Murphy, 2008), and the Draft Policy on the Continuum of Teacher Education (Teaching Council, 2010). A new national induction scheme (www.induction.ie) was also introduced in 2010 and is designed to support newly qualified teachers during their first year of teaching. The scheme is not as extensive as the Polish one, nor is it school-based at present, but its introduction marks a shift in awareness of the continuing need of the newly-qualified teacher for professional development and support.

The current context for teaching and teacher education in Poland is the result of a radical reform process, driven by repeated state interventions. In view of the many reforms in the Polish education

system since 1991, the system of teacher education has also been subject to major changes. Initial teacher education institutions (those which belong to the higher education) became autonomous, centrally prescribed curricula were abandoned and changes in both methodology and content occurred, especially in subjects such as history, Polish language and literature, philosophy instruction and civics, pedagogy and psychology. Similarly, new subjects including information and communication technology, institutional management and communications, were introduced. The system thereby adjusted to the principles of pluralist democracy and a market economy (Michalak, 2005).

In Poland, teaching qualifications are prescribed by law and vary for different kinds of teachers. Along with changes in the education system there have been significant changes in teachers' qualification requirements. The basis for these changes was a comprehensive reform of the system of teacher education. This reform led to a demand for the up-skilling of existing teachers. Reflecting the vocational ethos of Polish education in general, at the end of the 1980s, only slightly more than half of teachers had higher education qualifications. The remainder were graduates of teacher training colleges and even secondary schools. By 1998, 78.3% of teachers already had a Master's and in 2000, 84.4% teachers were graduates from the universities (Stępniowski, 2001). By 2008, approximately 97% of teachers were university graduates.

In 1998, the Ministry of National Education set up a Teacher Training Council which advocated the creation of a uniform regulatory system for the training and professional development of teachers, together with a single system of accreditation, and also proposed that the requirements for the basic components of teacher training and of the curricula for each level of training should be defined. The introduction of regulations on teacher training standards in 2004 brought about reforms in the manner and scope of teacher education, based on the assumption that teachers are key players in the evolution and reform of education systems and that their lifelong learning and career development should be perceived as key priorities at national or regional level.

New professional trajectories

Reflecting international influences, the emergence of competence-based approaches to teacher education across the continuum may be noted in both countries. In Poland's post-communist era reforms over the last two decades there has been a move towards a competence-based approach to teacher education. The Decree on the competences and qualifications profile of teachers, and the regulation of post-graduate studies (2004) set out three key areas of competence for teachers:

1.	Working with human beings- learners, colleagues and other partners in
 education
2.	Work with and in society
3.	Habit of life-long learning for professional and personal development.

In Ireland, the Codes of Professional Conduct for Teachers (Teaching Council, 2007) and the Teaching Council [Registration] Regulations (2009) set out the broad areas of competence for teachers as well as the recognised qualifications and practical experience that they must possess. A more detailed statement of the competences that teachers should possess at the end of their initial teacher training programme has been formulated in draft form through the Teaching Council's accreditation process for these programmes.

Incremental assumption of responsibility

Both countries are moving toward more graduated and incremental approaches to the assumption of full responsibility for classrooms by neophyte teachers. However, particular features in Poland suggest that these are more well-developed than in Ireland and that Polish NQTs also enjoy a much higher level of formal support through their first years of teaching than Irish NQTs. Specifically, in terms of mentoring and support, since 2000, teachers in the early years of their career are supported by a "staż tutor", an experienced teacher employed in the school at Appointed or Chartered Teacher level. A newly-qualified teacher in Poland is employed as a trainee teacher for the first nine months, and is supervised and mentored during this time by a staż tutor. The next phase (contract teacher, lasting 2 years and 9 months) is again supervised and supported. This means that NQTs receive support throughout the first three and a half years of teaching. The Polish approach to teaching practice, where students generally observe initially and are only allowed to teach in their final year of ITE, contrasts with the Irish model, especially with the consecutive model (post-graduate diploma) where students are expected to take responsibility for class teaching at a very early stage.

Debate about the role of schools in teacher education

Concerns have been expressed in both systems about the need to clarify the role of schools in the initial teacher education and induction phases of learning to teach. Partnership agreements between school and university or college of education can set out the parameters for this, but the experience of individual students will still depend on the learning culture that prevails within the school. In Ireland, that there is a wide variation in the degree and type of support that schools provide for these beginning

teachers. It would seem from recent research (Gilleece et al. 2009) that while teachers in Irish schools collaborate in co-ordination and planning, there is often little space or time for the deeper engagement with pedagogical issues and the activities such as observation and feedback on one another's teaching that characterises an integrated learning culture. This also applies to the kinds of support and interaction that student teachers experience on school placement (Conway, Murphy, Hall & Rath, 2011). This is not to say that integrated learning cultures do not exist in schools; rather that school leaders, principal teachers, other experienced teachers and subject specialists have an important role to play in creating such cultures, as has collaboration with teacher educators from colleges and universities. An equally important element in the creation and sustaining of integrated learning cultures is the provision of support at system level, in terms of training for mentors, reduced classroom hours for newly qualified teachers, time allocated for professional development opportunities and recognition of professional development. The Polish system has a framework that supports professional progression, and formally recognises the skills and knowledge of expert teachers through its career progression structure.

Fostering conversation between novices and accomplished teachers

The extent to which student teachers and first year teachers are expected to share and engage in conversation about their emerging practice appears to differ considerably. In Poland, for example, during the first phase, once they have completed their initial teacher education, trainee teachers in their first school are expected to prepare each individual's own development plan, which should be a part of the school's development strategy. Support became an entitlement, with an experienced member of staff designated as a mentor. Probationers have to produce a portfolio of evidence by the end of their first year of teaching to show that they have met the goals of their developmental plans.The head teacher makes the assessment of the professional teacher's performance during his training period, in which the degree to which the professional development plan has been realised is taken into consideration. Positive assessment of newly qualified teachers' professional performance is a prerequisite for the qualification procedure for the title of Contract Teacher. During the period spent as a Contract Teacher (no longer than 2 years and 9 months), the beginning teacher can work towards Chartered Teacher Standard. As in the case of the probationer, the head teacher assigns a mentor, whose task is to support a contract teacher in preparing and realising a professional development plan. The mentor also prepares the draft assessment of the contract teacher's performance during his training period.

The function of this induction process is to help beginning teachers to construct their professional identity and develop professional practices suited to the realities of school and integrated into their conceptions of good teaching. The induction period encourages and motivates beginning teachers to be active agents instead of passively applying ideas or practices suggested by other people. Within schools the most important elements of this induction procedure include peer coaching, quality evaluation, appraisal, portfolio evaluation and collaboration on practical tasks.

In Ireland, newly-qualified primary teachers in Ireland must satisfactorily complete a probationary year in order to achieve full registration with the Teaching Council and be recognised as fully qualified teachers. During this year, they must satisfy Department of Education inspectors of their professional competence. A national induction programme for newly qualified primary teachers was introduced in 2010 to support them during this first year of teaching. This programme is provided through local education centres, and "will complement the support, advice and opportunities for teacher observation and feedback that principal teachers and other teachers provide to newly qualified teachers in their schools" (Dept. of Education and Skills, 2010) through workshops, seminars, online support and professional support groups. This programme is based on the National Pilot Project on Teacher Induction - Primary Strand (Killeavy, 2006, Killeavy & Moloney, 2010). The pilot project provided also training and support for mentor teachers, and this would seem to be an essential prerequisite for the success of the programme. Post-primary teachers must satisfactorily complete a period of Post-Qualification Employment, as certified by the principal of their school, in order to qualify for full registration and it is expected that induction support programmes will be introduced for them also in the near future. The programme of support for newly qualified teachers in Ireland is thus at an earlier stage of development than the Polish one. There is as yet no formal requirement for schools to provide a mentor for the new teacher, though of course many school principals and other experienced teachers within schools regularly take on the task of guiding and helping newly-qualified teachers in their schools.

VI. Conclusion

In conclusion, we draw attention to a number of themes (i) the scope for the development of school leadership vis-à-vis initial teacher education (ii) leadership as a form of mentoring to support assisted practice, and (iii) leadership and the development of partnerships between higher education

institutions and schools as a key context for teacher education reform (Michalak, 2010a; Conway et al, 2011). It is immediately apparent from the country profiles that were included in the study on which this paper is based that while local factors have a huge influence on the structures of teacher education, a number of common issues and concerns can be identified: promoting life-long learning, the knowledge economy, encouraging critical thought, flexibility, meeting diverse needs and promoting good citizenship.

The debate about what constitutes quality teaching and quality teacher education is also a live issue. Nevertheless the move toward integrated professional learning cultures while evident in both countries has evolved with some notable differences. As such, there were very different positions in relation to teaching and teacher education in Ireland and Poland in 1990. Twenty years later, there have been a number of very significant changes in both jurisdictions which have moved both systems more noticeably towards integrated professional learning cultures. For historical and political reasons, Poland has introduced major reforms in its education system and in the professional preparation and ongoing professional development of its teachers over the last two decades. The changes introduced in the Polish Teachers' Charter and its amendments have reinforced the role of the school and of experienced teachers in providing a more incremental and graduated support for those learning to teach during ITE and induction. Perhaps the most striking differences between the two systems are the legislative arrangements governing teaching and teacher education in Poland.

As Ireland considers the changes that are needed in teacher education for today and the future, it may be useful to look at how reforms in this area have been implemented elsewhere. Some of the most striking differences between the Irish and the Polish systems are the career structure that has been introduced in Poland, which rewards continuing professional development. Introducing major reform is never unproblematic, and there has been considerable debate within Poland on some aspects, not least the new demands being made on teachers and teacher educators. Similar concerns and debate are to be expected if major changes are introduced in Ireland, not least the resource implications of extending the period of professional preparation for both primary and post-primary teachers, particularly in a changed economic climate where the education sector, in common with many others, is experiencing widespread cutbacks. If experienced teachers are to extend their roles in supporting and mentoring student and newly qualified teachers, this will also have implications for resources. There is evidence that a considerable amount of formal and informal mentoring already takes place in some schools (Conway, et al, 2010) but this is by no means universal. School cultures, as we have said, can differ widely, and the role of principal/head teacher is crucial in setting the tone and allocating responsibilities.

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Appendix: Teaching qualifications in Poland and Ireland

Table 1: Poland

Pre-primary/ early childhood education	Primary education *Compulsory primary education- 6 years from age 7-13[3]*
Non compulsory pre-primary education – from age 3-to the commencement of schooling. **One-year compulsory pre-school preparation of 6-year-olds**: children attend either kindergartens (przedszkola) or pre-primary classes (oddziały przedszkolne) attached to primary schools (szkoły podstawowe). Minimum qualification required - as for primary education: the first stage (grade 1-3).	**Primary education** is divided into two stages: - the first stage (grades 1 to 3) offering elementary – integrated teaching (in the new core curriculum defined as early school education), - the second stage (grades 4 to 6) at which subject teaching is provided. **The first stage: (grades 1-3)** **Concurrent** Teachers must have a university degree (at least Licencjat) – majoring in education (pedagogika) with a specialization in preparing to work with children in preschool or early school. *Or* Teachers must have either 3 year Diploma from Teacher Training College or a professional title of Licencjat from a university associated with a Teacher Training College, with a specialization in working with children in preschool or early school. **The second stage: (grades 4-6)** **Concurrent** teachers must have either 3 year Diploma from Teacher Training College or a professional title of Licencjat from a university associated with a Teacher Training College, with a specialization in teaching particular subject(s) **Consecutive** teachers must have either 3 year Diploma from Teacher Training College or a professional title of Licencjat from from a university associated with a Teacher Training College, in any speciality *Plus* A teaching qualification in the subject or activity taught **The second stage (grades 4-6)** Teachers must have a university diploma at least 3 year Licencjat or 5 year (or 3+2) Magister from university or other higher educational institutions plus A teaching qualification in the subject or activity taught Graduates with licencjat may complement their education with two-year university study courses and obtain a Master's Degree of education (magister pedagogiki).

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[3] Starting from September 2009 6-year olds can start education in grade one of primary school at their parents' discretion. Starting in 2012 they will start compulsory education in this grade.

Post-primary education (lower secondary school)	Post-primary education (upper secondary school)
Compulsory lower post-primary: Gymnasium-3 years, age 13 to age 16	Compulsory part time education to age 18.
Concurrent Teachers must have – at the minimum – 3 year degree in education - Licencjat pedagogiki or 5 year (or 3+2) degree in education - Magister pedgagogiki (A Master's Degree in Education) from university in specialised subject(s) with integrated pedagogical preparation 4 **Consecutive** Teachers must have a 3 year degree in teaching subject(s) - Licencjat or 5 year (or 3 +2) Master degree in teaching subject(s) - with pedagogical preparation integrated plus Postgraduate Diploma in the teaching specialization (according to the teaching subjects) Many gymnasium school teachers who have completed higher education are graduates of universities or teacher higher education schools (pedagogical academies). Masters' Degree studies seem to be the most popular route of training for teachers in lower secondary education.	**Concurrent** Teachers must have 5 year (or 3+2) degree in education - Magister pedgagogiki (A Master's Degree in Education) from university in specialised subject(s) with integrated pedagogical preparation **Consecutive** Teachers must have 5 year (or 3 +2) Master degree in any specialisation plus pedagogical preparation integrated plus Postgraduate Diploma in the teaching specialisation (according to the teaching subjects)

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[4]Professional training –pedagogical preparation (*przygotowanie pedagogiczne*) – includes the acquisition of knowledge and skills in the field of psychology, pedagogy and didactics, taught in conjunction with the direction of (specialty) specialization of the study and educational practice, of not less than 270 hours. An additional requirement is success in the teaching practice element, which must last not less than 150 hours.

Table 2: Ireland: Teaching qualifications

Teaching qualifications for Pre-primary/early childhood education	Teaching qualifications for Primary Education -ages 4 to 12
Compulsory primary schooling begins at age 6. In practice, almost all 5 yr olds and half of all 4 year olds attend the infant classes of primary school. There are Early Start classes for 3 yr olds in a limited number of schools in educationally disadvantaged areas. From 2010, all 3 yr olds are entitled to a free year of preschool. The majority of these children attend preschools outside the state sector, run by community groups or private individuals. State-funded teachers in Early Start pre-school and infant classes in primary schools: As for primary teachers **Early education and care outside the statutory education system:** A 'suitable qualification' is required, under the Pre-school Regulations, but this is not specified in the law governing early years education and care. The Model Framework for Education, Training and Professional Development in the Early Childhood Care and Education Sector (DJELR, 2002) is currently being further developed. People working in the sector have a variety of qualifications including 3 and 4 year degrees in early education and care in universities and institutes of technology, degrees and diplomas in Montessori education, and FETAC Level 4 and 5 qualifications in childcare. There are incentives under the Free Pre-school Year scheme for early years teachers to have at least a 3 year degree.	Teaching qualifications must be recognised by the Teaching Council. Primary teachers must demonstrate their competence in the Irish language, either during their training or (for those who qualify in other countries) within a set time from when they begin to teach in Ireland. **Concurrent teacher training (primary)** B.Ed: minimum 3 year degree programme in College of Education *or* Montessori degree recognised for teaching in restricted settings, e.g. special education **Consecutive teacher training (primary)** Recognised degree (e.g. BA, B.Sc) plus 18 month full-time Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) in one of the Colleges of Education, *Or* Recognised degree (e.g. BA, B.Sc) plus Higher Diploma in Arts in Primary Education (a course blending on-line learning and face-to-face tuition course and provided by the privately-owned Hibernia College).

Ireland: Teaching qualifications for Post-primary education (ages 12-18)
Post-primary education comprises 6 years in total: a Junior Cycle of 3 years, an optional Transition Year, and a Senior Cycle of 2 years. The Leaving Certificate examination is taken at the end of the Senior Cycle, at approximately age 18 . Secondary education at both Junior and Senior cycles is broadly based, with students taking a range of subjects. Compulsory education finishes at age 15; however the vast majority of students stay on to complete the Senior Cycle. **Consecutive teacher training (post-primary)**: 3 or 4 year degree in a teaching subject (s) plus one year Postgraduate in Education (PGE) or Graduate Diploma in Education or Higher Diploma in Education (Secondary) or Postgraduate Diploma in Education through Irish (Dioplóma Iarchéime san Oideachas). Student teachers must satisfactorily complete 100 hours of supervised teaching practice in a recognised secondary school as well as a programme of educational studies including subject pedagogy in order to be registered with the Teaching Council. **Concurrent teacher training (post-primary) :**3 or 4 year degree in specialised subject (e.g. art, music, physical education, materials and construction technology), with teaching qualification integrated, e.g. B.Ed in Sports Studies and P.E., B.A in Mathematics and Education.

Table 3: Induction and probation for NQTs in Ireland and Poland

Country	Qualified teacher status (QTS) /registration requirements	Induction	Features of induction process
Ireland	**Registration with Teaching Council:** Requirements for recognition as qualified teacher (degree/teaching qualification- see Table 1) set by DES/Teaching Council. On graduation, subject to Garda vetting, NQTs are eligible for conditional registration with the Teaching Council until they have successfully completed their first year of teaching.	Primary : one year probation. Post-primary: one year post-qualification experience induction. No reduced workload for newly qualified teachers	Primary teachers are supported and evaluated by the inspectorate during their probation year. There is no formal induction scheme at present for post-primary teachers. Registration is granted on satisfactory completion of first year's teaching. Application must be endorsed by school principal. A national induction scheme to support newly qualified teachers in their first year of teaching was introduced in 2010.
Poland	**Trainee teacher** status on graduation with recognised teaching qualification Progression to **Contract** teacher	Trainee teacher: first 9 months Contract teacher: next 2 years 9 months.	Trainee and Contract teachers both supervised by *"staż tutor"*, an experienced teacher employed in the school at *Appointed* or *Chartered* teacher level. Support also from school-based teacher-specialist or teacher-psychologist as needed, and from Teacher-methodological advisers, either based in the school or in regional or local in-service centres

Creating expansive learning opportunities in schools: the role of school leaders in initial teacher education (ITE) partnerships

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An evaluation on the effects of tranfsormational leadership about improving employee creativity in organizations

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ABSTRACT
Transformational leadership, as a leadership style, has started to take place in the management and organization literature more frequently. Based on new leadership approaches in recent years, transformational leadership is seen to be one of the most effective leadership types. Transformational leadership is making the task important for workers, gathering them around a shared vision, changing the current organization in the desired way by way of creating workers, whom are self-confident, highly motivated and dedicated to reach organizational goals. On the other hand, we meet the concept of creativity in the organizational applications as one needed furthermore day by day. When the concepts of creativity, leadership and transformational leadership have been evaluated together, it can be seen that there is a close relationship among them. Especially in organizations during the improvement of creativity, it can highly be taken the advantages of the transformational leadership as a contemporary style of leadership. In this paper, transformational leadership affects on the creativity of employees are studied. In other words, in this study, starting with the concept of leadership, transformational leadership and employee creativity, it has been evaluated how to be able to realize the mentioned above.

Key Words: Leadership, Transformational Leadership, Creativity

The Concept of Creativity

The increasing global competition, rapid technological change and the shortened life of expectancy of any product on the market make the enterprises more vulnerable in terms of competition than in the past. Therefore, creativity is recognised as one of the most important issues for organizations. (Wong and Pang, 2003: 29).

Creativity, quite a complex phenomenon, is often discussed in literature and is of various definitions. Many researchers engaged in this phenomenon define creativity in a similar way despite some minor differences. For instance; Aleinikov (1994) define creativity as "a process aiming at producing new individual or social formations." (Yahyagil, 2001: 8). According to Jalan and Kleiner (1995: 20), creativity expresses a new idea or thought that can be adapted to real life.

From a different point of view, creativity can be defined (from Garavan and Deegan, 1995, Seymen and Bolat, 2001: 25):

• To view creativity as a resource to be managed, not an accidental phenomenon
• To stop thinking in terms of "creative" and "non-creative" people, and see everybody as a potential creative source
• To make the creative resource visible
• To direct the creativity at the needs of the business
• To create and maintain a culture which fosters creativity
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"Imagination" lies at the base of creativity. Creativity is the manufacture of a product or a service which are the result of imaginative thinking (İnce and Gül, 2006: 226). Although some authors suggest that creativity is generally a phenomenon peculiar to artists, writers and musicians (Wong and Pang, 2003: 29), it should be perceived as the production of new and useful ideas in all fields on the whole. In this context, Woodman et al. (1993) define organizational creativity as valuable, useful, new products, services, ideas or as a process created by individuals working together at complex social systems. For Robbins (2002), creativity is the ability to combine the ideas in an original way or the ability to realize the compounds unexpected or hitherto unknown. (Eren and Gündüz, 2002: 65–66). Considering all of these definitions, it can be said that creativity is a concept related to thinking in different ways.

Creative people are known to be tough people in both businesses and community. In management literature, these people are portrayed as "swimming against the tide" (those advocating ideas and businesses that are considered to be unrealizable). These people do not restrain themselves with certain ideas (adopted by the community). They try to solve out the problems through their own ideas and techniques (Duran and Saraçoğlu, 2009: 61). The other characteristics of creative people can be listed as follows (Yıldırım, 2007: 112-113; Gündüz and Doğan, 2009):'

• They are sensitive to the problems around them and their approaches are flexible. They offer interesting proposals.
• They are very enthusiastic about their businesses. They are strongly motivated and committed themselves to their work
• They are exposed to receive new information and use them.
• They feel bored when there is not any combat environment and new challenges.
• They have a good sense of humour. They even laugh at their own faults.
• They listen to other people's criticism and proposals. They are neither afraid of authority nor opposed to it.
• They risk in the short- and long-term.
• They can reveal their feelings. They are much concerned with the truth. However, they have characteristics of dreaming and imagination.
• They are concerned with many subjects at the same time. They are so energetic. They compete with themselves much more than others and would like themselves to be perfect.

Creative ideas are of crucial importance in increasing the competitiveness of enterprises. The fundamentals of new economy are based on the development of new products / services instead of outdated products / services. Therefore, an environment that will make creativity continuous will be necessary (Gümüş et al., 2003: 52).

The Concepts of Leadership and Transformational Leadership
It is possible to define leadership by emphasizing the different functions of leadership. However, the common point in many definitions of leadership is the effect, because leadership must influence the employees so that the organization can reach its goals (İbicioğlu, 1998: 283). In other words, leadership is the process in which a person affects and leads the activities of others to realize the objectives of a specific individual or group under certain circumstances (Karcıoğlu and Timuroğlu, 2004: 325). It is important that the leader should be able to use his power on group or individuals effectively. Therefore, leadership doesn't appear by force or power. It can be said that a manager who believes that he can affect employees through his own power cannot become a leader because employees are required to accept him, believing his leadership qualities (Özkalp and Kırel, 2001: 349). On the other hand, even though the concepts of leader and manager are mostly confused with each other, they are the phenomena that contain different meanings from each other (İncir, 2001: 32). The existence of a formal organization or formal authority is not necessarily required for leadership.
Many leaders without any formal authority can lead the great masses (Ataman, 2001: 454). Özkalp and Kırel (2001: 348) similarly describe the manager as the person that obtains the power to influence people through formal ways and state that leadership occurs through social influence process. It can generally be said that the leader focuses on influencing the others and the manager focuses on the survival of the organization and the continuation of usual things. Thus, the manager is the person that uses the existing organizational structure and procedure to realize the goals of organization. A manager, at the same time, must have a power of influence to be accepted as a leader beyond compliance with organizational to regulations (Şahin ve Erigüç, 2001: 140). However, every manager may not have leadership skills, yet, today this situation is seen as a major weakness for managers. Again today, the leadership skills of managers are becoming increasingly more important (Ataman, 2001: 454).

On the other hand, scientific research indicates that one of the most significant trend that will mark on the first 15 years of 21st Century is "the need for more leadership behaviour at all levels" (Karaman, 2004: 10). Though there are many theories and models that explain how leaders can affect others, the response to the question what type of leadership is more effective cannot be given clearly and differ according to the theories. Traits theory emphasizes the characteristics of leaders' physical (young or medium-aged, energetic, great-looking and so on) social (well educated and so on) and personality (compatible, matching conditions, emotionally stable, self- confident and so on); behavioural models of

leadership suggest that what makes leaders successful and effective are the behaviours that he exhibits while becoming a leadership rather than the characteristics of a leader and situational leadership models emphasizes that effective leader's personality, type of leadership and behaviour can vary depending on the conditions he is in. However, in addition to these theories developed so far, a new approach, called *transformational leadership*, has come to the fore recently.

As an idea, transformational leadership was first mentioned in 1973, in the sociological study conducted by the author Downton, J. V., "Rebel Leadership: Commitment and Charisma in the revolutionary process". After that, James McGregor Burns used the term,*transformational leadership*, in his book "Leadership" (1978). In 1985, Bass presented a formal transformational leadership theory which, in addition to other things also includes the models and factors of behaviour. One year later (1986) Noel M. Tichy and Marry Anne Devanna published a book under the title "The Transformational Leader". Research projects, doctoral theses, dissertations and books in the field of transformational leadership have been carried out and published in the initial phase of the transformational leadership concept development and, especially in recent years, have contributed to the development of the most real leaders' concept (Simić, 1998: 50).Factors such as new management approaches and techniques, globalization, oppressive competitive environment etc. have played a great role in the emergence and the expansion of transformational leadership.

On the other hand, today research is being carried out on what kind of contributions, being a transformational leader, allows the leader in terms of point of view and behaviour and on what the transformational leader makes more effectively and makes more satisfactory (Bolat and Seymen, 2003: 63). Transformational leadership can be defined in the following ways in related literature.

In the simplest terms, transformational leadership is a process that changes and transforms individuals. In other words, transformational leadership is the ability to get people to want to change, to improve, and to be led. It involves assessing associates' motives, satisfying their needs, and valuing them. Therefore, a transformational leader could make the company more successful by valuing its associates (Hall et al., 2002: 1).

According to Bass (1990a), transformational leadership occurs when managers expand and elevate subordinate interests so that they focus on the good of the organization, generate awareness and acceptance of the group's purpose, and motivate employees to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the group (Wang and Rode, 2010: 4).

Transformational leadership is a type of leadership that gains employees vision, gives them additional missions to make contributions to this vision and by making them believe that they will be able to do more than they do now or they think they can do potentially, making changes in organizational culture (Bolat and Seymen, 2003: 64).

From another point of view, transformational leadership is defined as a process of creating commitment to the objectives of organization and empowerment of followers in reaching these goals (Saylı and Tüfekçi, 2008: 195).

According to Shamir (1999), transformational leaders keep the needs of followers in the forefront, and allow them to unite for common goals, raise their demand levels and motivate them so that they can do more than expected (Sipahi and Berber, 2002: 2).

Goodwin et al. (2000) and Rowe (2001) state that transformational leaders are the people that bring the organization to superior performance by realizing change and renovation, and can affect their followers' motives, beliefs, values and competencies, interests and personal goals in a way to be compatible with their organizations' vision (Bolat and Seymen, 2003: 66).

Here, what is meant by the concept of followers is subordinates within leaders' sphere of influence, his colleagues, other subordinates at the level of cross- correlation, superiors and other organizational stakeholders. Bass (1990b) express that transformational leadership can emerge only when these followers are aware of group goals and missions and accept it and concentrate on using their personal efforts for the benefit of group. (Bolat and Seymen, 2003: 66).

Using these definitions, the distinctive characteristics of transformational leadership can be listed as follows (Bolat and Seymen, 2003: 65):

• Transformational leadership is a leadership model for change and allows the change to realize successfully by demonstrating the required behaviour at various stages during the conversion process

• Transformational leadership creates the sense that followers' tasks and carrying out these tasks effectively are important.

• Transformational leadership allows followers to realize the needs for their personal growth, improvement, achievement, will and trust.

• Transformational leadership motivate followers to work for the benefit of organization rather than personal gain and benefits

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According to Northouse (2001), a transformational leader has the following qualities (Hall, 2002: 3):

• Empowers followers to do what is best for the organization;
• is a strong role model with high values;
• Listens to all viewpoints to develop a spirit of cooperation;
• Creates a vision, using people in the organization;
• Acts as a change agent within the organization by setting an example of how to initiate and implement change;
• Helps the organization by helping others contribute to the organization.

This leadership has four components (also known as the "four I's") (Simić, 1998: 52; Hall et al., 2002: 2; Wang and Rode, 2010: 4; Gümüşlüoğlu and İlsev, 2009: 265-266;Gümüşlüoğlu, 2009: 38-39; Cemaloğlu, 2007: 79-82; Gündüz ve Doğan, 2009):

Idealized influence describes managers who are exemplary role models for associates. Managers with idealized influence can be trusted and respected by associates to make good decisions for the organization. This dimension of transformational leadership is also called personal charisma. Using charisma, the leader instils admiration, respect, and loyalty and emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission. Leaders have extraordinary qualities in the eye of followers. Leader creates admiration, respect and commitment on their followers and often emphasizes the importance of a common mission. Without such confidence in the leader, that is, in his motives and aims, an attempt to redirect the organization may cause great resistance. You can "lead" people if you make them ready to follow you. If you perform your job well, it is for certain that others (potential followers) will appreciate you and people will believe you.

By inspirational motivation, the leader articulates an exciting vision of the future, shows the followers the ways to achieve the goals, and expresses his or her belief that they can do it.Leader exhibits a positive attitude when talking about the future and takes on a stimulating role for subordinates. This attitude and behaviour of leader provides an inherent motivation to subordinates. Leader, in doing so, uses a variety of slogans and simple emotional elements.In the conditions when transformational change is being conducted in an organization, the leader has the task of clear and continuous stimulating others to follow a new idea. Transformational leaders should, therefore, behave in such a way, which motivates and inspires followers. Such behaviour includes implicitly showing enthusiasm and optimism of followers, stimulating team work, pointing out positive results, advantages, emphasizing aims, stimulating followers, etc.

Intellectual stimulation, as ability of transformational leaders, has an important role in the transformation process of organization. Transformational leaders stimulate the efforts of their followers as regards innovativeness and creativity, stimulate permanent re-examination of the existent assumptions, stimulate change in the way of thinking about problems, plead the use of analogy and metaphor, etc. Thus, it may appear the possibility to get new and creative ideas for solving problems from the followers. If the ideas and the solutions of problems suggested by followers differ from the ideas represented by leaders, the followers are not criticized, nor are the leaders' ideas imposed at any cost.

Individual consideration describes managers who act as coaches and advisors to the associates. By individualized consideration, the leader builds a one-to-one relationship with his or her followers and understands and considers their differing needs, skills, and aspirations. Transformational leader sees associates not only as an employee but as an individual. He advises subordinates to improve themselves and allows them to learn. So, besides a global picture, a transformational leader must know what motivates any of his followers individually. Human wishes and needs are different. Some want certainty, some want excitement and change; some prefer money, and some free time. It's upon the leader to "eaves drop", observes, analyzes and predicts the needs and wishes of his followers. In

this, it is important that followers don't feel they are an object of observation. The leader who is aware of the different needs and wishes of people has an opportunity to use all those different demands in the right way.

It is seen that these dimensions that create transformational leadership affects the creativity of employees in various ways. For example, transformational leaders expect followers to question assumptions, challenge the status quo, and experiment with potentially better approaches to their work (i.e. intellectual stimulation, from Bass et al., 2003, Wang and Rode, 2010: 4). They also provide followers with discretion to act and support for individual initiatives (i.e. individual consideration, from Bass et al., 2003, Wang and Rode, 2010: 4). Additionally, transformational leaders employ inspiration motivation (from Bass et al., 2003, Wang and Rode, 2010: 4) by emphasizing the importance of subordinate contributions to the organization, which motivates subordinates to develop and offer more ideas to facilitate organizational success (from Bass, 1998; from Vera and Crossan, 2004, Wang and Rode, 2010: 4).

The role and effects of Transformational Leadership in the improvement of creativity of employees

The senior managershave an important role in improving organizational creativity. Managers are supposed to be willing to act on issues of development, competition, being open to new ideas, and the implementation of new ideas in the process of the improvement of creativity. Therefore, managers are expected to perform effective leadership behaviour.

In this context, Çağlar (2004) suggests that the function of leadership in the new world is to create an organizational culture and climate that will provide organizational renewal, reward employees, and ensure an organizational environment of confidence on innovation and creativity. Indeed, Silver et al. (2003: 52) state that creativity in businesses is affected by organizational and individual factors. Organizational factors are culture, climate, leadership style, reward system; individual factors are personality, motivation, age, gender, social and technical skills. As seen here, the style of leadership is an organizational factor that affects creativity. However, the type of leadership exhibited here will differ from the classic management approach of leadership. Here, leaders make efforts to ensure confidence, motivate everyone in the firm to develop and try to create an environment that employees will be honoured. Transformational leaders, by gathering people who are keen to change in the organization, help them do a common assessment on the organization's problems and opportunities. They form a trust and communication environment at minimum level. They encourage the constituted group to work as a team (Saylı and Tüfekçi, 2008: 199).

In recent period of creativity literature, as a type of leadership, transformational leaders who have highly positive impacts on both individual and team level creative behaviours of employees and organizational innovation is discussed (Gümüşlüoğlu, 2009: 38). The development of innovations in organization starts by the creation of new ideas. At this stage, it is very important that employees express their own ideas, thoughts and suggestions clearly. Therefore, for as many ideas as possible to be created in organization, an organizational structure, in which employees can express their own ideas freely, the communication can be made open, frequent and constant, all obstacles before information flow are eliminated, should be formed (Duran and Saraçoğlu, 2009: 65).

Transformational leaders, by supporting innovations and motivating employees in this direction, provide a significant contribution to the emergence of creative organizations. For example, in many Japanese firms, "employee suggestion system" is used. The essence of this system is based on employees' creativity improvement and increasing productivity by giving them a trusted image (Çağlar, 2004). In the following examples, the effects of transformational leadership on creativity can be seen clearly (Gümüşlüoğlu, 2009: 37-40).

Today, many companies employ different methods about creating organizational culture that supports creativity. For example, HP has converted its units of over 1000 people into independent units and set up innovation centres. Firms such as Axa, Whirlpool and P&G create innovation –oriented positions (innovation managers, directors of the global regional innovation, knowledge managers, etc.).

3M Company allows its employees to spend 15 % of their office hours for creativity sessions. In whirlpool firm, 30 % of their manager premiums are linked to innovative activities. Axa offers symbolic

plaques and certificates to the owners of creative ideas and project. Arcelik Company announces its innovation strategy by the slogan "Arcelik means innovation".

"The world's most innovative companies" selected by Business week in 2008 can be exemplified for the relationship between transformational leadership and creativity. Apple, Google, Microsoft, 3M and Sony are the leading ones of these companies. For instance, in Google directed by two visionary leaders Larry Page and Sergey Brin, through brainstorms, projects such as Google Maps, Google News have been put into effect. The company has been set up within a campus that hosts all kinds of entertainment and sporting activity to increase the motivation of employees. Moreover, there exist highly ergonomic sleeping compartments in which employees can listen to music by headphone in order to increase creativity of them in the workplace. On the other hand, Microsoft has realized the vision of Bill Gates "One day Microsoft will be at every house and office".

The company's 600 employees in Whirlpool firm were trained as an innovation trainer, all units were allowed to allocate a considerable budget to innovation activities, awards and bonuses were linked to the achievement of innovation objectives. The success of Oticon, selected as Denmark's most innovative firm in 2006, is also quite interesting. The company's new president, Lars Kolind, set out by the slogan "Think the unthinkable" and set up a spaghetti organization in his words, which has no hierarchy and bureaucracy. Kolind, as a new application, wanted job descriptions be written by employees. Thus, with a working group of high motivation and creativity, he doubled the speed of new product development and raised its share in world market from 8% to 20%. The common feature of all these examples are transformational leadership behaviours that managers exhibit and their creative organizational cultures as a result of this.

Being inspired by the study of Bolat and Seymen (2003: 74-77), the role and effects of transformational leadership in the process of the improvement of creativity can be examined by the following steps:

Step 1: Transformational Leadership in the process of realization of need for change on creativity
Creativity leads to serious process of change in businesses. Transformational leaders are the people who first realize the need for change on creativity. Initially, employees of the organization look at these changes with suspicion and don't want their system to change and may resist by seizing unnecessary anxieties. In this process, what transformational leaders are supposed to do is to make their employees to be ready for this change psychologically. For this purpose, to explain what businesses and employees benefit from creativity improvement and encourage employees in this regard would make an important contribution (Şimşek and Nursoy, 2002 : 25-26)

Step 2: Transformational leadership in the process of creating a shared vision on creativity
In each case for a fundamental change in organizations, it is necessary to develop a vision describing briefly and concisely why this change is needed, what results are expected from this change, what these will contribute to stakeholders and what the organization plans to do and where to be in the future. As the placement of creativity also requires a fundamental change, a vision in this process must be created. Firstly, the characteristics of creativity in leaders are required. Creative leaders have a broad vision and flexible opinions. They differ from traditional type of leaders (Eraslan, 2003: 560). That transformational leaders are open to innovation and different perspectives and develop a vision in this direction help employees develop new methods in their works, increase their abilities of evaluating the cases from different perspectives and, thus improving their creativity.

Step 3: Transformational leadership in the process of attaining formal structure of change for creativity
The other major common point of transformational leaders is the efforts for institutionalization of change after performing transformation. These leaders strive to create a culture that is always open to innovation and creativity and so that the change can be a stable part of organization culture (Gümüşlüoğlu, 2009: 39). In this respect, for the change for creativity in organizations to attain a formal structure, the senior management should carry out some activities listed below:

- Basic principles that will guide organizational creativity should be identified
- Units or innovation-oriented positions (innovation managers, directors of the global regional innovation, knowledge managers) that will provide the implementation of these principles and maintain them should be established.
- "Creativity training programs" to ensure the adoption of these principles among stakeholders should be prepared and executed.

-        Coordination and communication within and outside the organization should be provided so that all application in organization can maintain in accordance with these determined principles.
-

Step 4: Transformational leadership in the process of mobilising of stakeholders on creative behaviour
To attain the change for creativity in organizational to the formal structure would not be adequate. At the same time, this structure is required to mobilize and stakeholders should internalize creativity, that is, they should reflect it on their behaviours. Thus, the organization's senior management should fulfil some activities on leadership dimensions below:
-        Fist of all, organizational strategies related to creativity should be improved and these strategies should be implemented and be made shared values.
-        The organization's senior management should be a model on creativity and hold a place prominently in these applications.
-        A systematic reward system should be set up to promote an encourage creativity.
-        Performance evaluation system should be restructured in a way to evaluate employees' creativity.
-        Aims and objectives related to creativity should be determined and measurement and evaluation should be made whether they are achieved.

Conclusion

The improvement of organizational creativity requires a fundamental change in businesses. This can only be accomplished through effective leadership. In improvement of employees' creative and ensuring of its continuity, a variety of leadership styles can produce different solutions within the scope of their characteristic. However, this study emphasizes "transformational leadership" rather than examining all leadership styles and their effects on creativity. The most basic reason for this is that in the process of creativity, transformational leadership is thought to be a more appropriate leadership style due to its characteristics. In other words, transformational leadership, with inspiration, intellectual stimulation, individual attention and charisma that is distinguished from other leadership styles, will take on a significant role in all steps from realization of the need for change on creativity in organizations to the creation of a formal structure and functioning of this structure. Transformational leadership will facilitate this process to realize in a successful way.

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How can a continuous integration between schools, school owners and teacher training institutions be implemented?Experiences from a regional case study in Norway

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Background

This paper builds on the experience of the so-called "Regional Cooperation Project" (RCP), which took place in the years 2007-2010 with the University of Life Sciences (UMB) and schools and school owners in UMB's neighboring areas, i.e., Akershus County and seven municipalities in Follo. The project was funded by the Directorate of Education and was carried out simultaneously with similar regional cooperation projects elsewhere in the country. Project responsibility was placed at UMB and I was the project manager in phases 2 (2008-09) and 3 (2009-10).

The main purpose of the project from the start was to develop collaboration between the university and the schools in the form of "a more coordinated action to achieve the goal of safe(reliable?) and competent teachers, " as it was called in the project description. The idea was to focus attention towards a "broad range of shared responsibility" which, in particular, should include a further development with UMB's partnership-schools, more emphasis on lifelong continuing education and recruitment   to   science   subjects.

The players who joined the RSP, acknowledged the lack of cooperation early on. In a note after the first meetings the following was written:

There has been very little direct contact between UMB and school owners in Follo, Akershus. School owners and UMB have had, from their own perspective, contact with schools. These connections have not been coordinated and there has been no basis for joint actions concerning the use of resources and initiatives.

Centrally, as was stipulated in the government's new statement on teacher education (KD, 2009), it was argued for "radical change" - expressed in the following manner:

There are examples where local partners have established good and effective forms of cooperation in certain areas, such as practice for teaching students, mentoring of newly qualified teachers or development of skills for teachers. But a radical change in the relationship between teacher education institutions and municipal / county is needed - with greater emphasis on equality, trust, sharing of responsibility and mutual benefit.

In other words: the need for developing locally appropriate models for cooperation based on an understanding of partnership was a high priority on the agenda.

The work was not designed as a 3-year research project from the start: it had to apply for funds each year. Therefore, research questions were not formulated that applied for the entire 3-year period. An explicit research aspect was brought in at the start of phase 2 when I, as the new manager, made clear that my way of working would be inspired by an action research approach. In retrospective, the essay topic that I see the work of RCP in relation to, can be expressed as: *how can we trigger a continuous integration between schools, school owners and teacher training institutions at a daily level?*

Within a research context this means that I consider the RCP as a pilot for possible research cooperation where development of learning educational regions is a central perspective.

An approach of perspectives

My viewpoints to the description and analysis of project experiences will consist of the following perspectives:

1.   *Innovation Perspective*: Although the initial impulse and the main objective has its source from the National Directorate of Education in Norway, an implementation of the measure in practice, cannot rely on traditional planning philosophy with its emphasis on pre-defined goals and phased, verifiable procedures. New forms of cooperation between schools and teacher training open up for an innovative approach with an emphasis on dimensions as "intentionality", "autonomy", "creative chaos", "redundancy" and "diversity" (Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995).

2.   *Learning Perspective*: Traditionally, knowledge has been understood as "formal knowledge" and that the task of the R & D sector is to "transfer" such knowledge to the practical world. Collaboration actualizes a different concept of knowledge, namely that knowledge is formed in an interaction between experience and understanding (Kolb, 1984). Moreover, organizations can not learn - it is the only people who can (Argyris and Schön, 1996). In my opinion learning from cooperation demands more than certain skills. Wrestling over issues through a longer period will also facilitate a process of building identity (Wenger, 1998).

3.   *Relational perspective*: In a collaborative context, the focus is not directed primarily towards individual learning, but on what happens between the learner groups of participants (Glosvik, Roald and Fossøy, 2009). In accord with these authors, I am inspired by the concepts of "community of practice" (Wenger, 1998) and "partnership" (Mariussen et al, 2000). It directs attention to the common processes of change - guided by a cohesive identity, a mutual commitment and innovative action. Each school is then connected to a larger community, where a teacher or school leader has strong professional ties to different internal and external environments. Knowledge is thus not easily removable, but tied to the community at large that uses the knowledge.

4.   *Systemic perspective*: A modified form of collaboration between schools and educational institutions may facilitate the change of both mind and structures (Holly, 1991; Senge, 1991). Simple measures that are targeted at specific settings may be important in themselves, but also because you can see that the measure may have role as a crowbar to open up and improve the more overall system. In this context, Bronfenbrenner (1979) speaks about "development ecology" where the focus is directed towards "ecological transition" between "concentric circles" representing different levels in a larger system. This is to work systemically as opposed to systematically i.e. one has an eye for the whole rather than separating and studying individual parts in isolation. A practical example may be the transition between primary, secondary and higher education.

These perspectives have had varying relevance and importance during the work in the three project phases.

Method

Action research as framework
My work related to the project has been influences by an action research approach inspired by the description of Greenwood and Levin (1998). They refer to the founder of action research, Kurt Lewin, who pointed out that "The best way to understand a phenomenon is to try to change it". I experienced this as be my challenge as well. The authors emphasize that action research can not be understood as a particular method, but a framework in which such following elements are included:

●   Local, practical experience and scientific knowledge together are sources for valid knowledge when the goal is change and improvement of a particular practice
●   Broad participation of involved people and groups with the intent to create a good dialogue, joint problem definition and the willingness of all partners to take responsibility
●   Take action to change a given situation for a group or a community towards a greater degree of autonomy and a greater freedom of action.

Bearing this in mind, applying action research must be based on collective processes. After some

preliminary work, it will be important that a group of key people explicitly agree to implement an action research project.

In the course of discussions around this theme, the view emerged that the anchoring at both UMB and among the school owners had to be strengthened before the situation would be ready for action-research. It was feared that action research could easily be too theoretical, while the goal of the RCP was tangible results of a better interaction between the actors involved. Regarding my role, I was advised to apply a "researcher sight" – among other tings, to prepare for a professional summary of the experiences from the collaborative project.

It was not difficult for me to accept this conclusion, i.e. not to use action research explicitly in this work. I was familiar with the advice in the literature concerning innovation to refrain from procedures that seem alien and which could put a clamp on rather than open a situation (Holly, 1991). Nevertheless, both the implementation and analysis of the project are inspired by action research principles.

Case study and participant observation
As a concrete research design for the RSP, I have taken advantage of the "exploratory case study" (Yin, 1994). Yin refers to case study as an empirical study related to an ongoing activity within a practical reality, and where the border between the activity and the immersive context is not obvious. The term "exploratory" is justified in that there is no pre-determined activity or model which was being tested, but rather that the participants agree together on practical steps along the way and try out some of these - in an investigative way.

The method which is the basis for data and analysis consists of "participant observation" (Eneroth, 1984). In practice, this was in the organization and carrying out of meetings of various kinds - first to joint project meetings where the invitation went out widely to all at management level within schools and school owners in the involved region. These joint meetings were held about 4 times in each phase and lasted approx. 3 hours each time. The number of participants was 12 to 15 people. Secondly, the project manager and key personnel at UMB conducted separate meetings with established networks such as the group of principals for secondary schools and responsible leaders in primary education in the Follo-region. A meeting with the Education Department in Akershus County and the leadership at UMB was also part of this strategy. Accordingly, I build my considerations in this paper in a large degree on my self-made notes, memoranda and observations and reflections.

In the analysis I have applied a "hermeneutic interpretation" of the empirical material - inspired by Kvale (1997) and Thagaard (2003). This means that I consider the individual activities in light of the context they are part of, i.e. that my overall picture of UMB and the Follo region gives me help to interpret individual phenomena.

The next three sections will reflect experiences, brief analysis and some conceptualizations related to the three phases of the RCP.

Development model: planning or entrepreneurship?

Who was involved in the project and why?
Initiatives for starting the RCP were taken by the Section for Learning and Education (SSL) at UMB - well supported by the Centre for Continuing Education (SEVU) and Education Service. These units work interdisciplinary at UMB's.. Invitations to the first meeting went out to leaders and middle-level managers associated with the school owners (counties and municipalities), secondary schools and various units/levels at UMB. These initial contacts made it possible to identify several informal networks within the Folloregion. These networks included school administrators and counsellors at the municipal/primary school level – as well as principals and advisors at the county/secondary school level. For the first time a dialogue forum was organized which transversed primary, secondary and higher education.

With reference to measures for competence, the minutes from the meeting in Phase 1 show that this theme was primarily characterized by information from UMB concerning various educational programs that existed at the institution. Concrete enterprises that the participants worked together during this phase were an exchange day for school counsellors and the implementation of a course where the topic of "Assessment" was of central importance.

Otherwise, the talks in Phase 1 brought out something important issues with regard to the principles that a future cooperation must be based on - each with a valuable contributions . These included:

● *Long-term*: rather than frequent school reforms and new requirements, long-term and stable goals / strategies for Norwegian schools and teacher training is wanted
● *Predictability*: the financial framework for the training must have less signs of being political shuttlecocks and instead favor a more consistent focus on development in education
● *Foresight*: better preparedness must be built to meet new challenges that schools and teacher education will encounter
● *Simple organization*: you do not need a new bureaucratic apparatus to develop better forms of cooperation, but rather to build simple links between existing organizations and networks.

The conceptualization I
In Figure 1, I placed RCP between two different approaches to ways of doing development work for: one related to what one might call traditional planning philosophy and one based on an understanding of entrepreneurship. The former approach is abundantly discussed in the organizational literature, such as in Morgan (1998). The second approach is closely related to theories and authors mentioned in the discussion of my four key perspectives.

Experience from Phase 1 encourages us to formulate a dichotomy model.

The start of the joint project indicates that the participants must have the ability to live in "two worlds": all are busy in their own planning and implementation roles, but are people who can also create an "entrepreneurial room" for themselves. They are usually open to change in practice when:
● this seems meaningful
● measurements can be developed within the framework of their own practice
● the increased interaction can be connected to a working community of practice
● several current cooperative actors show the ability to see connections between individual parts and the whole which they are part of.

What kind of partnership will work?

What is a partnership?
At the start of phase 2, project participants talked about the phenomenon of "partnership". We sought help in a presentation made by Mariussen et al (2000). It is suggested that a sign of partnership is "involving interdependent actors" and that "there exists a certain minimum of common interest". The two basic factors that constitute a partnership are, first, *resources* in a broad sense, including finances, knowledge, collaboration traditions etc. The second factor relates to *integration* as an expression of the degree of mutual understanding and good cohesion. For analytical purposes, the partnership can be divided into four models.

I. The "ritual partnership" refers to a situation where the group of participants has neither a clear shared vision of regional challenges and tasks, or is willing to put resources into it. The effects will accordingly be few, but there may be rhetorical, tactical aspect in this phase which aids in obtaining external resources in the longer term.
II. "Partnership as a project directory" describes a partnership where one can easily refer to a whole list of measures and projects in which various actors are affected, but it still lacks a common understanding and defined objectives. Targets and funding efforts appear rather as traditional and fragmented in different governmental sectors. Thus, there is no process and internal dynamics of cooperation.
III. The "visionary partnership" is the opposite variant - characterized by the fact that cohesion can be great, but access to resources and power to act constitutes the major limitation. But such a situation may be a good start for a closer cooperation in the future.
IV. The "ideal partnership" describes a situation where integration between the actors is strong and resources for the partnership are large. You will never experience being fully in this situation, but innovative environments will continually strive towards such an ideal state.

I presented these models in the collaboration project's first meeting in phase 2. The immediate feedback was that the relationship between the stakeholders within the current region was clearly closest to the model III: So far, there were some key people who had regularly attended the project meetings, both from the school, school owners and UMB. We have to do with enthusiasts who had made a commitment to closer cooperation between the school sector and the University. In other words, the limitation was in the scarcity of resources to implement specific joint activities - here was the project's main challenge.

A search phase at multiple levels
How could the project contribute to turning the cooperation in the direction of the ideal partnership model? We realized that a sustainable cooperation must be based on three premises: 1) the level of management on the side of the school owner and the side of teacher education must establish a binding cooperation, 2) there must be concrete measures which correspond to the real challenges in schools and teacher education, and 3) the participants must start a joint reflection process that can increase the collective competence in the region.

The process in the project's Phase 2 consisted of the following:

● Participation in the joint project meetings was expanded to include the responsible people associated with Akershus County Administration and the secondary school level, the Norwegian Association of Local and Regional Authorities with its responsibility for the primary school sector in the region, and from the university administration at UMB. The project management had separate meetings with each of these participant groups parallel to the joint meetings. This was considered necessary because this type of regional partnership was perceived as something unfamiliar and, therefore requiring time and opportunity for conversation to mature. The idea of a permanent workgroup between UMB and schools was discussed.

● Various new arrangements to strengthen the academic quality in schools and ensure better recruitment of students to science studies were launched at the national level. This was the case with the program of "Continuing education courses for teachers". The partners agreed that UMB should apply for grants from this scheme in order to provide a one year study in chemistry and physics. Another national program that was brought into the discussion was a math training program, called "ENTER ". This is a student-driven program based on science students as mentors for pupils at lower and upper secondary school level. A third program which we wanted a closer link to, was a recruitment campaign called "SPARK" – managed by the regional branch of the Association of Local Authorities.

● R&D cooperation between the teaching in the schools and the teacher training environment at UMB was a topic in the joint meetings. In this phase, it was primarily the UMB researchers who told about their ongoing activities. These included topics such as investigative learning methods and ways for pupils and students to use science knowledge to promote sustainable development locally and in the third world.

All this can be regarded as important processes, but the people who attended could probably see this phase as being in "limbo". Concrete results or any breakthrough were still not visible. From my approach of perspectives mentioned above, I saw that a binding agreement would probably have to develop gradually – with various challenges. It became clear that participants wanted to complete a third and final phase of the joint project, descript below.

Conseptualisation II
During the work in Phase 2 it became more clear what kinds of principles for partnership between the university, school owners and schools are needed to enable a partnership to function dynamically over a long-term perspective. It will involve partnerships at various levels and interaction between the levels – pointing to the concept of communities of practice as discussed earlier.

I will elaborate in this way:
● *Overarching partnership:* this is based on establishment of a common dialogue arena for people from the leadership at the school / educational institutions. Through this forum, the partners may make collective priorities within a broad range of common responsibility. Further, such forums have sufficient strength to influence and change the external conditions for their activities. This level can be said to represent the *width* of a partnership.

- *Action-oriented partnerships*: here the entrepreneurs at the same institutions prove capable of generating action that brings changes in the daily lives of teachers, students and pupils. Joint action of this nature helps to create an everyday integration between the different actors that expresses something about the *strength* of the partnership.
- *Reflective partnerships*: this occurs when people reflect together across institutional boundaries and integrate this in R & D work. In turn, this may result in a site-specific knowledge as a basis for local activities, but also in identification of a well anchored and unifying profile among the partners, such as, for example sustainable development as a goal. This point to the *depth* of a partnership.

Based on lessons learned in phase 2, I felt that there was sufficient consensus among the involved participants about ways of working that I could add the above partnership model used in a third and final phase.

A learning school and educational region?

"Ecological transitions"
At the beginning of Phase 3 the project participants was agree that the spotlight should be focused more towards the zones between primary, secondary and teacher education. Participants acknowledged that problems and constraints at one level usually will be transferred to the other levels.

This actualizes the term "ecological transition" as outlined by Bronfenbrenner (1979). He distinguishes between micro-, meso-, exo- and macrosystems. In Figure 4, placed at the end of this section, I have applied this four-section model to illustrate different levels of the educational system. These levels are represented, by teachers / students (micro), schools and teacher training with a local anchoring (meso), sector institutions (exo) and society at large (macro). Bronfenbrenner looks at this system as an "ecological environment" understood as a "nesting" of concentric structures, each of which lies implicit in the next.

Testing   of   action-oriented   collaboration
Thanks to the closer contacts which were now established, it was possible to agree on concrete cooperation measures, also based on formal agreements when necessary. These included the following   priorities:

- The math training program called ENTER. From the autumn of 2010 UMB offers mathematics training to pupils from lower and upper secondary school. Approx. 20 students were then engaged as mentors for about 200 pupils from municipalities surrounding UMB.

- Examinations in individual subjects at UMB for pupils in secondary schools. This means that students who are particularly interested in science can attend classes and take examinations at UMB in subjects such as mathematics and chemistry. The partners wish to widen this offer in the future.

- Further education course. This involves a compulsory subject in lower secondary schools which has been created especially in regard to the incidence of dropout and failure in upper secondary school. The partners agreed that pupils in this course can choose to add the practical part of the course to UMB. Here they can work together with researchers in the laboratory and do experiments with standard research equipment.

- Continuing education for teachers in physics and chemistry. This program is based on a shared funding between the state, municipalities and the participating teachers. The involved partners had therefore close communication before and during the establishment of the program to adapt best to local conditions. Teachers who have participated in the courses have expressed great satisfaction with the programs and academic outcomes.

- Subject days for teachers. A broad scientific-educational day, once a year, will be planned and implemented in close cooperation between UMB and surrounding schools. The partners also agreed to expand the scientific cooperation with UMB's partnership schools - particularly regarding those who are practical training supervisors for teacher students at UMB. Fall 2010 UMB strengthened its competence in professional knowledge and established, among other things, a mentor network for new science teachers who are recruited from the surrounding region.

All of these measures require good communication between all levels, including a commitment at the management level. In this final project phase, the participants from the practice realm (schools), were challenged as to what they saw as relevant research topics. They came up with three such topics:

- Assessment practices in schools. Here is the great need to develop systems for data systematization, analysis, evaluation and feedback to students. Exchange of experience between schools must be central in this context.
- Drop-out from secondary schools. One third of youths who finished lower secondary school in 2002 failed or quit before they had finished their secondary education. This calls for great attention and interactive cooperation in the educational sector.
- Increased responsibilities for school owners. A recent amendment of the Education Act requires that the school owners (municipalities and counties) in the future develope systems that provide knowledge on school pupils' learning at different class levels.

These are topics that will be followed up in the continuing partnership.

Co-operation agreement between UMB, school owners and schools
During the conclusion of the joint project the management at UMB made it clear that they were prepared to establish a Joint Council with broad external representation. The Council was operational from autumn 2010 and the mandate of the council was adopted as follows:

The partners will develop a partnership to solve the various challenges at schools and in teacher education. Cooperation will embrace a wide field of joint responsibilities: teacher / teacher education in science and natural resource use, continuing education, R & D activities, recruitment and research dissemination. Partners are to pay particular attention to the entire 13-year academic career.

The council will contribute to the mutual exchange of information, provide inspiration and give advice to the Academic Board at UMB. The Council will strive for relevance in the design of educational programs and in units that work with school related issues. The Council will further help to propose statements on current issues and find resources to solve the various measures

Pro-Rector for Education is the Chairman of the Council and several school-related entities at UMB are represented. School owners at municipal and county level, as well as principals and counselors from secondary schools, have their representatives in the Council. The Norwegian Centre for Science Education is also represented.

In this way, an arena is established where people from schools and institutions can meet each other and develop a dialogue among themselves. The local, regional and national levels within the school and educational sector are hereby granted the space to develop their internal relationship in direction of a community of practice.

Conceptualization III
The review indicates the start of a new approach and a new relationship between the university and the school. Figure 4 is an illustration of how "ecological transition" as discussed above, can lead from a distinct sector-controlled school and education system to a more innovative form. For this I use concepts introduced earlier in this paper (micro to macro). Basically it can be said that education is designed as a "funnel": based on conducting signals from the nation / society level (macro), different directorates / institutions (exo) traditionally has implemented laws and regulations. In turn, this set limits for teaching and learning methods among teachers / students (micro level). An interactive and inter-institutional cooperation at regional level (meso) has not had a natural place in this landscape.

This is some of the background for the recognition of both researchers (Kjærnsli et al, 2007) and authorities (KD, 2008, 2009) that there is insufficient accommodation to individual needs and too little learning among Norwegian pupils. Increased interaction between the institutions on the regional level is lanced as a central strategy in the Norwegian educational policy.

Through the project the participants connected to UMB and the surrounding region, have started a specific process from the aforementioned objective. Traditionally the arrows in the figure have been one from the top-down; here the arrows are pointing in both upwards and downwards. This, I claim, means that the meso level is brought into the figure – which should illustrate that the teacher education and the school sector has initiated a close and trust-building cooperation among themselves.

The innovative model in the figure is based on the following: the "conservative" funnel system is intact and a strong national school education policy-making is still valid, but the actors in the regional / local meso-level take initiative in the action space that opens within an increased practice-oriented education. When this works, it means that teacher-pupil relationship receives a more free character

with opportunities for increased adapted learning, relevant guidance on educational and career choices, etc.

Main Conclusion

The issue I formulated initially was: *how can we trigger a continuous integration between schools, school owners and teacher training institutions at a daily level?* As previously mentioned this refers to a collaboration that will be able to cover a wide field of shared responsibility. In the case of the joint project, the goal has been to accommodate a new relationship between the university and the surrounding school sector. Experience as mentioned above, indicates that changing relationships of this nature must be given time and space to develop through various stages:

● One phase where open-minded leaders in the public school system establish networks across institutional boundaries. The glue in the networks consists of some long-term goals and visions that the participants agree on. The involved make use of a basic attitude of innovation and learning.

● A second phase is characterised by trial, error and a mixture of impatience and positive expectations. It appears to be a certain tension between, on the one hand, school leaders who want professional development based on local terms. On the other hand, universities employees tend to want to transfer complete knowledge and models to the practice field. The partners now realize that they must give greater space for collective searching for new paths to follow.

● In a subsequent phase a good atmosphere for the implementation of measures that are particularly suited to facilitate transitions between primary, secondary and higher education has been established. The involved partners are thinking more from an overall, or systemic, perspective.

In sum: Growth of an everyday integration between actors in the school sector and the teacher training must build on the creation of a new relationships arising out of an emerging community of practice.

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Inclusive vocational education. Challenges and possibilities

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The aim of the workshop is to create a general view of possibilities in inclusive vocational education in Finnish educational system. Particularly workshop emphasizes concrete steps which include such elements as basic teacher education, in-service education, competences of teachers, leading an inclusive school, multi-vocational work in school and regional co-operation with schools and other institutes and ngo:s.

In Pirkanmaa region there is a common strategy for special needs education in all vocational schools. In workshop we intend to tell about the process of making the strategy and intentions to support schools in executing the strategy. The strategy and model of regional co-operation was established in EU-project called Erityistä osaamista ja ohjausta (Special know-how and counselling).

What do we need to know about leadership that fosters EFL teacher learning?

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Introduction

Recent scholarly research on school leadership has brought into light teachers' perception on their leaders' support for learning as well as the recognition that leadership that cultivates teacher development may lead to improved student outcomes (see Drago-Stivenson & Pinto (2009), Cambron-McCabe (2003), Blase & Blase (1999) etc.). These have made invaluable contribution and pioneering to the field, as well as a comprehensive picture of leadership practices in public elementary and secondary schools across the USA by concentrating on all teachers irrespective of the subject they teach. Nevertheless, few studies have examined teachers' perspectives on school leadership in relation to specific subject area, let alone private schools. This small-scale qualitative study is attempting to obtain an insight into how the concept of instructional leadership and findings of the above-mentioned studies can be applied in the context of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching. In particular, the study seeks to obtain an insight into EFL teachers' beliefs on language school leadership. To this end, the following research questions will be asked:

What are non-native English language teachers' perspectives on common practices employed by language school leaders that cultivate or obstruct EFL teacher learning?

In order to answer this question and to better prepare for the interview with non-native English language teachers who might not be explicitly familiar with the terminology of leadership practices, the researcher has examined the current literature on teacher leadership and learning and devised an additional set of questions. These are based on the instructional leadership best practices recommended by recent literature such as: needs-based teacher development, collaboration with colleague teachers, reflection-based teacher development, teaching modelling etc. The aim of this being to probe non-native EFL teachers on which of these practices they find most useful for their learning and to obtain an insight into whether and how they apply in EFL context (see below). Finally, as the study focuses on non-native EFL teachers, this element has also been added to the interview questions.

The first section of the study will demonstrate the major ideas lying behind instructional leadership as well as problem formulation. This will be followed by a section which concentrates on the current research on school leadership in relation to teacher learning. Afterwards, the methodology of the study will be briefly presented. In the central, analytical part, the data obtained from interviews with EFL teachers will be thoroughly discussed.

Background and problem formulation

The study takes as its background symbolic interpretation of organization and leadership, which rests on the sociological conceptualization of symbolic interpretation and constructivist approach to comprehension of human perceptions and meanings, extrapolated by Mead and Blumer (in Blase & Blase, 1999). According to this theory, ´human beings are viewed as social products that are influenced by external factors but are also capable of maintaining distance and able to imitate individual action through interpretative processes¨ (p.355 in Blase & Blase).

The understanding of leadership that has emerged from this, in Winkler´s words, focuses on the ´category of meaning and reality that is a social construction´(Winkler, 2010,p.350). Studies on leadership that use these ideas are primarily concerned with learning more about the values, meaning, interpretation, history and context of an organization. Since the reality is built on a set of meanings, artifacts and language, the role of a leader is not authoritative. On the contrary, ¨leader does not directly influence followers´ (Winkler, Ingo, 2010, p. 351). Winkler, for instance, emphasises the fact that ¨ to understand organization and leadership means to realize various codes members of an organization use to interpret perceived reality and to decode numerous linkages within complex symbolic systems¨ (Winkler, Ingo, 2010, p. 352)

In the context of educational leadership, one of the paths that has arisen from symbolic background constitutes the so-called instructional leadership (see Blase, Jo; Blase, Joseph;, 2010; McEwan, Elaine K., 2003; Smith, Wilma F.; Andrews, Richard L.;, 1989). This can be most clearly seen when various definitions of instructional leadership are juxtaposed together. Thus, for instance, Blase & Blase (1999) have employed definitions of Glickman (1985) to draw attention to five primary tasks of instructional leadership as direct assistance to teachers, group development, staff development, curriculum development and action research. McEwan, for example, points to Sergiovanni's definition of instructional leadership where five forces are at play: technical, human, educational, symbolic and

cultural. The latter three are of utmost importance for the context of schools: educational refers to three roles of the principal in relation to instruction (teaching, learning and curriculum), symbolic and cultural apply to principal's ability to represent the school and what is purposeful about school as well as the ability to articulate the values and beliefs of the organization over time. (McEwan, pg.5)

Taking these into account, that instructional leadership traces its origins in symbolic interpretation is demonstrated by the fact that instructional leader is never seen as an isolated figure. Rather, having the goal of the overall improvement in student outcomes, instructional leader acts in conjunction with, first and foremost, his/her staff, but also with students and parents. A vast majority of studies is devoted to examining how to develop this type of leader. Few of them, however, speak of the perspective of those who are lead- teachers.

This constitutes a starting point of this study which attempts to look at the aspect of instructional leadership primarily in relation to teacher learning. Specifically, it is interested in applying this conceptualization in the field of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching by looking primarily at non-native English teachers' perspective. As a case study, non-native English language teachers' perceptions on leadership practices in Spain are examined. Even though it does not concentrate on any particular language school, but rather, aims at analyzing teachers' perception based on their experience from different schools; it is necessary to define the context of the study. Two factors to be considered here are highly relevant: first, basic characteristics of Spanish school culture from the organizational point of view; second, the focus of study on small private language schools.

According to Murillo (2002), who has conducted a five-school case study on school improvement, Spanish education system has some distinctive characteristics in comparison to Anglo-Saxon and particularly in relation to the perception of power. In Murillo's words, principal is one of the teachers who has been elected by his colleagues for a 4-year term, and because of this does not always have the necessary power to develop change process. Finally, Murillo rounds up his description of Spanish school culture by saying that "the idea of organizational learning is not widespread in Spanish educational context. Therefore, there is no awareness of the school as an organization which learns" (2002, p. 408)

Even though these findings help draw a picture of Spanish school culture, it should, nevertheless, be taken only as an indicator of common practices in elementary and secondary schools, either subsidized or entirely state-funded. This study, however, is looking at the leadership practices in the private sector of language schools, and therefore, additional factors may be at play. These may include its customer satisfaction orientation, exclusive focus on the teaching of one subject (in this case language) and most of all, a significantly smaller number of teachers and students the leader is responsible for. Because of scarce literature on Spanish leadership culture in private sector of education, it is yet to be seen from the interviews with teachers how and whether these two elements (Spanish school culture and private schools) relate to each other and reflect in leadership practices.

Taking this context into account, the study aims at examining the following two lines: primarily, which practices are commonly employed by EFL leaders that foster or hinder EFL teacher learning; secondarily, which practices recommended by recent literature non-native EFL teachers find to be suitable for them. Since each of these lines is accompanied by the concept of non-native teachers, the results might also reveal certain issues from that branch as well.

Analytical framework

In order to create the framework for interview questions, this part of the study will consist of the following steps: firstly, the section will review recent literature that concentrates on teachers´ perspective of school leadership and teacher professional development by using instructional leadership as their background; secondly, the part will continue so as to identify major themes that predominate these studies; finally, it will finish by closer examination of literature on non-native English teachers and its use in this study.

This study was informed by literature from two fields: instructional school leadership that supports teachers' learning (Drago-Severson; Blase & Blase; Cambron McCabe) and the literature from the vast field of ELT, which more closely focuses on non-native teacher professional development. Combining the findings of these studies, this investigation aims at examining how they apply in EFL context by looking at teachers' ´perspective. It should be noted that even though this study heavily relies on the above mentioned literature, it does not use any of them per se. By using this literature, this study seeks to combine multiple perspectives of instructional leadership practices so as to identify a paradigm of practices, rather than relying on a sole theory. Finally, literature on non-native teachers is added as a complement to this owing to the fact that this specific group is the focus of the study as well as the fact that research on it is still relatively recent and scarce.

One of the studies that is set against instructional leadership is Drago-Severson & Pinto's (2009) research on school leadership that supports teacher learning. They underscore the value of this leadership practice by saying that:

"When a principal employs practices that support teacher learning, teachers thrive as they are challenged to grow" (2009, p. 447)

Their large-scale qualitative study identifies leadership strategies that "principals employ to support teachers' learning in primary and secondary schools across the USA" (2009, p. 447). The major findings reveal that "the best options are context specific and that short-term initiatives are insufficient" (2009, p. 447). In short, the authors indicate the following practices: first, collegial inquiry/reflective practices; second, synergy of resources through building partnerships with other educational institutions or sponsors ; third, school-wide professional development.

On a similar note, Blase & Blase (1999) and (2010) have carried research with more than 800 participating teachers across North America on instructional leadership. Considering the studies on teachers' perceptions, Blase & Blase have found that two predominant strategies contribute to this aim: talking with teachers to promote reflection and encouraging professional growth (2010). The former strategy encompasses the following undertakings: promotion of dialogue, suggestions, feedback upon observation of the teaching, praising good teaching, modeling (demonstration in class), and finally using inquiry and soliciting advice. The latter entails a number of proposals such as staff development based on needs, supporting collaboration among teachers, redesign of programmes, tailoring professional development so that it is consistent with adult learning ((1999, pp. 358-362).

Likewise, Cambron-McCabe (2003) has concentrated on detailed analysis of the necessity for including the knowledge about teacher learning communities in preparatory courses for school leaders. These communities, according to the author, should be based on "meaningful conversations and behaviours that lead to 'learning to learn' together" (2003, p. 291).

In summary, taking into consideration the above research, the following themes emerge: reflective practices, collegial collaboration and support and needs-based development. Each of the studies also indicates that the suggested practices should be carried out in a non-threatening way towards teachers as well as emphasizing the leader's position as the one that inspires and acts as a role-model rather than a top figure in the hierarchy. A major set of interview questions is based on foci from this literature.

Notwithstanding the sheer contribution and value these scholarly studies have made, it is, nonetheless, important to examine how the findings of these studies relate to private language school, an environment which has markedly different characteristics as oppose to public school. Moreover, the focal point of this study is non-native English language teacher.. As a matter of illustration of the prominence of this issue, recent literature has drawn attention to the fact that 80% of the English teachers in the world are non-native (Canagarajah, 2005). Even more importantly for this study, Kemhi-Stein points to the need to include certain issues related to non-native speakers in language teacher education programs in order to empower them. In particular, these refer primarily to the necessity to continuously maintain throughout their career vocabulary and pronunciation (Moussu, Lucie; Llurda, Enric;, 2008, p. 321). Drawing this research, this study examines whether their non-nativeness is any way present in leadership practices aimed at development. This appears to be relevant as much as a broad range of EFL literature on teacher development is appreciated, it rarely treats this component (see He, Ye; Prater, Kathryn; Steed, Teneka;, 2009) Freeman, Donald; Richards, C. Jack;, 1993). Instead, in EFL world, teacher development is synonymous with improvement in pedagogical skills and teaching methodology. Having this in mind, two aspects are to be touched upon: first, the ubiquity of teacher development in language school aiming at improving their proficiency; second, asking teachers to identify most common leadership practices in EFL that cultivate learning as well as those that potentially obstruct it

Methodology

In line with the symbolic perspective that the study adopts is as well the use of methodology for this study. Thus, the study will be based on a small-scale qualitative investigation. Semi-structured interviews with three female non-native English language teachers from two language schools were conducted in Spain (The Basque country). Two of them are of Spanish origin whereas the third one is Italian. All of them are qualified English language teachers, possess international experience and work in small private language schools.

All the interviews have been recorded and on average lasted 30 minutes. Each of the interviews was based on an already prepared two sets of questions which were at times enriched with additional shorter questions when searching for clarification of certain answers. These sets were divided into the following themes: firstly, questions related to practices commonly employed by leaders that foster as well as inhibit learning; secondly, questions that probe teachers on the leadership strategies that the

recent instructional leadership literature recommends such as reflective practice, collaborative communities, modelling, dialogue etc.

It should be noted that the study catered for ethical considerations by providing the interviewed teachers with interview consent form whereby explaining main aims and objectives of the study and giving them the right for voluntary non-participations and all necessary contact details (see Appendix II). Also, upon the completion of the interview, the recordings were sent to teachers with remarks that they can withdraw, additionally explain and provide final approval of it. Two of the interviewed teachers have subsequently supplemented their answers by sending a written clarification for certain questions. Since all three teachers have expressed their wish to stay anonymous, for the the purposes of analysis, the following abbreviated forms will be used: non-native teacher1 (NNT1), non-native teacher 2 (NNT2) and non-native teacher 3 (NNT3).

NNT1: 29 years old and of Italian origin, has been working for 2 years, specializing in adult teaching, recently started working with children as well.

NNT2: 29 years old, has been working for the last 5 years, possesses working experience from the UK and Russia.

NNT3: 25 years old, working experience from the USA, Germany and China.

Results and Discussion

The three interviewed teachers discussed in the interviews as well as in subsequent e-mail correspondence language leaders' practices with regard to their professional development and learning. The data has revealed the following emerging themes:

1. leadership practices in EFL
2. language leaders' practices that
1.1.   foster teacher learning and
1.2.   obstruct teacher learning
3. suitability of literature proposed leadership practices in EFL context
4. leadership practices with regard to non-native teacher development

These themes have emerged as a result of interview design where interview questions were grouped in two major categories. The first two examine leadership practices in the specific context of this study whereas the latter two were devised according to theories presented in the analytical framework (instructional leadership and non-native English language teachers)

This section comprises of two sub-parts: first, the results of the study presented in accordance with the themes outlined above; second, discussion that will compare and contrast the obtained results with the theoretical premises of the study.

Leadership practices in EFL

During conversations with teachers, all of them mentioned three types of practices leader organizes with regard to teacher learning: staff meetings, teacher plans scanning and teacher observation.

The data has shown that the most common type of leadership practices in EFL with regard to teacher learning are staff meetings taking place once a month or every three weeks. The predominant issue in these meetings, as all three teachers have remarked, seem to be first and foremost problems at that point and rarely intentionally organized with the aim of teacher learning.

With regard to teaching plans, even though this exists as teacher learning practice initiated by language leader, teachers have, however, talked about it in a negative light since as in the case of NNT1, conversation with leader about teaching plans boils down to following one way of teaching and in the case of NNT2 is only a matter, as she put it, of leader being polite to ask these questions.

NNT1: 'She never reads my teaching plans. I am supposed to use teacher's book and follow it closely. I don't have any feedback.'

NNT2: 'Yes, but not a lot, they had a folder with our teaching plans so that they can see it once we are not there, but not in front of me. Only asking two, three questions, but more general, not like I'm feeling he was interested in my development, just he wanted to be polite.'

As for teacher observation, the interviews revealed mixed responses. Thus, a NNT3 reported to have had regular class observations by her leader followed by interviews, praising and as she formulated it 'positive reinforcement'.

NNT3: 'In the USA, her role was active, positive and enriching. She came to the classroom and was supposed to analyse my teaching, she used positive reinforcement like 'very good, you did a good job, focusing on every child'. Observations were followed by an interview where we would discuss various teaching techniques, would I would improve etc.'

In the case of NNT2, observation were not conducted directly by the leader, rather by external examiners and were followed by discussion and feedback. This teacher talked about her experiences from the UK.

As for NNT1, who spoke about her experience from Spain, observations and evaluation were initiated by leader's talking with parents and were not organized, rather, unannounced and abrupt.

NNT1: 'The pace of teaching was evaluated. She bases herself on what students or some parents commented. She asks me: 'How many pages are you covering, are you managing to finish all the exercises?'.

Language leader practices that foster/obstruct teacher learning

On the positive side, the data has shown that NNETs seek a leader who is a role-model. Even though this is extrapolated in different ways by teachers, the basic idea remains the same: having someone to look up to and learn from. Thus, NNT1 has characterized self-confidence as the main characteristic of a good leader.

NNT1: 'self-confident; how to be confident when managing a group, how to be self-confident in the classroom. I'd like her to show me that'.

NNT2 indicated leader's responsibility and good organizations as characteristics that lead to her learning.

NNT2:' I'd prefer him/her to be responsible in the sense that he does what he says, I prefer him/her not to speak a lot, but do more...and well-organized, it would make me motivated to prepare better lesson plans so that I have like a role-model.'

The third teacher identified a good leader as the one who is open-minded and flexible, encouraging teachers to try out new things and acts as a guide.

NNT3: 'As a teacher it is very important to have a leader that encourages you to do things, try new methods and activities. Being open/minded, flexible, and ready for new ideas is a plus on a leader. '

What emerges, however, as language teacher specific context, teachers remarked a few practices their leader did that contributed to their learning. All three teachers mentioned occasional organization of teacher training outside school (e.g. organized by the British Council) where they learned particular teaching methodology. Also, NNT1 indicated that truly enriching learning situation was when her language leader, who used to be a language teacher for many years beforehand, shared her experiences on how to deal with a particular problem.

NNT1: 'Sometimes talking about children, because I am not experienced with them, how to relate to them, then trying to give me some books and materials to read on young learners...'

On the negative side, two of the teachers (NNT1 and NNT2) reported that language leader's practice that hinders learning is direct pointing to mistakes. Also, NNT1 said that it is the imposition of 'the right way of teaching' that puts her under pressure and prevents her from learning.

NNT1: 'What I don't like is having impositions. I understand that language school follows a particular kind of strategy but I really don't like impositions.

NNT2: 'If he/she doesn't motivate at all, if he is all the time saying bad things about my teaching'.

NNT3 pinpointed leader's disinterest and lack of involvement in teacher professional development as the main obstacle to her learning.

Suitability of literature proposed leadership practices in EFL context

The interviews focused on four practices proposed in the analytical framework: needs-based development, reflection, collaboration and modeling.

Comparing and contrasting data, NNT1 and NNT2 appear to express relatively similar opinions whereas NNT3 differs. Namely, NNT1 and NNT2 on the one hand show positive attitude towards each of the practices, but on the other, admitted not to have had any of these structurally organized at their respective language schools. Even when some of them did take place, they were incidental and spontaneous on the part of the leader.

In opposition to this, NNT3 embraced all of the practices as equally advantageous and moreover, to have had experience with each of them. Interestingly, again like with previous themes, NNT3 highlighted all of these happened while she was working in the USA whereas other two teachers were speaking of their experience in Spain.

All of the teachers agree that it is a combination of the proposed practices that may result in significant improvement in their professional development. In addition to this, NNT1 indicated that in EFL context, it would be beneficial not only to be observed and receive feedback from the leader, but also to be able to have organized observations of other language teachers' classes because of specific nature of language teaching where one teacher can be responsible for different age groups (as was the case with this teacher)

Leadership practices and non-native teacher development

Furthermore, both NNT1 and NNT2 expressed their opinion on desirable practices that could improve their language proficiency. These include trainings with native teachers, and also collaboration with other non-native teachers so as to exchange good practices.

NNT1: 'A constant retrain and participation to refreshment courses would be desirable if the leader intends to deal with the challenge that teaching represent and to its constant evolution as a science. I would like the leader to offer me more possibilities to attend longer and more comprehensive and complete courses.'

NNT2: 'In my opinion, in order to improve my language proficiency the leader could arrange special courses of general English for teachers held by qualified native speakers. Furthermore the leader could correct my mistakes when speaking (if enough proficient to do it) and try to expose me to as much English material as he/she can; for instance she could organise English language movies-watching at the academy or offer financial support for English study tours in English speaking countries'

As the major stumbling block to learning, the teachers mentioned the following:

NNT1: 'I think that a continuous correction of mistakes or language structures used when speaking would be demotivating when the mistake is seen as disappointing or annoying by the leader; it would make me feel insecure and I would not be willing to enhance my English for my own self but merely to avoid a sort of conflict that could raise with the leader because of my non being proficient in English. Of course I would consider the correction worse when done in public, for example in front of my students. What is more, I do not believe that a systematic correction of my linguistic production, always interrupting the fluency of discourse, would be helpful.

NNT2: 'For example, that the leader tells me that my English is bad or making me feel every time I speak in English that I´m in an oral examination, correcting my English in front of the students.'

Discussion

The first theme has uncovered that current practices in EFL in the context of this study bear little resemblance to theoretical proposition that 'short-term initiatives are insufficient' (Drago-Severson & Pinto, pg.447). Two practices interviewed teachers mentioned have brought this into light: first, meetings leader-teacher are irregular and deal with temporary and situation emerging problems, without planed and organized teacher development; second, teacher observations and subsequent feedback that is initiated by the language leaders on a spontaneous basis. This can be partially explained by profit-making orientation of language schools and the leader's striving to primarily meet the expectations of customers, in this case pupils' parents. In contrast to this, Drago-Severson & Pinto also suggest that a leadership practice that supports learning is school-wide development whereby all teachers should attend off-the-job learning sessions (conferences, workshops, seminars etc.). Relying on the results, this seems as a pervasive and well-established practice in EFL context, as well. All teachers have indicated to have attended this kind of courses and express their wish to have them more regularly, on a continuous basis.

Considering the second theme, the results have revealed correlation between characteristics of the leader that foster and obstruct teacher learning from the proposed literature with that what teachers in EFL seek for. All teachers have in different ways, though, expressed their preference for the leader who acts as a guide one can learn from (a role-model) rather than somebody with direct imposition of power. This finding chimes with symbolic interpretation of leadership as well. On the other hand, the results are similarly coherent with the warning these academicians express that leadership practices should be exercised in a non-threatening way, otherwise they might hinder learning of teachers. Namely, non-native teachers underline as pointing to mistakes as the major obstacle to their learning in case of NNT1 and NNT2, whereas NNT3 names disinterest and lack of involvement in teacher development on the part of language leader.

Both Blase & Blase and Drago Severson & Pinto devote much attention to reflection on teaching as a leadership practice that cultivates teacher learning. It seems, however, that when probed on this, language teachers were partial and regarded teacher collaboration as the practice most conducive to their learning. Rather than having a language leader to demonstrate in class a particular way of teaching, non-native English teachers appear to prefer learning through dialogue with their colleagues, as NNT1 and NNT2 observed.

NNT1: '…giving informal meetings with all the teachers in English to exchange practices. Also, I would find it useful if I observed other teachers as well and compare my strategies of teaching to theirs.'

NNT3: 'I'd say collaborative learning. There is no learning if there is no communication among teachers. You need to be able to exchange opinion with other teachers.

Such preference is more consistent with Cambron-McCabe's argument that teacher communities should be fostered in order to enable teachers to learn from each other.

With regard to non-native teacher development, what emerges as the most prominent divergent point from the literature is a lack of leadership practices as well as awareness of non-native teachers' language proficiency. As a matter of fact, only one of the interviewed teachers (NNT3) expressed to have had experience with this type of training. This was, however, just an accompaniment to training

focusing on teaching methodology rather than organized training with teacher proficiency enhancement as its objective. Such finding stands in contrast to the urge of academicians to include issues relevant to non-native teachers in their professional development. Furthermore, it points out that despite being present in the academic circles since the beginning of the 90's, non-nativeness is still to be enlivened practically and perhaps included in some of the teacher training session organized by the British Council, that all of the teachers mentioned as the major site of their professional development.

Overshadowing both the interview themes and the theoretical concepts, what was continuously interwoven throughout the interviews are two findings: client-orientation leadership practices and culture-specific elements in EFL leadership.

The first finding challenges the basic principles not only of symbolic interpretation of power, but also of instructional leadership. As a remainder, symbolic leadership understands the power as distributive and based on this, instructional school leadership aims at improvement in teaching practice and student outcomes through empowerment of teachers. These teachers' narratives have shed light, however, on certain issues lurking in the dark that have a considerable impact on their professional development. Instructional leadership theorists still have not provided answers on how to exercise it in private school, oriented towards profit-making and where teachers' learning entails, as one of the teachers remarked 'following one way of teaching, from teacher's book', where observations as a means of teacher development are instigated by customers' (parents') comments or by leader's objective that all students are to succeed in tests. These have implications for EFL teachers, as they remarked cause stress and demotivate despite their great wish to develop.

The second finding points to the prominence of culture as forceful aspect of leadership in EFL. Even though Spanish educational culture in public schools was touched upon briefly when defining the context of this study, it emerged as a pervasive concept in the private language schools, too. All of three studies outlined in the analytical framework seem to begin by taking for granted that teacher professional development already exists and only seeks further improvement. The results of the interviews have highlighted, however how difficult it is to 'copy-paste' leadership practices from the Anglo-Saxon tradition in order to analyze the Spanish context. This is evidenced first by teachers' surprise and hesitation to talk at being asked deep questions on language school leadership, second by teachers themselves coming to realization of cultural differences throughout the interviews and finally, by absence of systematic teacher learning practices in their current positions.

Conclusion

Considering the research question and in order to draw conclusions it is pertinent to deconstruct it because of first of all a few prominent concepts it contains (non-native English teacher, common practices, practices that obstruct/foster learning) and second of all because of the themes emerging from the interviews.

Concerning common practices, it emerges that these include meetings where temporary issues are discussed and teacher observations. Also, as a common practice is occasional off-the-job training in the British Council aimed at improvement in teaching methodology.

As for the practices that foster learning, teachers have indicated a leader as role-model or a guide. On the other hand, language leader who imposes particular practices in a threatening way and points to mistakes seems to score high on the negative scale of teachers' perception of professional development.

When it comes to particular practices related to non-native teachers and having in mind the literature on these issues, it is striking that there is a lack of awareness on the use of initiatives that would stir the enhancement of non-native teachers' language proficiency. In the same vein, two of the teachers (NNT1 and 2) reported as particularly non-conducive to her learning a leader's habit to correct her English before students and other colleagues.

Reliance on the theoretical concepts helps to highlight the suitability of instructional leadership in EFL. The results have unveiled partial agreement. This is primarily because of the customer satisfaction element that significantly decreases opportunities and reshapes teacher development organized by the leader. Thus, for instance, there seem to be little space for reflective practice, modelling and needs-based learning and somewhat more space and teacher preference for collegial collaboration and school-wide development.

Finally, the element of educational culture can also be contributed to limited fitness of symbolic and instructional leadership concepts in Spanish EFL context. This is, both these teachers and literature (see Murillo) indicated, because of different perception of school organizational learning compared to Anglo-Saxon tradition, where faculty learning is well-established.

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Self-justification theory of Teacher Motivation

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This paper will present a new perspective - self-justification theory of teacher motivation - by discussing the outcomes of two studies: The first about students being the main source of motivations and demotivations of university teachers (Kiziltepe, 2008), and the second the beliefs of academicians on their role in internalizing the purposes and identities of higher education institutions to pass it on to their students to become responsible citizens in the society (Kiziltepe, 2010).

It is believed that with inadequate financial, professional and academic conditions offered to the highly qualified faculty, teachers are actually aware of the logical inconsistency between what they have and what they deserve to have. However, they have no other alternatives; therefore in order to avoid anxiety, stress, and/or guilt, they are trying to justify their behavior by making themselves believe that they are there for altruistic reasons. Cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957) proposes that we constantly make up explanations for our behavior to avoid dissonance because we want to stay consistent with our behavior. Aronson (1992) argues further that dissonance is greatest and clearest when it is engaged with not just any two cognitions but, rather, cognition about the self and a piece of our behavior that violates that self-concept.

In the light of the studies mentioned above, what I am proposing in this paper is that teachers (whether university or high school) have two cognitions that are psychologically inconsistent with each other: One is that they believe they are highly educated, decent, and hard-working people, in other words, they have a high self-concept; the other is that the job conditions that they have is worse than most of the other jobs around them. The concept of being a worthy person and what they deserve to have in society clash with what they really have in society. If there is nothing else they can do – no other alternatives they can choose from – if they feel it is a dead end for them – (because it has been observed that those who have alternatives such as working in private universities, which offer incomparably better conditions, change their jobs without any hesitation) then their dissonance will be greater and therefore their self-justification will be stronger.

According to the Cognitive Dissonance theory, the uneasiness that is created by the dissonance must be taken care of. So in order to preserve the consistent, stable, competent and morally good sense of the self, teachers change their beliefs and attitudes toward teaching. They act as if they do not care about the economical, physical, psychological problems of teaching and say that what is the most important thing in their lives as teachers is their students.

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The View of Mathematics and Mathematicians as Presented in Drawings of Students

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For young people it is crucial to construct the adequate image of mathematics and mathematicians before they even consider studying mathematics or becoming a mathematician or a scientist. The images of mathematicians are not very positive nowadays; there exist a lot of stereotypes in connection with this profession. Mathematics is often considered to be a boring and difficult subject at school and later students try to avoid jobs where mathematical knowledge is required.

The purpose of the study is to explore the views on mathematics and mathematicians of grade 9 students in Latvia. 61student from four schools (rural and urban, with Latvian and Russian teaching languages) were asked to draw a picture of a typical mathematician and depict the answer on the question: „What is mathematics?" The students' drawings are visual display of their attitude to mathematics and mathematicians that influences them as learners in school and also affects their career.

Selected sample of students see mathematics as an abstract system of numbers, shapes and equations which constitutes a lot of problems for students at school. The majority of the sample see a mathematician as lonely middle-aged man with glasses who is wearing suit and working with numbers. Analysis of students' drawings allows inferring that studying mathematics and becoming a mathematician do not seem attractive for young people in Latvia.

Knowing and understanding students' views can provide insight for mathematics teachers in the way how they should organise the teaching and learning process in order to have more positive students' attitude towards mathematics and mathematicians.

Key words: drawings, view, mathematics, mathematicians, method

Introduction

Human beings are not only cognitive individuals but also social persons with beliefs, emotions and views that influence their development as learners. It is often claimed that mathematics is hidden in the modern society and mathematicians are a very silent group of professionals (Grevholm, 2010).

A person's behaviour and choices, when confronted with a task, are determined more by her/his beliefs and personal theories, rather than by his/her knowledge. Views of mathematics and mathematicians influence how students acquire mathematics. Students' views of mathematics result from their experiences as learners of mathematics and as such, they provide a window through which to study mathematics teaching. Mathematical competence is not only about knowledge and skills, but also disposition to act in productive ways. Students' view of mathematics is an indication of this disposition (Kaldo, 2010).

In our society there exist many stereotypes about mathematics and mathematicians. Picker and Berry (2000) have made a cycle of perpetuation of stereotypical images of mathematics and mathematicians. The main reason for this is the fact that students lack sufficient knowledge about mathematicians and mathematics. It leads to exposure of societal stereotypes, mechanical teaching of mathematics and attitudes to mathematics community as exclusive community. An important role in this process has also teachers' lack of awareness of existing stereotypes of mathematics and mathematicians. Teachers' beliefs about mathematics play a major role in shaping their instructional practice and consequently influence their pupils' attitudes, interests and achievement (Philippou & Christou, 1998; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000).

Stereotypes about mathematics and mathematicians usually dictate student opinions concerning their perception of their ability as well as students thoughts about career choices where mathematics is the basis.

Analysing drawings is one of the best methods how to study students' view of mathematics and mathematicians because it reveals person's thoughts and opinions very vividly.

There are different approaches to picture analysis.

According to Sumpter (2010), the purpose of the picture analysis is to separate different parts of the picture in order to get a better understanding of what the artist (a student) wants to say, consciously or unconsciously. This separation is made at three levels: 1) what you can see; 2) the technique used; 3) the chosen perspective. After analysing pictures according to these three levels, the pictures should be assembled back and the researcher needs to focus on the general idea of the picture, not paying much attention to the details.

Långström and Viklund (2010) also provide an inssihgt into the picture analysis. The analysis is done asking how persons and things are grouped/placed in the image, what age and gender they have, and how they are dressed and moving.

Burton (2009) categorized drawings of mathematics in three ways: positive, neutral, and negative emotions; particular experiences and general meanings, and classroom, abstract or real world connection. This type of classification for analysis is based on the evaluation technique used by Rule and Harrell (2006).

Through the pictures different messages can be communicated between the artist and the viewer just as in a verbal process. The drawings allow the student to establish and reflect upon the attitudes and experiences in a non-threatening way (Rule & Harrell, 2006).

By examining students' own understanding and perception of a subject, the students are better able to improve the negative emotions related to the concept and this in turn allows them to focus on the learning, without the obstacles associated with their negative past experience. Watkins (1984) suggests that by investigating images and discussing feelings related to the images, the students become empowered to engage actively in changing the negative perceptions related to the subject, in this case – to mathematics.

Sometimes images are used to express a large concept, such as mathematics, can be literature snapshots of a particular event but at other times they can be rather representational. In both cases they reveal a deep insight into the relationship of the artist to the subject, in this particular case, mathematics (Rule & Harrell, 2006).

Drawing images before writing or verbalizing ideas can foster more creative responses and help generate ideas, because often language can slow down the creative process (Caldwell & Moore, 1991).

In recent years many researches about students' views of mathematics and mathematicians have been conducted. Picker and Berry (2000) have investigated pupils' images of mathematicians. Pupils aged 12-13 years from United States, United Kingdom, Sweden, Romania and Finland were asked to draw a picture of a working mathematician. Their examination for commonalities in the 476 pictures identified these sub themes: mathematics as coercion, the foolish mathematician, the overwrought mathematician, the mathematician who cannot teach, the Einstein effect, and the mathematician with special powers.

Sumpter (2010) compared 2nd and 5th grade students' drawings of themselves when doing mathematics. 2nd grade students had more positive attitude toward mathematics than 5th grade students. All students presented mathematics as an individual activity with a focus on a textbook.

Burton (2009) has analysed teacher candidates' drawings of mathematics. Majority of them show negative experience, a lot of them are abstract and only some have some connection with real world

The research questions are: What is mathematics according to students in 9th grade? How do students see a typical mathematician? These questions will be answered by analysing the students' drawings and they could provide some insight into Latvian students' opinion about mathematics and mathematicians.

The 9th grade students in Latvia were asked to draw a picture of mathematics, answering to the question: "What is mathematics?" and also draw a picture of a mathematician, answering to the question: "What is a mathematician like?".

Participants and procedure

The sample consisted of 61 15-16 years old 9th grade students from four schools in Latvia *(rural and urban, with Latvian and Russian teaching languages)*. The author collected drawings during autumn 2010 by attending schools or asking the mathematics teacher to instruct students about drawing activity. Students were allowed to take as much time as necessary and they were informed that their drawings will be used for the research. Although all students were asked to produce two drawings, many of them drew just image of mathematics. It is possible that it was rather difficult for them to imagine a mathematician and some of them did not feel confident about drawing a person. All drawings were anonymous.

When students were told that they need to draw pictures of mathematics and mathematician, quite often the author of this paper heard the replies: "I'm not good at drawing!" "I can't draw!" After the explanation that their drawing skills will not be evaluated and the main thing is the idea of their pictures, the students felt more relaxed. When they asked for further details about what to draw, they were advised to draw what comes to mind.

Students opinions' about their drawing skills may affect the students' pictures where the less skilled ones might be restrained in their ability to produce a good picture.

Data analysis

In total 61 drawing of mathematics and 38 drawings of mathematicians were collected. These drawings provided an opportunity to get an insight in what students in comprehensive schools in Latvia see as mathematics and how they imagine a typical mathematician.

The drawings of mathematics will be analysed according to the following categories: depicted images/things/persons in a picture; abstract, classroom or real world connection; positive, neutral or negative emotions; The drawings of a typical mathematician will be analysed according to age, gender appearance, emotions, environment.

View on mathematics

Through the drawings students expressed a variety of experiences and impressions of mathematics. The results from the picture analysis (n=61) showed that in the pictures depicting mathematics students mostly draw the following:

1. Numbers (also includes some equations: addition, subtraction, multiplication, division)
2. Geometrical figures (squares, triangles, circles etc.)
3. Question marks
4. Books
5. Stationery: pens, pencils, rulers, erasers
6. Blackboard
7. Desks/tables
8. People

In many pictures are depicted several images from the list.

Image	Percentage of the pictures where it was depicted
Numbers	87%
Geometrical figures	80%
Books	46%
Stationery	37%
Backboard	34%
Desks	27%
People	15%

The students' main association with mathematics is connected with abstract numbers and shapes (see Picture 1). In their opinions mathematics is the system with abstract numbers and shapes. Next most popular association is mathematics as a subject at school. Often students draw question marks in their pictures of mathematics, mostly they draw them next to a person/student who is trying to solve some mathematical task and he/she looks unhappy (see Picture 2). The question mark is a common expression for students to show their feelings of confusion. In a few pictures one can see a corrected test in mathematics with unsatisfactory mark. Mathematics is always considered to be one of the most difficult subjects at school among students in Latvia.

The third most common students' view of mathematics is mathematics as a way of understanding, expressing the world. Students depict objects of everyday life with the help of numbers and geometrical figures (see Picture 3). In one picture next to all the objects and things are written units of measure how a person can measure them: litres, metres, kilos etc. It can be considered as a way how to show that mathematics is everywhere in our life.

A majority of students' emotions related to mathematics were neutral and these drawings were abstract (geometric figures, numbers, equations). It means that students do not have clear and concrete image of mathematics and therefore they cannot formulate their view of mathematics as positive or negative. Students who draw mathematics in connection with classroom environment mostly draw students sitting at a desk in front of the blackboard where the teacher has written some equations. This fact shows that mathematics teachers still in their classes use traditional teaching approach and the only equipment is the blackboard and books. The emotions of students in whose drawings we saw connection with classroom, were neutral or negative. The positive emotions were seen in the pictures where a student sees mathematics connection with real world.

Most of these drawings reflected general meanings of the concept mathematics not the particular experiences displaying a particular point in time.

Views on mathematicians

The students' drawings of mathematicians (n=38) contains the drawings of 21 men, 13 women and in four drawings gender was indefinable because the drawing was abstract or we cannot see the face of

a mathematician. From the drawn images of mathematicians we can learn that they are mostly men. In cases when a mathematician is a woman – she is a teacher at school. Mathematics teacher is standing next to the blackboard with some book in one hand and a pointer in other hand.

Regarding the age of mathematicians in the drawings we can say that 14 are young, 12 middle-aged, 4 are old and for 8 the age is indefinable. Young mathematicians are mostly students, depicted sitting at a desk in front of the blackboard and trying to solve some mathematical equation and in most cases they look unhappy.

Quite often students draw only the head of mathematician or a head of a man on an upper body which is just indicated in such way emphasising the fact that they are doing mental job, the main thing in this profession is the person's mind. In some cases the head was much bigger than other parts of a person's body.

Mathematicians are drawn alone in the process of thinking about some mathematical problem. In some pictures it is shown that from a mathematician's mouth and ears come streams of numbers and equations. It means that mathematicians speak and are interested only in mathematics.

In some cases their working environment is also indicated and it is the classroom and in a few drawings a student has drawn numbers around the mathematician. It means that students know that some mathematicians work is connected with dealing with numbers but they have no clear idea what exactly they do and where a mathematician can work. The working tools we see are paper, pen, pencil, ruler, pointer, books, numbers and mathematical symbols. The facial expressions of most mathematicians are serious, some look happy, others are either angry or thoughtful. One example of a typical mathematician according to students' mind is presented in picture 4.

There are number of stereotypes seen in the students' drawings, for example, 15 of all drawn mathematicians are wearing glasses, they are lonely, their clothes are smart or the opposite – they are dressed so as if they do not care what they are wearing and their hair is uncombed.

Discussion

Students see mathematics as an abstract system of numbers, shapes and equations which constitutes a lot of problems for students at school. Only some students see its connection with real world. Emotions connected with mathematics are mostly neutral – mathematics is something everybody should acquire, at least the basis, but do not know where to use this knowledge later.

The analysis of the drawings revealed that in selected sample students see a mathematician as:
1. Lonely middle-aged man with glasses who is wearing suit and working with numbers
2. Happy middle-aged woman working at school as mathematics teacher
3. Student who is forced to do some mathematics at school. She/he looks thoughtful or angry.

Niss (2004) has worked out the competence model of a mathematician. Eight competencies are seen to be the constituents in mathematical competence: the competency of mathematical thinking, problem handling, modelling, reasoning, representation, symbols and formalism, communication and tools and aids. These images of mathematicians they have little in common with eight competencies of a mathematician mentioned by Niss (2004).

If we compare these images of mathematics and mathematicians with results of researches previously done, there are many similarities, for example, mathematics is mostly linked to numbers and calculations, mathematicians are mostly lonely men with glasses.

Teachers appear to be largely unaware of pupils' lack of knowledge about mathematicians and mathematics. Teachers themselves need to learn with greater clarity what it is that mathematicians do and share their knowledge with students. The teachers have a great role in shaping and changing pupils' views about mathematics.

After analysis of students' drawings one can conclude that studying mathematics and becoming a mathematician does not seem attractive for young people in Latvia. 9th grade is an important period in every student's life in Latvia because after finishing this grade a student has basic education and she/he has to decide in which direction to continue the studies.

Teachers need to discuss with their pupils what mathematics is and what a mathematician is doing and what competencies they should have.

One of the aims of this study also was to test drawing pictures as method to investigate students' view of mathematics and mathematicians. Traditionally these kinds of questions are investigated with the help of questionnaires, interviews, Likert – type scales. With the help of pictures we can get a lot of information about students' views of any topic as well as mathematics and mathematicians but in order to increase reliability of the research results it is advised to use other methods such as questionnaires and interviews and compare the results.

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Picture 1
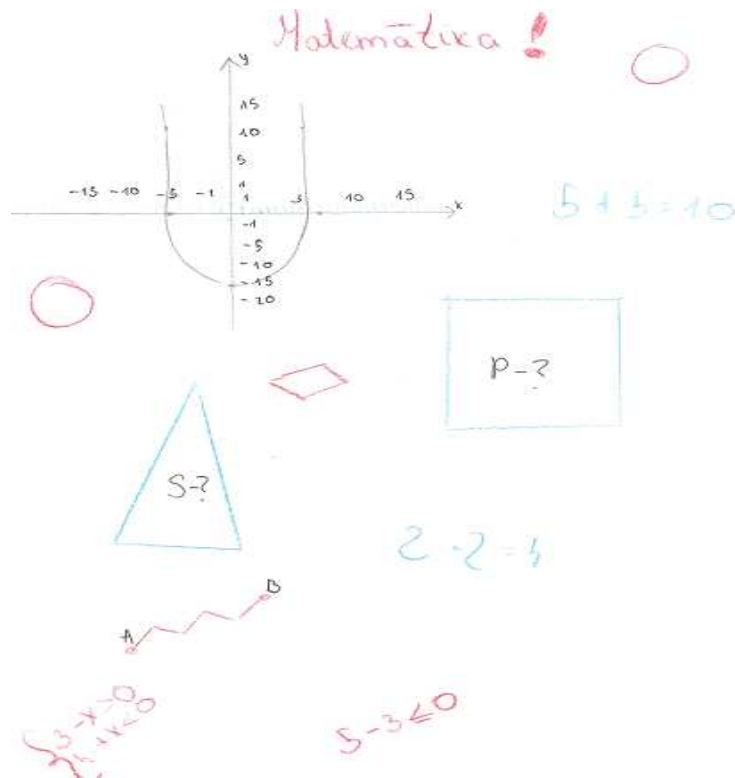
Picture 2
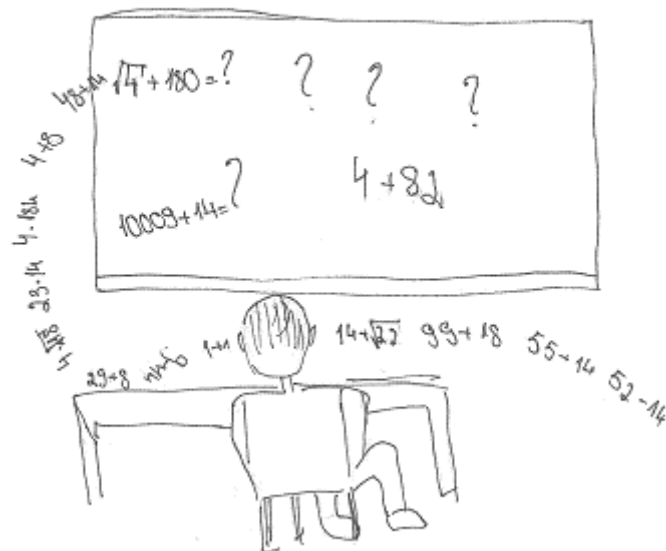
Picture 3

Picture 4

Applying Emotional Literacy to teachers for effective classroom leadership.
A symposium

Dr. Richard Majors
David Read

The UK educational system is obsessed with punishment to raise academic performance and manage classroom behaviours. For example, the National Audit Office reported (2005) that the UK Govt spent over 900 million pounds, over 8 years on social inclusion programs – with "little impact". Many scholars believe it was because of the overemphasis on punitive programs.

The overemphasis on punishment is highlighted in the exclusion figure, that is, the UK education system permanently excludes more students than any other country in the European Union – amounting to 8,130 in 2007-8. Such exclusion rate affects the overall lifelong learning opportunities and jobs prospects of young people. In the UK, 1 in 8, 16-19 year olds are not in any form of education, employment or training (NEET's) at any one time.

No wonder, research shows that young people often feel teachers/tutors:

- Do not like them (71% of press articles are negative towards young people BBC report, 2004)
- Do not understand them
- Are out of touch with their needs
- Are not friendly or "approachable"

New studies support young people's views published by UNICEF (2007) entitled "British Children Poorer, at Risk and More Insecure". This study reports that: The UK is at the bottom of the league tables (out of 21 countries) regarding the relationship young people have with adults and families.

Hence, if we are to engage, motivate, communicate more effectively, raise academic performance and manage classrooms more effectively among our young people, we need to create a paradigm shift that moves teachers from punishing and excluding young people to building relationships.

Emotional literacy is a framework or perspective that has the potential to improve classroom performance, manage classrooms more effectively, engage, motivate, communicate and move from punishment and exclusions to building better relationships with young people.

What is Emotional Literacy?

Emotional literacy (EL) or if you prefer emotional intelligence, is a perspective that helps us to recognise, understand, interpret and manage our own behaviour as well as behaviour of others. EL is about using emotions effectively. It enables individuals to adapt techniques and skills to manage difficult situations.

Emotional Literacy then helps teachers to develop the interpersonal and intrapersonal skills and competencies needed to engage and motivate young people.

Over the past 20 years, Emotional Literacy has gained attention and prominence particularly towards business and leadership development. In recent years, Emotional Literacy has been applied to students, however, the focus and training on teachers.

Decision-making during Italian school meetings.
Management, roles, discussions

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Abstract

In Italian schools, principals and teachers have to attend various kinds of meetings. In particular, they have to manage big and small meetings: in the former, there are many participants (teaching staff is formed by 60 to 90 teachers) and, in addition, parents and other persons (e.g. municipal officers, person in charge for student transports, etc) can participate; in the latter, a small group of teachers designs the lessons, evaluates the achievements of the students, etc. On the basis of the international studies about decision-making processes, we have set up a research to observe and understand the interactive dynamics of the participants. Especially, we asked ourselves the following basic questions: How to manage the two kinds of meetings? Which are the main types of discussions and decision-making methods and styles? The participation of teachers is high or low? Meetings are well organized and managed or not? Decisions taken during big and small meetings are connected or not? Decisions taken during the meetings are useful for the learning activities in the classroom? Therefore, we have chosen a sample formed by seven big meetings and ten small meetings in different primary and lower secondary schools. We have carried out some observations and collected many kinds of data through a check-list structured in the following seven sectors: decision style and method; discussion style and main topics; participation level; relationship between big and small meetings; organization and management; communication typology; meeting climate. The results of this research are divided into the previous sectors and they underline the difficulty in the management of the school meetings and other different features. The discussion about the data shows the prevalence of some discussion and decision styles and the distance between the big meeting decisions and the classroom activities. In conclusion, we can suggest some educational paths for principals and teachers in the meeting management and we can indicate techniques to assign roles to participants, manage discussions and share leadership processes to improve the effectiveness of the meetings.

Keywords: Decision-making, School effectiveness, Principals' and teachers' roles

1. Introduction

The basic school in Italy is called 'Istituto comprensivo'. It is composed of three levels: infant or maternal school (children aged between 3 and 5 years); primary school (6 to 10), lower secondary or middle school (11 to 14). On average, a basic school institution in Italy is attended by 600 to 800 students and 60 to 80 teachers can work there. Sometimes, we can find schools with 1000 students and 100 to 120 teachers. For these reasons, Italian schools can be defined as complex social organizations where many actors play different roles (principals, teachers, students, parents, administrative staff, etc.) and a lot of discussion develops daily. Such complexity must be managed and orientated towards educational and instructional aims, therefore teachers and principals have to attend various kinds of meetings. In Italian schools, there are two main types of meetings which can be categorized as big and small meetings. Teaching staff and school board fall into the former category because they are attended by a large number of participants of various typologies. In fact, on the one hand, teaching staff is formed by the principal and all teachers who work in that school, on the other hand, the principal and the representatives of teachers, parents, administrative staff and municipality take part in the school board. In the small meetings are included: the classroom council (all teachers who work in a classroom take part), the inter-classroom council (all teachers who work in two or more classrooms take part), the commission or panel (a group of teachers who discuss and decide about a specific topic: integration of foreign students; use of technology and web; integration of pupils with special needs, etc.) and, finally, the design group where a small group of teachers plans the instructional activities and evaluates the achievements of students. The common feature of the small meetings is the low number of participants formed by the same typology: the teachers.

The management of the different kinds of meetings is a complex process; principals and teachers have to play leadership roles and share tasks and jobs. The main issue of the research is as follows:

how to manage decision-making processes during school meetings to improve the effectiveness of the school?

2. Theoretical framework

In order to study the decision path during meetings, we have to underline the characteristics of the circulation of information in the groups.

From a theoretical point of view, an effective group decision-making process develops in the following phases: identify the problem; generate various ideas and solutions and evaluate them; collect and share relevant information; choose the option that is most suitable to the problem and that can satisfy expectations (Gilardi and Guglielmetti 2007). But, this normative model cannot actually be carried out because the social interaction between the members changes the paths of the information, which is adapted to the relationship between the participants and their own cognitive capabilities.

In particular, the decision-making process in group is usually simplified by the members who abbreviate the path and cut out some points of the discussion. Such simplification causes other biases. The first group bias is named 'social influence' because the individual opinion, behaviour, attitude and modality of information retrieval change, depends on the social interaction which occurs within the group. The second bias is called 'social projection' because each member decides on the basis of hypotheses about the intents of other members. Finally, the third bias is the 'false consensus', or rather, the tendency of the individuals to consider implicitly that their own opinions are approved by other members (see Gilardi and Guglielmetti 2007, 94-95).

The useful information for the decision-making process may or may not emerge, depending on both group structure and composition. For example, if a teacher thinks that his/her decision is shared with the group (false consensus), he will tend not to be explicit in his/her information to the group. So, it is important to distinguish the various kinds of information, which occur during the meetings to identify them and, if necessary, lead them to the right direction.

The first typology of information is named 'common' because it is known by all members before the beginning of the discussion; the second typology is called 'unique' because it is known by only one member before the discussion; the last typology is named 'partially shared' since it is known by some members before the discussion (Dennis 1996, 533).

It is clear that the useful information to deal with the decision-making process is not shared homogeneously between the members. One of the first tasks of the meeting leader (principal or teacher appointed by the principal) is to promote an interaction structure that facilitates the relevant information sharing between the participants and the search for further information. Otherwise, the decision-making will only be based on 'common' information, which is usually less, compared to the 'unshared' information. As a matter of fact, groups tend to discuss the information already known by all members and they do not examine the information known by a single member. The unshared information is debated only at the end of the meeting. This information will have a minimal impact on the decision-making process (Zappalà and Fraccaroli 2008, 211).

On the basis of the use of this information (Dennis 1996; Propp 1997) the decision-making process might be functional or dysfunctional for the purpose of the meeting. Therefore, it is necessary to ask what factors (and relating biases) are useful for a good decision-making process in group.

2.1 The communicative factors

The first factor is related to the sharedness bias: «groups communicate predominantly about information, which all or most group members share before entering the discussion, and neglect unshared information, which only one or few members have initially» (Klocke 2007, 440). The confirmation bias (like in individual situations) is the second factor, the tendency of the members to look for only the useful information to confirm the decision already taken by the group. But, «even when all information necessary to identify the correct solution is exchanged during discussion, individual group members often stick to their initially preferred solution. People bias their information processing to favour an initially preferred alternative» (Klocke 2007, 441). This is the third factor, the preference bias.

2.2 The non-communicative factors

The non-communicative factors are as follows: group composition, role value and task structure. The first is related to the group formation. Usually, homogeneous groups tend to select the information linked to the initial preference (Gilardi and Guglielmetti 2007, 100) so, it is important to create opportunity for discussion to solicit other information and to dissent and query the first decision. The second factor underlines the role value for the selection and the distribution of information. Some studies (Wittembaum 1998) show that members, who are seen as competent for the task, have a high-

level status and, consequently, they influence the decision-making process more. The third factor is included in the relationship between the information elaboration and the task representation (Hirokawa 1990; Van Ginkel and Van Knippenberg 2008). In fact, the structure of the task is connected with the interaction styles and the selection and sharing of information in the group. Decision-making processes can be improved, if the members have a common representation of the task (Gilardi and Guglielmetti, 2007, 108).

Studies show that, usually, in the groups there is an individual tendency to conceal the information concerning the task (Devine 1999, 609). In this case, the group does not develop a common representation of the task and the members consider and use the information differently, according to the specific individual task representations. Therefore, inside the same meeting, many other meetings develop with various aims. So, individual and sub-groups decision-making processes crash, because the starting line (what I think it is important to do in the meeting) is different. Hence, it is necessary to enable members to share expectations about the meeting to remove social and psychological barriers and, in this way, participants may develop new ideas and attend the meeting in a new way (Van Ginkel and Van Knippenberg 2008, 83).

3. Research methods

3.1 Research questions
To pursue the main issue indicated at the end of the first paragraph, we set up a research to observe and understand the interactive dynamics of the participants during the meetings in Italian schools. To investigate the main issue, we transformed it into some basic questions which become the benchmarks of our study. How to manage the two kinds of meetings? Which are the main types of discussions and decision-making methods and styles? The participation of teachers is high or low? Meetings are well organized and managed or not? Decisions taken during big and small meetings are connected or not?

3.2 Research design
The research involved eight Italian basic schools. On the basis of international scientific literature, we supposed the presence of three types of decisions: organizational, instructional and linking decisions. The first should be connected with the functioning of the school as an institution, the second should be taken by the teacher when he/she is working in the classroom with the students and the last should link the discussions carried out during the different meetings and the actions of the teachers in the classroom. The linking decisions should indicate the presence of strong or weak ties among the school staff. Ultimately, the hypotheses are as follows: organizational decisions should be managed mainly by the principal and discussed during big meetings; instructional decisions should be debated during small meetings and taken by the teachers. In addition, we would like to find out, in which meeting the linking decisions will emerge.

3.3 Sample and procedure
We observed 8 big meetings (5 teaching staff and 3 school boards) and 10 small meetings (3 classroom councils, 3 commissions, 2 inter-classroom councils and 2 design groups). We used a main instrument for the survey: a check-list of indicators to observe and surface the behaviour of participants during the meetings. The detailed check-list is shown in table 1.

Table 1. The check-list for the observation.

Area	sub-Area
A. decision procedure	A.1 Decision style - 5 levels: from 'unshared information' to 'shared information'
	A.2 Decision method - Majority-Autocratic-Tradition-Negotiation
B. discussion style and types	B.1 Discussion style - 5 levels: from 'absence of discussion' to 'deep discussion'
	B.2 Decision types: Organizational decisions-Linking decisions-Instructional decisions
C. participation level	C.1 Number of participants
	C.2 % of participants who had the floor at least once
	C.3 % of participants who had the floor twice or more
D. relationship between big and small meetings	D.1 Topics and decisions which have been discussed in previous big/small meetings

		D.2 Topics and decisions which will be discussed in following big/small meetings			
E. organization and management		E.1 Materials - 5 levels: from 'very poor' to 'very good'			
		E.2 discussion management - 5 levels: from 'very poor' to 'very good'			
		E.3 time management - 5 levels: from 'very poor' to 'very good'			
F. communication typology		F.1 Information from principal			
		F.2 Information from participants			
		F.3 discussion			
		F.4 negotiation			
		F.5 creativity			
G. meeting climate		G.1 5 levels: from negative/conflict to positive/collaborative			

4. Results

4.1 Data analysis

The following tables show the data of each area. In addition, the tables are divided into two columns. On the left, we illustrate the data referred to the big meetings, on the right, we show the data referred to the small meetings. Data have been processed with SPSS.

The first table (2a) is related with the decision procedure. During big meetings (BM), the participants sometimes discuss without sharing information (34,4% - add the two data referred for level 1 and 2) and, sometimes, they are able to exchange relevant and unshared information (41,3% - add the two data referred for level 4 and 5). Such ability depends on the leadership style, the structure and the aims of the meeting. Likewise, during small meetings (SM), the participants use all kinds of decision styles, from unshared (34.2%) to shared (44.8%) information. We can observe a small improvement towards the sharing information depending probably on the small number of participants but, also, on the topics discussed during the meeting. We can underline this effect also in the choice of decision method. Teachers use mainly the majority method in both types of meetings, but we can observe a marked increase of negotiation during SM (31.3%). It indicates that SM can become the basic point for the improvement of decision-making processes.

Table 2a. Data Area A.

		Big meetings (BM)					Small meetings (SM)				
A	A.1	1=24.1	2=10.3	3=24.1	4=17.2	5=24.1	1=10.5	2=23.7	3=21.1	4=31.6	5=13.2
	A.2	M=69		A=20.7	T=0		N=10.3	M=62,5	A=0	T=6.3	N=31.3

Teachers are able to discuss thoroughly during SM (16.2%). It is more difficult to start a profound debate during BM (6.9%) but the leadership style can raise the level of the discussion. In fact, we can pinpoint our attention on level 3 and 4 of both meetings. The data are comparable. The difference is located in the decision types. Participants are more concentrated on the organizational decisions during BM (51.7%), on the contrary, the instructional decisions are the main focus during SM (50.1%). We must also underline the presence of linking decisions in both meetings with similar data.

Table 2b. Data Area B.

		Big meetings (BM)					*Small meetings (SM)*				
B	B.1	1=20.7	2=10.3	3=24.1	4=37.9	5=6.9	1=18.9	2=13.5	3=27	4=24.3	5=16.2
	B.2	O=51.7		L=27.6		I=20.7	O=23.5		L=26.4		I=50.1	

Obviously, the number of participants is bigger for the BM compared to that of the SM. But the most interesting data are as follows: in the BM, only 44.1% of participants had the floor and 35.4% talked at least twice. Instead, in the SM, 90.8% of participants talked once and 64.8% had the floor for at least twice or more times. These data indicate the high-level of involvement in the SM and the low-level in the BM.

Table 2c. Data Area C.

		Big meetings (BM)	Small meetings (SM)
C	C.1	Min=13; Max=103 M=32.6 SD=32.9	Min=4; Max=16 M=10.7 SD=4.4
	C.2	M=44.1 SD=28.9	M=90.8 SD=14.1
	C.3	M=35.4 SD=27.1	M=64.8 SD=28.2

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The linking decisions are analysed better in table 2d in connection with table 2b. During BM, participants discuss many topics (22.7%) debated in advance in previous SM and postpone other topics (13.3%) until a later SM, probably to discuss them thoroughly. These data are remarked in the right column where we can highlight that, during SM, few decisions (5.3% of the total amount) are linked with other decisions debated previously in BM. Instead, a comparable data recurs for the decisions discussed in following BM (24.6%).

Table 2d. Data Area D.

		Big meetings (BM)	Small meetings (SM)
D	D.1	previous small=22.7	previous big=5.3
	D.2	following small=13.3	following big=24.6

The organization of the materials useful for the meeting is better for the BM (50% - add the two data referred for level 1 and 2) compared to that of the SM (33.3%). The discussion management is good for the BM (37.5%) and good/very good (44.4%) for the SM. Finally, the time management is handle better in the BM (0% for the levels 1 and 2) than in the SM (44.4% for the levels 2 and 3).

Table 2e. Data Area E.

		Big meetings (BM)					Small meetings (SM)				
E	E.1	1=25	2=12.5	3=12.5	4=37.5	5=12.5	1=33.3	2=11.1	3=22.2	4=11.1	5=22.2
	E.2	1=0	2=12.	3=50	4=37.5	5=0	1=11.1	2=0	3=44.4	4=33.3	5=11.1
	E.3	1=0	2=0	3=37.5	4=37.5	5=25	1=0	2=22.2	3=22.2	4=55.6	5=0

The data of table 2f show significant differences for the communication typologies. In the BM a lot of information (36.2% of the total amount) originate from the principal, instead only 22.2% comes from the leader of SM. The discussion modality is used both during the BM (37.8%) and the SM (28%). We can register significant differences also in the negotiation modality (10.5% for the BM; 22.2% for the SM) and in the creative modality as brainstorming technique or similar (3.5% and 8.9%).

Table 2f. Data Area F.

		Big meetings (BM)	Small meetings (SM)
F	F.1	M=36.2 SD=22.4	M=22.2 SD=25.6
	F.2	M=19 SD=15.1	M=9.5 SD=15.2
	F.3	M=37.8 SD=28.2	M=28 SD=22
	F.4	M=10.5 SD=14.1	M=22.2 SD=18.6
	F.5	M=3.5 SD=5.2	M=8.9 SD=11.6

Finally, the data related to the social climate indicate that the collaboration can develop mainly during SM and less during BM where, sometimes, the discussion among participants can degenerate into confusion.

Table 2g. Data Area G.

		Big meetings (BM)				Small meetings (SM)				
G	G.1	1=0	2=12.5	3=0	4=37.5	5=50	1=0	2=0	3=0	4=33.3	5=66.7

5. Discussion

5.1 Comments and remarks

The data from this study indicate a number of points. The meetings can be functional for their aims if they are well managed. A good management depends on some basic parameters, in the first place, the number of participants. If a meeting is attended by too many people (over 20-25 members), all the participants are not able to take part actively because the interactive structure and the meeting time do not allow everyone to take the floor. But, we observed different degrees of participation in the big meetings: very low in the school board (where the participants are on average 20-25) and high in the teaching staff (where the participants are on average 75). How can we explain such a phenomenon? Participation depends not only on the number but also the topics and the leadership style. If the principal (or the leader) uses an autocratic style (table 2a), the discussion tends to decrease. In addition, if the agenda is related to topics far from the interest of the participants and the main

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communication typology is focused on the information from the principal (table 2f), the participation tends to be weak. On the contrary, the big meetings managed with a style based on negotiation, involve the participants thoroughly. Consequently, we can state that the improvement of negotiation abilities is one of the main objectives for the meeting management because it tends to favour the sharing of relevant information. Furthermore, table 2b indicates that organizational decisions are the main decisions taken during BM. Such type of decisions is seen as remote by the teachers because they are more concentrated on the issues related to the classroom actions.

Table 2d suggests that around 23% of the total decisions can be part of linking decisions but in one direction only: from small to big meeting. Probably, teachers begin to discuss during the small meetings but they have to postpone the official decision in the big meetings which are the official organ of the school. In the opposite direction (from big to small meetings), we observed that 13% of the total decisions taken during big meetings, are postponed for a following discussion in the small meetings. But only, 5% is actually discussed. Such a phenomenon indicates that there are some attempts to link the decisions taken in the various meetings but the ties between the different staffs of the school (teaching, administrative and principal staff) are still weak (March 1994).

In table 2e, the organization of the materials useful for the meeting and the time management are better for the big meetings compared to the small meetings. Why? Common sense would suggest the contrary. It is likely that principals or meeting leaders organize materials and handle time for the big meetings better, because they are afraid of losing control of the great number of participants. Consequently, they lead the big meetings and tend to maintain the control during the whole meeting. Instead, the small number of participants of the small meetings can mislead the leader. He can consider the small meeting as an easy meeting to manage (but it is not always so), therefore he tends not to organize the materials and the times well. Sometimes, also in the small meetings, the leader can lose control and the discussion can become confused.

In fact, the last remark is referred to table 2g. Usually, the social climate is good mainly in the small meetings but also in the big meetings. However, the observers underlined that the climate can change quickly during a meeting, therefore the leader has to manage the discussion carefully, alternating the speech turn in a balanced way and arranging that the unshared information can emerge.

Suggestions to support participation and decision-making

In this paragraph, on the basis of the data analysis and previous remarks, we would like to indicate some suggestions to support the meeting participation and the facilitation of decision-making processes during the meetings. The main issue is as follows: which are the basic devices that we must change to improve the meeting management?

The excessive numerousness of the big meetings represents the main question because it can invalidate the effectiveness of the meeting. For this reason, we indicate some norms which principals and leaders should carry out to manage a big meeting.

First, the leader has to share some relevant information about the agenda before the meeting. There are two possible ways or solutions:

- the leader can structure some small meetings focused on the main themes that will be discussed during the big meeting afterwards; in such a way, members of small groups can look for additional information and share them during the big meeting;
- the leader uploads some indications about the agenda on the school website to indicate clearly the aims of the meeting; so, the participants should share the task representations and avoid that the expectations of the meeting are too different.

The decision-making processes cannot develop during a big meeting but they usually depend on other processes carried out during formal or informal small meetings where principals, teachers, parents or others have been able to debate. From a management point of view, it is convenient to coordinate the series of intermediate steps which lead to the big meeting and disclose the decision-making process progressively. In such a way, the school actors can be aware of the information and the discussions related to the agenda. In addition, these devices can foster the participation level because they tend to limit the communication originating from the principal that represents 36.2% of the total amount (see table 2f).

Now, we can specify some devices that the leader can carry out proceeding from the points previoulsy examined: communicative and structural factors.

5.2 The communicative factors

The leader should structure the meeting discussion, basing his supervision on three main activities:

- information recall, when the leader supports the retrieval of information useful for the debate;
- information exchange, during which the participants emerge and share the unshared information;

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- information processing, when members analyse information to select the ones most suitable for the aims of the meeting (Dennis 1996, 534).

5.3 The structural (or non-communicative) factors

From a structural point of view, the leader should pay attention to the following points:
- the excessive homogeneity of a small group does not support the retrieval of additional information because the members tend to look for only the information that confirms the decisions taken previously (confirmation bias) and they do not look for additional information;
- besides, the small group homogeneity connected to a leadership too autocratic tends to generate the groupthink (Janis 1972; Janis and Mann 1977) where the members confirm the decisions taken by the leader without a critical discussion;
- similarly, statuses and roles that are too rigid and not interchangeable do not allow the surfacing of alternative points of view and, consequently, it is more difficult to make emerge additional and relevant information;
- finally, the leader has to foster the sharing and the exchange of the expectations about the task; the leader can carry out the following steps: he should propose a task structure and take care to make emerge potential dyscrasia among the participants, then he should clarify the aims and the possible paths to reach them, finally he should underline the steps and the obstacles to overcome (Hirokawa 1990, 192-193).

6. Conclusion: the small meetings as link

During a meeting (big or small), the information circulates and spreads spontaneously and in a disarranged way. The suggestions indicated previously aim at reducing the casualness of the decision-making processes and at stimulating the sharing of relevant information to deal with the agenda. In this way, it is easier to avoid the sharedness bias (Klocke 2007) and, further, the leader can manage the meeting better allowing satisfactory interactions between the participants.
The main conclusion of this research is that the official decisions taken in the big meetings are composed of a lot of micro-decisions taken during formal and informal small meetings. The small meetings become the organizational and structural link to connect and summarize the various decision-making processes (see figure 1). In fact, during the small meetings, participants have the opportunity to highlight the basic role of the conflict for the effectiveness of the meeting (Devine 1999, 612) just because the leader can manage the emerging dissent and look for relevant and unshared information.

Figure 1. Small meetings as organizational and educational link.

Small meetings allow the idea generation and improvement (Bereiter and Scardamalia 2003) whereas these processes are not feasible during big meetings. In addition, teachers feel the small meetings are more useful for the school because they can discuss relevant topics for the instructional actions in the classroom. For this reason, they are more actively involved in the small meetings.
Such participation level should be shared with the big meetings. The management must, therefore, continuously connect the discussions carried out in the small meetings with the official processes that the principal must face in a context where the numerousness does not allow enough and satisfactory involvement among the participants.

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The project "Pedagogical Education in Multicultural Dimension" as a component of the system of innovational development in the Institute of pedagogical education

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Abstract

The project defines the priority tasks of the higher school of teacher training in Ukraine and highlights the major directions of the teacher training system development.

The increasing rate of integrating processes in the Ukrainian society defines the directions of national teacher training modernization which aims at providing the competitiveness, mobility, and improving the quality of teacher training. The Institute of pedagogical education as learning and scientific environment is the part of one of the oldest pedagogical universities in Ukraine – Mykolaiv Sukhomlynskyi national university – it has the long-term traditions of preparing the specialists of high qualification. The faculty staff direct their efforts to implement the ideas of the contemporary educational philosophy, the key elements of which are: integration in Europe, forming the common values, personality forming, reaching the sustainable state of development of the higher schools of teacher training.

The learning environment of the Institute is structured in such a way that it fulfills a range of important social functions. Firstly, it is assistance in forming the national system of education. The Institute trains teachers who become the agents of Ukrainian national culture and medium of universal values. Secondly, there is a cultural and educative function – the Institute is the significant centre of distribution of the pedagogical culture in the city and country. Thirdly, the economic function - preserving the state's role in the educational sphere, the Institute develops the market mechanisms.

Sufficient work is being done by the staff of the Institute in the direction of expansion of the international relations as well as presenting the Institute's achievements on the international level. There has been created the International Communications Centre, the aim of which is to cooperate with the leading universities, charity funds and social organizations of Ukraine. The tasks of the Centre are the support of the learning and teaching quality, search for opportunities for qualitative and efficient learning, international cooperation, distribution of the information about the Institute and the like. In the network of the Centre exists the students' club "Euro-focus". It promotes the culture, policies, education of European Council and Europe among the students.

International documents concerning higher teacher education of the latest years aim at solving the problems of the institute's development. It proceeds from a position of systematic planning, founding of long-term target programs and projects. For instance the following projects are being implemented in the Institute: Science, Harmony, Ukraine Studies.

The Institute develops partner relationships with relative institutions and organizations in the following directions: taking part in the activity of international organizations, scientific, educative and cultural cooperation with the higher educational establishments of the world, academic exchanges. The goal of such cooperation is the support of the high quality of learning, scientific work and contributing to the mobility of the scientists.

The Centre of Techniques in Secondary and Higher Education develops the concept of teacher training and their ability to implement teaching techniques in their professional activity in the modern school.

The great attention is paid to the guidance of the scientific work of the students, as, due to it, the search and selection of gifted young professionals becomes possible as well as the further development of their creative potential.

Making a conclusion, let us suppose that the need in modernization and quality raising of the scientific research results, implementing the new techniques of the higher school, international cooperation, improving the financial and technical support of the learning process – namely for the deciding of these as well as other urgent issues the strategy of leading and managing the work of the Institute has been founded and is continuing to be refined and perfected.

Introduction

The increasing rate of integrating processes in the Ukrainian society defines the directions of national teacher training modernization which aims at providing the competitiveness, mobility, and improving

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the quality of teacher training. The aspiration to be integrated into the Bologna process means, in the first place, the further improvement of the quality of higher education by means of introduction of the new contemporary techniques of learning and teaching as well as leading in the learning process. These positions and values are becoming the guideline while providing the conditions for sustainable and innovative development of teacher education at all its stages.

The Institute of pedagogical education as a learning and scientific environment is the part of one of the oldest pedagogical universities in Ukraine – Mykolaiv Sukhomlynskyi national university – it has the long-term traditions of preparing the specialists of high qualification. To preserve and enrich these traditions is one of the major tasks facing the Ukrainian society in terms of the social and economical changes that take place at the present time.

The faculty staff of the institute direct their efforts to implement the ideas of the contemporary educational philosophy, the key elements of which are: integration in Europe, forming the common values, personality forming, reaching the sustainable state of development of the higher schools of teacher training as well as success and competitive ability of every student and teacher.

The basis for the learning and scientific work of the institute is done by the staff of four departments. The learning environment of the institute is structured in such a way that it fulfills a range of important social functions. Firstly, it is assistance in forming the national system of education. The Institute trains teachers who become the agents of Ukrainian national culture and medium of universal values.

Secondly, there is a cultural and educative function – the institute and its departments are the significant centre of distribution of the pedagogical culture in the city and country. As a part of it there is a number of local and regional educational events that attract attention of the pedagogical community to the achievements in the field of teacher training. These events are conferences, seminars, competitions, and contests in which young teachers, teacher students, PhD students from all over the country take part. One of the achievements is the annual contest of student scientific projects which aims at professional development of a student future teacher.

Thirdly, the economic function - preserving the state's role in the educational sphere, the Institute develops the market mechanisms.

Sufficient work is being done by the staff of the Institute in the direction of expansion of the international relations as well as presenting the Institute's achievements on the international level. The results of the work are being presented on the international scientific conferences as well as in the edition of the scientific journal *Pedagogical Science* which is published in the institute. Different aspects of innovational and scientific work of the institute are highlighted here.

There has been created the International Communications Centre, the aim of which is to cooperate with the leading universities, charity funds and social organizations of Ukraine. The tasks of the Centre are the support of the learning and teaching quality, search for opportunities for qualitative and efficient learning, international cooperation, distribution of the information about the Institute and the like. In the network of the Centre exists the students' club "Euro-focus". It promotes the culture, policies, education of European Council and Europe among the students.

International documents concerning higher teacher education of the latest years aim at solving the problems of the institute's development. It proceeds from a position of systematic planning, founding of long-term target programs and projects. For instance the following projects are being implemented in the Institute: Science, Harmony, Ukraine Studies. The latter was created, developed and implemented by the department of linguistics. It provides the decisions for certain tasks which are directed onto scientific work, learning, methods of teaching.

The Institute develops partner relationships with relative institutions and organizations in the following directions: taking part in the activity of international organizations, scientific, educative and cultural cooperation with the higher educational establishments of the world, academic exchanges. The goal of such cooperation is the support of the high quality of learning, scientific work and contributing to the mobility of the scientists.

One of the priorities in teacher training programs is the scientific work of the staff. The tasks of the scientific school of the institute are the following: supporting the pedagogical process, the need to provide the proactive development of teachers, efficient use of the results of scientific research for social and economical development of the region, implementing of the results of scientific work into the process of learning and the like.

The major direction developed in the institute is called The Individuality of a Teacher which bases on the idea that a teacher is an independent value of an education system. Teacher training in modern conditions changes the priorities qualitatively. First of all, it is necessary to form his humanistic outlook which basis is made by complete personal attitude to deep interrelation with the matter then with people surrounding it, and finally with the whole world.

For a long time in the centre of pedagogical education there was a teaching and educational process of school, its maintenance, forms and methods. It was recommended to "place" the child in its quite

rigid structure to carry out purposefully the process of his development. The strict compliance with certain norms was supposed to raise the productivity of all pedagogical system. The teacher was expected to be an executor of certain conditions to realize the process of mass education and pupils' development.

Teachers and psychologists' researches of a humanistic direction have allowed to get more deeply into the matter and features of child's individual development. Gradually the accent began to be transferred from various methods of educational process to the productivity of their influence on harmonious development of each separate person. In the centre of pedagogical process there has been a child, the pupil, his possibilities, requirement, character and level of his ability to live and understand another person, to influence on his or her own formation. Consequently these changes have caused new requirements to the teacher, change of his or her position in the learning process and role in developing system of school.

School is the place where the most part of active time of a child and a teacher passes. Considering independent value of each child's life it should be admitted that independent value of a teacher's life as a partner of cooperation. The teacher puts strategy and practice of someone's destiny. Present and future life of pupils depend on teacher's psycho-physiological health, knowledge of a person, knowledge of a subject, his present mood, relations to people and all world around. All educational system of school, a concrete subject is transformed by his or her personal and professional features and are presented in "author's performance" both to class and to each pupil separately. Today the teacher should realize deeply a role of the individual originality, degree of his influence on the growing person. Comprehension of high professional self-value invariably leads to a birth of a sense of responsibility not only for educational knowledge of pupils, but also for a personal contribution to their individual development. It is the higher sense of efficiency of a teacher's work.

As a rule, professional strategies of the teacher are a consequence of his vital strategies and on the contrary. To be professionally productive, the teacher as the person and as the expert should be kind, smart and clear. Only the teacher who has a positive "I-concept" and can feel and understand both him- or her-self and another person, recognize him- or her-self and set an example to the pupil, regularly be ready for self-perfection and the world around is capable to generate the positive relation of the child to self and to others.

Today, the law about education favours teacher's freedom and creativity in professional work. The teacher has acquired the right for author's modernisation of curriculums, the organisation of pupils' informative activity and their development by means of modern forms, methods and the technologies as a result of his or her unique personality and activity. The first approaches to creation of individual developing and training programs for the future teacher are made. However, in a real school life the right of the teacher to individual originality is still unclaimed and unrealised quite often. There are a lot of reasons for it but the main ones are the weak individualisation of educational training of the teacher and his psychological and pedagogical component. Real conditions have appeared with transition of a pedagogical education to credit transfer system of the organization of educational process.

An individualisation of teacher's preparation program is one of the priorities in the work of the institute of pedagogical education and one of its greatest achievements. The individualised approach to teacher training has allowed updating the preparation of subject teachers. However, it does not allow sufficiently forming the teacher as the subject of professional activity and individual professional development, does not open mechanisms of is professional and pedagogical regulation and self-regulation.

The peculiarity of the teacher's preparation from positions of theoretical model of his individuality is the fact that the accent is transferred from the external organization of activity of a teacher's preparation to its «internal picture». In the centre of such an approach there is a future teacher as the subject of preparation and individual professional development. Such preparation is carried out in a mode of developing training, from positions of formation of his personal and professional "I-concept".

Personal and professional features of the teacher represent the system of different forms and levels of subjective reflexion. The more deeply, objectively and adequately the student represents features of his individuality, the more means he can use for efficiency achievement in his future professional activity (the more professional possibilities he possesses). The student's comprehension of theoretical model of teacher's individuality and its main components allows him to create a suitable model during his professional training and to use it as a reference point and a regulator during his professional formation at various stages of his life activity.

Research interest in an individualisation of teacher's preparation arose in last decade of the twentieth century and was a direct consequence of changing a paradigm of education. The cardinal solving of a problem of an individualization of a pedagogical education in wide scales seems to us inconvenient as there are no objective corresponding economic and organizational conditions for this purpose. Though the university system is less rigid in comparison to school, nowadays it is still held down by the

curriculum which is the same for all students and teachers, by teaching of subjects of a psychological and pedagogical cycle according to single, obligatory and often obsolete curricula overloaded with minor maintenance. As a rule, forms, methods and technologies which do not create conditions for self-actualisation and creative self-expression of each student prevail at the lessons of pedagogics and techniques of educational work. Technologies of teaching the disciplines of a pedagogical cycle do not often take into consideration the preservation and the perfection of unique student's individuality. Therefore the students' possibilities are often left out of account, students' training practice is quite passive; graduate students refuse their chosen profession. What is very important is situational spontaneity of an inexperienced teacher's choice to co-ordinate individually with a pupil and surrounding pedagogical reality. Despite the modernization of a pedagogical education which is dictated by requirements of the Bologna process, there is a contradiction between mass nature of teacher's preparation and individual way of construction of his professional-unique system. Finally, the readiness for the conscious creation of professional "I-concept" (substantial, motivational and operational) should be generated at high school. The future teacher should be able to define ways of professional self-correction, strategy and tactics of professional self-realisation.

Individualisation of pedagogical preparation is difficult, multi-level and multi-dimensional phenomenon. In the modern literature there is no standard definition. The term is used in various, sometimes unclear meanings. The work of the institute is directed to modernise pedagogical education using the follows ways:

1) to acquaint the future teacher with the laws of process of individual professional development (during teaching the disciplines of a psychological and pedagogical cycle);

2) to acquaint all with the maintenance of theoretical model of individuality of the teacher acting as a regulator of his professional development;

3) to carry out studying the theoretical model of the teacher's individuality for the purpose of realising its main components and their interaction;

4) to create the conditions for the future teacher to accept the model as the whole construction which defines the system of means of his professional self-development;

5) to create conditions for the student of teacher training institute to define at first with the teacher and then in more and more independent activity the system of means of consciousness, self-studying, self-correction and self-making.

Harmonious filling of psychological and pedagogical preparation of the future teacher by knowledge, reflective skills, promotes substantially his or her individualization and improvement of quality as a whole.

It is necessary to remember that at the present stage of development of science about a person the individualization in the pedagogical education always has some relative character. The teacher in the educational process more often considers features of groups of the students possessing similar features rather than the features of a separately taken student. Besides, it is possible to consider only those features which are objectively measured (or their complex). The most significant features are those which are the most important for productivity of pedagogical activity (type of the higher nervous activity, system of professional relations, communicative, organizational, creative abilities etc.). There is a variety of student's features which are difficult for both the teacher and the student to consider without special preparation (the features of inter-hemispheric interactions, level of professional thinking etc.).

Thus, one of perspective directions of an individualization of teacher's preparation is a creation of the conditions and the techniques of their realisation which are most significant for their individual displays and for stability of personal-professional development. Such conditions should be taken into consideration by both the teacher and the student. It is possible to carry it out by means of theoretical model as a tool of self-determination within the course "Individuality of the teacher". Such a model as the system of signs and objects can theoretically reproduce the essential properties of the original. It helps the student to replace the original that makes process of self-determination more evident.

The course *Individuality of aTeacher* as subject matter designed and developed in the institute is preceded by studying a wide range of psychological and pedagogical disciplines, acquaintance with all basic concepts. It is integrative and has a practical orientation. The knowledge obtained at earlier stages of learning is used for comprehension of logic and conditions of complete process of individual development of the teacher, features of personal and professional self-determination.

The concept and techniques of constructing the course allow the student to learn modern, very ambiguous approaches to understanding such phenomenon as «individuality of the teacher», to look at it from positions of domestic and foreign philosophy, psychology and pedagogics. Then the student is acquainted with the maintenance and structure of theoretical model of the individuality of a teacher in terms of which the model of its development, comprehensible to the given moment is possible. Such

an approach allows the student to see more accurately internal and external conditions for personal and professional development in the conditions of higher school, to learn to create them.

The structure of the individuality of a teacher is considered in the limits of concepts of "person" - "individual" - "personality" - "subject". It is presented as a system, integrating quality as a result of the functioning of the system. Elements of this system (by means of specific functions) reflect certain parts of teacher's individuality, which quality affects the system status and has the characteristics of a certain systematic integrity. Having allocated individual, personal and subjective properties of the teacher, it is possible to analyse the whole picture of his or her professional individuality. The allocation of sense-forming components and connections between them has a special value here.

«Individuality of the teacher» is accompanied by individual work with the students, part of which is self-analysis of his or her personal and professional features and gaining results.

While studying the course a future teacher has the possibility to make a quite detailed and individual file of a field and the level of professional development. Both diagnostics and self-research can be reflected in it. It permits the writing the of self-correction programmesfor professional growth from a scientifically, well-founded position.

Pedagogics of individual formation of a teacher, as well as its psychological basis, is new and insufficiently developed subject in domestic pedagogics which has no manuals. Therefore, the book Individuality of a Teacher has been created and published in the institute. It focuses on various scientific areas and their directions (including psychological and pedagogical). The given book can be used not only for independent but also for collaborative research work. Writing course works and degree research in the given direction will allow the student to get more deeply into the matter of such an interesting field of knowledge as individual professional formation of a person as a whole and the teacher in particular.

The basic substantial strategies of construction of a course «Individuality of the teacher» are an integrated approach, complexity, an applied orientation, modelling, psychological and pedagogical diagnostics, self-diagnostics, correction and self-correction. Individual development of a person is carried out on the basis of understanding of uniqueness of each human person, his originality, basic incompleteness of development during all his life. Humanists suppose that the person can and should rise over his biological nature, over his past and over the norms which are set by the environment.

It is an optimistic view on human nature. The person develops by realising or actualising his potential. Studying and describing "the healthy person" humanists filled this concept with the positive maintenance.

The Centre of Techniques in Secondary and Higher Education develops the concept of teacher training and their ability to implement teaching techniques in their professional activity in the modern school.

Great attention is paid to the guidance of the scientific work of the students, as, due to it, the search and selection of gifted young professionals becomes possible as well as the further development of their creative potential. There has also been presented the individual programme of professional self-improvement for students at the certain stage of development.The individual programme of self-improvement may include:

- The professional principles and commandments formed on the basis of accepted professional aims and tasks (they are the expression of the of professional activity);
- Recommendations on correction of relations with others;
- Psychological exercises for individual and professional development.

In conclusion, let us suppose that the need in modernisation and quality raising of the scientific research results, implementing the new techniques of the higher school, international cooperation, improving the financial and technical support of the learning process – namely for the deciding of these as well as other urgent issues the strategy of leading and managing the work of the Institute has been founded and is continuing to be refined and perfected.

Psychological and pedagogical preparation of a teacher should make as a whole considerable impact on individual development of the future teacher. The major condition of it is not only thorough knowledge of the subject which the future teacher will read at school but also his professional possibilities. It is much easier to organize psychological and pedagogical support of process of formation of the I-concept of the future teacher on pre-higher school and higher school stages than to try to change at later stages the basic installations and style of interaction with the pedagogical environment as a whole. For this reason it is necessary to consider the following circumstances. First, the programme on psychology and pedagogics should not be limited to the academic knowledge and recommendations of work with children. It is necessary for the future teacher to understand the laws of self-development. Otherwise the teacher cannot assist the child in this most complicated process.

Secondly, the future teacher should know the ways and means of self-improvement to be able to use them quite reasonably. The future teacher should be able to formulate the purposes of a professional

life and the problems of a certain stage, to be aware of possibility of various means of self-knowledge and self-construction. The students should know the problems which they can face and be ready to solve them. Practice shows that character and orientation of personal-professional development of the future teacher is not less important than its academic knowledge. Problems of self-knowledge, self-understanding and self-actualization should be solved while studying a great deal of disciplines at pedagogical institutes. It is possible to learn to understand and help other person only if you can objectively understand and help yourself. Readiness for acceptance of him- or her-self and others generates the feeling of competence of the future teacher. Thus, a generated I-concept allows the future teacher to adjust faster to the professional environment.

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Managing Competition in Higher Education to Increase Efficiency

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Abstract

At the time when European countries are forced to restrict their expenditure in order to improve financial performance, the issue of the efficient use of expenditure is becoming more and more important. In any developed country, the education is a sector with a large proportion of public expenditure; therefore it is particularly subject to expenditure reduction. Since education funding is a socially sensitive issue, in order to reduce the effects of budget cuts, special attention should be paid to education management activities which contribute to its efficiency, thus enabling the limited resources to achieve the greatest possible benefit. In higher education an essential role in increasing the efficiency is held by the competition among higher education institutions.

The structures of higher education market differ in different countries. Institutions of higher education rival among themselves to attract more finance, students and research orders. According to neoclassical economic theory the competition among producers promotes a larger variety of goods and services, enhancement of quality and price reductions. Therefore, a higher level of competition requires a more efficient functioning of the producers and ensures more rapid development of the industry. However, the higher education is not conventionally considered as a market and, therefore, the abovementioned causation is not acknowledged in this particular sector.

In the paper there has been proved that in the higher education sector exists the abovementioned classic market correlation – increasingly larger competition among higher education institutions contributes to an increase in the efficiency of higher education system.

The level of competition in higher education has been determined by adapting the classical market concepts and analytic tools and by calculating Concentration ratio and Herfindahl-Hirschman index using data on the number of students of 1 048 higher education institutions in 14 countries. The data show significant correlation between themselves, however, there are no relations with the indicators of efficiency. There have been identified the reasons why the classic competitiveness measurement tools are not applicable in the higher education sector.

There has been created an alternative competition measuring tool by adapting the Model of Five forces (Porter, 1979) and, on the basis of global practice, by creating indices for the measurement of competition and competitiveness. 126 experts' assessments from 18 countries have been used for the purpose. The competition index values obtained show a significant correlation with several sector's efficiency indicators - annual expenditure per student, lost public money per student and unemployment rate index for people with higher education. In addition, there has been found that the values of the calculated higher education competition index correlate with several country economic growth rates - GDP per inhabitant, GDP index and productivity index.

In the paper there have been identified the main conditions which are maintained in the higher education management by governments and which limit the competition among higher education institutions. There have been analyzed the advantages and disadvantages of maintaining these conditions and their impact on the efficiency of higher education system.
The paper provides recommendations for higher education management in order to increase the competition among higher education institutions and thus promote the efficiency of the system.

Keywords: higher education, efficiency,competition.

1. Introduction

Looking at the higher education sector at the national level as a social-economic system, it is possible to talk about its efficiency in economic aspect. The system of higher education ismore efficient than others (in relative terms) if it gives more benefit to society without using more resources or if it gives the same benefit for society using fewer resources. Today when countries are forced to restrict their expenditure in order to decrease budget deficit, it is more topical to talk about the increase of

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efficiency by decreasing the amount of resources needed to achieve the results. Yet, in this article there are reviewed also the output indicators of the higher education, which are relevant in the economic development of the country.

According to endogenous theories of economic growth, the principles which nowadays dominate in the management of economic systems, human capital is an essential factor ensuring economic growth (Romer, 1986), not the quantity of workforce but first of all its quality or professional competence. There are many factors that determine the quality of human capital, but one of the essential factors is education. This factor is especially highlighted practically in all endogenous economic growth theories. Reviewing education as an economic growth factor, the influence of higher education on the quality of human capital and consequently on the economic development is highlighted in particular and, in comparison to influence of primary and secondary education, is clearly greater (Baumanis, 2002). Consequently from the aspect of promotion of state's economic development, it is important to research the factors that promote the development of higher education and its efficiency.

An import role in the increase of the higher education system's efficiency has the competition among the establishments of the higher education. The institutions of higher education in each country, regardless of their financing - public or private, aspire to acquire a better position and higher evaluation, thereby rivalling among them to attract more not only finance, but also students, teaching staff and financed research. Some of the largest universities hold a well-established leader's position in their respective countries, while the structure of the market is more balanced in other countries. To verify which of these approaches is more prospective the intensity of competition in higher education sector has to be measured and relationships between competition level and indicators characterizing the efficiency of higher education system have to be examined.

The neoclassical theory mentions competition as an essential factor for development of an industry. The theory states that higher level of competition among producers promotes more variety of goods and services, more enhancement of quality and price reduction. Therefore higher level of competition demands more efficient functioning of the producers and ensures a more rapid development of the industry. However, the positive influence of competition on the market is not an unequivocal issue while speaking about the higher education sector. The higher education is not conventionally considered as a market and therefore the causation above is not acknowledged as true in this particular sector. The right to education is deemed to be one of the fundamental human rights and the provision of higher education is traditionally considered to be a state function. This could lead to the wrongful conclusion that education should therefore be accessible to everyone for free, that it is not a market environment and that classical economic causalities and methods are not applicable in its analysis.

Yes, the higher education is more or less state financed in all developed countries. However there are many countries where private funding of higher education considerably exceeds 50% of the total[5]. Private finance is always subject to market principles as the consumers choose the goods they are paying for. With regards to state finance, it also works on the basis of market principles as the resources for implementation of fundamental human rights are limited. Educational expenditures reduce the capability of the state to realize its other functions and provide other benefits. Therefore society – the state as well as individuals have to make the choice and choose how much resources to spend on education while sacrificing the possibility to spend resources on the achievement of other benefits (Johnes, 1993). Therefore the classical economic regularities are applicable to education and the assumption that education is a state function and should not be reviewed with economic instrument of business analysis is a wrong one.

It is irrelevant whether a higher education institution is a state or private one, a profit or non-profit organization; all the education institutions and education systems on the whole should aspire to increase their work efficiency under circumstances of limited resources. They compete among themselves in attracting students and finance while attempting to achieve higher quality assessment and higher academic and scientific results. Higher education institutions work in the market and its activity is subjected to economic principles. The conventionally used notions in economics that describe commercial activity "goods", "market", "producer", and "consumer" can also be applied with respect to higher education. Within an education market where there is sale and purchase of

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[5]*Education at a Glance* 2007, Table B3.2b. Relative proportions of public and private expenditure on educational institutions, as a percentage, for tertiary education (1995, 2004). *Education at a Glance* 2007, OECD indicators, 221.p. Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2007.

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education services, these classical notions can be applied, i.e. "goods" can be applied to education programmes, "producer" to education institutions, "supplier" to academic staff and "consumer" to students. Analogically in the education industry it is possible to talk about raw materials, suppliers, means of production, productive forces and other economic categories that are widely used in economic theories, however with regards to the higher education sector these terms may seem extraordinary.

Competition as well is reviewed in the competition regulating legislation of European Union and other developed countries as not just among commercial enterprises, but also in a wider sense – among market participants, who are performing an economic activity in the particular market and participating in the flow of goods. Consequently based on neoclassical economic theory it could be assumed that competition among higher education institutions would further the development of the higher education sector – extends the variety of education programmes offered, increases their quality, reduces prices and furthers the efficiency of higher education institutions and efficiency of higher education sector in general. It could be tested by comparing the competition level in different higher education markets and the relevant efficiency indicators in these markets.

2. Measuring the competition

In order to carry out measurement of competition intensity it is necessary to precisely define the measurement object, respectively, identify the market that allows us to determine the market participants who are active in the market and compete among themselves. Then, applying appropriate tools, there should be measured the competition intensity in these markets.

2.1. Delineation of market

Two characteristic indices can be determined by identifying the market – range of goods (services) that are in circulation in the market and the distribution area of the market or its geographical limits. Conventionally it is deemed in economics that market participants are in the one and the same market if the production and price determination policies of one participant influence the demand for goods of other market participants. Cross elasticity of demand method can be used to identify goods in the one and the same market (Luft a.o., 1990). With regard to the delineation of the higher education market, all levels of tertiary education programmes except doctoral study programmes (i.e. tertiary education, ISCED level 5) have been included (Rocens, 2008).

To define the area of distribution where the identified goods will circulate there can be applied various approaches - fixed radius approach, variable radius approach, client flow approach and geopolitical approach (Wong, Zhan & Mutter, 2005), or goods flow approach (Elzinga & Hogarty, 1973). The geopolitical approach and goods flow approach are to be considered the most appropriate for the delineation of the higher education market and market delineation is identified by the country's geographic borders (Rocens, 2008).

The markets analyzed are higher education study programmes with the exemption of doctoral study programmes (i.e. ISCED level 5) that are being implemented within the geographic borders of a particular country. The market participants among whom competition is being measured are state recognized higher education institutions in the respective countries that realize higher education programmes mentioned above.

2.2. Measuring the competition with classical tools

The classical competition measuring tools – Concentration ratio (CR_4) and Herfindahl-Hirschman index (HHI) were used to measure the competition intensity in the higher education markets. Those measuring tools are applicable in the higher education markets, adapting them especially with regards to methods of calculation of market share of higher education institutions. The market share can be calculated proportional to the number of students and not proportional to revenue as it is traditionally done in the economic analysis of markets. In accordance to Herfindahl-Hirschman index critical value for low concentration (HHI<1000) used in United States competition law[6], concentration of higher education market is low and competition is strong in 9 out of 14 countries included. In accordance to Concentration ratio critical values (CR_4<20%) (Samuelson, 1989), competition in higher education market is strong only in 1 out of 14 countries (Tab.1).

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[6]U.S.Department of Justice (www.usdoj.gov/atr/public/testimony/hhi.htm).

Country	CR$_4$	HHI	Number of students	Number of HEI
Germany	8.5%	89	1 979 043	387
Bulgaria	28.1%	399	237 909	51
Hungary	30.1%	424	408 564	71
Switzerland	34.6%	595	182 983	39
Denmark	36.8%	515	186 477	140
Lithuania	37.0%	552	198 519	50
Norway	37.8%	539	202 584	58
Belgium	40.4%	650	163 343	29
Latvia	45.5%	769	127 706	60
Austria	49.9%	1 010	268 555	50
Estonia	59.9%	1 192	68 767	35
Slovenia	82.7%	3 407	114 694	65
Iceland	90.5%	3 432	17 728	12
Malta	100.0%	10 000	9 500	1

Tab.1. Competition indicators in higher education sector, selected countries[7].

However, concentration ratio and Herfindahl-Hirschman index indicate a high mutual relationship. The type of regression curve is exponential; with an increase in the Concentration ratio values, the Herfindahl-Hirschman index values increase exponentially. Value of coefficient of determination is R^2=0.96 (Rocens, 2008). Consequently it could be concluded that critical values for these two indicators of competition intensity are not fully adequate in higher education sector. Compatibility can be reached if the lower critical value of Concentration ratio CR$_4$ is increased from 20% to at least 45%, or lower critical value of Herfindahl-Hirschman index HHI is reduced from 1000 to 300 points.

The application of the classical tools for measure the competition intensity has not succeeded in confirming the fact that the same causalities that are in force in other industries – higher level of competition demands more efficient functioning of the producers – are in force in the higher education sector. Analyzing the relationships between different indicators characterizing efficiency of higher education system and indicators of competition level in the higher education market, the correlation coefficients calculated were statistically insignificant or even indicate inverse causal relationships (Rocens, 2008).

2.3. The alternative measurement of competition in higher education
The deficiency of the classic measurement tools for the higher education markets requires the development of alternative tool for the measurement of competition. The Higher Education Competition index (HECI) was created based on methodology for industry analysis (Porter, 1980) and different practice samples for measuring the level of competition. The HECI has 27 sub-indices. Each of sub-indices corresponds to fixed factor characterized the market competition in Porter's model. Factors are adapted to Higher education sector and divided in 5 groups corresponding to Porter's five strengths:
– entry barriers,
– rivalry determinants,
– determinants of substitution threat,
– determinants of buyer power,
– determinants of supplier power.

This approach fully complies with the methodology applied in the annual reports by the World Economic Forum[8] for the comparison of the competitiveness of the countries while calculating the Global Competitiveness Index (Lopez-Claros a.o., 2006 and Sala-i-Martin a.o., 2009) as well as for the competitiveness comparison of the countries at the business level (Porter, Ketels & Delgado, 2006). Similar methodology is used in other applied research, e.g. for the approximation of the competitiveness of the States of Australia[9], in the evaluation of the competition between USA

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[7] Calculations are based on data provided by education ministries on breakdown of students in higher education institutions. The number of students was ascertained for the winter semester of the academic year 2006/2007.
[8] http://www.weforum.org/en/initiatives/gcp/index.htm
[9] The Competition Index 2004. A State-by-State Comparison. – Tasmania: Department of Treasury and Finance, 2005. – 84 p.

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newspapers (Lacy, Vermeer, 1995), and in the competition analysis within the USA health care system (Wong, Zhan & Mutter, 2005). It can be concluded that this approach of multi-component index allows obtaining evaluation of the competition intensity, which can successfully be further applied in practise (Rocens, 2010).

Values of sub-indices are achieved and Higher Education Competition index is calculated by experts' assessment. 126 experts from 18 European countries have assessed the separate values of HECI sub-indices to evaluate the level of competition in higher education. The experts were the academic and administrative staff of higher education institutions. Expert selection criteria – PhD or Doctor degree and 10 years experience at least. The experts' assessment for each of the 27 sub-indices is given in 10-point scale. According to the adherence of each sub-index to one of Porter's 5 forces' characteristic groups, they are transformed in corresponding values to calculate HECI as the average value.

Country	HECI	Number of experts	Cronbach's alpha
Bulgaria	5.04	7	0.839
Estonia	4.91	10	0.618
Lithuania	5.00	16	0.849
Slovenia	4.79	5	0.872
Latvia	4.77	8	0.802
Poland	4.75	5	0.795
Austria	4.71	4	0.738
Italy	4.65	14	0.656
Hungary	4.58	3	0.741
Germany	4.54	6	0.891
Denmark	4.44	6	0.747
Iceland	4.42	4	0.816
Belgium	4.37	3	0.800
Ireland	4.31	5	0.736
United Kingdom	4.31	8	0.766
Sweden	4.30	9	0.612
Norway	4.14	7	0.665
Switzerland	4.06	6	0.709

Tab.2. Higher Education Competition Index (HECI), selected countries, experts' assessment.

The valuation of the factors characterising the higher education competition gained through the experts' assessment allow calculating the Higher Education Competition index HECI (Tab.2). The inner coherence of the questions of the expert's questionnaire is approximated by Cronbach's alpha.

3. The influence of competition on higher education's efficiency
The indicators characterising the higher education efficiency can be divided in those regarding the input of the resource amount used for implementation of the higher education, and those regarding the output acquired.
The amount of resources used is determined by the study process implementation expenses, regardless of their source – whether public or private financing. As the education systems of the countries reviewed in the research include different schools and different numbers of students, the expenses are comparable per student. Separately there should be regarded the indicators measuring uselessly spent resources, e.g. expenses that have not attained any result. Such expenses should include the expenses that have occurred on students who have not finished their studies, as well as the proportion of jobless graduates in the total of unemployed people.
The evaluation of the benefit obtained within the higher education implementation process is a rather complex issue as it is hard to measure such factors as the quality of the education offered, especially, if there should be taken into account the huge variety of study programs. Yet, as in all countries included in the research there exists a quality evaluation system for higher education and the data are taken only for the state recognised schools and study programs, the research is neutral regarding education quality, assuming that all study programs comply with particular quality standard. The

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benefit obtained within the higher education implementation process is measured indirectly applying measurable indicators which characterise the impact of higher education on economy – economic development indicators, labour force productivity indicators etc.

The research does not include social aspects of education and the impact of the competition among higher education establishments on psychological, cultural and other social issues of individuals and the society in general.

To evaluate the influence of competition intensity on efficiency of higher education, correlations between values of HECI and indicators characterising the efficiency of higher education in different countries have been examined (Rocens, 2010).

Selected indicators of efficiency of higher education, which statistically show significantly close or fairly close correlation with intensity of competition, are:

−   annual expenditure per student – lower expenditure characterises higher efficiency of the higher education;

−   losses per student on the account of those, who have not finished studies – lower losses characterise higher efficiency of the higher education;

−   unemployment rate index for people with higher education in comparison to the total unemployment rate – lower index value means higher efficiency of the higher education;

−   GDP per inhabitant – larger value means higher economic development level;

−   GDP index (percentage change on previous period) – higher index means more rapid economic growth;

−   productivity index (percentage change on previous period) – higher index means more rapid economic growth.

Values of these indicators for the selected countries are shown in the Table 3.

Country	Annual expenditure per student (ISCED 5-6), EUR, PPS, 2005a00	Losses per student, EUR, PPS, mean of 2003-2005	Unemployment rate index (ISCED 5-6), 2008q01	GDP per inhabitant, EUR, PPS, 2008a00	GDP index, 2007a00	Productivity index, mean of 2001-2007
Austria	12813.4	606.46	0.61	32500	3.1	4.15
Belgium	10117.4	425.20	0.58	30000	2.8	2.97
Bulgaria	3642.2	208.84	0.43	10200	6.2	5.44
Denmark	12654.4	176.34	0.82	31000	1.8	2.98
Estonia	3337.5	340.16	0.75[10]	18600	7.1	9.41
Germany	10425.5	757.16	0.41	28900	2.5	3.41
Hungary	5353.1	395.01	0.34	16200	1.3	5.03
Iceland	8290.0	44.51	:	32400	3.8	3.52
Ireland	8855.5	:	0.62	37000	5.3	4.79
Italy	6785.6	81.15	0.72	25500	1.5	0.93
Latvia	3764.9	610.41	0.47	15100	10.3	8.30
Lithuania	3801.4	139.63	0.52	16100	8.8	7.45
Norway	13156.4	875.43	0.885	46900	3.7	5.76
Poland	4715.6	330.71	0.51	14200	6.6	4.71
Slovenia	7080.5	370.54	0.88	23100	6.1	5.79
Sweden	13489.7	1347.75	0.77	32200	2.7	4.52
Switzerland	:	:	0.685	35600	3.3	3.52
United Kingdom	12105.6	1224.53	0.57	29400	3.1	3.63

Tab.3. Indicators characterised the higher education efficiency, selected countries[11].

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[10]Unemployment data Estonia and Switzerland – 2007q02, Norway – 2007q04.

[11] Data source: Eurostat. Losses per student – calculations are based on Eurostat data. Productivity index = percentage change of previous period, calculated as mean of 2001-2007.

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There has been ascertained statistically significant correlation between HECI and selected indicators characterised the higher education efficiency (Table 4).

Indicator	Correlation	Significance
Annual expenditure per student	-0.80	0.99
Losses per student	-0.56	0.95
Unemployment rate index (ISCED 5-6)	-0.32	0.90
GDP per inhabitant	-0.85	0.99
GDP index	0.59	0.95
Productivity index	0.50	0.95

Tab.4. Correlation between HECI and indicators characterised the higher education efficiency[12].

So, it can be concluded that the competition among higher education establishments promotes the efficiency of the higher education system and indirectly also the state's economic development, therefore in the higher education administration more attention should be paid to activities for promotion of the competition among higher education establishments.

4. How to raise the competition

Education is economically important and socially sensitive branch, therefore in each developed country it is regulated by the state, and states finance the acquisition of education and administration of the education system. In most of the countries the education, especially the higher education, is more or less financed also from private sources – by students, employers, public organisations, Maecenas or foundations (Table 5).

Country	Private expenditures	All sources (combined public, private, and international expenditures)	Proportion of private expenditures
Australia	10965.2	18753.3	58.5%
Austria	529.95	3631.98	14.6%
Belgium	938.49	4802.36	19.5%
Canada	18162.86	39993.62	45.4%
Czech Republic	8273	44909.1	18.4%
Denmark	11908.57	39747.78	30.0%
Finland	126.06	2932.43	4.3%
France	5211.4	27528.4	18.9%
Germany	5750.11	27746.3	20.7%
Iceland	1393.78	15495.91	9.0%
Ireland	318.85	2242.19	14.2%
Italy	6081.56	15705.82	38.7%
Japan	5270431.5	7703030.53	68.4%
Korea	18788370.05	23696969.86	79.3%
Mexico	42972.41	138398.67	31.0%
Netherlands	2667.1	8791.69	30.3%
New Zealand	939.88	2737.98	34.3%
Norway	860	28425	3.0%
Poland	4901.5	15719.3	31.2%
Portugal	745.13	2545.42	29.3%
Slovak Republic	7800.4	20216.5	38.6%
Spain	2540.39	12077.03	21.0%
Sweden	4934	48039	10.3%
United Kingdom	12574.77	19052.06	66.0%
United States	292970.28	428255.28	68.4%

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[12]Research calculations.

Tab.5. Expenditure in tertiary level education by funding source, 2007, million of national currency, selected countries[13].

In most of the countries apart from the state universities there exist also private universities. Taking into account that the benefit provided by state and private schools does not differ, there should not be different state education administration policy towards them either. However, the reality is that the government, implementing the higher education administration, often has a different approach towards state and private schools. It distorts the competition and subsequently, according to the correlations obtained in the research, does not promote the efficiency of higher education.

The difference in government attitudes towards state and private universities in different countries has different manifestations. Analyzing the problems of fair competition in Latvia there has been concluded that it mostly regards a different approach to public funding for universities, government grants for students and the European Union funds available. In Latvia the state funding is allocated only to state universities (with a few minor exceptions), scholarships are awarded only to students attending the state-funded study places, which means students only in state universities, and the availability of European Union funds is limited for private universities. In the programming period from 2007 to 2013, of the total EU funds available for the education development, only 15% were planned to be granted within open call project tenders, while 85% were granted within a limited candidate selection, where mainly the state universities were invited (Table 6).

Level of education	Open call tenders	Limited candidate selection
Higher education and science	87 150 485	494 500 956
proportion	15.0%	85.0%
Professional education	11 764 706	123 003 963
proportion	8.7%	91.3%
General education	0	84 177 205
proportion	0.0%	100.0%
Lifelong learning, special education, education politics	28 890 489	51 691 361
proportion	35.9%	64.1%
Total	127 805 680	753 373 485
proportion	14.5%	85.5%

Tab.6. Division of EU funding for education in Latvia, 2007-2013, EUR 14.

The analysis of the situation in Latvia also shows that there are areas where the private universities are more advantageous. For example, the state universities have limited possibilities to manage their real estate; there are very slow budget and financing reallocation procedures, as well as time-consuming decision making procedures. Private universities, being free to handle their property and finance, use this to maintain their competitiveness regardless the privileged status of the state universities with regard to financing.
There are ascertained also the areas where Latvian government implements equal policy towards the state and private universities. Such is the common legislation and the common state-guaranteed student loan system, which ensures the commercial bank lending to students regardless of their university where they study. This approach which ensures equality in higher education increases the competition among universities and promotes the efficiency of the higher education system.
In order to ensure faster economic growth, the governments who have undertaken the endogenous growth course have to take care of human capital development. The higher education as the most vital builder of the quality national human resources needs to be in a particular focus, and one of the ways of promotion of the efficiency of higher education system is to increase the competition among universities.
A typical government error in nowadays circumstances, when the available resources are decreasing, is the concentration of the resources in particular areas of education and science, in specific regions or universities, as well as mergers of universities or similar study programs etc. This leads to monopoly in

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[13] Data source: OECD.
[14] Data source: calculations are based on data from Operational programme "Human Resources and Employment" and Operational programme "Infrastructure and Services", Ministry of finance, Republic of Latvia, 2007.

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particular sectors and does not contribute to the efficiency of higher education. In commerce the public support to individual producers is prohibited by EU competition law. Although higher education is not considered a commercial activity, there takes place the goods-money exchange between service providers (universities) and beneficiaries (students). In the situation with limited resources, governments should do the opposite - eliminate inequalities to the maximum and promote competition, which will result in higher efficiency of the system and thus in a greater contribution to economic development.

5. Conclusions

The classical indicators of competition intensity – Concentration ratio CR_4 and Herfindahl-Hirschman index HHI, show high mutual correlation in higher education sector, $R^2=0.96$. Yet their critical values are not fully adequate in higher education sector. Compatibility can be reached if the lower critical value of CR_4 is increased from 20% to at least 45%, or lower critical value of HHI is reduced from 1000 to 300 points. The use of classical indicators of competition intensity – CR_4 and HHI, for the evaluation of the influence of competition in higher education on higher education efficiency does not provide for statistically significant results.

The developed tool for measuring the competition intensity in higher education market – Higher Education Competition Index (HECI) has a statistically significant correlation with the indicators of higher education efficiency and economic growth.

There can be ascertained a close correlation between HECI and higher education expenditure (Correlation index R=-0.80), as well as fairly close correlation between HECI and losses in the higher education (R=-0.56), employability of the people with higher education (R=-0.32),

the rate of economic growth (R=-0.59) and the increase of labour force productivity (R=0.50). There exists a close correlation between the competition in the higher education and the level of state economic development – in less-developed countries the level of competition is higher, while in higher-developed countries it is lower (R=-0.85).

Higher education has a key role in national economic growth. In the situation with decreasing available resources, it is important to maximize efficiency. The efficiency gain in higher education is contributed to by increased competition among universities, so in the higher education administration there should be taken measures to prevent different financing principles, to lessen of operational differences, and to ensure equal conditions. This will increase the competition among universities; the higher education system will become more efficient and will have a positive impact on economic growth.

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Total Quality Management Framework for Teachers' Continuous Professional Development

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Abstract

The system created by American Management theoretician W.E. Deming is based on 14 management principles and can be applied and related to any production and service sector, including education. Total Quality Management fundamentally changes the understanding of the essence of quality: if previously the quality was the highest peak to strive to, then starting from the end of the 20th century it has been considered as a dynamic development-subjected relation system and management subject. The aim of this article is to adapt the methodology of Total Quality Management for teachers' further education on the grounds of the analysis of scientific literature. The quality cycle *plan-do-check-act* creates the frame structure to ensure the quality and efficiency of the system.

Key words: management,continuous professional development (CPD), teachers' further education, Total Quality Management (TQM)

Introduction

The management, by means of its influence and significance, today is being considered equivalent to the most powerful technologies transforming the world. It has been called one of the most valuable innovations in the last century.[1, 259]

The management is a purposeful formation and arrangement of the company, ensuring its existence and development, interaction among the employees and the manager, power relations defined by the company resources, owners' interests and goals.[2, 240] The people are the most important resource helping to use other resources – knowledge, finances, raw materials, etc., thus to manage.[3,15] The management is a flexible managing process of socially economical processes under the market economy conditions. It is a theory and practice of production and consumption management, which ensures the functioning and development of companies, effectively implementing their goals.[4,84] It is a combination of methods, principles, means and forms of action in order to change an unorganized group of people into an effective, active organization and achieve a common goal constantly raising work efficiency.[5] The task of management is to create an effective organization (unit, team, company, institution, etc.) and manage it according to variable conditions.[6,3]

The theoretical basis of management is formed of principles which develop through historical change of business environment and context. The practical application of management consists of planning, organizing, managing, control and change adjustments in all levels of company activity and all departments. Nowadays it is common to divide the management as follows:

- traditional management, where activity, staff, administration, motivation, management system, etc. are viewed separately;
- process management, where management is viewed as a process: goal setting – planning – organizing – motivating – coordination – control. Process development or algorithm is brought to the forefront of the organization's management;
- situation management**,** when methods, forms and means of management can be changed depending on the situation. The organization is looking for the most significant factors affecting the activity which may ensure a dynamic development strategy;
- system management, when the organization is considered as a system with its own „entrance" (goals, tasks), „exit" (results), feedback (among staff and management; organization and supplier; managers and managing director; organization and clients; organization and consumers, etc.), external influence factors (competitors, legislation, cultural environment, technologies, economic environment, etc.)[7, 212].

The system is a definite whole formed of interrelated parts, which altogether characterize the whole itself. The system approach is a methodology researching the objects as systems. Since the '50s the system approach is applied in management. This approach views any organization as closed or open totality of subsystems with an external environment and internal structure.[8, 32] Both educational

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management and teachers' further education management are systems with certain goals, tasks and achieved results.

All management theories, starting from classical Taylor and Fayol concepts, more or less successfully, are also suitable for education, state the educational researchers Culbertson (1980), Hughes (1985), Bush (1991), Glatter (1999). Therefore, researching educational management as well as further educational management, the development of total management history should be taken into account, starting from classical management to modern management theories.

The latest management theories variously emphasize some certain management aspect, however they all agree on the importance of quality. *Total Quality Management (TQM)* is a management strategy, where the goal in all the activity directions of the organization is quality development focusing on maximal satisfaction of client's needs with minimal resources.

W. E. Deming (1900-1993) and Total Quality Management (TQM)
The development of management as a branch of science was enabled by changes in technology development and the beginning of global economic competition in the mid-'80s. Japanese government and businessmen renewing the war-torn economy of the country chose to acquire and put into practice the management theories and practical guidelines of Joseph Juran, Armand Feigenbaum and W.E.Deming, acknowledging the axiom in production of goods that employees who are able to accept and make creative changes themselves can improve the product quality the most. Thus a common goal is set to all participants of the process – continuous quality improvement. The second finding – all employees who are engaged in creation of product or service are responsible for the quality of the final product and consumer satisfaction with it. [10, 665] Japanese economy management is widely accepting new quality management principles, which replace the compliance with standards as the main product quality control mechanism in the system. [11, 634]

William Edwards Deming (1900-1993), Doctor of Mathematics at Yale University, in 1980's and 1990's becomes a world-recognized authority in management issues. His theory of Total Quality Management (TQM) and many examples of practical analysis were published in 1982 in the book *„Out of the crisis"*. This is a philosophy of quality creation and promotion based on consumer needs and expectations with a focus on continuous improvement. It emphasizes the efficient use of resources, which reduce costs of the final product and increase its value.

TQM is a methodology aimed to ensure a constant quality level by involving in this process all employees of the organization with an aim to ensure its successful long term existence. TQM changes the understanding of the essence of quality: if previously the quality was the highest peak to strive to, then starting from the end of the 20th century it has been considered as a dynamic development-subjected relation system and management subject.

TQM differs from other management theories in three aspects:
1) **holystics** – it is present in every aspect of the organization's activity, relations and process, thus ensuring coordination and wholeness;
2) its activity is based on **values** – it introduces moral imperative in management, which can be considered essential, especially in context of education for students and youth;
3) it promotes the **communication** component management of the involved organizations taking into account the mutual dependence of the organization and context.[12]

Since 1980's TQM has rapidly spread in the world, its basic principles are widely applied and adapted in different branches of economy and service sector, implementing effective management in different institutions, companies and organizations. The experience of Japan and USA was taken over by Finland, Ireland, New Zealand that gained rapid success in different fields.[13,4] Since the '90s the effective administration and management ideas have been taken over and adapted to the field specifics in health, social and education sphere. However, the use of this quality management system is quite difficult process in fields where the final product is hard to be measured statistically.

In Europe in order to master and promote the TQM methodology the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) was established in 1988, which in cooperation with the European Commission and European Organization for Quality founded the European Quality Award in 1990, which is the equivalent of Deming and USA Baldridge National Quality Award in Europe. The ISO quality standards

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of the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) based on the Deming cycle and focused on the improvement of organization processes are equally important. Since 1993 these quality management systems entitled LVS EN ISO 9000:2000, LVS EN ISO 9001:2000, LVS EN ISO 9004:2000 are approbated also in Latvia.

In 2003 the EFQM Excellence Model is created, which can be adjusted to different organizations, institutions and companies if appropriate criteria are worked out, as well as national, regional and field specifics are taken into account. The following countries have created their own models in education sector: Denmark (KWIK), Germany (LQW, QES plus, QVB), France (AFNOR), Spain (INECSE), Slovakia (Q-FOR), Belgium (ESTQM) and others. Also the Latvian Quality Award has been worked out in accordance with the principles of the EFQM Excellence Model. [14,67-68]

Theoretical and Practical Aspects of Educational Management

In Great Britain the educational management as an independent discipline is developing since 1960's. In the USA the upsurge of educational management is related to the popularity of W.E.Deming's TQM concept in 1990's. Nowadays the state programs of educational administration and management are successfully operating in many countries – Australia, Sweden, USA, Canada, New Zealand and Singapore. The differences exist depending on the educational institution's or organization's empowerment to solve management issues themselves – level of decentralization, which is defined in the legislation of every country. The Researcher of Educational Management T. Bush acknowledges that good management and qualification of educational managers in conditions of modern globalization significantly affect the results of educational work. [15, 10]

As the educational management becomes an independent discipline, its practitioners and theoreticians develop their alternative management models based on experience and observations in educational system. In the mid-'90s there are long scientific discussions about the relations between the TQM and educational management. A part of educational management scientists think that the principles of total management theory are functioning well also in educational management (Handy, 1984, p.26). Therefore it is important also for managers in the field of education to acquire financial management, human resource management, cooperation skills with the clients and society – functions that are important in every management system.[16, 26] But R.Glatter (Glatter,1997, pp.187-8) notes that it is difficult to apply TQM principles in education. There are several arguments that indicate the necessity of a different approach in education. T.Bush (Bush, 2008,14) formulates the factors that define the different approach in educational management issues:

1) difficulties to set goals and precisely measure their implementation;
2) classification of children or youth as „clients" or „results" of educational institutions;
3) level of autonomy required in teacher's work;
4) those who are involved in management have little time for managing this work.

Comparing with production and business, the goals of education can be formulated quantitatively only partially. The results of value education and upbringing are difficult to measure in numbers. Adding students or teachers to the category of „clients" thus creating an association with production is difficult because of the complex character of their needs that are also impossible to formulate in precise measurement units. The work specifics of a teacher include individual planning, performance and responsibility for the work done. This required level of autonomy affects the solutions of the organization's management issues.

As the main task of the educational institution is to ensure an effective teaching and learning, those who are engaged in educational management are disturbed by the necessity and requirements to concentrate on ensuring of the specific educational activity.[17, 14] Thus, it can be said that in education these issues are more important than finances, marketing and human resource management.

Nowadays, we are familiar with several researches on educational management models – Cuthbert (1984), Bolman& Deal (1997), Morgan (1997), Bush (1986,1995, 2003, 2008). One of the first classifications belongs to R.Cuthbert, who systematizes educational models in five groups: analytically rational, pragmatically rational, political, phenomenological and interactionist models. He has created this classification on the basis of the following criteria:

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- agreement level of organization's members on the common goals of their activity;
- thought diversity regarding the ways how the results of the common activity might be assessed;
- different opinions regarding the concept of organization structure and its significance.[18, 28]

Bush on the basis of research on educational management practice in contemporary British schools classifies six educational management models: *formal, collegial, political, subjective, ambiguity* un *cultural* model. In this classification the differences among models are defined by four criteria:
- agreement level on the institution's strategic or operational goals (e.g., opinions regarding quality improvement);
- importance of the organization's inner structures and confidence in them (emphasis on the structure points out importance of the role, considering human personality as minor);
- relations between the organization and its external environment (context);
- leadership strategy, which is supported within the organization.[19,32-33]

In the course of time in educational researches, evaluating the compliance of management theories with the needs of educational management, W.E.Deming's Total Quality Management has been acknowledged as one of the most appropriate (West-Burnham, 2002; Bush, 2008; Bush & Middlewood, 1997; Foskett, 2002). It motivates to develop opportunities to adapt this management concept also for teachers' further education.

Application of Total Quality Management in teachers' further education
The main objective of any management is to continuously form and develop institution as a system. Deming announces that his contribution lies in systematization of management ideas done by critically evaluating and summarizing previously accumulated but separate knowledge. Aimed at developing a new economical structure (not for transformation of the existing one).[21, 6] W.E. Deming develops a management system, which is based on 14 management principles to be applied and related to any production sector or public services provided by state (health care, postal services, education etc.), large or small institutions. He accentuates that the development principles are the same in both the production and public service profiles. The difference lies in the particular application, in the same way as products are different in various fields [22,183]. Though, disparities arise in the circumstance that the activity of institutions providing public services most often are not related to free-market economy - there is no competition between them. Another factor worth considering is - the employees working in the production area do their work with certainty that the product they create will be used by somebody, yet those working in the service sector accomplish their work without having this conviction.[23, 23-96]

The technological process is what lies at the heart of production but in public service sector, which from the economical aspects includes also education; the functions are the core element. The objective of the state is to ensure social justice. Consequently, it is necessary to evaluate what are functions of national education system and how it contributes to the society's well-being. W.E. Deming considers that employees of the public service have to be evaluated according to criteria of justice and performance. He emphasizes that in order to be applicable the normative acts of state institution as well as the standards for a production process should include explanation of functions as their conformity can be seen by using the notions of control and criteria. [24, 189]

Application of W.E.Deming's TQM principles to education gained wide acceptance in 1990's. William Glasser's (1998) version of application of TQM principles which aimed at improvement of quality of the study process becomes one of the most renowned. Fitzgerald, who is one of the implementers of Deming's system into education, concludes that quality of activity of any company or institution depends on continuity of process.[26] Deming's management principles are widely interpreted by Bonstingl (1992)to improve educational practices. [25, 12-24]

On the basis of Deming`s 14 points for management (Deming,1994, pp.23.-24.) and Bonstingl`s 14 points for quality in education (Bonstingl, 1992,pp.77.-82.) the author has adapted these principles to be applicable to management of teachers' further education system (see Table 1):

Table 1

1.	**Management:** Create constancy of purpose toward improvement of produce and service, with the aim to become competitive and to stay in business, and to provide jobs.
	Education: School must focus on helping students to maximize their own potentials through continuous improvement of teachers` and students` work together. Maximization of test scores and assessment symbols is less important than the progress inherent in the continuous learning process of each student.
	Further education: The management of further education needs to have sustainable development vision. It has to be based on clear strategy and aimed at continuous and constant improvement and development of all system units. The main indicator of efficiency is improvement of learning process in schools.
2.	**Management:** Adopt the new philosophy. We are in a new economic age. Western management must awaken to the challenge, must learn their responsibilities, and take on leadership for change.
	Education: School leaders must adopt and fully support the new philosophy of continuous improvement through greater empowerment of teacher-student teams. Cynical application of the new philosophy for the sole intent of improving districtwide test scores destroys interpersonal trust, which is essential to success.
	Further education: Further education needs to follow the new philosophy that reflects current tendencies. Further education management system has to be open to novelties, creative ideas and innovations. It has to ensure feedback exchange with teacher training institutions (universities, colleges), schools, teachers and society.
3.	**Management:** Cease dependence on inspection to achieve quality. Eliminate the need for inspection on a mass basis by building quality into the product in the first place.
	Education: Reliance on tests as the major means of assessment of student production is inherently wasteful and often neither reliable nor authentic. It is too late at the end of the unit to assess students` progress if the goal is to maximize their productivity. Learning is best shown by students` performance, applying information and skills to real- life challenges. Students must be taught to assess their own educational processes.
	Further education: Quality measurements (researches, assessment and self-assessment) have to be used instead of control at all stages throughout the system. The system has to support creativity thus promoting satisfaction for the effort invested.
4.	**Management:** End the practice of awarding business on the basis of price tag. Instead, minimize total cost. Move toward a single supplier for any one item, on a long-term relationship of loyalty and trust.
	Education: Build relationships of trust and collaboration within the school, and between the school and community. Everyone`s roles as supplier and customer must be recognized and honoured. Work together whenever possible to maximize the potentials of students, teachers, administrators, and the community.
	Further education: Relationships among employees and clients (teachers, implementers of professional development programmes, education programme directors of higher education establishments) have to be built on the basis of mutual trust and interest-based cooperation. It is essential to be oriented towards sustainable organization of management allowing to determine the role of each individual and the value of his/her contribution in accomplishment of common goals.
5.	**Management:** Improve constantly and forever the system of production and service, to improve quality and productivity, and thus constantly decrease costs.
	Education: School administrators must create and maintain the context in which teachers are empowered to make continuous progress in the quality of their learning and other aspects of personal development, while they learn valuable lessons from failures.
	Further education: Undertake regular audit of the functions of management system itself thus creating favourable conditions for teachers' professional development.
6.	**Management:** Institute training on the job.

	Education: School leaders must institute programs of training for new employees unfamiliar with the specific culture and expectations of the school. Teachers must also institute programmes in which students learn how to set learning goals, how to be more effective in their school work, and how to assess the quality of their own work. Teachers should show students by attitude and actions what a good *learner* is all about.
	Further education: The actors working within the system have to be actively involved in life-long learning. Further education system has to flexibly facilitate young professionals entering the system and promote collaboration with teachers already working in the field.
7.	**Management:** Institute leadership. The aim of supervision should be to help people and machines and gadgets to do a better job. Supervision of management is in need of overhaul, as well as supervision of production workers.
	Education: School leadership consists of working with teachers, parents, students and members of the community as coach and mentor so that the organizational context in which all students` growth and improvement are valued and encouraged can be maximized by teachers and students, parents, and community members who support the common effort.
	Further education: The system management has to be based on Humanistic education and democratic cooperation principles. The essence of management lies in providing constructive help and support in order to achieve common goals of the organization.
8.	**Management:** Drive out fear, so that everyone may work effectively for the company.
	Education: Fear is counterproductive in school as it is in the workplace. Institutional changes must reflect shared power, shared responsibility, and shared rewards.
	Further education: Develop effective motivational and reward system. Organization's overall culture should be characterized by shared power, responsibility, and interest of all employees in results and a feeling of satisfaction.
9.	**Management:** Break down barriers between departments. People in research, design, sales, and production must work as a team, to foresee problems of production and in use that may be encountered with the product or service.
	Education: Teacher and student productivity is enhanced when departments combine talents to create integrated opportunities for learning and discovery. Create cross-departmental and multi-level quality teams to break down role and status barriers to productivity.
	Further education: It is necessary to develop a sustainable cooperation system involving all stakeholders who take interest in results of further education. Meaningful information exchange on any of management levels will promote ensuring high quality continuous professional development for teachers that is considered to be as the main aim of existence of continuous professional development system.
10.	**Management:** Eliminate slogans, exhortations, and targets for the work force asking for zero defects and new levels of productivity. Such exhortations only create adversarial relationships, as the bulk of the causes of low quality and low productivity belong to the system and thus lie beyond the power of the work force.
	Education: Teachers, students, administrators, families and community members may collectively arrive at slogans and exhortations to improve their work together, as long as power, responsibility, and rewards are equitably distributed. When education goals are not met, fix the system instead of fixing blame on individuals.
	Further education: The system must be ensure that further education would offer continuous professional development being congruent with national priorities in education and teacher professional development needs acknowledged by schools. If the expected results are not achieved it is the system failure not fault of separate individuals.
11.	**Management:** a. Eliminate work standards (quotas) on the factory floor. Substitute leadership. b. Eliminate management by objective. Eliminate management by numbers, numerical goals. Substitute leadership.
	Education: When the grade becomes the bottom-line product, short-term gains replace student investment in long-term learning, and this may prove counterproductive in the long run.

	Further education: There is a necessity for scientifically reasoned indicators for evaluation of effectiveness of both – further education management system and teacher professional development. The results have to be analyzed by using not only quantitative but also qualitative methods.
12.	**Management:** a. Remove barriers that rob the hourly worker of his right to pride of workmanship. The responsibility of supervisors must be changed from sheer numbers to quality. b. Remove barriers that rob people in management and in engineering of their right to pride of workmanship. This means, inter alia, abolishment of the annual or merit rating and of management by objective.
12.	**Education:** Teachers and students generally want to do good work and feel pride in it. Schools must dedicate themselves to removing the system causes of teacher and student failure through close collaborative efforts.
12.	**Further education:** It is necessary to develop an effective social image for the field of education. Recognizing individuals for their accomplishments is important. The result of further education management – teacher professional development- is affected also by the social, economical, political environment.
13.	**Management:** Institute a vigorous programme of education and self-improvement.
13.	**Education:** Administrators, teachers, and students require continuous learning programs. All of the school`s people benefit from encouragement to enrich their education by exploring ideas and interests beyond the boundaries of their professional and personal worlds.
13.	**Further education:** Development and improvement of education and qualification has to be constant and uninterrupted. Ensuring the effectiveness of organization's activities is a continuous improvement process.
14.	**Management:** Put everybody in the company to work to accomplish the transformation. The transformation is everybody`s job.
14.	**Education:** School personnel at all levels (including students) must put this new philosophy into action so it becomes imbedded into the deep structure and culture of the school. Teachers and students alone cannot put the plan into effect.
14.	**Further education:** For successful implementation of changes it is necessary to combine the efforts of all actors on all organizational levels to contribute to achieving the planned goals and ensure quality.
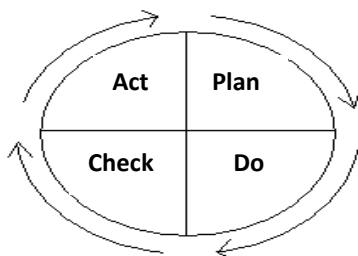
The implementation of quality principles of total quality management is ensured by the so-called „Deming circle"– management cycle - plan - do- check- act.

The idea first occurred already at the end of 1930s in the USA, when W.A. Shewart first wrote about the particular stages of production quality. Deming accentuates that his TQM system is based on this methodology. [30, 88]

The cycle gets its name „Deming circle" in Japan in 1950s, where the reorganization of entrepreneurship and production management system was initiated under Deming's lead.

The first stage of the management cycle – planning – means acknowledging information in the possession of the company simultaneously determining whether it is sufficient. This stage contributes to formulation of goals and objectives, action planning, employee training and planning and provision of necessary resources. For successful implementation of teachers' further education at this stage it is essential to consider teachers' professional development needs as well as national and EU's education policy priorities and recommendations.

The second stage is devoted to accomplishment of work, which means putting plans into practice: projects, seminars, training courses etc. If necessary, the changes and amendments to action programmes and plans have to be introduced flexibly and effectively.

The third stage is an unprescribable part of the whole Deming circle, as evaluation has to take place simultaneously in all stages of the management system: the quality of planning, content, forms and implementation is subjected to evaluation. At the end of the cycle – evaluation (checking) by opposing the accomplished results to the goals previously assigned.

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The fourth stage – taking action – means ensuring the development process by improving the acknowledged shortcomings thus gaining better results and eliminating possible problems in the next cycle. It means that the process after evaluation and improvement recurrently continues (plan-do-check-act).

Conclusions

Management, by means of its influence and significance, today is being considered equivalent to the most powerful technologies transforming the world.

TQM is a philosophy and a methodology directed towards ensuring constant quality level in any field, including education.

Research results in education management allow concluding that TQM lies on the bases of the most significant contemporary educational management concepts.

Using the structure proposed by W.E. Deming's cycle can contribute to the functionality of the system in further education management.

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